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Czech Equivalents of English –ing Forms in Fiction

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Z á s a d y   p r o   v y p r a c o v á n í :

Cílem práce je srovnání výskytu různých -ingových tvarů v angličtině a distribuce jejich ekvivalentních vyjádření v češtině, a to na paralelních textech umělecké literatury. Na základě studia odborné lingvistické literatury studentka formálně vymezí kategorie gerundia a participia a shrne veškeré potenciální syntaktické funkce těchto struktur. Zároveň v této části načrtne možnosti českých ekvivalentů těchto struktur. V části výzkumné potom na zvoleném textu umělecké literatury zmapuje výskyt jednotlivých typů především ve vztahu k jejich syntaktickým funkcím. Na překladu stejného díla do češtiny bude analyzovat vztah k českým ekvivalentům. V závěru shrne nejčastější výskyty i jejich ekvivalenty v opačném jazyce.

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ABSTRACT

The bachelor paper focuses on the occurrence of the English gerund and the participle in relation to their syntactic functions in the fictional literature. The attention is also paid to the Czech equivalents of these –ing forms. The selected English text from fiction is analysed in the paper and compared with its Czech translation. The valency, the gradience, the language typology, the Czech translation of the English –ing forms and the fictional style are described because they relate to the subject of the bachelor paper.

KEYWORDS

valency; -ing; gerund; participle; syntactic function; gradience; fiction; Czech equivalent

NÁZEV

České ekvivalenty anglických –ingových tvarů v umělecké literatuře

SOUHRN

Bakalářská práce se soustředí na výskyt anglického gerundia a participia ve vztahu k jejich syntaktickým funkcím ve fiktivní literatuře. Pozornost je věnována českým ekvivalentům těchto –ing tvarů. V práci je analyzován zvolený anglický text z fiktivní literatury a porovnán s jeho českým překladem. V bakalářské práci je popsána valence, gradient, jazyková typologie, český překlad anglických –ing forem a fiktivní styl, protože se vztahují k tématu práce.

KLÍČOVÁ SLOVA

valence; -ing; gerundium; participium; syntaktická funkce; gradient; fikce; český ekvivalent

Contents

1. Introduction

This bachelor paper focuses on the occurrence of the English gerund and the participle in relation to their syntactic functions in the fictional literature. The attention is also paid to the Czech equivalents of these –ing forms. The selected English text from fiction analysed in this paper is used to examine the syntactic functions of the –ing forms found in the text and to make a comparison with its Czech translation.

The theoretical part looks at the valency patterns, the gerund, the participle, the gradience, the language typology, the Czech translation of the English –ing forms and the fictional style.

Great attention is paid to the English gerund and the participle. Firstly, the English gerund is defined and its possible syntactic functions in a sentence listed with their description. The syntactic functions are demonstrated in provided sentences. Secondly, the English participle is defined and its possible syntactic functions in a sentence listed with their description. The syntactic functions are also demonstrated in provided sentences. In addition, the Czech translation of the English gerund and the participle is discussed. The professional English and Czech linguistic literature is used to help to develop the theoretical part.

The practical part describes the –ing forms in fiction, the occurrence of the gerund in fiction, the occurrence of the participle in fiction and the English –ing forms replaced by the Czech equivalents in more detail.

The analysis of the selected English text from the fictional literature is made. The analysis provides the findings of the occurrence of the English gerund and the participle in fiction in relation to their syntactic functions. The relation of the English –ing forms to their Czech equivalents is presented on the Czech translation of the selected text.

The final part provides a summary of the syntactic functions of the English gerundial and the participial –ing forms, which occur in the selected text most frequently together with the most frequent Czech equivalents. The final part also provides the comments on the hypotheses.

The aim of the paper is to prove that „There will be more gerunds than participles in fiction." and „There will be fewer Czech non-finite verbs of the same or the similar meaning (group A) than Czech finite verbs of the same or the similar meaning (group C) when translating into Czech."

2. Valency

In linguistics, valency is "the number of grammatical elements that a word, especially a verb, combines with in a sentence." (Hornby 2005: 1692)

The Czech author describes the valency as the ability of words (especially verbs) to combine with other words. (Klimeš 1995: 824)

In the following part, Biber describes valency patterns and adds that there are also verbs that can appear in other valency patterns. The valency patterns are the patterns of sentence elements, such as a subject, a verb, a direct object, an indirect object, a subject complement, an object complement, an adverbial, etc. The verbs can be combined with the five main clause patterns. The patterns are exemplified for better imagination.

The first pattern includes the intransitive verbs. They appear in the Subject-Verb pattern only. There is no further sentence element necessary, for example Object or Predicative complement.

/More people / came.   /S/V

The following three patterns, a monotransitive, a ditransitive and a complex transitive, need an object. These patterns are called the transitive patterns.

The second pattern includes the monotransitive verbs. They appear in the Subject-Verb-direct Object pattern. There is a direct Object necessary.

/She / carried / a long whippy willow twig.   /S/V/O$_d$

The third pattern includes the ditransitive verbs. They appear in the Subject-Verb-indirect Object-direct Object pattern. There are two objects necessary (an indirect Object and a direct Object).

/Fred Unsworth / gave / her / a huge vote of confidence.   /S/V/O$_i$/O$_d$

The fourth pattern includes the complex transitive verbs. They appear in the Subject-Verb-direct Object-object Predicative pattern. There is a direct Object necessary followed by an object Predicative (a noun phrase or an adjective). (Dušková uses the object complement instead of the object predicative (2006: 350, 586)) The complex transitive verbs may also appear in the Subject-Verb-direct Object-Adverbial pattern. There is a direct Object necessary followed by an adverbial.

It was natural to / call / them / photons.   (S)/V/O$_d$/P$_o$

He reached out to / put / his hand / on the child's shoulder.   (S)/V/O$_d$/A

The fifth pattern includes the copular verbs. They appear in the Subject-Verb-subject Predicative pattern. The subject Predicative may be a noun, an adjective or a prepositional phrase. (Quirk uses the subject complement instead of the subject predicative (1985: 1063)) The copular verbs may also appear in the Subject-Verb-Adverbial pattern. The adverbial is usually a circumstance adverbial.

/Carrie / felt / a little less bold.   /S/V/P$_s$

I wasn't planning on / staying / at Terry and Lindsey's.   (S)/V/A

 (Biber et al. 1999: 380-1)

It is clear from the examples above that the verbs (intransitive; transitive – monotransitive, ditransitive, complex transitive; copular) determine which other sentence elements must occur in a sentence. The subject and the verb are obligatory sentence elements as the part of the fixed English word order. (Dušková et al. 2006: 349)

The following part concerns the syntactic functions of the gerund and the participle. The sentence elements in different syntactic functions complete the verbs and together they are the examples of different valency patterns.

2.1. Definition and syntactic functions of the English Gerund

The gerund is "the word derived from a verb is used as a noun, as in *smoking is forbidden.*" (Crystal 1985: 221)

The gerund is an expression having an –ing ending. The English gerund with a determiner or an adjective acts like a noun. The gerund has the ability to combine with the sentence elements, such as a subject, an object, an adverb or an adverbial phrase. This ability is valid for the verbs. (Peters 2004: 228)

Only two definitions are provided from two different authors. The gerund covers two word classes and it is important to understand the difference between them. The Peters's explanation of the gerund may be more useful for the reader because he

mentions two word classes and other related characteristics. The detailed description of the gerund is provided in 2.3. Gradience, Gerund – Verb and Noun.

Gerund	Active voice	Passive voice
present (for present process)	asking	being asked
perfect (for process preceding another process)	having asked	having been asked

The gerund has nominal and verbal characteristics. The process is expressed with a noun not with a verb when using the gerund. The Czech does not have the gerund at all but the gerund is very popular in English.

(Knotková 1986: 233-4)

The nominal and the verbal characteristics are described in 2.3. Gradience, Gerund and Participle.

The English gerund and its syntactic functions:

2.1.1. Subject

The gerund can be a subject of a verb that affects a mental and an emotional state, for example *depress* and a subject of the copular verb. The gerund with –ing form expresses the process, the verb process or the fact. The agent of the gerund process can be expressed by the subject gerund, by the general agent, by the animate agent, by the possessive form (a pronoun in the initial position) or by the non-possessive form called a „fused participle", for example *Women saying things like that revolts me.* The gerund as the subject may occur in the extraposition. The introductory *it, there* are used in the place of the subject. The gerund as the subject may occur after the existential construction *there is.* (Dušková et al. 2006: 571-2) Quirk adds that the extraposition of the gerund as the subject is rare. The gerund can take the possessives and also some other determiners, for example *this, that*. The negative determiners *no, any* can appear before the –ing form in the existential construction and a modal auxiliary can be used for the interpretation denying the possibility. (1985: 1064, 1066) (also Dušková et al. 2006: 572) Biber gives an example with the general agent, *Having a fever is pleasant, vacant.* (1999: 199)

2.1.2. Direct object

Some verbs take the gerund as a direct object and this form can be replaced by the infinitive in the same function, as an object. They both have slightly different meanings in use, for example verbs *remember, regret* or *stop*. The gerund is more general, its aim is the process and does not relate to an individual case. Also the full subordinate clause can be used instead of the gerund as the direct object. For example *Do you mind my opening the window. Do you mind if I open the window?* In fact, the gerund can be placed after the verbs that are able to take nouns in the function of an object and expressing the process. The agent of the gerund process can also be expressed by the possessive or the objective/non-possessive form, for example *They joked about Jim's/his-Jim/him being hen-pecked.* The non-possessive form, a fused participle as mentioned before, is not the correct form. (Dušková et al. 2006: 432-3, 573-5) Biber gives an example of the gerund as the direct object *I started thinking about Christmas.* in which the agent of the gerund process is identical with the subject of the main clause (1999: 200)

2.1.3. Prepositional object

The intransitive, the monotransitive and the complex transitive verbs with the preposition can take the gerund, for example *concentrate on –ing, succeed in –ing.* The complex transitive verbs with the direct object can take the gerund as a prepositional object, for example *prevent sb from –ing.* (Dušková et al. 2006: 575) *No-one could rely on his going to bed early last night.* is an example of the gerund as the prepositional object. The agent of the gerund process has the possessive form. (Biber et al. 1999: 200) Dušková adds that the gerund can occur after the preposition of the verb in passive voice that expresses the influence on the mental and the emotional state, for example *be puzzled at/by –ing.* (2006: 575)

2.1.4. Subject complement

The gerund as a subject complement is an –ing form that completes the verb *to be,* for example *That's asking too much.* Using the verb *to be* with the –ing subject complement is misleading because it looks like a continuous form. The –ing form acts

as an adjective, for example *It's trying to be honest.* The gerund as the subject complement may act after the preposition or after the copular verb too, for example *He is not above lending a hand.* (Dušková et al. 2006: 572-3) *Her first job had been selling computers.,* Quirk calls *selling computers* the subject complement (1985: 1063) and Biber describes this –ing complement clause acting as a subject predicative in the post-predicate position and giving more information about the subject of the main clause. (1999: 199, 659, 739).

2.1.5. Modifier

The gerund as a modifier of a noun may have two roles. The first role is the gerund as a premodifier of a noun, for example *swimming pool, flying time.* The participial premodification is different from the gerundial premodification and will be mentioned later on in 2.2.3. Modifier. For example, they are semantically different. The difference can be seen when paraphrasing, for example *swimming pool* is the gerund because it is *a pool for swimming.* (Dušková et al. 2006: 577) The English gerund as the premodifier of the noun acts as an adjective. (Knotková 1986: 55)

The second role is the gerund as a postmodifier of a noun after the preposition, for example *fear of -ing, necessity of -ing.* The *that*-clause or the infinitive may function as a replacement of the postmodifier. (Dušková et al. 2006: 577-8)

2.1.6. Prepositional complement

Biber calls this function as a complement of preposition (1999: 200) and Quirk as a prepositional complement, for example *I'm responsible for drawing up the budget.* (1985: 1063). The gerund as the complement is frequently placed after the adjective and it is called the adjective complement. If the preposition is involved, the gerund will be after the adjective and the preposition, for example *aware of –ing.* (Dušková et al. 2006: 576)

2.1.7. Adjective complement

As Dušková mentioned, the gerund as the adjective complement appears after the adjective. (2006: 576) It is an adjectival complementation, for example *They are busy*

preparing a barbecue. (Quirk et al. 1985: 1063) and a part of adjective phrase according to Biber (1999: 200).

2.1.8. Adverbial

The gerund may occur after the preposition as an adverbial determination in the adverbial clause. Dušková describes the following semantic roles: adverbials of time, manner, comparison, instrument, accompanying circumstance, reason, purpose and result, for example an adverbial of time *On my entering the room all conversation stopped.* The gerund as the adverbial with the omitted preposition may occur. This statement is valid for the gerund expressing a goal after the verbs of motion, for example *Do you often go swimming?* (Dušková et al. 2006: 578-9)

2.2. Definition and syntactic functions of the English Participle

Crystal defines the participle as "a traditional grammatical term referring to a word derived from a verb and used as an adjective, as in *a laughing face.*" The participle represents a non-finite form of a verb. The term '–ing form' is rather used than the term 'present' participle. (1985: 221-2)

According to Peters, English has the present participle with the –ing ending. He also states that the 'present' is not correct name because it can express the present tense. The participle can be used in the function of an adjective to a noun or to introduce an -ing clause. He reminds that the -ing ending looks the same as the English verbal noun and refers to the gerund. (2004: 281, 409)

Both definitions are useful for the reader but the Peters's definition is more specific to understand this grammatical term. The detailed description of the participle is provided in 2.3. Gradience, Participle – Verb and Adjective.

Participle	Active voice	Passive voice
present (for present process)	writing not writing	being written not being written
perfect (for process preceding another	Simple – having written	Simple – having been written

process)	not having written	not having been written
	Continuous –	
	having been writing	

(Knotková 1986: 229)

A continuous form – having been writing (Dušková et al. 2006: 270)

In English, the participle is used a lot in a written form and less in a spoken form. It has the function of the verb in a sentence. The participle is used in coordinate and subordinate clauses usually with the same subjects, but the subjects may be different and also unexpressed (2.2.2. Adverbial). The Czech rarely uses the participle. (Knotková 1986: 229, 232) The Czech participle can be seen for example in the literature, in the written form. The use of the participle in a spoken form is considered archaic and is not usual.

The English participle and its syntactic functions:

2.2.1. Object complement

The participle may have the function of an object complement and has to be differentiated from the postmodification of a noun. The difference may be based on the position of both in a sentence. The participial object complement refers to the main verb, for example *I caught him leaving the house.* This sentence is also an example of the participial complement referring to the object and at the same time to the subject. The sentences then have different meanings. The verbs that can take the participial object complement are for example the verbs of perception. The postmodification of a noun is represented by the free modification of a noun that sounds as an adjective (an attribute). (Dušková et al. 2006: 586-7)

2.2.2. Adverbial

Quirk indicates the adverbials in the following syntactic functions: adjunct, subjunct, conjunct and disjunct. (1985: 501) Circumstance, linking and stance adverbials are terms used by Biber. The function of the adjunct (circumstance adverbial) is "to add information about the circumstances of an activity or state described in a clause." The conjunct (linking adverbial) is "to link the clause (or some part of it) to some other unit of discourse." The disjunct (stance adverbial) is "to express

speaker/writer stance towards the clause." (1999: 762-3) Quirk's terms for adverbials are used in the paper and subjuncts are not the subject of the paper.

The participle, sometimes belongs to a subject complement, includes some adverbial characteristics. Dušková presents three types of the participial adverbial constructions with different types of subjects. (Dušková et al. 2006: 583)

In the first type, there is the covert (unexpressed) agent/subject in the participial construction. This agent is the same as the subject of the superordinate verb, for example *I lay on my bed, tossing restlessly.* (Dušková et al. 2006: 583) It means that the „attachment rule" is applied for the identification of the subject in the participial clause. (Quirk et al. 1985: 1121) Biber gives an example of the first type of the participial construction that has the function of an adverbial, *Having established the direction of the line, we now wish to find some point on the line.* (Biber et al. 1999: 200) Supplementive clauses, being a part of the first type of the participial adverbial clauses, act with no subordinating conjunction. The context is what determines different relationships, for example temporal circumstance, etc. in relation to the content of the superordinate clause. The supplementive clause may behave like an adjunct because it implies the relationships of what is happening in the superordinate clause and add more details. (Quirk 1985: 1070, 1123) (Biber 1999: 823, 832) The participial adverbial clauses may act with the subordinating conjunctions, for example *if, unless, although, until, while, when, etc. He frowned as though trying to recall something.* (Dušková et al. 2006: 584) The present conjunction in a clause helps to understand the correct meaning of the whole sentence. Vaněčková contributes with the example of the participial adverbial clause. The temporal relationship of both clauses gives the role of the time adjunct, *Resisting with womanly pride Sir Mulberry Hawk's drunken passes, Kate Nickleby is striking a blow ...* (1996: 182) The example belongs to the first type of the participial adverbial clauses because the subjects are the same and it is a supplementive clause with no subordinating conjunction.

Dušková and Biber present the following semantic roles of adjuncts: place, time, manner, comparison, accompanying circumstance, means, instrument, reason, purpose, concession, condition, result, etc. (Dušková et al. 2006: 458-9, 627-42), (Biber et al. 1999: 776-81) Concerning the -ing supplementive clauses, Biber notes that they usually realize a circumstance and they are not more closely classified. (Biber et al. 1999: 820)

In the second type, the agent is overt (expressed) but is different from the subject of the superordinate clause. (Dušková et al. 2006: 585) Knotková calls this type as „a nominative absolute participial construction", for example *All the facts being known, we can draw the conclusion.* (1986: 231) Quirk adds that there is no subordinating conjunction to introduce the –ing adverbial clause. The conjunct is what conjoins independent elements. (1985: 631, 1120) The superordinate clause and the –ing clause are in fact two independent clauses and the –ing clause may function as a conjunct. According to Malá, the conjuncts take the role of the organization of the text, they conclude or sum up, for example *having said that, having talked about, before talking, speaking of, regarding, looking back, starting with, skipping, etc.* (2008: 56)

The third type is the „the dangling or unattached participle" construction. The agent of the participial construction is covert and is not identical with (or may differ from the subject) the subject of the superordinate verb. The agent is implied, such as the author or the general agent. (Dušková et al. 2006: 585-6) In the example *Walking down the boardwalk, a tall building came into view.* the attachment rule is not applied. The implied subject *I* can be used for the identification in the superordinate clause, for example *Walking down the boardwalk, I saw a tall building.* But the example *Reading the evening paper, a dog started barking.* is an example of an incorrect clause. The implied subject cannot be identified because the superordinate clause does not make it possible. The dangling participial adverbial clause may function as the style disjunct. In the examples *Putting it mildly, you have caused us some inconvenience.* or *Frankly speaking, … Speaking of the devil, here comes my nephew.* the implied subject is the *I (we)* of the speaker, expressing the speaker's attitude, comments to a superordinate clause. The comma and the intonation isolate the disjunct from the rest of the clause. (Quirk 1985: 1069-70, 1073, 1121-2) *Putting it crudely, the general question to be asking is ...* This participial adverbial clause in the role of the style disjunct can be transformed into full adverbial clause with the finite verb and the implied subject, for example *If I,(we,one) put(s) it crudely, ...* (Vaněčková 1996: 184)

2.2.3. Modifier

The participle as a noun modifier may have two roles. The first role is the participle as the noun premodifier. The intransitive and transitive verbs (whose object is

possible to omit) are used to form this kind of the premodifier. The participial premodifier indicates the specific or the permanent character, for example *a squeaking door.* and rarely the temporary character, for example *the visiting team.* The premodification of the participial premodifier occurs, for example *a quickly spreading epidemic.* The participial premodification semantically differs from the gerundial premodification mentioned in 2.1.5. Modifier. The paraphrase is possible by the relative clause, for example *a squeaking door* is the participle because it is *a door that squeaks.* This form of the premodifier merges in an adjective (an attribute), for example *a charming girl.* (Dušková et al. 2006: 580-1)

The second role is the participle as the noun postmodifier with the object or the adverbial determination, for example *a box containing cigarettes.* Dušková continues and says that the paraphrase is possible by the relative clause and mentions the postposition of the attributive participle. (Dušková et al. 2006: 581) A part of noun phrase is another expression for the participle as the noun postmodifier, for example *I think he smashed two cars coming down the road* with the adverbial determination. (Biber et al. 1999: 200)

Dušková comments that –ing form of the postmodifier is not the continuous form. The point is that some verbs can make the –ing participle but do not create the continuous form. (Dušková et al. 2006: 581) According to Biber, there are non-finite -ing postmodifying clauses. (Biber et al. 1999: 604-5)

2.2.4. Appositive

The participle as an appositive specifying the subject is demonstrated in the following –ing clause, *His current research, investigating attitudes to racial stereotypes, takes up most of his time.* (Quirk et al. 1985: 1063) It is punctuated with commas in the written text and it has a non-restrictive function. (Dušková et al. 2006: 502)

2.3. Gradience

"A gradient is a scale which relates two categories of description (for example two word classes) in terms of degrees of similarity and contrast. At the ends of the scale are items which belong clearly to one category or to another." (Quirk et al. 1985: 90)

Gerund and Participle

The difference between the gerund and the participle is based on their syntactic functions in a sentence. The gerund ranks with a noun and the participle with an adjective. The gerund functioning as a subject and a possessive determination of the gerund are the examples of the nominal characteristics. The gerund and the participle may appear in the same syntactic function, for example an attributive –ing form in the function of the noun premodifier as in *melting point* and *melting snow*. The adverbial –ing form with the preposition before acts as the gerund, for example *on reading his letter*, while the adverbial –ing form with the conjunction before acts as the participle, for example *while reading his letter*. It may happen that the gerund and the participle are not distinguished and the sentence position accepts both. Then the difference between the gerund and the participle is effaced, as in *The boy kept asking questions*. The gerund distinguishes the tense, the voice, keeps the government and is influenced by the adverbial modification, all classified as the verbal characteristics, for example *hiring cars*. (Dušková et al. 2006: 268-9, 570)

There are expressions with –ing form that can have ambiguous meaning, as it is described in the following example *training sportsmen* 1) gerund – *training sportsmen is time-consuming,* 2) participle – *training sportsmen need a nourishing diet.* (Dušková et al. 2006: 570) The gerund and the participle can be classified and the meaning is clear after paraphrasing.

Gerund - Verb and Noun

Huddleston supports what was already mentioned about the gerund, i.e. a gerund having the verbal and nominal characteristics. He states that the gerund stands as a single word or with an auxiliary. The gerund is a verb when modified by an adverb, as in *He was accused of driving dangerously. = He drove dangerously.* The gerund is a noun when modified by an adjective. *He was accused of dangerous driving. = a dangerous fellow* (Huddleston 1984: 313-4) Quirk comments the position of the adverb after the gerund that is the adverbial in the gerundial clause and the position of the adjective before the gerund that is the premodifier of a noun in a noun phrase. (1985: 1065)

Other characteristics of the gerund as the verb or the noun are the following, as in *I like singing.* In *I like singing Schubert. = I sing Schubert.,* the gerund is the verb with an object and connected with the activity of singing. In *I like choral singing. = choral music*, the gerund is the noun with an adjective and connected with the product of the activity – the sound. (Huddleston 1984: 314-5)

Quirk gives an example in which it is hard to classify if the –ing form introduces an –ing clause (the verb) or a noun phrase (the noun). *They liked our singing.* (1985: 1065) The word class of the –ing form cannot be clearly classified. The –ing form would need additional clausal elements to classify the word class.

Participle - Verb and Adjective

The adjective can be intensified, is gradable and can stay alone. It does not need an object as some verbs and its valency is different from the verbs, for example *It is surprising.* (Dušková et al. 2006: 271)

The participle as the verb form ranks with the adjective. The first function of the participle is the attribute (the adjective) – the modifier of a noun, for example *encouraging words.* The second function is the participle (verb), for example *The larks went up, twittering in the scented air above the down.* (Dušková et al. 2006: 268, 271-2) The -ing form introduces an adjective phrase (the adjective/attribute) or an –ing clause (the participle). (Peters 2004: 281, 409)

Huddleston also says that the participle sometimes acts as the adjective than the verb, as in *an amusing incident.* In fact, the participle has the characteristics of the verb and the adjective and states that the participle stands as a single word or with an auxiliary. In *He was telling the truth. = He told the truth.*, the participle is the verb having the complement, while an adjective would not accept a complement. In *It seemed very interesting.*, the participle is the adjective that can act in the syntactic functions (attributive, predicative, postpositive) and confirms that adjectives are gradable.

Huddleston adds the information that adjectives and verbs can be graded, for example by *quite* or *rather,* as in *I quite/rather liked it.* or *It was quite/rather enjoyable.* But *very* is a modifier only for the adjectives not for the verbs.

There are cases in which the –ing form lacks the characteristics of the verb or the adjective and the word class of the –ing form cannot be clearly classified. (Huddleston 1984: 312, 318-9, 320)

The gradience was involved because it relates to the topic of the bachelor paper. The gradients, the problematic –ing forms, are not analysed or closely described in the practical part.

3.   Language typology – Analytical English and synthetic Czech

The language typology is the linguistic discipline dealing with the grammatical structures of languages and their comparison and creating their individual types. In the morphological typology, which is the best known, the languages are divided into the inflectional languages and others. (Barták et al. 1999: 436) The morphological forms are the means of expressing the synthetic relations. The use of the forms depends on the development of the inflectional system of the language. Some synthetic functions performed by the developed Czech inflection are beyond the scope of the relatively poor English inflection when comparing the English with Czech. There is a need for the analytical English to use other means of expression of the synthetic relations, for example auxiliary (functional) words and word order are the most important. (Dušková et al. 2006: 11) The analytical forms are the forms using the auxiliary words to express the relations and the grammatical meanings that the synthetic forms express by the change of the form of the word, for example by the conjugations and the declensions. The English is the example of the analytical language. (Klimeš 1995: 23)

3.1. Czech translation of English –ing forms

Nosek in his article deals with the syntactic condensation in modern English with reference to V. Mathesius and J. Vachek. Mathesius states that the Czech usually works with the subordinate clauses with full verbs to express events but it is not the same with the English. The English uses the infinitives, the participles and the ing- forms, called the verbids that are the important part of the semi-clausal (non-finite) constructions. These non-finite forms are a means of complex condensation. Vachek, following Mathesius, found that the gradual development of both languages has resulted in a

lower use of 'condensers' in Czech. On the other hand, the English uses these non-finite forms even more. (Nosek 1954: 281)

Vachek adds to the previous findings that the English finite verb lost a lot of its dynamism and the Czech finite verb rather reached its dynamism. Comparing the Czech and English sentence, the English sentence includes more means of complex condensation than the Czech sentence. According to Vachek and Mathesius, it means to use the construction (complex condensation) which saves otherwise required dependent clause. The means of condensation in English are the participles, the gerunds and the infinitives, also called 'the condensers'. In Czech, the 'condensers' are the infinitives, the participles and the verbal nouns. Vachek claims that 'the condensers' are preferred when using English than Czech, which may be connected with the dynamism of the verbs already mentioned. (Vachek 1961: 73)

An example of the English proverb compared with its Czech version shows that the English participle acts as a means of condensation. The English version works without the dependent clause. But the Czech version rather contains the dependent clause. *Barking dogs rarely bite.,* with the English participle, is the same as *A dog that barks does not bite.,* with the dependent clause. The Czech version is *Pes, který štěká, nekouše.* with the dependent clause (Vachek 1961: 32) and *Štěkající pes nekouše.* is not common. It can be seen from the example that the Czech uses the dependent clauses and the English prefers the condensed forms. To sum up, the Czech prefers the full subordinate clauses and the verbs seem to be more dynamic than the English verbs. Tárnyiková in fact agrees and adds her views in relation to the translation. Dušková and Knotková continue in the similar spirit.

The means of complex condensation help the English sentence complex to achieve its compactness. But the non-finite (condensed) clause is not able to provide for example all grammatical categories. As for the translation, the following example shows that the English –ing form is translated into Czech by the main clause not by the dependent subordinate clause. This kind of translation is little used. *I'm in another hotel, trying to write another film script. Jsem zase v jiném hotelu a pokouším se napsat další filmový scénář.* (Tárnyiková 2007: 161-2)

Tárnyiková adds that the means of condensation play the role in translating. She explains that on one hand, it is easier to make the English condenser from the Czech

sentence but on the other hand, it is hard to form the Czech version of the English condenser. The Czech prefers to use the finite clause (or sometimes the infinitive) for translation. It means to use usually the dependent and the main clauses when translating the English condenser. Also, this can cause a certain reorganization of the sentence and influence slightly the meaning of both sentences, for example *Also, I hated driving behind anything. Také jsem nesnášela, když přede mnou cokoliv jelo.* There are also rare cases in which the English non-finite form, when translating into Czech, is translated by using the Czech participle. (Tárnyiková 2007: 216-7, 219)

Dušková also comments the fact that the English is very close to the complex condensation. In other words, it means to make the non-finite forms from the subordinate clauses. In contrast with the Czech, the Czech rather uses the subordinate clauses and does not have the non-finite form called the gerund. (Dušková 1999: 9)

To sum up, Knotková mentions some points about the translation of the English gerund and the English participle construction into Czech. The gerund may have a lot of equivalents when translating into Czech. The gerund is translated as the finite verb, the non-finite infinitive, the noun or the full subordinate clause, etc. (Knotková 1986: 233, 244) As Dušková says, the Czech verbal noun is the closest to English gerund (2006: 268) and can be also translated by the ways mentioned above.

It is necessary to know if the construction is really the participle with the function of the verb in a sentence. It is considered incorrect to translate the English participle by the Czech participle. The participle may be translated as the main (coordinate) sentences with the conjunction, for example "a" or translated as two independent sentences without the conjunction. The full subordinate clauses with the subordinate conjunctions are also the option for the translation into Czech. The participle clauses with the different subjects are translated the same way. (Knotková 1986: 232)

4.   Fictional style

The fiction is one of the registers, "varieties relating to different circumstances and purposes". (Biber et al. 1999: 15) Hornby defines the register of writing as "the level and style of a piece of writing, that is usually appropriate to the situation that it is used in." (2005: 1273) He says that the fiction is "a type of literature that describes imaginary

people and events, not real ones" and fictional means "not real or true; existing only in stories; connected with fiction". (2005: 568)

Biber summarizes the characteristics of the fiction and describes the diversity from the other registers, for example the conversation, the academic prose and news. The fiction is a written register that may include written dialogues. The interactiveness is related to the fictional dialogues among fictional characters. The fiction is the reading especially for pleasure, which is one of its main purpose and in addition to this, the aesthetic and recreational functions appear. The target audience is very various and that is why the fiction is not specifically addressed. The fiction is also seen as universal and widespread because it is intended for all readers. The writer's dialect may appear in the original text. The fiction includes sub-registers, for example adventure fiction, romance fiction, mystery fiction, historical fiction, science fiction, etc. The fiction belongs to a popular literature and is full of fictional events. (Biber et al. 1999: 16-7, 25, 31)

The writer can choose impressive and cogent words in the text, use different lexical and grammatical means of language and colloquial expressions to refresh the text. The writing has no sound means to impress the reader but they can be indicated by graphic means, for example punctuation. The formulation must be more comprehensive so that the reader can understand. The sentence structure is usually more complex causing that the reader goes back to the text. In connection with the aesthetic function, the writer seeks aesthetically impressive and effective formulations and the repetition of some means of language can be often used on purpose to reach an impressiveness and effectiveness. In the written text, there are used those means of language that can condense the sentence structure, for example the participle, the infinitive, etc. (Havránek, Jedlička 2002: 187-90, 191, 193)

5.   -Ing forms in fiction

The fictional literature is the source of the practical part. After having read a number of books of the fiction genre, it appears to be a style in which the writer can express himself the most liberally. The language itself offers the wide range of means of language for expressing the events or the situations but it also depends on the writer's individual style of writing. He/She decides what kind of means of language to use in his/her writing and what might be attractive for the readers according to the writer. In

relation to the –ing forms, it is generally known that the English uses –ing forms and –ing clauses frequently. It is also the case of the fictional literature. Biber supports this idea and he specifies it on the use of supplementive clauses. (1999: 832)

As it was mentioned in the theoretical part, the non-finite forms include the gerund and the participle. They function as the verbs having the –ing ending. Some of the gerunds act as nouns and the participles act as adjectives having the –ing form too. There may appear the –ing forms that have to be differentiated from the gerund and the participle, for example the continuous tense that occurs in the text quite frequently and is not the subject of this paper. The non-finite form is also the infinitive, which is not the subject of this paper either. The occurrence of the gerundial and the participial –ing forms indicates the use of the condensation (the shortening) of full finite sentences in English, as it was discussed in 3.1. Czech translation of the English –ing forms.

The verbs play an important role in a sentence, as it was written in 2. Valency. According to Biber's findings, they are very frequent in fiction and he presents the group of verbs common with –ing clauses, for example *keep, start, see* etc. He says about the fiction and verbs the following "Fiction has the widest distribution of different verbs commonly controlling –ing clauses." (1999: 65, 741, 746). The choice of verbs, the use of –ing ending of the gerund or the participle and the position of the –ing form in the sentence influence the reader and the perception of the whole sentence. Biber adds that the –ing clauses appear the most in fiction, which is one of the written registers, especially in the post-predicate position. (Biber et al. 1999: 749)

As for the use of adverbials in fiction, Biber compared four different registers (the conversation, the fiction, the academic prose and news). He claims that the occurrence of adverbials in fiction is the highest of the four registers and in general it is valid especially for the adjunct. The reason is the function of the adjunct (2.2.2. Adverbial) in the fictional text. (1999: 765-6) His findings, through the four registers mentioned, show that the -ing clauses belong to the frequent type of the adjunct adverbial clauses in fiction. (Biber et al. 1999: 826)

Biber adds one interesting statement about the modern fiction that is sometimes seen as 'stanceless'. In fiction, the fictional characters of the story are usually those who tell a stance, a thought and an attitude and not the author. (1999: 967) There was no disjunct (stance adverbial) in the –ing form found in the analysis.

The analysis

There were 100 English sentences (Appendix 1) collected and analysed in order to make an overview of the occurrence of the English gerundial and participial –ing forms in relation to their syntactic functions. The slight attention was paid to the occurrence of the gerund and the participle in the nominal and the adverbial clauses, as a help to classify the syntactic function of the –ing form. In case of the (pre)modifiers, they do not act within a clause but within a phrase in the analysis. There were 100 Czech sentences (Appendix 1) collected at the same time, as the Czech equivalents of the English sentences.

The English sentences with the gerundial or participial –ing form were found in the book written by Arthur Hailey, *Airport*. Biber classifies this book as an adventure fiction. (1999: 31) The book is an example of the fictional literature, of the contemporary English and of the occurrence of the –ing forms in fiction. The Czech translation, named *Letiště* and translated by Mariana Stříbrná, was used for work with the Czech equivalents. The occurrence of the gerund and the participle in fiction and their Czech equivalents in different forms will be analysed and discussed more closely in the following parts of the analysis.

Appendix 1 includes all 100 English analysed sentences in their original written form. The sentences are numbered and show in what order they were found in the original English text. The English sentence is accompanied by the Czech equivalent sentence. Each English sentence is labeled with A – J letter belonging to a certain group of the Czech equivalent (6. English –ing forms replaced by the Czech equivalents). The –ing form is underlined in the English sentence. At the end of each English sentence, there are the steps to find the correct syntactic function, which are the gerund/participle, the type of clause and the syntactic function. The (pre)modifiers do not include the type of clause because they act within a phrase in the analysis. The number of the page is written at the end of each sentence, English and Czech. It is the page on which the sentence was found in the original English literature and in the Czech translation.

The overall occurrence of the gerunds and the participles in fiction is in the Appendix 2 in the numeric expression.

5.1. Occurrence of the gerund in fiction

(Appendix 3)

The analysis revealed 33 gerundial –ing forms of all 100 sentences. 33 gerunds represent 15 gerundial nominal clauses, only 4 gerundial adverbial clauses and 14 modifiers. The gerund acts in 6 syntactic functions in the nominal clause. There was the following found: 2 gerunds functioning as a subject, 9 gerunds functioning as a direct object, 1 gerund functioning as a prepositional object and 3 gerunds functioning as a prepositional complement. There was no gerund in the function of a subject complement and an adjectival complement found. The gerund acts in 1 syntactic function in the adverbial clause in the analysis, i.e. an adverbial. There were 4 gerunds functioning as an adverbial found. They act in 2 semantic subcategories, i.e. 2 gerunds as an adverbial of the accompanying circumstance and 2 gerunds as an adverbial of time. The gerund functions as a modifier in 14 examples (14 premodifiers and 0 postmodifiers).

Appendix 3 provides the occurrence of the gerund and the syntactic functions of the gerund in detailed tables. The syntactic functions are listed providing the number of examples in the certain syntactic function and the list of sentences under their numbers relating to the certain syntactic function. The numbered sentences in a full written form are in the Appendix 1.

Biber says that the nominal clause is also called the complement clause because its function is to complete the main clause and the verb of the main clause. (1999: 658) The gerund in the nominal clause acts in different syntactic functions but not in the function of an adverbial determination (Appendix 3). As Dušková says, the adverbial clauses have the syntactic function of the adverbial determination in the form of a clause. (2006: 627) The number of nominal clauses prevails in the analysis but the modifiers also have a strong occurrence.

The gerund is a non-finite –ing form that acts in several syntactic functions. The most interesting sentences with the –ing forms are closely analysed and discussed according to the findings of the analysis in the following part. The gerund functions the most as a premodifier of a noun and as a direct object.

There were only 2 gerunds functioning as a subject found. The gerundial subject is introduced by *that* subordinating conjunction in the sentence 45. The gerundial subject in the sentence 95. acts with the negative particle *not* having the negative meaning and is placed in the initial position. The animate agent expresses the gerundial process.

95. <u>Not going</u> home, in fact, seemed lately to have become the pattern of his life. p. 22
Nechodit domů se v poslední době pro něho stalo pravidelným zvykem. p. 21

There were 9 direct objects found in the analysis. This is the second most numerous syntactic function of all the gerunds. The gerund as the direct object appears after verbs such as *try, dislike, start, stop* (the sentences 38., 63., 69., 74., 75.). The direct objects can be used as infinitives and get slightly different meaning. The gerundial –ing form *not going* in the sentence 94. is negated by the particle *not* emphasizing the meaning of the whole sentence. The sentence 79. shows the agent of the gerundial process expressed in a possessive form *your*. The other sentences relating to this syntactic function are 77., 85.

38. 'Try <u>blowing on your hands</u>, Ernie, Danny said.' p. 12
„Ernie, dejchni si na ruce, řekl Danny." p. 12

There was only 1 gerund functioning as a prepositional object found. The sentence 88. contains the transitive verb *coerce* and with the preposition *into* can take the gerund.

There were 3 prepositional complements found in the analysis. The preposition is the head of a phrase and follows the adjective or the noun, for example *close to being lost, equal to clearing* or *note about having* (the sentences 40., 47., 93.). The –ing form is the complement of the preposition.

There were 4 examples of adverbial determination found in the analysis with 2 semantic roles of adverbials. The sentences 1. and 51. show the role of an adverbial of accompanying circumstance. The preposition *without* in the sentence 51. represents the accompanying circumstance but it could be also considered as an adverbial of manner.

51. Danny Farrow answered <u>without looking up</u>. p. 14
Danny Farrow nezdvihl ani hlavu a odpověděl: „Kapitán… p. 13

The sentences 72. and 98. show the role of an adverbial of time with the preposition *after*. The prepositions introduce the non-finite –ing clauses. The adverbial determinations in the sentence 1. and 72. do not take the final position. They take the middle position and they are separated by the dashes from both sides from the rest of the sentence. They may sound as an emphasis and can be omitted. The number of adverbial determination in the analysis is quite small. The adverbial determination presents different circumstances and relations resulting from the story. Unfortunately, the selected part of the text was not rich enough in the adverbial determination.

There were 14 premodifiers of a noun found in the analysis, which is the most numerous syntactic function of all gerunds. The premodifier *hatching-shipping* in the sentence 12. is a compound adjective joined by a hyphen. The compound word expresses a time schedule or a development. The premodifier *snowfighting* in the sentence 26. is also a compound adjective without the hyphen. It tells to the reader that the equipment can „fight" with the snow or what the equipment is for. The compound word *parking lot* repeats in the sentences 24., 57., 84., which is caused by the situation resulting from the story.

24. 'We're losing the <u>parking</u> lots.' p. 12
„Ztrácíme parkovací plochy." p. 11

The premodifier *frigging* in the sentence 36. is one of the colloquial expressions that may be used in fiction. The premodifier makes a compound word with the noun. The noun acts as a head of a noun phrase at the same time. The premodification of a noun is the adjectival attribute dependent on the noun, for example *parking lot, waiting area* (sentence 24., 16.)*, sleeping quarters* (sentence 23.). It is optional but it is widely used because the attribute specifies the noun in more detail. The other sentences relating to this syntactic function are 9., 18., 46., 50., 73., 97.

The analysis did not reveal any subject complement, any adjectival complement and any postmodifier of a noun. First, it was caused by a relatively small number of all clauses analysed in the paper (100). Second, it was caused by a small number of the gerundial nominal clauses found in the analysis. There were quite a lot of modifiers found but no postmodifier was present in the selected text.

5.2. Occurrence of the participle in fiction
(Appendix 4)

The analysis revealed 67 participial –ing forms of all 100 sentences. 67 participles represent 5 participial nominal clauses, 25 participial adverbial clauses and 37 modifiers and apposition. The participle acts in 1 syntactic function in the nominal clause, i.e. the object complement, comprising of 5 examples. The participle acts in 1 syntactic function in the adverbial clause, as an adjunct in 25 examples. 6 semantic subcategories of the adverbial were found and will be described in this part. Two other syntactic functions of the adverbial clause, conjunct and disjunct, were not found in the analysis. The participle functions as a modifier in 36 examples (18 premodifiers and 18 postmodifiers) and as an appositive in 1 example.

Appendix 4 provides the occurrence of the participle and the syntactic functions of the participle in detailed tables. The syntactic functions are listed providing the number of examples in the certain syntactic function and the list of sentences under their numbers relating to the certain syntactic function. The numbered sentences in a full written form are in the Appendix 1.

The participle is a non-finite –ing form that acts in several syntactic functions. The most interesting sentences with the –ing forms are closely analysed and discussed according to the findings of the analysis in the following part.

There were 5 examples of the object complement found in the analysis. The participle in the function of the object complement relates to the main verb such as *keep*. (Dušková et al. 2006: 587) There are 2 examples with the verb *keep* in the analysis, sentences 32. and 59.

> 59. And if the driver decided to stay with his truck and keep the motor <u>running for warmth</u>, it could quickly be covered by drifts, with deadly carbon monoxide accumulating beneath. p. 15
> A jestliže se řidič rozhodl zůstat ve voze a nechal běžet motor, aby se zahřál, mohl by ho sníh brzy zavát; pak by se pod sněhovou pokrývkou nahromadil smrtelně otravný kysličník uhelnatý… p. 14

The participle complement stands after the object in all sentences. The participial object complement may be confused with the postmodifier of a noun. The other sentences relating to this syntactic function are 34., 39., 80.

There were 25 participial adverbial constructions in the function of an adjunct found in the analysis. The following facts were mentioned already in the theoretical part in 2.2.2. Adverbial. The subjects of the superordinate clauses are present and they are considered the same in the participial adverbial construction. The subjects of the non-finite clauses are covert. The attachement rule was applied in the sentences and the full adverbial finite clauses are possible to make. The clauses are supplementive because they are not introduced by the subordinating conjunction. This group of the participles is very numerous. The participial adverbial clauses introduced by the subordinating conjunction are not present in the analysis.

Vaněčková presents in her analysis that the superordinate and non-finite clauses, having the same subjects, are most frequent in fiction (1996: 192). This is also the case of this analysis, 25 examples of the participial adverbial constructions functioning as adjuncts.

33. Glancing at Danny, Mel shook his head. p. 12
Mel koukl na Dannyho a zavrtěl hlavou. p. 12

65. Reaching over Danny's shoulder, Mel picked up a direct line phone to Air Traffic Control. p. 15
Mel se natáhl přes Dannyho rameno a popadl přímou linku k letovému dispečerskému středisku. p. 15

There was 1 perfect participle construction found in the analysis, sentence 43. Vaněčková describes the same finding in her research that the perfect participle constructions are rare in fiction. (1996: 192). The rest are the present participle constructions in active voice.

43. But they knew what was expected, having rehearsed snow manoeuvres, like weekend soldiers, on runways and taxi strips during summer and fall. p. 13
Každý však přesně věděl, za co vzít, protože v létě a na podzim nacvičovali sněhové manévry na startovacích a rolovacích dráhách jako vojáci v záloze o víkendech. p. 13

All participial constructions were classified as adjuncts because the function is to add information about what is happening in the superordinate clause. This function seems to be more useful in the written text, for example in fiction. There were 6 semantic subcategories of adjuncts found, for example purpose (sentences 5., 37.), means (agent) (sentence 17.), accompanying circumstance (sentences 19., 20., 21., 29., 30., 33., 37., 41., 42., 52., 54., 55., 64., 65., 76., 87., 89., 90., 92., 99.), comparison

(sentence 28.), reason (sentence 43., 54., 55., 92.) and result (sentences 48.). Some of the sentences were classified in 2 ways because both ways seem to be possible (sentences 37., 54., 55., 92.). As the analysis shows, the most numerous subcategory of adjuncts is the accompanying circumstance in 20 examples. Vaněčková also presents an accompanying circumstance subcategory as the most frequent subcategory in fiction in her analysis (1996: 192). There was no conjunct or disjunct found in the analysis. The reason probably is that conjuncts and disjuncts seem to be used more in a spoken text, for example in the lecture (Malá 2008: 55-6) and the fiction is a written text. The supplementive -ing clauses usually realize a circumstance and they are not more closely classified. (Biber et al. 1999: 820)

There were 18 premodifiers found in the analysis. Some of them repeat in the sentences but modify different nouns, for example *missing vehicle, missing truck, missing driver* (sentences 2., 53., 58.), *incoming traffic, incoming flights* (sentences 6., 8., 78.). The premodifier *snow-fighting* in the sentence 35. is a compound word.

> 2. A search for the truck – in driving snow and darkness – had so far failed to locate either the <u>missing</u> vehicle or its driver. p. 9
> Veškeré pátrání po vozidle – ve sněhové metelici a ve tmě – bylo zatím bezvýsledné. Nikdo neměl potuchy, kde kamión trčí nebo co se stalo s řidičem. p. 9

This syntactic function is quite numerous. It is because the premodifier functions as the adjective and gives more details about the noun or shows the quality of the noun. The other sentences relating to this syntactic function are 3., 7., 10., 14., 22., 27., 61., 62., 81., 91., 100.

There were 18 postmodifiers found in the analysis. 15 of them are –ing postmodifications of a noun, 1 example of a postmodification of a pronoun, sentence 15. and 2 examples of –ing postmodifying clauses.

> 15. But an aeroplane had been diverted from passenger to freight service, and tonight the fledgling turkeys would have priority over everything else <u>travelling</u>, human VIPs included. p. 10
> Letadlo však převedli z osobní dopravy na nákladní a dnes večer dostanou malí opeřenci přednost před vším i každým, kdo by chtěl cestovat, i kdyby to měli být nějací hlavouni. p. 10

The –ing forms are completed by the object, sentences 4., 67., 70. or by the adverbial determination 60., 71. The sentences 31. and 66. are the non-restrictive reduced relative clauses in the form of –ing clauses in the function of the postmodifier. The non-restrictive –ing clauses are separated by commas and can be omitted. These two sentences are the exception in this syntactic function because thay act within a clause.

The postmodifiers of a noun determine the details of the noun and develop it and this may be the reason why this syntactic function is so numerous. There is the same number of premodifiers and postmodifiers in the analysis. The other sentences relating to this syntactic function are 11., 13., 25., 44., 49., 56., 68., 82., 83., 96.

There was 1 example of an apposition found in the analysis, sentence 86. It is a non-restrictive clause element separated by commas from the rest of the sentence and represents the specification of the noun. It relates to the noun *pressure* that is unique enough and does not need any other specification.

6.   English –ing forms replaced by the Czech equivalents
(Appendix 5)

This part of the analysis is devoted to the English non-finite –ing forms that are replaced by their Czech equivalents and their relation is presented on the Czech translation of the selected sentences (Appendix 1). Both versions of the book of fiction genre, the English and the Czech, were used for this analysis. The aim of this analysis is to introduce a list of the possible Czech equivalents of 100 English –ing forms and describe the most interesting equivalents in more detail from each group of equivalents.

Appendix 5 provides the table with the groups of Czech equivalents A – J and the number of the English –ing forms that were translated by these equivalents. The groups of equivalents are listed providing the number of examples in the certain group and the list of sentences under their numbers relating to the certain group. The numbered sentences in a full written form are in the Appendix 1.

The task was to find the Czech expression in the Czech sentence for the underlined English –ing form and classify the equivalent. All English –ing forms are the non-finite forms but not all Czech equivalents are the non-finite forms.

The Czech non-finite forms were divided into the following groups: the verb of the same or the similar meaning, the verb of the different meaning, the verbal noun of the same or the similar meaning and the verbal adjective of the same or the similar meaning. The verb forms are the Czech infinitives and the Czech participles.

The Czech finite forms were divided into the following groups: the verb of the same or the similar meaning and the verb of the different meaning. These two groups are the verbs that can identify the person, the singular or the plural, the tense, the mood, the voice and the aspect (Havránek, Jedlička 2002: 106).

There were also some other word classes found as the Czech equivalents, for example the nouns and the adjectives - the nouns of the same or the similar meaning, the adjectives of the same or the similar meaning and the adjectives of the different meaning.

The Czech equivalents of some English –ing forms were difficult to classify because the English –ing form was replaced by the Czech sentence and the meaning of the English –ing form was hidden in it but was clear.

There were not any other Czech equivalents for the English –ing forms found probably because of a small number of the examined sentences.

The Czech equivalents were classified into 10 groups according to the similar features (Appendix 5).

A – The English non-finite form replaced by the Czech non-finite verb of the same or the similar meaning (Czech infinitive, Czech participle)

B – The English non-finite form replaced by the Czech non-finite verb of the different meaning (Czech infinitive, Czech participle)

C - The English non-finite form replaced by the Czech finite verb of the same or the similar meaning

D - The English non-finite form replaced by the Czech finite verb of the different meaning

E - The English non-finite form replaced by the Czech non-finite verbal noun of the same or the similar meaning

F - The English non-finite form replaced by the Czech non-finite verbal adjective of the same or the similar meaning

G - The English non-finite form replaced by the Czech noun of the same or the similar meaning

H - The English non-finite form replaced by the Czech adjective of the same or the similar meaning

I - The English non-finite form replaced by the Czech adjective of the different meaning

J - The English non-finite form replaced by the Czech sentence and the meaning is clear from the sentence

There were 10 examples found in the group A – The English non-finite form replaced by the Czech non-finite verb of the same or the similar meaning (Czech infinitive, Czech participle). For example the English gerundial –ing form *running* in the sentence 63. is translated as the Czech infinitive *řídit*.

> 63. Mel was aware that Danny disliked <u>running</u> the Snow Control Desk and was happier in his own department of airport planning, sifting logistics and hypotheses of aviation's future. p. 15
> Mel si uvědomoval, že se Dannymu zajídá <u>řídit</u> sněhový kontrolní pult a že byl mnohem šťastnější ve svém plánovacím oddělení letiště, kde si mohl pohrávat s logistikou a s hypotézami předpokládaného rozvoje letectví. p. 15

The sentences 94., 95. are interesting to mention. The English gerundial –ing forms *not going* (negated by the particle *not*) are translated as the Czech infinitives. The first Czech infinitive is assertive in form and in meaning but the modal verb is negated. The second Czech infinitive is negative in form and in meaning too.

> 94. Probably, if it had not been the storm, something else would have arisen to justify <u>not going</u>. p. 22
> Nebýt té bouřky, naskytlo by se pravděpodobně něco jiného, co by mu zdůvodnilo, proč nemusí <u>jít</u> domů. p. 21

> 95. <u>Not going</u> home, in fact, seemed lately to have become the pattern of his life. p. 22
> <u>Nechodit</u> domů se v poslední době pro něho stalo pravidelným zvykem. p. 21

All the sentences in the group A are translated as the Czech infinitives. There is no Czech equivalent in the participial form, which is considered incorrect when translating into Czech according to Knotková (1986: 232).

The group A contains the non-finite forms of the same meaning, i.e. between the English –ing form and its Czech equivalent, for example: *limiting – omezit, travelling – cestovat* (sentences 5., 15.). The group A contains the non-finite forms of the similar

meaning, for example: *running – řídit, going – pokračovat* (sentences 63., 32.). The other sentences relating to the group A are 45., 47., 59., 77.

There were 3 examples found in the group B – The English non-finite form replaced by the Czech non-finite verb of the different meaning (Czech infinitive, Czech participle). For example the English gerundial –ing form *coming* in the sentence 75. is translated as the Czech infinitive *létat*.

> 75. 'They just want the aeroplanes to stop <u>coming</u> over.' p. 17
> „Prostě žádají, aby jim letadla přestala <u>létat</u> nad hlavou." p. 16

All the sentences in the group B are translated as the Czech infinitives. There is no Czech equivalent in the participial form. The sentence 75. also shows the expression *coming over* translated as *létat nad hlavou*. The Czech sentence adds the noun *hlavou.* The English sentence lacks this kind of information but is clear from the rest of the text. The group B contains the non-finite forms of the different meaning, i.e. between the English –ing form and its Czech equivalent, for example: *coming – létat, sifting – pohrávat, inspecting – obejít* (sentences 75., 64., 98.).

There were 35 examples found in the group C - The English non-finite form replaced by the Czech finite verb of the same or the similar meaning. For example the English participial –ing form *paralysing* in the sentence 21. is translated as the Czech finite verb *ochromila*.

> 21. Finally, over Illinois the storm unloaded, almost <u>paralysing</u> the state with blizzard winds, freezing temperatures, and a ten-inch snowfall in twenty-four hours. p. 11
> A konečně vysypala bouře svůj náklad nad Illinoisem, téměř <u>ochromila</u> celý stát sněhovým vichrem,úderem mrazu a čtvrt metrem sněhu za dvacet čtyři hodiny. p. 11

The sentence 40. provides a present gerund in the passive voice *being lost* translated by the finite verb *nezabloudil* in the negative form. The sentence 51. is a similar example because the present gerund in the active voice *looking* is translated by the finite verb *nezdvihl* in the negative form.

> 51. Danny Farrow answered without <u>looking</u> up. p. 14
> Danny Farrow <u>nezdvihl</u> ani hlavu a odpověděl: „Kapitán… p. 13

The sentence 43. provides a perfect participial construction in the active voice *having rehearsed* translated by the finite verb *nacvičovali.* This perfect participial construction expresses the process preceding another process (Knotková 1986: 229) and the same process is clear from the Czech sentence either. It is the only perfect participial construction in the group C and in the whole analysis. The sentence 74. provides the gerundial –ing form *ringing* translated by the finite verb *řinčí* which sounds expressively with the negative meaning.

The group C contains the forms of the same meaning, i.e. between the English –ing form and its Czech equivalent, for example: *paralysing – ochromila, sweating – potily, judging – usoudil* (sentences 21., 41., 48.). The group C contains the forms of the similar meaning, for example: *taxiing – roloval, incoming – přilétaly, watching – staráte* (sentences 66., 78., 79.).

The group C, representing the Czech finite verb forms of the same or the similar meaning, is the most numerous group of this part of the analysis. As Tárnyiková says, it is hard to form the Czech version of the English condenser. In case of Czech, there is often used a finite construction for the translation. (2007: 216) Another reason may be that the Czech finite verb can identify the person, the singular or the plural, the tense, the mood, the voice and the aspect (Havránek, Jedlička 2002: 106). The predicate is usually a verb in the finite form. The subject and the predicate are the basic sentence elements and are the part of each sentence. The predicate expresses what the subject does, what is happening with the subject or what it is like and is dependent on the subject. (Havránek, Jedlička 2002: 154-5). The Czech verbs can be conjugated and they are inflectable (Havránek, Jedlička 2002: 48) and the inflectional system of the Czech language is very developed in contrast with the English (Dušková et al. 2006: 11). That is why the English is the analytical language and the Czech is synthetic language as it was already mentioned in 3. Language typology. These are the reasons why the group C is the most numerous. The other sentences relating to the group C are 11., 13., 19., 20., 25., 30., 31., 33., 34., 37., 38., 42., 55., 60., 65., 67., 68., 69., 80., 82., 83., 88., 89., 90., 97.

There were 5 examples found in the group D – The English non-finite form replaced by the Czech finite verb of the different meaning. For example the English

participial –ing form *resisting* in the sentence 52. is translated as the Czech finite verb *potlačil*.

> 52. Mel nodded, <u>resisting a temptation to take over</u> and direct the search himself for the missing truck and driver. p. 14
> Mel přikývl a <u>potlačil</u> pokušení vzít to sám do rukou a řídit pátrání po pohřešovaném nákladáku a šoférovi. p. 14

The sentences 4. and 99. deal with the same – ing form *using* and its meaning is clear from the context. But the Czech translation offers two different expressions *létaly, sáhl* showing a rich Czech vocabulary. To use the same expressions *používaly, použil* would not sound good in the Czech translation.

The sentence 76. uses the term *changing the subject* which may be considered as a set phrase. In this case, the English expression corresponds with the Czech equivalent *obrátil list.* The translation is not word by word but the meaning is the same.

The group D contains the forms of the different meaning, i.e. between the English –ing form and its Czech equivalent, for example: *resisting – potlačil, changing – obrátil, using – sáhl* (sentences 52., 76., 99.). Another sentence relating to the group D is 29.

There were 2 examples found in the group E – The English non-finite form replaced by the Czech non-finite verbal noun of the same or the similar meaning. For example the English gerundial –ing form *hatching-shipping* in the sentence 12. is translated as the Czech verbal noun *vylíhnutí.*

> 12. The precise <u>hatching</u>-shipping schedule – like a complex order of battle – was set up weeks ago, before the turkey eggs were laid. p. 10
> Týdny napřed, ještě než krůty snesly vejce, byl vypracován přesný časový rozvrh od <u>vylíhnutí</u> po přepravu – jako složitá bitevní operace. p. 10

The premodifier of a noun *hatching-shipping* is a compound word of two adjectives with the hyphen in the middle. The compound word expresses a time schedule or a development. There are more separate words used with the same meaning in the Czech translation. In Czech, there is a verbal noun *vylíhnutí* used as an equivalent for an adjective *hatching.* The second part of the compound *shipping* will be introduced in the group G.

The second Czech verbal noun is *pluhování* as an equivalent to *ploughing* having the same meaning (sentence 85.).

There were 4 examples found in the group F – The English non-finite form replaced by the Czech non-finite verbal adjective of the same or the similar meaning. For example the English participial –ing form *balding* in the sentence 62. is translated as the Czech verbal adjective *plešatějící.*

> 62. The sweat, in increasing quantity, was gleaming on Danny's <u>balding</u> head. p. 15
> Dannyho <u>plešatějící</u> hlava se leskla stále větším množstvím potu. p. 14

The group F contains the forms of the same meaning, i.e. between the English –ing form and its Czech equivalent, for example: *balding - plešatějící, increasing – rostoucí* (sentences 62., 100.) functioning as the premodifiers of a noun. The group F also contains the forms of the similar meaning, for example: *taking off – startující* (sentence 71.) functioning as the postmodifier of a noun. Another sentence relating to the group F is 81.

There were 9 examples found in the group G – The English non-finite form replaced by the Czech noun of the same or the similar meaning. For example the English gerundial –ing form *waiting + noun* in the sentence 16. is translated as one Czech noun *čekárna.*

> 16. Terminal <u>waiting</u> areas were jammed with thousands of passengers from delayed or cancelled flights. p. 10
> V <u>čekárnách</u> se jich tísnily tisíce; lety jim odložili nebo zrušili. p. 10

The group G contains the forms of the same meaning, i.e. between the English –ing form + noun and its Czech equivalent, for example: <u>*freezing*</u> *temperatures – mráz,* <u>*sleeping*</u> *quarter – noclehárna,* <u>*parking*</u> *lot – parkoviště* (sentences 22., 23., 84.). The underlined expressions are the premodifiers of a noun. The Czech translation offers only one noun as an equivalent for the English –ing form + noun. The second part of a compound *hatching-<u>shipping</u>* (sentence 12.) functions as a premodifier of a noun and the Czech noun *přeprava* is used as an equivalent. The first part of the compound was described in the group E. *Building block* is an expression translated into Czech as *blok budov* (sentence 18.), a Czech postmodifier of a noun (přívlastek neshodný). Another expression that the Czech can use is *parkovací místo* instead of *parkoviště* for the

English *parking lot* or *prostor pro spaní* instead of *noclehárna* for the English *sleeping quarter*.

The group G contains the forms of the similar meaning, i.e. between the English –ing form + noun and its Czech equivalent, for example: <u>*incoming traffic – přílety*</u> (sentence 6.)*,* the means of transport is clear from the sentence. The other sentences relating to the group G are 17., 91.

There were 14 examples found in the group H – The English non-finite form replaced by the Czech adjective of the same or the similar meaning. For example the English gerundial –ing form *parking* in the sentence 24. is translated as the Czech adjective *parkovací*.

> 24. 'We're losing the <u>parking</u> lots.' p. 12
> „Ztrácíme <u>parkovací</u> plochy." p. 11

The –ing forms are the premodifiers of a noun. The Czech translation offers the adjective as an equivalent to the English –ing form, for example: *operating - provozní, missing – pohřešovaný, working – pracovní* (sentences 46., 53., 73.). The English expressions have the same meaning with their Czech equivalents. The adjectives of the similar meaning are for example: *fledgling – malí* (sentence 14.). The English expression *blowers* <u>*roaring*</u> (sentence 44.) is a postmodifier of a noun but the Czech translation uses the expression <u>*řvoucí sněhomety*</u>, a premodifier of a noun. The English <u>*snowfighting*</u> *equipment* (sentence 26.) means the equipment that can „fight", remove the snow. The underlined element is a premodifier of a noun and a compound adjective. The whole Czech equivalent <u>*protisněhový*</u> *strojový park* is longer using similar words when translating. The underlined element is a compound of a preposition and an adjective. The other sentences relating to the group H are 3., 7., 9., 36., 57., 58., 61.

There were 2 examples found in the group I - The English non-finite form replaced by the Czech adjective of the different meaning. For example the English participial –ing form *roving* in the sentence 27. is translated as the Czech adjective *pohyblivé*.

> 27. There was a separate board for banjo teams – <u>roving</u> crews with individual snow shovels. p. 12

Zvláštní tabule byla vyhrazena bandžo týmům, což byly <u>pohyblivé</u> skupiny se sněhovými lopatami. p. 11, 12

The group I contains the forms of the different meaning, i.e. between the English –ing form and its Czech equivalent, the second example is: *standing – služební* (sentence 50.).

There were 17 examples found in the group J - The English non-finite form replaced by the Czech sentence and the meaning is clear from the sentence. For example the English participial –ing form *missing* in the sentence 2. is replaced by the Czech subordinate adverbial clause of place. The meaning is clear from the main and subordinate clause that something is missing. The Czech equivalent *pohřešovaný* is missing in the Czech sentence.

> 2. A search for the truck – in driving snow and darkness – had so far failed to locate either the <u>missing</u> vehicle or its driver. p. 9
> Veškeré pátrání po vozidle – ve sněhové metelici a ve tmě – bylo zatím bezvýsledné. Nikdo neměl potuchy, <u>kde kamión trčí</u> nebo co se stalo s řidičem. p. 9

The English participial –ing form *waiting* in the sentence 10. is replaced by the Czech coordinate sentences with a clear meaning. The Czech equivalent *čekajícími* is missing in the Czech sentence.

> 10. Meanwhile, terminal gates, taxiways, and ground holding areas were increasingly crammed with <u>waiting</u> aircraft, many with engines running. p. 10
> Mezitím se odbavovací plochy, rolovací dráhy a čekací plochy stále víc ucpávaly letadly a mnohým z nich běžely motory. p. 9

This group is also very numerous. The English word does not have to have the explicit Czech equivalent. Sometimes, the word in Czech cannot express exactly what the English word says and the translator decides to translate the word in a different way. The accurate translation may sometimes act violently and does not fit in the sentence. In other words, the Czech is able to express the English words in other ways and the sentences or clauses (coordinate, subordinate) are the example. The English word is more developed and described in the Czech sentence and the translation does not seem to be so simple when using sentences. The coordinate sentence and subordinate clause surpass the single word and describe the word or the situation in more detail. It also depends on the translator's work with the words. The translation of the English gerund

and the English participial construction by the Czech sentence was already mentioned in 3.1. Czech translation of the English –ing forms. The other sentences relating to the group J are 1., 8., 28., 35., 39., 49., 54., 56., 70., 72., 86., 87., 92., 93., 96.

To conclude the paper's analysis of the English –ing forms replaced by the Czech equivalents, it is good to point out that the Czech version of the book *Letiště* is the translation of the Czech translator, Mariana Stříbrná. There are also other translators of Arthur Hailey's books, for example Jiří Lexa, *Detective* and Hana Žantovská and Michael Žantovský, *Hotel*. When reading the English version of the book, it may happen that the reader would translate it in a different way. The Czech reader, who is able to read the English original, can make his/her own views on the quality of the Czech translation. Even the translations of one book by different translators could be little bit different. It depends on the translator, his/her translation experience and his/her own perception of the foreign language. The comparison of the translations by different translators is not the subject of the paper. The point was to describe that the translations may vary and they are all acceptable to the readers.

7.   Conclusion

The aim of this paper was to analyse the occurrence of the English –ing forms in relation to their syntactic functions with attention paid to the Czech equivalents of these –ing forms. The fictional literature was the main source for the analysis. The result is that there are 33 gerunds and 67 participles of the total 100 examples.

The syntactic functions of the gerund, of the participle and the groups of Czech equivalents are accompanied by the comments in the practical part. They are all demonstrated in provided English and equivalent Czech sentences taken from the selected text from fiction.

The most numerous syntactic function of the gerundial construction is the premodifier demonstrated in 14 examples. The function of the premodifier is to specify and modify the head of the phrase. Next is the gerund in the function of the direct object illustrated in 9 examples. The occurrence of these two syntactic functions is relatively high concerning the overall low number of the gerundial constructions in the analysed text. The remaining syntactic functions occurred in a very low number in the text, for example the subject (Appendix 3). It is probable that they do not usually occur in the text in a high number. As it was mentioned already, the number of examples of each syntactic function could be higher when analysing higher number of all examples, for example one thousand examples.

The most numerous syntactic function of the participial construction is the adverbial in the function of the adjunct demonstrated in 25 examples. This analysis shows that the adjunct is frequently used in fiction. It is because of the various semantic roles of the adjunct and various fictional moments that the text provides. The number of the premodifiers and the postmodifiers takes the second place in the participial constructions. Each modifier is represented by 18 examples. The advantage of the modifiers is that they can be paraphrased by the relative clause and they modify the head of the phrase. The occurrence of these three participial syntactic functions is very high considering the overall high number of the participial constructions in the analysed text and considering the extremely low number of the remaining functions.

The most numerous group of the Czech equivalents is the group C - The English non-finite form replaced by the Czech finite verb of the same or the similar meaning demonstrated in 35 examples of the 100 examples. The characteristics of the finite verb

may be the main reason of the high number of examples in this group. The second largest group is the group J - The English non-finite form replaced by the Czech sentence and the meaning is clear from the sentence illustrated in 17 examples of the 100 examples. The exact Czech equivalent is missing and the sentence is what can replace the English –ing form. The remaining groups are also worth mentioning because they show that the Czech has a lot of possible translations of the English –ing forms.

The first hypothesis that „There will be more gerunds than participles in fiction." was not confirmed. The reason is that the participles occur in a high number in the function of the adjunct, the premodifier and the postmodifier in the analysis. All these functions specify and add details of what is described in a sentence or in a phrase. To compare it with the gerund, there are quite a lot of premodifiers but only few adverbials and no postmodifiers in the analysis. Next, the participles are frequent in the complex sentences in which the main clauses and the dependent clauses have the same subjects. The number of analysed examples was quite narrow and the result would be more valid when analysing at least one thousand examples.

The second hypothesis that „There will be fewer Czech non-finite verbs of the same or the similar meaning (group A) than Czech finite verbs of the same or the similar meaning (group C) when translating into Czech." was confirmed. The reason may be that the Czech uses more finite forms of a verb because the Czech finite verb can identify the person, the singular or the plural, the tense, the mood, the voice and the aspect. The Czech participles as non-finite verb forms are rarely used in Czech because they are considered archaic and the gerund does not exist in Czech. The Czech infinitives are also non-finite forms and they do not identify all the grammatical meanings as the finite verb forms.

Resumé

Bakalářská práce se soustředí na výskyt anglického gerundia a participia ve vztahu k jejich syntaktickým funkcím ve fiktivní literatuře. Část práce se také věnuje českým ekvivalentům těchto –ing tvarů. V práci je analyzován zvolený anglický text z fiktivní literatury a porovnán s jeho českým překladem.

Teoretická část bakalářské práce blíže popisuje okruhy, které se k tématu práce vztahují. Popsána je valence, gerundium, participium, gradient, jazyková typologie, český překlad anglických –ing forem a fiktivní styl. V této části se vychází z odborné anglické i české literatury, která se zabývá lingvistikou.

Valence se vztahuje v této práci ke slovesu. Sloveso spolu s podmětem tvoří základní skladební dvojici a je schopno na sebe vázat další větné členy, například ve funkci podmětu, předmětu a další. Tyto další větné členy mohou být právě v anglickém –ing tvaru představující gerundia nebo participia. Ve větě se objevují v různých syntaktických funkcích. Větné členy v různých syntaktických funkcích spolu se slovesem vytváří příklady valenčních vzorů. Druh slovesa určuje, které další větné členy ve větě musí být a které jsou nepovinné. Popsané syntaktické funkce v kapitole 2.1. a 2.2. jsou vždy doplněny příkladem, ze kterých jsou valenční vzory patrné.

Větší pozornost je věnována anglickému gerundiu a participiu. Nejdříve je definováno gerundium, vyjmenovány a zároveň popsány možné syntaktické funkce gerundia ve větě. Jednotlivé syntaktické funkce gerundia jsou vždy doplněny příkladovou větou. Poté je definováno participium, vyjmenovány a zároveň popsány možné syntaktické funkce participia ve větě. Jednotlivé syntaktické funkce participia jsou také vždy doplněny příkladovou větou. Definice gerundia a participia od dvou autorů poskytuje čtenáři možnost si vytvořit vlastní a širší náhled na zkoumaný jev. Gerundium i participium je doplněno přehlednou tabulkou možných podob obou jevů. Popsány jsou i syntaktické funkce, které analýza ve zvoleném textu neodhalila.

Teoretická část se také zabývá různými rysy gerundia a participia. Gerundium má jmenné a slovesné rysy a může existovat v podobě podstatného jména nebo slovesa. Participium má adjektivní a slovesné rysy a může se objevit v podobě přídavného jména nebo slovesa. Ke správnému určení gerundia nebo participia je nutné znát různé okolnosti, které se k –ing formám vztahují. Existují také případy, ve kterých –ing forma postrádá určité vlastnosti nebo rysy nutné k určení slovního druhu a slovní druh tak

nemůže být jasně určen. K určení slovního druhu může postačit třeba další větný člen. Těmto problematickým –ing formám se říká „gradient", vztahují se k tématu bakalářské práce, ale v praktické části jim není věnována pozornost.

V teoretické části je také probráno téma týkající se jazykové typologie. Anglický jazyk, na rozdíl od českého jazyka, nemá rozvinutý flektivní systém. Angličtina potřebuje další pomocná slova, aby vyjádřila to, co čeština umí vyjádřit různými koncovkami ve slově. Skloňování a časování nabízí širokou škálu českých koncovek. V angličtině je důležitý i pevný slovosled pro vyjádření různých významů. Čeština nemá pevný slovosled a vystačí si se zmíněnými koncovkami pro vyjádření různých významů. V této kapitole jsou také probrány možnosti českých ekvivalentů anglického gerundia a participia, například finitní sloveso, infinitiv, podstatné jméno slovesné a další. Další rozdíl mezi angličtinou a češtinou je, že angličtina dává přednost používání nefinitních (neurčitých) forem jako prostředků kondenzace. Čeština více využívá finitních (určitých) forem, což se projevuje v častém užití vedlejších vět, přičemž české sloveso je považováno za více dynamičtější než anglické. Čeština nemá gerundium a užití participia je považováno za zastaralé, ale může se v překladu objevit. Vytvořit český ekvivalent anglického gerundia nebo participia se považuje za složitější než je tomu v opačném případě. Někdy také při překladu dochází k jisté reorganizaci ve větě.

Poslední kapitola teoretické části je zaměřena na popis fiktivního stylu. Definice, charakteristika fiktivního stylu, jeho znaky a odlišnosti od ostatních stylů nejsou opomenuty. Tato kapitola také zahrnuje účel fiktivní literatury a komu je tato literatura určena. Fiktivní literatura má i podkategorie, například dobrodružná literatura. Zvolený text, který je analyzován v praktické části právě pochází z dobrodružné literatury. V této kapitole je obsaženo i shrnutí různých jazykových prostředků, které autor fiktivní literatury při psaní může uplatnit.

Praktická část bakalářské práce nejdříve obecně popisuje –ing formy ve fiktivní literatuře. Následuje analýza a stručné kroky, jakými byla analýza provedena a na co se analýza soustřeďuje. Je zde obsažena informace o tom, odkud byl zvolený anglický i český text převzat, kde jsou obsaženy všechny zvolené věty k analýze a co příloha s těmito větami ještě obsahuje, aby se čtenář práce mohl snadno orientovat, například písmena A – J jako skupiny českých ekvivalentů.

Následují samotné analýzy týkající se výskytu gerundia ve fiktivní literatuře, výskytu participia ve fiktivní literatuře a analýza anglických –ing forem ve vztahu k českým ekvivalentům. Každá analýza číselně i slovně popisuje výskyt gerundia a participia ve vztahu k jednotlivým syntaktickým funkcím a blíže popisuje skupiny českých ekvivalentů těchto –ing forem. Komentáře k jednotlivým syntaktickým funkcím a skupinám českých ekvivalentů jsou doplněny příkladovými větami ze zvoleného textu z fiktivní literatury.

Závěr poskytuje souhrn syntaktických funkcí anglického gerundia a participia, které se ve zvoleném textu vyskytují nejčastěji a nejčastějších českých ekvivalentů těchto –ing forem. Závěrečná část také poskytuje komentář ke stanoveným hypotézám.

Výsledkem analýzy je, že ve zvoleném textu je 33 gerundií a 67 participií z celkového počtu 100. Nejpočetnější syntaktickou funkcí gerundia je premodifikátor zahrnující 14 příkladů. Premodifikátor blíže určuje a modifikuje hlavní člen fráze. Další početnou syntaktickou funkcí je přímý předmět zahrnující 9 příkladů. Výskyt těchto dvou syntaktických funkcí je relativně vysoký ve vztahu k celkovému nízkému počtu gerundií v analyzovaném textu. Zbývající syntaktické funkce se v analyzovaném textu objevují v nízkém počtu, například gerundium ve funkci podmětu. Je pravděpodobné, že zbývající funkce se obvykle v textu neobjevují ve větší míře. Jak již bylo v práci zmíněno, počet příkladů u jednotlivých syntaktických funkcí by mohl být vyšší v případě, že by se analyzoval větší počet příkladů, například tisíc a analýza by tak poskytovala hodnotnější výsledky.

Nejpočetnější syntaktickou funkcí participia je příslovečná vazba ve funkci adjunktu zahrnující 25 příkladů. Tato analýza ukazuje, že adjunkt je ve fikci často používán. Je to proto, že text poskytuje prostor pro různé sémantické funkce adjunktu a prostor pro různé fiktivní momenty. Druhé místo zaujímají participiální premodifikátory a postmodifikátory. Každý modifikátor zahrnuje 18 příkladů, jejichž výhodou je, že mohou být parafrázovány vztažnou větou a modifikují hlavní člen fráze. Výskyt těchto participiálních syntaktických funkcí je dosti vysoký ve vztahu k celkovému vysokému počtu participií v analyzovaném textu a ve vztahu k velice nízkému počtu zbývajících syntaktických funkcí participia.

Nejpočetnější skupinou českých ekvivalentů, zahrnující 35 příkladů ze 100, je skupina C – Anglická nefinitní forma nahrazena českým finitním slovesem stejného

nebo podobného významu. Vlastnosti finitního slovesa mohou být hlavním důvodem vysokého počtu příkladů v této skupině. Druhá největší skupina, která zahrnuje 17 příkladů ze 100, je skupina J – Anglická nefinitní forma nahrazena českou větou a význam je zřejmý z věty. Přesný český ekvivalent chybí a věta je to, co může nahradit anglickou nefinitní formu. Zbývající skupiny také stojí za zmínku, protože ukazují, že čeština poskytuje mnoho možných překladů anglické nefinitní formy.

Cílem práce bylo prokázat, že „Ve fikci bude více gerundií než participií." a „V českém překladu bude méně českých nefinitních sloves stejného nebo podobného významu (skupina A) než českých finitních sloves stejného nebo podobného významu (skupina C)."

První hypotéza „Ve fikci bude více gerundií než participií." se nepotvrdila. Důvodem je, že participia se objevují ve větší míře ve funkci premodifikátoru, postmodifikátoru a adjunktu. Všechny tyto funkce specifikují a uvádí podrobnosti o tom, co fráze nebo věta popisuje. Ve srovnání s gerundiem, gerundium se v analýze sice objevuje ve větším množství ve funkci premodifikátoru, ale jen v několika příkladech jako adverbium a v žádném postmodifikátoru. Participia jsou častá v souvětích, ve kterých hlavní a vedlejší věta má stejné podměty. Počet analyzovaných příkladů je docela nízký a výsledek by byl více validní a hodnotný, kdyby se analyzovalo alespoň tisíc příkladů.

Druhá hypotéza „V českém překladu bude méně českých nefinitních sloves stejného nebo podobného významu (skupina A) než českých finitních sloves stejného nebo podobného významu (skupina C)." se potvrdila. Důvodem může být, že čeština užívá více finitních forem slovesa. České finitní sloveso může určit osobu, číslo jednotné a množné, čas, způsob, rod a vid. Českého participia, jako nefinitní slovesné formy, se v češtině užívá zřídka, protože se považuje za zastaralé a gerundium čeština nemá. České infinitivy jsou nefinitní formy a neurčují všechny mluvnické významy jako finitní formy sloves.

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Appendix 1

1. J- A search for the truck – <u>in driving snow and darkness</u> – had so far failed to locate either the missing vehicle or its driver. - gerund, adverbial clause, adverbial of accompanying circumstance p. 9
Veškeré pátrání po vozidle – ve sněhové metelici a ve tmě – bylo zatím bezvýsledné. Nikdo neměl potuchy, kde kamión trčí nebo co se stalo s řidičem. p. 9

2. J- A search for the truck – in driving snow and darkness – had so far failed to locate either the <u>missing</u> vehicle or its driver. – participle, premodifier of a noun p. 9
Veškeré pátrání po vozidle – ve sněhové metelici a ve tmě – bylo zatím bezvýsledné. Nikdo neměl potuchy, kde kamión trčí nebo co se stalo s řidičem. p. 9

3. H- Similar delays, for <u>varying</u> reasons, were affecting at least a hundred flights of twenty other airlines using Lincoln International. - participle, premodifier of a noun p. 9
Podobné maléry postihly z nejrůznějších důvodů nejméně stovku letů dvaceti jiných společností, které létaly z Lincolnova mezinárodního letiště. p. 9

4. D- Similar delays, for varying reasons, were affecting at least a hundred flights of twenty other airlines <u>using Lincoln International.</u> – participle, postmodifier of a noun p. 9
Podobné maléry postihly z nejrůznějších důvodů nejméně stovku letů dvaceti jiných společností, které létaly z Lincolnova mezinárodního letiště. p. 9

5. A- Air Traffic Control, hampered by the loss of runway three zero, had instituted flow control procedures, <u>limiting the volume of incoming traffic from adjoining air route centres at Minneapolis, Cleveland, …</u> - participle, adverbial clause, adjunct - purpose p. 9
Protože letové dispečerské středisko nemohlo už počítat s dráhou tři-nula, bylo nuceno přehodnotit celý provozní režim a omezit přílety z nejbližších leteckých spojů – z Minneapolis, Clevelandu,… p. 9

6. G- Air Traffic Control, hampered by the loss of runway three zero, had instituted flow control procedures, limiting the volume of <u>incoming</u> traffic from adjoining air route centres at Minneapolis, Cleveland, … - participle, premodifier of a noun p. 9
Protože letové dispečerské středisko nemohlo už počítat s dráhou tři-nula, bylo nuceno přehodnotit celý provozní režim a omezit přílety z nejbližších leteckých spojů – z Minneapolis, Clevelandu,… p. 9

7. H- Air Traffic Control, hampered by the loss of runway three zero, had instituted flow control procedures, limiting the volume of incoming traffic from <u>adjoining</u> air route centres at Minneapolis, Cleveland, … - participle, premodifier of a noun p. 9
Protože letové dispečerské středisko nemohlo už počítat s dráhou tři-nula, bylo nuceno přehodnotit celý provozní režim a omezit přílety z nejbližších leteckých spojů – z Minneapolis, Clevelandu,… p. 9

8. J- Despite this, twenty <u>incoming</u> flights were stacked up overhead, and orbiting, some nearing low fuel limits. – participle, premodifier of a noun p. 9

Stejně se už nad letištěm tísnilo ve vzduchu dvacet letadel, která čekala na povolení k přistání. Kroužila a některým z nich již docházely pohonné látky. p. 9

9. H- Meanwhile, terminal gates, taxiways, and ground <u>holding</u> areas were increasingly crammed with waiting aircraft, many with engines running. – gerund, premodifier of a noun p. 10
Mezitím se odbavovací plochy, rolovací dráhy a čekací plochy stále víc ucpávaly letadly a mnohým z nich běžely motory. p. 9

10. J- Meanwhile, terminal gates, taxiways, and ground holding areas were increasingly crammed with <u>waiting</u> aircraft, many with engines running. - participle, premodifier of a noun p. 10
Mezitím se odbavovací plochy, rolovací dráhy a čekací plochy stále víc ucpávaly letadly a mnohým z nich běžely motory. p. 9

11. C- Meanwhile, terminal gates, taxiways, and ground holding areas were increasingly crammed with waiting aircraft, many with engines <u>running.</u> - participle, postmodifier of a noun p. 10
Mezitím se odbavovací plochy, rolovací dráhy a čekací plochy stále víc ucpávaly letadly a mnohým z nich běžely motory. p. 9

12. G, E- The precise <u>hatching-shipping</u> schedule – like a complex order of battle – was set up weeks ago, before the turkey eggs were laid. – gerund, premodifier of a noun p. 10
Týdny napřed, ještě než krůty snesly vejce, byl vypracován přesný časový rozvrh od vylíhnutí po přepravu – jako složitá bitevní operace. p. 10

13. C- Significant also – if the poults were fed en route, they would stink, and so would the aeroplane <u>conveying them</u>, for days afterwards. – participle, postmodifier of a noun p. 10
Navíc – kdyby krmili kuřátka po cestě, strašně by zapáchala a ještě dlouhé dny potom by zapáchalo i celé letadlo, které je dopravovalo. p. 10

14. H- But an aeroplane had been diverted from passenger to freight service, and tonight the <u>fledgling</u> turkeys would have priority over everything else travelling, human VIPs included. – participle, premodifier of a noun p. 10
Letadlo však převedli z osobní dopravy na nákladní a dnes večer dostanou malí opeřenci přednost před vším i každým, kdo by chtěl cestovat, i kdyby to měli být nějací hlavouni. p. 10

15. A- But an aeroplane had been diverted from passenger to freight service, and tonight the fledgling turkeys would have priority over everything else <u>travelling</u>, human VIPs included. – participle, postmodifier of a pronoun p. 10
Letadlo však převedli z osobní dopravy na nákladní a dnes večer dostanou malí opeřenci přednost před vším i každým, kdo by chtěl cestovat, i kdyby to měli být nějací hlavouni. p. 10

16. G- Terminal <u>waiting</u> areas were jammed with thousands of passengers from delayed or cancelled flights. - gerund, premodifier of a noun p. 10
V čekárnách se jich tísnily tisíce; lety jim odložili nebo zrušili. p. 10

17. G- High on the terminal roof, the airport's immodest slogan, Lincoln international – aviation crossroads of the world, was entirely obscured by <u>drifting</u> snow. – participle, adverbial clause, adjunct - adverbial of means (agent) p. 10
Sebevědomé heslo letiště: Lincolnovo mezinárodní letiště – letecká křižovatka světa, se vysoko na střeše úplně ztrácelo v sněhové průtrži. p. 10

18. G- Normally, from this glass-walled room, the entire airport complex – runways, taxi strips, terminals, traffic of the ground and air - was visible like neatly aligned <u>building</u> blocks and models, even at night their shapes and movements well defined by lights. - gerund, premodifier of a noun p. 11
Jindy byl z téhle skleněné místnosti vidět celý komplex letiště – startovací i rolovací dráhy, čekací plochy, doprava na zemi i ve vzduchu, všechno pěkně jako na dlani, bloky letištních budov i letadýlka jako modely, dokonce i v noci bylo možno přesně rozeznat tvary a pohyby podle světel. p. 11

19. C- As if in resentment, the low pressure system thereupon inflated like a giant malignancy and, still <u>growing</u>, swung first southeast, then north. – participle, adverbial clause, adjunct – accompanying circumstance p. 11
Brzy nato se oblast nízkého tlaku jakoby natruc nafoukla jako obrovský zhoubný nádor, stále rostla a vrhla se nejprve na jihovýchod a pak na sever. p. 11

20. C- It crossed Kansas and Oklahoma, then paused at Arkansas, <u>gathering assorted nastiness.</u> – participle, adverbial clause, adjunct – accompanying circumstance p. 11
Přehnala se přes Kansas a Oklahomu, potom si oddychla nad Arkansasem a soustřeďovala všechnu rozptýlenou jedovatost. p. 11

21. C- Finally, over Illinois the storm unloaded, almost <u>paralysing the state with blizzard winds, freezing temperatures, and a ten-inch snowfall in twenty-four hours</u>. – participle, adverbial clause, adjunct – accompanying circumstance p. 11
A konečně vysypala bouře svůj náklad nad Illinoisem, téměř ochromila celý stát sněhovým vichrem,úderem mrazu a čtvrt metrem sněhu za dvacet čtyři hodiny. p. 11

22. G- Finally, over Illinois the storm unloaded, almost paralysing the state with blizzard winds, <u>freezing</u> temperatures, and a ten-inch snowfall in twenty-four hours. – participle, premodifier of a noun p. 11
A konečně vysypala bouře svůj náklad nad Illinoisem, téměř ochromila celý stát sněhovým vichrem,úderem mrazu a čtvrt metrem sněhu za dvacet čtyři hodiny. p. 11

23. G- Within the past few hours several men had been ordered home, over-fatigued despite their intermittent use of <u>sleeping</u> quarters provided at the airport for just this kind of emergency. – gerund, premodifier of a noun p. 11
Během posledních hodin vedení letiště nařídilo několika mužům, aby šli domů. Byli přepracováni do nemožnosti, třebaže si každý mohl střídavě zdřímnout v noclehárnách postavených na letišti právě pro takový případ mimořádné situace. p. 11

24. H- 'We're losing the <u>parking</u> lots.' – gerund, premodifier of a noun p. 12
„Ztrácíme parkovací plochy." p. 11

25. C- Surrounding them were maps, charts, and bulletin boards <u>recording the state and</u>
<u>location of every piece of motorized snowfighting equipment, as well as men and</u>
<u>supervisors.</u> – participle, postmodifier of a noun p. 12
A kolem nich mapy, nákresy a záznamové tabule, na kterých se zachycoval stav a
poloha každého vozidla protisněhového strojového parku, dále rozestavení mužů a šéfů
part. p. 11

26. H- Surrounding them were maps, charts, and bulletin boards recording the state and
location of every piece of motorized <u>snowfighting</u> equipment, as well as men and
supervisors. – gerund, premodifier of a noun p. 12
A kolem nich mapy, nákresy a záznamové tabule, na kterých se zachycoval stav a
poloha každého vozidla protisněhového strojového parku, dále rozestavení mužů a šéfů
part. p. 11

27. I- There was a separate board for banjo teams – <u>roving</u> crews with individual snow
shovels. – participle, premodifier of a noun p. 12
Zvláštní tabule byla vyhrazena bandžo týmům, což byly pohyblivé skupiny se
sněhovými lopatami. p. 11, 12

28. J- He repeated his message to Maintenance, <u>making it sound like a desperate</u>
<u>personal plea</u>, which perhaps it was. – participle, adverbial clause, adjunct – comparison
p. 12
Opakoval příkaz středisku údržby zoufalým hlasem, jako by se na ně obracel s osobní
prosbou – což byla zřejmě pravda. p. 12

29. D- Whoever ran it was supposed to view the airport as a whole, <u>juggling demands</u>,
and deploying equipment wherever need seemed greatest. – participle, adverbial clause,
adjunct – accompanying circumstance p. 12
Předpokládalo se, že ten, kdo je řídí, má přehled přes celé letiště, že bude sypat
požadavky jako z rukávu a rozmisťovat strojový park tam, kde je nejpotřebnější. p. 12

30. C- Whoever ran it was supposed to view the airport as a whole, juggling demands,
and <u>deploying equipment wherever need seemed greatest.</u> – participle, adverbial clause,
adjunct – accompanying circumstance p. 12
Předpokládalo se, že ten, kdo je řídí, má přehled přes celé letiště, že bude sypat
požadavky jako z rukávu a rozmisťovat strojový park tam, kde je nejpotřebnější. p. 12

31. C- A problem though – and undoubtedly a cause of Danny's sweating – was that
those down below, <u>fighting to keep their own operations going</u>, seldom shared the same
view of priorities. – participle, relative clause, non-restrictive p. 12
Ovšem byl v tom háček, a proto se asi Danny potil. Ti dole, kteří bojovali ze všech sil,
aby práce vůbec mohla pokračovat, jen zřídkakdy měli stejný názor na to, kam dřív
skočit. p. 12

32. A- A problem though – and undoubtedly a cause of Danny's sweating – was that those down below, fighting to keep their own operations <u>going</u>, seldom shared the same view of priorities. – participle, nominal clause, object complement p. 12
Ovšem byl v tom háček, a proto se asi Danny potil. Ti dole, kteří bojovali ze všech sil, aby práce vůbec mohla pokračovat, jen zřídkakdy měli stejný názor na to, kam dřív skočit. p. 12

33. C- <u>Glancing at Danny</u>, Mel shook his head. – participle, adverbial clause, adjunct – accompanying circumstance p. 12
Mel koukl na Dannyho a zavrtěl hlavou. p. 12

34. C- He recognized the speakerphone voice as <u>belonging to a senior foreman</u> who had probably worked continuously since the present snowfall started. – participle, nominal clause, object complement p. 12
Poznal hlas v radiofonu; patřil staršímu předákovi, který pravděpodobně pracoval bez oddychu od chvíle, kdy začalo tohle boží dopuštění. p. 12

35. J- Usually, after an arduous, <u>snow-fighting</u> winter, airport maintenance and management had an evening stag session together which they called 'kiss-and-make-up night'. – participle, premodifier of a noun p. 12
Po těžké zimě, kdy jim všem dal sníh pořádně zabrat, pořádalo obvykle vedení letiště a údržba společný večírek pánské jízdy, kterému se říkalo „odpusťme si, co jsme si". p. 12

36. H- 'They might be – if we could find the <u>frigging</u> truck.' – gerund, premodifier of a noun p. 12
„To by teda měly – jen kdybychom našli ten zatracenej vůz." p. 12

37. C- Danny reached out, <u>turning down the speakerphone volume</u> as a reply slammed back. – participle, adverbial clause, adjunct – accompanying circumstance (purpose) p. 13
Danny natáhl ruku a ztlumil hlasitost, když do radiofonu zaburácela odpověď. p. 12

38. C- 'Try <u>blowing on your hands</u>, Ernie, Danny said.' – gerund, nominal clause, direct object p. 12
„Ernie, dejchni si na ruce, řekl Danny." p. 12

39. J- He used service roads, but although he knew the airport layout intimately, tonight he had trouble <u>finding his way</u> and several times came close to being lost. – participle, nominal clause, object complement p. 13
Ačkoliv řídil vůz po služebních přístupových cestách a znal na letišti každý kámen, dnes večer se jen taktak orientoval a několikrát div nezabloudil. p. 13

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41. C- From here, weary crews and supervisors came and went, alternately <u>sweating</u> and freezing, the ranks of regular workers swelled by auxiliaries – carpenters, electricians, plumbers, clerks, police. – participle, adverbial clause, adjunct – accompanying circumstance   p. 13
Sem přicházely a odtud odcházely znavené party se svými vedoucími, střídavě se potily a mrzly. Stálý stav dělníků byl doplněn pomocnými silami – tesaři, elektrikáři, instalatéry, úředníky, policií. p. 13

42. C- From here, weary crews and supervisors came and went, alternately sweating and <u>freezing</u>, the ranks of regular workers swelled by auxiliaries – carpenters, electricians, plumbers, clerks, police. – participle, adverbial clause, adjunct – accompanying circumstance p. 13
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43. C- But they knew what was expected, <u>having rehearsed snow manoeuvres</u>, like weekend soldiers, on runways and taxi strips during summer and fall. – participle, adverbial clause, adjunct – reason p. 13
Každý však přesně věděl, za co vzít, protože v létě a na podzim nacvičovali sněhové manévry na startovacích a rolovacích dráhách jako vojáci v záloze o víkendech. p. 13

44. H- It sometimes amused outsiders to see snow removal groups, plough blades down, blowers <u>roaring</u>, on a hot, sunny day. – participle, postmodifier of a noun p. 13
Diváci se občas za horkého letního dne bavili, když pozorovali pohyby protisněhových skupin, pluhy spuštěné k zemi, řvoucí sněhomety. p. 13

45. A- But if any expressed surprise at the extent of preparation, Mel Bakersfeld would remind them that <u>removing snow from the airport's operating area</u> was equal to clearing seven hundred miles of highway. – gerund, nominal clause, subject p. 13
A jestliže měl snad někdo dojem, že se přípravy přehánějí, Mel Bakersfeld ho poučil: odstranit sníh z provozní plochy letiště je totéž jako vyčistit sedm set mil dálnice. p. 13

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A jestliže měl snad někdo dojem, že se přípravy přehánějí, Mel Bakersfeld ho poučil: odstranit sníh z provozní plochy letiště je totéž jako vyčistit sedm set mil dálnice. p. 13

47. A- But if any expressed surprise at the extent of preparation, Mel Bakersfeld would remind them that removing snow from the airport's operating area was equal to <u>clearing seven hundred miles of highway.</u> – gerund, nominal clause, prepositional complement p. 13
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48. C- <u>Judging from the present radio voice</u>, Mel guessed that the regular dispatcher had been relieved for the time being, perhaps for some sleep in the 'Blue Room', as Airport Standing Orders – with a trace of humour – called the snow crews' bunkhouse. – participial, adverbial clause, adjunct – result p. 13,14
Podle hlasu v radiofonu Mel usoudil, že pravidelný dispečer má na čas volno; zřejmě si šel dát dvacet do „modrého salónku", jak s pokusem o vtipkování nazýval letištní služební řád barák pro sněhové party. p. 13

49. J- Judging from the present radio voice, Mel guessed that the regular dispatcher had been relieved for the time <u>being</u>, perhaps for some sleep in the 'Blue Room', as Airport Standing Orders – with a trace of humour – called the snow crews' bunkhouse. – participial, postmodifier of a noun p. 13,14
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51. C- Danny Farrow answered <u>without looking up</u>. – gerund, adverbial clause, adverbial of accompanying circumstance (manner) p. 14
Danny Farrow nezdvihl ani hlavu a odpověděl: „Kapitán… p. 13

52. D- Mel nodded, <u>resisting a temptation to take over</u> and direct the search himself for the missing truck and driver. – participle, adverbial clause, adjunct – accompanying circumstance p. 14
Mel přikývl a potlačil pokušení vzít to sám do rukou a řídit pátrání po pohřešovaném náklaďáku a šoférovi. p. 14

53. H- Mel nodded, resisting a temptation to take over and direct the search himself for the <u>missing</u> truck and driver. – participle, premodifier of a noun p. 14
Mel přikývl a potlačil pokušení vzít to sám do rukou a řídit pátrání po pohřešovaném náklaďáku a šoférovi. p. 14

54. J- He shifted, <u>leaning</u>, letting the good foot take his weight. – participle, adverbial clause, adjunct – accompanying circumstance (reason) p. 14
Přešlápl, přenesl váhu na zdravou nohu. p. 14

55. C- He shifted, leaning, <u>letting the good foot take his weight</u>. – participle, adverbial clause, adjunct – accompanying circumstance (reason) p. 14
Přešlápl, přenesl váhu na zdravou nohu. p. 14

56. J- For the time <u>being</u>, the parking lots would have to be abandoned, and later there would be plenty of beefs about *that*. – participial, postmodifier of a noun p. 14
Zatím se musí parkovací plochy opustit, později s nimi bude stejně ještě spousta malérů. p. 14

57. H- For the time being, the <u>parking</u> lots would have to be abandoned, and later there would be plenty of beefs about *that*. – gerund, premodifier of a noun p. 14
Zatím se musí parkovací plochy opustit, později s nimi bude stejně ještě spousta malérů. p. 14

58. H- But the <u>missing</u> driver must be saved first. – participle, premodifier of a noun p. 14
Ale na prvním místě je třeba zachránit pohřešovaného řidiče. p. 14

59. A- And if the driver decided to stay with his truck and keep the motor <u>running for warmth</u>, it could quickly be covered by drifts, with deadly carbon monoxide accumulating beneath. – participle, nominal clause, object complement p. 15
A jestliže se řidič rozhodl zůstat ve voze a nechal běžet motor, aby se zahřál, mohl by ho sníh brzy zavát; pak by se pod sněhovou pokrývkou nahromadil smrtelně otravný kysličník uhelnatý… p. 14

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61. H- The sweat, in <u>increasing</u> quantity, was gleaming on Danny's balding head. – participle, premodifier of a noun p. 15
Dannyho plešatějící hlava se leskla stále větším množstvím potu. p. 14

62. F- The sweat, in increasing quantity, was gleaming on Danny's <u>balding</u> head. – participle, premodifier of a noun p. 15
Dannyho plešatějící hlava se leskla stále větším množstvím potu. p. 14

63. A- Mel was aware that Danny disliked <u>running the Snow Control Desk</u> and was happier in his own department of airport planning, sifting logistics and hypotheses of aviation's future. – gerund, nominal clause, direct object p. 15
Mel si uvědomoval, že se Dannymu zajídá řídit sněhový kontrolní pult a že byl mnohem šťastnější ve svém plánovacím oddělení letiště, kde si mohl pohrávat s logistikou a s hypotézami předpokládaného rozvoje letectví. p. 15

64. B- Mel was aware that Danny disliked running the Snow Control Desk and was happier in his own department of airport planning, <u>sifting logistics and hypotheses of aviation's future.</u> – participle, adverbial clause, adjunct – accompanying circumstance p. 15

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65. C- <u>Reaching over Danny's shoulder</u>, Mel picked up a direct line phone to Air Traffic Control. – participle, adverbial clause, adjunct – accompanying circumstance p. 15
Mel se natáhl přes Dannyho rameno a popadl přímou linku k letovému dispečerskému středisku. p. 15

66. C- That particular trouble had begun shortly after dark when an Aéreo-Mexican captain, <u>taxiing out for takeoff</u>, mistakenly passed to the right instead of left of a blue taxi light. – participle, relative clause, non-restrictive p. 15
Tenhle malér začal krátce po setmění, když kapitán Aéreo-Mexican roloval na start a omylem zahnul napravo místo nalevo od modrého osového světla. p. 15

67. C- Now, more than two hours later, the big jet was still stuck, its fuselage and tail <u>blocking runway three zero.</u> – participle, postmodifier of a noun p. 16
Ale teď, ještě po více než dvou hodinách, bylo velké proudové letadlo stále uvězněné. Trupem a ocasem blokovalo startovací dráhu tři-nula. p. 15

68. C- 'Right now we're holding ten flights for taxi clearance, another dozen <u>waiting to start engines.</u>' – participle, postmodifier of a noun p. 16
„Deseti odletům jsme nepovolili rolovat a tucet dalších čeká na pokyn nastartovat motory." p. 15

69. C- 'The complaints have started <u>coming in already</u>.' – gerund, nominal clause, direct object p. 16
„Už docházejí stížnosti." p. 16

70. J- Eventually, after long negotiations <u>involving politics, more publicity and</u> - in Mel Bakersfeld's opinion - <u>gross misrepresentation</u>, the airport and the Federal Aviation Administration had conceded that jet takeoffs and landings directly over Meadowood would be made only when essential in special circumstances. – participle, postmodifier of a noun p. 17
Po dlouhém vyjednávání, ve kterém sehrály své politika, ještě větší publicita a – podle názoru Mela Bakersfelda – hrubé překrucování skutečnosti, letiště a federální správa letectví nakonec ustoupily a slíbily, že ke startům a přistávání proudových letadel přímo přes Meadowood dojde jen tehdy, pokud to bude za mimořádných okolností zcela nutné. p. 16

71. F- Moreover, it was also agreed that aircraft <u>taking off towards Meadowood</u> would - almost at once after becoming airborne – follow noise abatement procedures. – participle, postmodifier of a noun p. 17
Navíc bylo dohodnuto, že stroje startující směrem k Meadowoodu ztlumí téměř okamžitě po odlepení od země hluk motorů. p. 16

72. J- Moreover, it was also agreed that aircraft taking off towards Meadowood would - almost at once <u>after becoming airborne</u> – follow noise abatement procedures. – gerund, adverbial clause, adverbial of time p. 17
Navíc bylo dohodnuto, že stroje startující směrem k Meadowoodu ztlumí téměř okamžitě po odlepení od země hluk motorů. p. 16
73. H- Even before the answer, he decided glumly that still more hours of his <u>working</u> days were going to be consumed by delegations, arguments, and the same insoluble discussions as before. – gerund, premodifier of a noun p. 17
Ještě než dostal odpověď, chmurně předvídal, že delegace, hádky a diskuse, jež k ničemu nevedou, mu pohltí další hodiny jeho nabitého pracovního dne. p. 16

74. C- 'The phones start <u>ringing right after every takeoff</u> – our unlisted lines, too.' – gerund, nominal clause, direct object p. 17
„Hned po každém startu řinčí telefony, dokonce i přímé linky, které nejsou v seznamu.“ p. 16

75. B- 'They just want the aeroplanes to stop <u>coming over</u>.' gerund, nominal clause, direct object p. 17
„Prostě žádají, aby jim letadla přestala létat nad hlavou.“ p. 16

76. D- <u>Changing the subject</u>, Mel inquired, 'Is my brother on duty tonight?' – participle, adverbial clause, adjunct – accompanying circumstance p. 18
Mel potom obrátil list a zeptal se: „Má bratr dnes službu?“ p. 17

77. A- It involved <u>supervising all incoming flights in the west quadrant</u>. – gerund, nominal clause, direct object p. 18
Znamenalo to kontrolovat všechny stroje, které přilétaly ze západního kvadrantu. p. 17

78. C- It involved supervising all <u>incoming</u> flights in the west quadrant. – participle, premodifier of a noun p. 18
Znamenalo to kontrolovat všechny stroje, které přilétaly ze západního kvadrantu. p. 17

79. C- 'I know you are, and I appreciate your <u>watching out for Keith the way you have</u>.' – gerund, nominal clause, direct object p. 18, 19
„Já vím, já vím, a jsem vám za to vděčný, že se o Keithe tak staráte.“ p. 18

80. C- Mel could sense the other <u>choosing his words carefully</u>. – participle, nominal clause, object complement p. 19
Mel vycítil, že náčelník pečlivě vybírá slova. p. 18

81. F- An airport, any airport, was an odd complexity of <u>overlapping</u> authority. – participle, premodifier of a noun p. 19
Letiště, kterékoliv letiště, bylo zvláštním konglomerátem navzájem se překrývajících kompetencí. p. 18

82. C- He could, and did, intervene in matters <u>affecting the airport as a whole or the welfare of people using it.</u> - participle, postmodifier of a noun p. 19

Mohl zasahovat a také zasahoval do záležitostí, které se týkaly letiště jako celku a zájmů lidí, kteří je užívali. p. 18

83. C- He could, and did, intervene in matters affecting the airport as a whole or the welfare of people <u>using it.</u> - participle, postmodifier of a noun p. 19
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84. G- On another line, Danny Farrow was arguing with the <u>parking</u> lot supervisor, a harassed individual who for several hours had been fielding irate complaints from marooned car owners. – gerund, premodifier of a noun p. 19
Na druhé lince se dohadoval Danny Farrow se správcem parkoviště aut. Správce byl celý zkormoucený, už několik hodin musel poslouchat vzteklé stížnosti majitelů zasypaných aut. p. 18

85. E- It would mean a change of runways, and could they hurry <u>the ploughing of runway one seven, left</u>? – gerund, nominal clause, direct object p. 20
Budou se muset prohodit startovací plochy. Nemohli by urychlit pluhování sněhu ze startovací dráhy jedna-sedm nalevo? p. 18

86. J- It was the kind of pressure, <u>unremitting</u>, which had gone on for three days and nights since the present snowfall started. – participle, apposition p. 20
Takovýhle nátlak je sužoval bez chvilky oddychu už po tři dny a noci, ok okamžiku, kdy se roztrhl pytel sněhu. p. 18

87. J- report blames airport (<u>meaning u</u>) for main hunk of flight delays … - participle, adverbial clause, adjunct – accompanying circumstance p. 20
zpráva svádí na letiště (to je na vás) zpoždění odletů … p. 19

88. C- She had actually coerced a Trans America mechanic into <u>chiselling all capitals from the type bars of her office typewriter.</u> – gerund, nominal clause, prepositional object p. 20
Dokonce přinutila mechanika z Trans America, aby opiloval všechna velká písmena z klávesnice jejího psacího stroje v kanceláři. p. 19

89. C- Someone higher up raised hob about that, Mel had heard, <u>quoting the airline's rigid rule about wilful damage to company property.</u> – participle, adverbial clause, adjunct – accompanying circumstance p. 20
Nějaký hlavoun kolem toho spustil poprask – jak se Mel doslechl – přičemž citoval přísné předpisy společnosti v případě úmyslného poškození majetku. p. 19

90. C- As well as <u>being one of the airline's most senior captains</u>, Demerest was a militant campaigner for the Air Line Pilots Association, and, this season, a member of the Airline Snow Committee at Lincoln International. – participle, adverbial clause, adjunct – accompanying circumstance p. 21
Demerest byl nejenom jedním ze služebně nejstarších kapitánů společnosti, byl také vášnivým bojovníkem spolku dopravních pilotů a v této sezóně navíc členem sněhového výboru leteckých společností na Lincolnově mezinárodním letišti. p. 19

91. G- It always included an active <u>flying</u> captain. – participle, premodifier of a noun p. 21

Ve výboru byl vždy zastoupen letec v aktivní službě. p. 19

92. J- He decided he would make an inspection of the present snow clearance situation at the same time that he was out on the airfield <u>checking on the blocked runway and the mired Aéreo-Mexican jet.</u> – participle, adverbial clause, adjunct – accompanying circumstance (reason) p. 21

Až se půjde podívat na letiště, jak to vypadá s tou zablokovanou startovací dráhou a s tím zabořeným tryskáčem Aéreo-Mexican, udělá si zároveň přehled o celé situaci s odklízením sněhu. p. 20

93. J- He had remembered what Tanya said in her note about <u>having coffee together</u>. – gerund, nominal clause, prepositional complement p. 21

Vzpomněl si, co Táňa napsala ve svém vzkazu o tom šálku kávy. p. 20

94. A- Probably, if it had not been the storm, something else would have arisen to justify <u>not going</u>. – gerund, nominal clause, direct object p. 22

Nebýt té bouřky, naskytlo by se pravděpodobně něco jiného, co by mu zdůvodnilo, proč nemusí jít domů. p. 21

95. A- <u>Not going</u> home, in fact, seemed lately to have become the pattern of his life. – gerund, nominal clause, subject p. 22

Nechodit domů se v poslední době pro něho stalo pravidelným zvykem. p. 21

96. J- It provided plenty of reasons to remain extra hours at the airport, where lately there had been big problems <u>facing him</u>, quite apart from tonight's imbroglio. – participle, postmodifier of a noun p. 22

Poskytovala mu tisíce důvodů, proč musí trávit dlouhé přesčasové hodiny na letišti, kde se na něho hrnul jeden nesnadný problém za druhým – nezávisle na té dnešní šlamastyce. p. 21

97. C- Fortunately, for the sake of peace with Cindy, the <u>starting</u> time was late – almost two hours from now and in view of tonight's weather, it might be even later. p. 23 – gerund, premodifier of a noun

Válka se Cindy snad nevzplane; večírek naštěstí začíná pozdě, až za dvě hodiny, a vzhledem k dnešnímu počasí může propuknou i později. p. 21

98. B- So he could still make it, even <u>after inspecting the airfield</u>. – gerund, adverbial clause, adverbial of time p. 23

Takže může obejít letiště a ještě to stihnout. p. 21

99. D- <u>Using a direct outside line</u>, Mel dialled his home number. – participle, adverbial clause, adjunct – accompanying circumstance p. 23

Mel sáhl po přímé lince a vytočil číslo domova. p. 21

100. F- Though, to be objective, he supposed the <u>increasing</u> strife between Cindy and himself had not helped. – participle, premodifier of a noun p. 23

Má-li být ovšem objektivní, musí připustit, že rostoucí neshody mezi ním a Cindy blahodárný vliv rozhodně neměly. p. 22

Appendix 2

Occurrence of the -ing forms in fiction

Type of -ing form	Number
Gerund	33
Participle	67
Total	**100**

Appendix 3

Occurrence of the gerund

Type of clause	Number
Nominal	15
Adverbial	4
Modifiers	14
Total	**33**

Occurrence of the syntactic functions of the gerund in nominal clauses

Syntactic function	Number
Subject	2
Direct object	9
Prepositional object	1
Subject complement	0
Prepositional complement	3
Adjectival complement	0
Total	**15**

Occurrence of the syntactic functions of the gerund in adverbial clauses

Syntactic function	Number
Adverbial	4
Total	**4**

Occurrence of the syntactic functions of the gerund as modifiers

Syntactic function	Number
Premodifier	14
Postmodifier	0
Total	**14**

Gerund, 33 examples

Subject, 2 examples
45., 95.

Direct object, 9 examples
38., 63., 69., 74., 75., 77., 79., 85., 94.

Prepositional object, 1 example
88.

Subject complement, 0 examples

Prepositional complement, 3 examples
40., 47., 93.

Adjectival complement, 0 examples

Adverbial, 4 examples
1., 51., 72., 98.

Premodifier, 14 examples
9., 12., 16., 18., 23., 24., 26., 36., 46., 50., 57., 73., 84., 97.

Postmodifier, 0 examples

Appendix 4

Occurrence of the participle

Type of clause	Number
Nominal	5
Adverbial	25
Modifiers and Apposition	37
Total	**67**

Occurrence of the syntactic functions of the participal in nominal clauses

Syntactic function	Number
Object complement	5
Total	**5**

Occurrence of the syntactic functions of the participle in adverbial clauses

Syntactic function	Number
Adjunct	25
Conjunct	0
Disjunct	0
Total	**25**

Occurrence of the syntactic functions of the participle as modifiers and aposition

Syntactic function	Number
Premodifier	18
Postmodifier	18
Apposition	1
Total	**37**

Participle, 67 examples

Object complement, 5 examples
32., 34., 39., 59., 80.

Adjuncts, 25 examples
5., 17., 19., 20., 21., 28., 29., 30., 33., 37., 41., 42., 43., 48., 52., 54., 55., 64., 65., 76., 87., 89., 90., 92., 99.

Conjunct, 0 examples

Disjunct, 0 examples

Premodifiers, 18 examples
2., 3., 6., 7., 8., 10., 14., 22., 27., 35., 53., 58., 61., 62., 78., 81., 91., 100.

Postmodifiers, 18 examples
4., 11., 13., 15., 25., 31., 44., 49., 56., 60., 66., 67., 68., 70., 71., 82., 83., 96.

Apposition, 1 example
86.

Appendix 5

The English non-finite –ing forms replaced by the Czech equivalents

Group	Number
A	10
B	3
C	35
D	5
E	2
F	4
G	9
H	14
I	2
J	17
Total	**101**

Sentence 12. is counted twice. It is in a group E and G.

The English non-finite –ing forms replaced by the Czech equivalents
Groups: A - J

A – The English non-finite form replaced by the Czech non-finite verb of the same or the similar meaning (Czech infinitive, Czech participle) – 10 examples
5., 15., 32., 45., 47., 59., 63., 77., 94., 95.

B – The English non-finite form replaced by the Czech non-finite verb of the different meaning (Czech infinitive, Czech participle) – 3 examples
64., 75., 98.

C - The English non-finite form replaced by the Czech finite verb of the same or the similar meaning – 35 examples
11., 13., 19., 20., 21., 25., 30., 31., 33., 34., 37., 38., 40., 41., 42., 43., 48., 51., 55., 60., 65., 66., 67., 68., 69., 74., 78., 79., 80., 82., 83., 88., 89., 90., 97.

D - The English non-finite form replaced by the Czech finite verb of the different meaning – 5 examples
4., 29., 52., 76., 99.

E - The English non-finite form replaced by the Czech non-finite verbal noun of the same or the similar meaning – 2 examples
12., 85.

F - The English non-finite form replaced by the Czech non-finite verbal adjective of the same or the similar meaning – 4 examples
62., 71., 81., 100.

G - The English non-finite form replaced by the Czech noun of the same or the similar meaning – 9 examples
6., 12., 16., 17., 18., 22., 23., 84., 91.

H - The English non-finite form replaced by the Czech adjective of the same or the similar meaning – 14 examples
3., 7., 9., 14., 24., 26., 36., 44., 46., 53., 57., 58., 61., 73.

I - The English non-finite form replaced by the Czech adjective of the different meaning - 2 examples
27., 50.

J - The English non-finite form replaced by the Czech sentence and the meaning is clear from the sentence – 17 examples
1., 2., 8., 10., 28., 35., 39., 49., 54., 56., 70., 72., 86., 87., 92., 93., 96.