

UNIVERZITA PALACKÉHO V OLOMOUCI

Pedagogická fakulta

Ústav cizích jazyků

ANDREA ŠPANIHELOVÁ

III. ročník – prezenční studium

Obor: Anglický jazyk se zaměřením na vzdělávání

CONDENSED CLAUSES AND THEIR CZECH TRANSLATIONS

Bakalářská práce

Vedoucí práce: Mgr. Jana Kořínková, Ph.D.

OLOMOUC 2019

Prohlašuji, že jsem tuto bakalářskou práci zpracovala samostatně a pouze na základě uvedených a řádně citovaných pramenů.

V Olomouci 16. 4. 2019

.....

vlastnoruční podpis

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to acknowledge the valuable support of Mgr. Jana Kořínková, Ph.D. and thank her for being patient and for the helpful comments made to my final work.

ABSTRACT

This bachelor project studies the English condensed clauses and their corresponding Czech translations. The first part focuses on condensation as a linguistic term and provides the general comparison of the Czech and English language, which is vital for the topic of this project. In the second part, the main English condensers are described along with their terminology, syntactic functions and typical ways of translating into Czech. The translations are backed up by bilingual examples taken from a work of J. K. Rolling.

Table of contents

INTRODUCTION.....	6
1. Condensation as a term.....	7
1.1 Differences between the Czech and English.....	7
1.2 The meaning of condensation.....	11
1.3 The importance of condensation.....	12
1.4 The System of condensers.....	13
2. Means of condensation.....	15
2.1 Participles and participle clauses.....	15
2.1.1 General characteristics of participles.....	15
2.1.2 Participle clauses.....	18
2.1.2.1 Participle clauses as attributes.....	18
2.1.2.2 Participle clauses as subject complements.....	20
2.1.2.3 Participle clauses as object complements.....	23
2.2 Gerunds and gerund clauses.....	24
2.2.1 General characteristics of gerunds.....	24
2.2.2 Gerund clauses.....	26
2.2.2.1 Gerund clauses as subjects.....	26
2.2.2.2 Gerund clauses as complements of an adjective phrase.....	28
2.2.2.3 Gerunds clauses as objects.....	28
2.2.2.4 Gerund clauses as adjuncts.....	29
2.3 Infinitives and infinitive clauses.....	31
2.3.1 General characteristics of infinitives.....	31
2.3.2 Infinitive clauses.....	33
2.3.2.1 Infinitive clauses as subjects.....	33
2.3.2.2 Infinitive clauses as objects.....	35
2.3.2.3 Infinitive clauses as nominal predicates.....	37
2.3.2.4 Infinitive clauses as attributes.....	38
2.3.2.5 Infinitive clauses as adjuncts.....	39
2.4 Czech translations of the English condensed clauses.....	41
CONCLUSION.....	42
BIBLIOGRAPHY.....	43
RESUMÉ.....	46
ANNOTATION.....	47

INTRODUCTION

All the existing languages are original in their own ways. The originality may include various phonemes, vocabulary or completely different morphological or syntactic systems. However, these language differences can be misleading while learning a second language; therefore, it is rather crucial to be aware of their existence. If compared to our mother tongue, to the Czech language, the English language tends to use nominal structures more frequently, which sometimes results in shortening, thus condensing the sentence structure. Even though the condensation can occur in the Czech language as well, the occurrence is not that frequent and, therefore, if not studied properly, it might lead to a wrong comprehension of the English condensed structures.

The aim of this bachelor project is to provide a comprehensive theoretical overview of the English condensation along with the typical ways of translating of the condensed structures into Czech.

The first chapter opens with a brief comparison of the Czech and English language and explains the background for the frequent occurrence of condensation in English. This part also focuses on condensation as a linguistic term and underlines its importance.

The second chapter deals with the three main condensers; that is the infinitive, participle and gerund. The description includes the terminology and categorisation, morphology, syntax and typical ways of translating into Czech. The translating strategies are backed up by bilingual examples taken from the book *Harry Potter and the Goblet of Fire* written by J. K. Rowling, which serves as an internationally recognized source of the English language. The general translating strategies are summarised at the end of this chapter. All the examples used to describe the theoretical background of condensers and the usual ways of translating into Czech are taken from 9 sources and can be found in a table attached to the bibliography.

1. Condensation as a term

1.1 Differences between the Czech and English

It is believed that there are around 3. 500 – 7. 000 different languages around the world. Using the language classification, linguists practise two main types of classifying – the genealogical (genetic) and typological classification. The language classification in general helps to understand the differences between languages as well as their relations (Černý, 2008).

The structure of the Czech and English language considerably differs in a number of aspects, such as the genealogical classification, morphological typology (morphology) and syntax.

Firstly, concerning the genealogical classification and relations between the languages, both Czech and English belong to the group of the Indo-European family, which means they were originally derived from the same form of language. When studied in details, it is clear the further directions of development were not similar, because Czech forms a part of the Slavic languages, while English is included in the Germanic group (Černý, 2008).

Secondly, concerning the morphological typology, languages in general differ in the way of expressing the grammatical features (Eifring and Theil, 2005). Czech is classified as a synthetic language type, whereas English belongs to the group of an analytic type (Černý, 2008). Eifring and Their explain that synthetic languages are typical for the tendency to use words formed by more than one bound morpheme, while the analytic languages tend to use one-morpheme words (free morphemes) (Eifring and Theil, 2005).

The following examples are provided as a comparison of the two morphological types and taken from *Anglická mluvnice* by Karel Hais.

The Czech synthetic type: (Já) mluvím.

The English analytic type: I am speaking. (HA)

The personal pronouns are normally not included in a Czech sentence, since the person is marked by the inflectional verb morpheme, while in English they form a crucial part.

The Czech synthetic type: Mluvíš?

The English analytic type: Do you speak? (HA)

Interrogative Czech sentences are realised by changing the word order or by the voice intonation. In English the interrogative sentences are formed by auxiliary (to be, to have, to do, shall, will) and modal verbs (can, may, must, need, ought to) (Hais, 1991).

The Czech synthetic type: Nemluvím německy.

The English analytic type: I do not speak German. (HA)

The verb negation in the Czech language is created by adding a bound morpheme *ne-* to a verb. In a negative English sentence, there is again the auxiliary or modal verb and a free morpheme *not* before the infinitive form of the verb.

Furthermore, synthetic languages use the inflection, which is not typical for the analytic languages (Eifiring and Theil, 2005). Czech nouns, adjectives, numerals and pronouns are inflectional, which means that there are different types of morphemes to distinguish the gender, number and case. There are seven cases in Czech, while English has just two cases, the Common case (a fusion of the nominative, the dative and accusative case, equal to the Czech nominative and accusative) and the Possessive case. However, the word order is crucial to distinguish the type of the case.

Hais provides this example to explain the order:

Mother (N) gave my wife (D) a present (A).

Matka dala mé ženě dárek. // Mé ženě dala matka dárek. (HA)

It is clear the word order in English is very strict and important to express the case, while in a Czech sentence the change of word order can be used just to create an emphasis and is not vital in this case, because the inflection is realised by bound morphemes.

Czech: nominative: moje žena; dative: mojí ženě

English: nominative: my wife; dative: my wife (HA)

The rest of the cases are realised by means of prepositions. The genitive uses the preposition *of* (*the fence of the garden – plot zahrady (HA)*), the dative case takes *to* (*to the garden – zahradě (HA)*) and for the locative and instrumental case the prepositions *about* (*o*), *with* and *by* (*s*) are used (Hais, 1991).

Gender as a grammar category does not exist anymore in English due to the language evolution and it is distinguished according to the real gender of living beings. The third person pronouns are an exception (*he, she; his, her, himself, herself*). While in Czech, the gender is rather crucial, can be male, female or neutral, and is realised verbally by bound morphemes (Hais, 1991).

Czech: On mluvil anglicky. Ona mluvila anglicky. Ono mluvilo anglicky.

English: He spoke English. She spoke English. It spoke English. (HA)

The genders in Czech are realised verbally by zero morpheme, -a and -o morpheme here, while the English verb remains the same.

It is important to mention that no language can be strictly classified as synthetic nor analytic, because the behaviour of some grammar parts may vary (Eifirng and Theil, 2005). There are also few synthetic features in English (the morpheme -s for expressing plural; *dog - dogs*) as well as analytic ones in Czech (the past tense of verbs, except the 3. person; *psát – psal jsem, psal jsi, psali jsme, psali jste*). That is why it is more appropriate to say that Czech tends to be syntactic and English has a tendency of being analytic (Černý, 2008).

Continuing with the syntax differences, Vachek stated that the English language prefers using the nominal predication to the verbal one, which is more natural for the Czech language (Vachek, 1955).

The following examples demonstrate the tendency to use a different type of predication.

For him to offer help means nothing.

To, že nabízí pomoc, nic neznamená.

Mother always insisted on us having a party at Christmas.

Maminka vždycky naléhala, abychom měli o Vánocích večírek.

He led the way down the slope, his shadow stretching behind him on the grass.

Šel první dolů po svahu a jeho stín se za ním táhl po trávě. (DU)

Dušková also uses a term secondary predication, by which she means an alternative form of the full clause realised by a non-finite structure (Dušková, 2012). Vachek explains that the verbal predication dominated in Czech since the form of a finite verb in Czech is much more dynamic than the English one and it serves as the semantic centre of gravity, while in the case of the English finite verb the centre was moved to the nominal element (Vachek, 1955).

Mathesius examines the process in a more detailed way while stating that the crucial role of the finite verb in a Czech sentence is opposed to the English nominal construction with its complicated appearance (Mathesius, 1975). To conclude, the English tendency to use the secondary or nominal predication over the verbal one results in shortening, thus condensing the structure of a sentence (Dušková, 2012).

1.2 The meaning of condensation

The term of condensation as a linguistic element was first used by the Czech linguist V. Matheius (Hladký, 1961) and could be later found in the publications of other Czech grammarians like Vachek, Hladký or Dušková. The conclusion after studying some of the universally recognized linguistic dictionaries or grammars like A Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics written by D. Crystal, Quirk's Comprehensive Grammar of the English language is that the books do not provide a reader with the meaning of the word condensation. However, a term reduction (and then more specifically a reduced clause) occurs rather often and its meaning is comparable to that of the term condensation. Since these two terms differ, the general meanings will be now studied in details to prove that they are both connected to one particular topic.

The meaning of the word condensation and reduction according to Merriam-Webster collegiate dictionary can be explained in the following ways:

Condensation

- 1. The act or process of reducing the size or volume of something by or as if by pressing.*
- 2. A compression of a written or spoken work into more concise form.*

Reduction

- 1. The act of diminishing in size, amount, extent or number.*

As seen from the definitions above and when compared, the general meanings are presented in a rather similar way; furthermore, the words share some of their synonyms, such as a compression or a contraction.

After providing the universal meanings, the linguistic approach presents another crucial issue to be dealt with. As Crystal stated, the term reduction is connected with a clause (he also mentions the term reduced clause) that is not seen as an independent construction (a finite structure) because at least one of its fundamental elements

enabling it to be independent is missing (Crystal, 2003). Mathesius explained his term of condensation as a process that leads into a sentence having a more compact structure; he also uses the term to show the English tendency towards the usage of non-sentence elements to express a situation that would be translated as a subordinate clause in Czech (Mathesius, 1975).

Jelínek claims that the process of condensation of a sentence (specifically a subordinate clause) results in its transforming into a sentence element. The types of these elements are then referred to as means of condensation or condensers. Moreover, not only is the main function of this process to convey a piece of information in a more space-saving way, it also helps to create much closer relations between the sentence elements, which leads to an increased cohesion of the text in general (Jelínek, 2017).

Furthermore, Mathesius uses the term of complex condensation, because even though the structure is reduced, the content does not lack its original complexness (Mathesius, 1975).

The first woman to conquer Mount Everest was a Japanese.

První žena, která zdolala Mount Everest, byla Japonka. (DU)

1.3 The importance of condensation

The reason why studies of this phenomenon can be found mostly among non-English linguists might be the fact the sentence condensation seems to be very specific and natural for the English style in comparison with the Czech language's tendency to express the same circumstances mostly verbally (Vachek, 1955). Hladký also adds that the different structure of Czech and English concerning the morphological typology discussed above results in the unequal occurrence of the condensation (Hladký, 1961).

That does not definitely mean that this process does not exist in Czech, its usage is just not as frequent as in English. When describing the process, Jelínek provides an example of condensation in a Czech sentence.

The original sentence

Nemluvte s řidičem, když // jestliže tramvaj (autobus, trolejbus) jede.

The condensed version

Nemluvte za jízdy s řidičem. (JE)

The condensed version could be seen as incomplete with its apparent lack of information conveyed in the original sentence, but the receiver is supposed to be able to read it from the context since the information is still presented implicitly (Jelínek, 2017).

And since the condensation is a common way of conveying information in English (and not that frequent in Czech), the general awareness of this phenomena is rather crucial for interpreters as well as non-native English speakers. Not only does it contribute to the naturalness of the speech, it can help the users to understand the language in a complex way.

1.4 The System of condensers

Some of the linguistic approaches may differ but in general, they agree that condensation (reduction) means the English tendency to convey a piece of information by a non-finite clause that would be normally express by a subordinate clause in Czech. Both condensation and reduction imply the process of shortening and making the original text more concise, furthermore, condensation also indicates the stronger cohesion of the text.

The means of condensation or so-called condensers can be described as structures that are nominally expressed and derived from the verbal origin (Vachek, 1955). Dušková points out the huge variety and more advanced development of the English system of condenser when compared to the Czech system. Both sets of condensers include the verbal noun, the participles and the infinitive. Apart from the shared ones, the wide range of English condensers includes also the gerund (Dušková, 2012). Some other structures can be also related to this topic, such as the verbless clauses, the pro-forms and ellipsis (Greenbaum and Quirk, 1991) or the agentless passives (Dušková, 2012).

Both the English and Czech participles have the capability of distinguishing the tense (present/past) and also the voice (active/passive). But it is crucial to mention that the English forms of present passive participle and past passive participle are naturally used, while the Czech forms are concerned to be archaic (Hladký, 1961). The examples of Czech forms bellow are provided by Internetová jazyková příručka (Ústav pro jazyk český) and accompanied by the English translations.

The form of present passive participle in Czech:

jsa zván; jsouc zvána, zváno; jsouce zváni, zvány, zvána

The form of present passive participle in English:

being invited

The form of past passive participle in Czech:

byv pozván; byvši pozvána, pozváno; byvše pozváni, pozvány, pozvána

The form of past passive participle in English:

having been invited (IJP)

Another unique aspect worth mentioning concerning the English infinitive is its capability of expressing the tense, however, it is impossible for the Czech form (Mathesius, 2016).

2. Means of condensation

As mentioned above, the main types of condensers include participles, the gerund and the infinitive. The important aspects while describing the specific means of condensation are their categorisation and the corresponding terminology, the morphological characteristic and finally concerning their syntactic function, the condensed clauses that they form and the Czech translation strategies. The strategies will be backed up by examples taken from the book *Harry Potter and the Goblet of Fire*.

2.1 Participles and participle clauses

2.1.1 General characteristics of participles

Concerning the morphological features, participles are a form of a verb accompanied by an inflectional morpheme at the end of the word, therefore –ing is used to create the present participle (*using*). For the past participle there are two inflectional morphemes, –ed (and the allomorphs –d or –t) used in the regular verbs and –en (or –n) valid for the irregular verbs. (Briton, 2000). There are, of course, some other irregular forms with special changes in the word itself, for example *have – had*, *understand – understood* or the structure remains the same, such as *cut – cut*. (Hais, 1991). Dušková (2012) adds that the negative form is created by adding the morpheme *not* in front of the participle structure, for example *not having used*.

The approach to the categorization of participles and the related terminology among linguists considerably differ. Participles can be divided in two different ways. Firstly, as Brinton claims, there are simply two main types of participles, that is the –ing participle (or present participle) and the –en participle, also referred to as past participle. The structure of the –en participle has just one form concerning the voice and aspect, while the –ing participle can occur in the following forms.

-ing form	simple active	working
	perfect active	having arrived
	perfect progressive active	having been writing
	progressive passive	being left out
	perfect passive	having been asked to
	perfect progressive passive	having been being given
-en form	simple past	given

(Briton, 2000)

In addition to the forms of the –ing participle, the occurrence of the perfect progressive passive is highly rare (Briton, 2000).

Secondly, another generally accepted approach treats the forms of the –ing participle as individual participle types. On the one hand, three types of participles can be identified in total, such as the present participle, the past participle, the perfect participle and their active and passive forms (Hais, 1991).

A type of participle	Active	Passive
Present Participle	asking seeing	being asked being seen
Past Participle		asked seen
Perfect Participle	having asked having seen	having been asked having been seen

(Hais, 1991)

On the other hand, according to Dušková's approach, six types of participles can be found, since all the forms are treated individually. Therefore, there are the present, past and perfective participle simple and progressive and two passives, such as the present passive participle and past passive participle (Dušková, 2012).

	A type of participle	An example
The active forms	present participle	using writing
	past participle	used written
	perfect participle - simple form	having used having written
	perfect participle - progressive form	having been using having been written
The passive forms	present passive participle	being used being written
	past passive participle	having been used having been written

(Dušková, 2012)

However, Crystal claims that the type of division using the labels “present” and “past” can be rather confusing in some cases. A useful example provided by Crystal could be a comparison of these two sentences containing a form of past participle:

I have walked.

I shall be kicked. (CR)

As seen in the first sentence, the participle *walked* is strictly connected to the past, while in the second sentence there is no connection between the participle *kicked* and the past. Therefore it is suggested that a set of terms –ing and -ed/-en participles should be used. Not only do these labels seem to be more neutral, they also explicitly describe the form of the structures, so the meanings cannot be understood in an ambiguous way (Crystal, 2003).

Another example supporting the Crystal’s theory about time labelling could be seen while comparing the terminology used by Dušková and Hais. As mentioned above, Hais (1991) says that the perfect participle can create both active and passive forms,

but Dušková (2012) labels it as the past passive participle (even though created from the perfect participle), which can be also misleading because of the term past participle.

As it was already mentioned, contrary to the past (-ed) participle, the present (-ing) and perfect participle have the ability to express time and voice. Actually, the ability to express time is rather limited, since it just refers to the order of the sentences, which means that two situations can happen as a parallel (present participle) or subsequently (perfect participle). Dušková provides the following sentences as an example (Dušková, 2012).

We lined up in the cold, not noticing the cold, waiting for the doors to open.

Having arrived at a decision, he dismissed the matter from his mind. (DU)

It can be seen that the situations in the first sentence happened at the same time, while in the second example the happening was subsequent.

Apart from the condensing function, the participle can form a part of a verb phrase. The progressive tense is formed by the –ing participle along with the auxiliary *be*, the perfect tense by the auxiliary *have* and the –ed participle. The –ed participle also forms the passive together with the verb *be* (Dušková, 2012).

2.1.2 Participle clauses

Syntactically, participles have three respective functions that is the attribute (a nominal premodification and postmodification) and the subject or object complement (Dušková, 2012).

2.1.2.1 Participle clauses as attributes

Firstly, the attributive function of participles can be expressed as the noun premodification or postmodification realised by reduced relative clauses.

The premodification in general is a syntactic term used to describe how one grammatical utterance structurally depends on the other (Crystal, 2003). The noun premodification can be realised by the –ing participial premodifier (*flashing lights (DU)*) or –ed participial premodifier (*a restricted area (DU)*). The participial premodifiers are condensed paraphrases of postmodifiers, usually relative clauses, and the meaning of the relative clauses is conveyed in a more implicit and space-saving way (Biber, 2002).

a restricted area → an area which is restricted

flashing lights → lights which are flashing (DU)

Since premodifiers behave like adjectives in this case, they can be intensified and graded, for example *a very worried appearance* or *a very interesting girl (HA)* (Hais, 1991).

Czech equivalents of the participial premodifiers are a verbal and nonverbal adjective, but it can be also translated by means of a relative clause, as seen from the examples below (Dušková, 2012).

The charming face of Harry Potter - hezký obličej Harryho Pottera (a nonverbal adjective)

The flying car - létající automobil (a verbal adjective)

Small glittering objects - věcičky, které se třpytí (JKR)

Postmodifying clauses realised as reduced relative clauses are condensed versions of a full form consisting of a relative pronoun and a verb phrase. Participle clauses can be formed by the –ing participle used instead of the combination of a verb phrase in an active voice (either simple or progressive form) and a relative pronoun, or by the –ed

participle instead of the passive verb phrase and a relative pronoun (Greenbaum and Quirk, 1991).

The man who owns that car will be fined for illegal parking. (a full relative clause)

The man owning that car will be fined for illegal parking. (a reduced relative clause)

The police rounded up men who are/were known to have been in the building at that time. (a full relative clause)

The police rounded up men known to have been in the building at that time. (a reduced relative clause) (HA)

The usual Czech translation is provided by a verbal adjective or by a subordinate relative clause, usually if a prepositional phrase or an object are presented (Dušková 2012, Hais, 1991).

There came the clink of a bottle being put down upon some hard surface, and then the dull scraping noise of a heavy chair being dragged across the floor. - Ozvalo se cinknutí láhve stojící na něčem tvrdém, a potom neurčitý, skřípavý zvuk, jak kdosi táhl po podlaze těžké křeslo. (JKR)

2.1.2.2 Participle clauses as subject complements

Generally, the complement is realised as a noun, adjectival phrase or a clause and has a co-referential bound with the subject or object (if referred to an object complement) (Greenbaum and Quirk, 1991). According to Hais, if the participles appear in the position of the subject complement, they form a condensed version of full adverbial clauses (time, cause and manner) concerning the same subject (Hais, 1991).

When he finished reading, he dressed quickly and left. (a full subordinate clause)

Having finished reading, he dressed quickly and left. (a condensed version) (HA)

Crystal adds that if the relation between the participle clause and the main clause is ambiguous or not clear, it is called a dangling or misrelated participle and is usually concerned inappropriate (*Driving along the street, a runaway dog gave John a fright.(CR)*) (Crystal, 2003). Dušková explains that the dangling participle can be acceptable just while used in academic style (*Having established a basis for this theory, the next step is to analyse the structure and properties of the components (DU)*) (Dušková, 2012).

The subject complement can be expressed by an –ing participle (*active voice – asking, passive voice – being asked*), referring to a situation happening at the same time as the one in the main clause, and its perfect forms (*active voice – having asked, passive voice – having been asked*), describing a situation that happened before the one in the main clause (Dušková, 2012). Passive forms can be usually shorten by omitting the auxiliaries *being* and *having been*, therefore just the –ed participle is used (Hais, 1991).

The equivalents in Czech are the Czech participles (“přechodníky”) but in contrast to the English structures, which are normally used in both spoken and written language, the Czech equivalents are considered archaisms, so their occurrence is rather rare. Instead, the subordinate clause is usually used. (Dušková, 2012).

The following examples are provided by Hais and illustrate the condensation of time, cause and manner adverbial subordinate clauses. The first Czech translation is a more archaistic one, the second example by a dependent clause (or in some cases even independent) is considered more common (Hais, 1991).

While crossing the street, he slipped and was run over by a car. (time)

Přecházeje ulici, uklouzl a přejelo ho auto. / Když přecházel ulici, uklouzl a přejelo ho auto.

Having plenty of money, he could be anything he liked. (cause)

Maje hodně peněz, mohl si koupit, co chtěl. / Protože měl hodně peněz, mohl si koupit, co chtěl.

He stood at the barrier punching the travellers' tickets. (circumstance)

Stál u závory, proštípuje cestujícím lístky. / Stál u závory a proštípoval lístky cestujícím lístky. (HA)

However, as it was already said, the Czech participles are considered archaisms; therefore, their occurrence is rather rare. The Czech translation is usually provided by a sequence of independent clauses or by a dependent clause.

Brow furrowed, Frank inclined his good ear still closer to the door, listening very hard. - Frank svažtil obočí, naklonil se lépe slyšícím uchem ještě blíž ke dveřím a usilovně naslouchal.

Standing at the sink, filling the kettle, he looked up. – Jak stál u dřezu a naléval vodu do konvice, podíval se k Raddleovu statku a spatřil, že v hořejších oknech blikají světélka.

Feeling that at last something had gone right today, Harry got up to leave - Harry měl nakonec pocit, že aspoň něco ten den dopadlo dobře. Vstal a zamířil ke dveřím. (JKR)

Dušková (2012) adds that the condensed clause can sometimes refer to a “general” agent, in other words these structures are called qualifying sentence modifiers. They are seen as set phrases in English, but in most of the cases, the Czech translations are provided by a subordinate clause.

Broadly speaking – Zhruba řečeno

Allowing for exceptions – Připustíme-li výjimky

Excepting a few details – S výjimkou několika podrobností (DU)

These sentence modifiers can be used in some cases as prepositions (*concerning – pokud jde o, barring – s vyloučením*) (Dušková, 2012).

2.1.2.3 Participle clauses as object complements

The third function, the object complement or so-called the object predicative completes the information given by the object itself (*He did not find her amusing (DU)*) (Biber, 2002). The object predicative can be realised by –ing participle in case of active voice (*they found him dying (DU)*) and by –ed participle when the voice is passive (*they found him injured (DU)*), and can be found in collocations with the sense verbs, such as feel, hear, see or smell (*I heard the rain beating against the window. (DU)*)

The structure of the object complement is a condensed version of a subordinate clause providing further information about the object (Dušková, 2012).

I caught him as he was leaving the house. (a full subordinate clause)

I caught him leaving the house. (an object complement realised by a participle)
(DU)

However, according to Dušková (2012), the postposition here is rather crucial, because if the preposition was used, the structure would be referred to as the noun premodifier, which was mentioned above. The difference can be also demonstrated on the Czech translations.

I saw his success growing. - Viděl jsem, jak jeho úspěch vzrůstá.)

I saw his growing success. - Viděl jsem jeho rostoucí úspěch.) (DU)

Both the attribute and the complement depend on the noun given (*success*), but the participle used as the object complement is also dependent on the verb (*saw*), whereas the attribute functions just as a free modification of the noun.

Concerning the Czech translations, the most typical structure is a dependent clause, then also an infinitive as a complement can be used, the usage of a verbal adjective is not that frequent (Dušková, 2012).

...and it amused them to see him limping across the garden, brandishing his stick and yelling croakily at them. - ...a bavili se, když kulhal po zahradě, hrozil jim holí a skřehotavým hlasem na ně křičel

For a few seconds, Frank could hear nothing but the fire crackling. - Několik vteřin neslyšel Frank nic jiného než praskání ohně.

...and they saw him washing himself vigorously in the water barrel outside the window. - Těžkým krokem vyšel z chatrče a pak už ho viděli, jak se pod oknem úporně myje v sudu s vodou. (JKR)

2.2 Gerunds and gerund clauses

2.2.1 General characteristics of gerunds

Regarding the morphological features, gerunds are formed by adding an inflectional suffix –ing to the verb. The negative form is created by adding *not* before the whole gerundive structure (Briton, 2000).

The structure of the gerund is derived from a verb, and since it functions nominally, the term “verbal noun” is usually used. Briton claims that it can be also labelled as the –ing form functioning nominally, which agrees with the Crystal’s theory of using the neutral labelling (Briton, 2000).

Concerning the verbal features, the gerund has the ability to express the voice and time differences, can be modified by adverbs (*Eating quickly leads to indigestion. (HA)*) and complemented by a noun phrase, syntactically by the object (*I’m not good at guessing people’s ages. (HA)*). Furthermore, since it also behaves as a noun, it can function as a subject, object or attribute, collocate with a preposition (*She went away*

without saying a word.(HA)) and be modified by an adjective or pronoun (*careful listening (HA)*) (Hais, 1991).

In comparison with the classification of participles, gerunds can be clearly divided in two main forms, the simple gerund (the present form) and the perfect gerund (sometimes also called the past form), both having the active and passive form (Hais, 1991). The following chart is provided by Dušková (2012) and agrees with the approaches of Hais and Briton concerning the classification of gerunds.

gerund	present form	past/perfect form
active voice	using	having used
	writing	having written
passive voice	being used	having been used
	being written	having been written

(Dušková, 2012)

When collocated with verbs, gerunds have the ability to express the voice (active or passive) and time. However, the time difference is limited in the same way as it is with participles (Hais, 1991). According to Dušková (2012), when the time difference is expressed implicitly by the verb, the simple gerund can be used instead of the perfect one to simplify the sentence.

I remember seeing/ having seen her there. (DU)

In some cases (*the floor wants scrubbing – podlaha potřebuje vydrhnout, the windows need cleaning - okna potřebují vyčistit (DU)*) the active form can also express a passive meaning (Dušková, 2012).

Dušková (2012) explains that since the form of the –ing participle is the same as the form of the simple gerund, they can be sometimes distinguished by the stress. A collocation containing a premodifying gerund (*'melting point = the point of melting (DU)*) carries just one main stress, while a collocation with a participle (*'melting 'snow = snow that is melting (DU)*) have two separated stresses. The reflection of the fact

that gerunds along with the premodified nouns function as one item can be seen in some Czech translations (*swimming pool – plovárna (DU)*). Moreover, gerunds collocate with prepositions (*on reading his letter (DU)*), whereas participles occur with conjunctions (*while reading his letter (DU)*).

Dušková (2012) also adds that one needs to be careful while distinguishing between the gerund and the deverbal noun since they have the same structure. The deverbal noun is typical for expressing the result of an activity, while the gerund focuses on the activity itself.

His drawing fascinated me. (DU)

If the *drawing* is considered the deverbal noun, it means that the person is fascinated by the picture. But when seen as the gerund, it means fascinating by the way of drawing or by the fact that something was drawn.

2.2.2 Gerund clauses

Apart from the main nominal and adverbial function, as it was discussed above, gerunds can also appear in the position of noun premodifier or postmodifier accompanied by a preposition (*flying time, way of describing (DU)*). However, this function lacks the condensing features; therefore, it will not be described in details.

2.2.2.1 Gerund clauses as subjects

If the gerund occurs as the subject, they express the verbal action. In contrast with the infinitival subject, the gerundial one is more likely to be situated preverbally and tends to express general actions. But as Dušková (2012) says, there are numerous exceptions, therefore it can be seen as a general rule.

Learning a language is a great deal more than the acquisition of a mechanical skills. (general meaning)

To learn a foreign language would be advantageous. (specific meaning)

To yawn /Yawning is impolite. (both general) (DU)

Concerning the agent, it can be absent and seen as general (the first example); it can be presented in a form of object (the second example) or can be expressed by a possessive pronoun (the third example).

Sailing on the lake is great fun.

Not having enough money taught her to economize.

His leaving no address was most inconvenient. (DU)

The agent can be sometimes expressed by a non-possessive form (*Women saying things like that revolts me. (DU)*). However, it is considered confusing since it can be seen as a gerund but also as a participle. Therefore, this form is called fused participle and is considered inappropriate (Dušková, 2012).

There is also a possibility of paraphrasing of gerund clauses into a clause beginning with *that*, which agrees with the Czech translations provided by a subordinate clause (Dušková, 2012).

Having achieved our aim is not enough. / The fact that we have achieved our aim is not enough. - To, že jsme dosáhli svého cíle, nestačí. (DU)

Another way of translating of gerund clauses can be an infinitive or a verbal noun (Hais, 1991).

Laying hands on Harry Potter would be so difficult. - Zmocnit se Harryho Pottera by bylo velice obtížné.

Understanding is the first step to acceptance, and only with acceptance can there be recovery. - Pochopení je první krok k tomu, aby se s tím vším vyrovnal. (JKR)

Dušková adds that gerunds can also function as a part of the nominal predicate (Dušková, 2012).

That's asking too much. - To je příliš velká žádost. (DU)

2.2.2.2 Gerund clauses as complements of an adjective phrase

Another function of gerunds is the role of complement of an adjective phrase, usually after a preposition, such as *be afraid of, be angry at, be please with* etc.

He was angry at Mary ('s) getting married. (QG)

If the possessive case is used, it implies that the person is angry because of the marriage (He was angry at the fact that Mary got married.) On the other hand, if it is not used, the anger is focused on Mary (He was angry at Mary for getting married.) (Greenbaum and Quirk, 1974).

Dušková adds that if gerunds complement the emotional adjectives, they also carry the explanation of the emotional state.

He was angry at being kept waiting. (DU)

Concerning the Czech translations, the most common variant is a dependent clause or an infinitive, rarely a verbal noun (Dušková, 2012, Hais 1991).

Harry corrected him in an undertone, uncomfortably aware of Mr. Roberts trying to catch every word. - Rozladilo ho, že se pan Roberts snaží zachytit každé jejich slovo.

"Ludo says Berthas perfectly capable of getting herself lost." - „Ludo tvrdí, že Berta je schopná perfektně zabloudit kdekoli.“

...who was very good at drawing...- ...který uměl výborně kreslit... (JKR)

2.2.2.3 Gerunds clauses as objects

If gerunds complement a verb phrase, they can function as direct objects or prepositional objects (Greenbaum and Quirk, 1974).

I started thinking about Christmas.

No one could rely on his going to bed early last night. (DU)

However, Hais (1991) points out that one needs to be careful while using the gerund in this sense since not all verbs collocates with gerunds, they can also collocate with infinitives. There are also verbs that can be used with both the gerund and infinitive, while the meaning of each structure is different.

I remember buying stamps. / I must remember to buy stamps. (DU)

The first example implies remembering the situation of buying stamps, whereas the second one conveys the fact that the person must not forget to buy stamps. On the other hand, there is a group of words, such as *like, love, start* etc., whose meaning does not change, no matter which condenser is used. Moreover, there is a tendency of using gerund if the indirect object is absent (Hais, 1991).

The teacher does not allow talking in class. (HA)

The Czech translation is usually provided by using the object infinitive. A dependent clause is required only if the agent of the gerundive clause is presented or if the perfect form is used (Dušková, 2012).

Frank stopped trying to clear out his ear - To už si Frank ucho čistit přestal.

...they need squeezing.- ...a potřebují vymáčkat. (JKR)

2.2.2.4 Gerund clauses as adjuncts

Gerunds have the ability to condense adverbial clauses. In general, gerunds function as adjuncts of time, means, manner purpose and circumstance. If functioning as adjuncts, it is typical for gerunds to be followed by a preposition (*On my entering the room all conversation stopped. (DU)*), except for the case when gerunds follow the motion verbs (*She's gone out shopping. (DU)*) (Dušková, 2012).

Hais claims that the gerund adjuncts of time occur after the prepositions *after, before, in, on, upon*. As it is seen from the examples below, the most common Czech translation is done by a subordinate adverbial clause (Hais, 1991).

...she had been most reluctant to allow them to drink from her water tray before flying off again - ...a jen velice nerada jim dovolila napít se z její misky, než zase odletěli (JKR)

Adjuncts of manner and means follow the preposition *by* or *without*, and, in addition, adjuncts of means can collocate with *through* or *by means of*. These structures are commonly (but not necessarily) translated to Czech as subordinate adverbial clauses introduced by *tak* or *tím*. Another variant of the Czech translation could be using the adjunct as a sentence element (Dušková, 2012).

By being careful about small sums our savings will grow. - Tím, že jsme opatrní na malé částky, naše úspory rostou. (DU)

The suits of armor were suddenly gleaming and moving without squeaking - Brnění se náhle blýskala a při žádném pohybu nezaskřípala. (JKR)

If functioning as adjuncts of circumstance, gerunds are usually introduced by the prepositions *apart from, besides, instead of* or *without*. The Czech translations are often provided by a subordinate clause and a corresponding preposition (Dušková, 2012).

Often, jobs are taken without the parent knowing. - Zaměstnání jsou často přijímána, aniž o tom rodič ví. (DU)

Concerning the adjuncts of purpose, the preposition *for* is typical. The translation is again done mostly by a dependent adverbial clause introduced by the Czech corresponding preposition (Hais, 1991).

...and apologized for calling him a liar. - ...a omluví se mu za to, že ho nazval lhářem. (JKR)

Dušková also adds that even though the subject of the gerund clauses is absent, it agrees with the main clause subject (Dušková, 2012).

2.3 Infinitives and infinitive clauses

2.3.1 General characteristics of infinitives

The term infinitive or so-called base form refers to a non-finite verb form and generally, there are two types of infinitives. The first one is called bare or zero infinitive and is used as a part of a verb phrase or after some modal auxiliaries (except for *ought to* and *used to*) or verbs of perception (*he saw her go (CR)*). The second form, the to-infinitive, contains a particle *to* (*to go (CR)*) and functions as a sentence element. If the to-infinitive form is separated by inserting e.g. an adverb, the form is called split infinitive (Crystal, 2003, Dušková, 2012)

Morphologically, the infinitives consists of the particle *to* (apart from the bare infinitive) and the stem form of a verb (Briton, 2000). Dušková adds that the negative form is created by adding *not* before the whole phrase (*not to carry, not to have written (DU)*) (Dušková, 2012).

Concerning the classification of infinitives, the terminology differs but the forms are generally the same. Dušková claims that there are two main types that is the present and the past infinitive, having the simple or continuous form. The continuous form can be also of active and passive voice (Dušková, 2012).

infinitive	present	past
simple form (active)	to carry	to have carried
	to write	to have written
continuous form (active)	to be carrying	to have been carrying
	to be writing	to have been writing
simple form (passive)	to be carried	to have been carried
	to be written	to have been written

(Dušková, 2012)

The terminology of Hais is similar if compared to the one of Dušková, however, he uses the term *perfect* instead of *past infinitive*. It underlines the fact that the infinitive, as well as the condensers already mentioned above, has the ability to distinguish time differences only if something happens at the same time, before or after something else, but it cannot distinguish the time itself (Hais, 1991).

Apart from all the forms of infinitives listed above, Briton adds the *progressive (continuous) passive* and *perfect progressive passive*, which are mentioned in the table below. However, these forms are highly rare, and as it was said with the occurrence of the perfect progressive passive participle form, they are hardly ever used (Briton, 2000).

simple active	I want to give you a present.
perfect active	He seems to have left.
progressive active	Sally appears to be doing well.
perfect progressive active	He seems to have been doing better recently.
simple passive	She wants to be given more responsibility.
perfect passive	He seems to have been overlooked.
progressive passive	To be being asked stupid questions all the time bothers him.
perfect progressive passive	To have been being asked stupid questions all the time bothered him.

(Briton, 2000)

I can be also seen that Briton's terminology avoids using the time labels, as it is generally recommended by Crystal.

Concerning the ability to distinguish time differences, the present infinitive (simple form) can convey a piece of information that is valid at the same time as the one of the main clause (*I am sorry to bother you, I shall be glad to be back (DU)*) or that will be valid after (*he expects/ expected to be promoted (DU)*). However, this ability is also influenced by the lexical meaning of the finite verb. The past (perfect) infinitive has the ability to express the fact that a piece of information was valid before the one of the main clause (*she will be glad to have done it (DU)*) (Dušková, 2012).

2.3.2 Infinitive clauses

Concerning the syntactic roles, infinitives have a wide range of functions, such as the subject, object, adjuncts, the nominal predicate and adjective complement (Biber, 2002).

2.3.2.1 Infinitive clauses as subjects

If functioning as a subject, the infinitive is usually presented with a verbo-nominal predicate, which normally contains qualitative adjectives like *easy, hard* or *impossible* to describe the quality of an action expressed by the infinitive (*to reach an agreement proved impossible (DU)*), or another kind of adjectives like *polite, crazy* or *careless* referring to the agent of this action. The agent can be then in the role of subject (*You were careless to leave the gate open. (DU)*) or introduced by a preposition *of* (*It was careless of you to leave the gate open. (DU)*) or a preposition *for*, but in this case it lack the qualifying aspects (*For him to offer help means nothing. (DU)*) (Burton-Roberts, 2016, Dušková, 2012).

It can be observed from the examples above that it is also typical for the infinitive subject to be extra posed after the predicate. The sentence is then introduced by an anticipatory *it* functioning as a subject (*It would be impolite to leave so early. (DU)*). Another specific feature for subject infinitives is to be introduced by an interrogative pronoun (*It worries me how to prevent it. (DU)*) (Dušková, 2012).

Quirk points out that the infinitive clause can also serve as an adjective complement (*Bob is slow to react. (QG)*), which resembles the structure of an extraposed infinitive subject (*Bob is hard to convince. (QG)*). The difference is that while in the second case the subject *Bob* functions as the object of the infinitive clause, it is not true for the first case. Moreover, the presence of an adjective complement can be proved by transforming it, e. g. adjunct (*Bob reacts slowly. (QG)*) (Greenbaum and Quirk, 1991).

It would be foolish to act before the Quidditch World Cup is over." - Bylo by pošetilé podnikat cokoli, dokud mistrovství světa ve famfrpálu neskončí.

It would be an insult to her memory not to use the information I extracted from her, Wormtail." - Urazili bychom její věčnou paměť, kdybychom nevyužili toho, co jsem z ní dostal, Červíčku. (JKR)

It can be seen that the one of the ways of translating in Czech is using an infinitive. The second way of translating is a subordinate clause, usually adverbial. Dušková (2012) claims that it depends on the specific structure whether an adjunct or a subordinate clause is used, but as it can be seen from the example above, the perfect form of infinitive requires the usage of a subordinate clause.

The action expressed by the infinitive subject may be real or hypothetical, which can be distinguished according to the semantic structure of the sentence or by the paraphrasing subordinate clause, which is often used in Czech while translating from English. If paraphrased by a clause with *that* (*že*), it describes a real action. Whereas if

the auxiliary verb *should* (in this case translated as *aby*) is inserted, the action is meant to be hypothetical. (Dušková, 2012; Biber, 2002).

It was fortunate for us to be late (It was unfortunate that we were late.) – Byla smůla, že jsme se opozdili.

It is important for you to take part. (It is important, that you should take a part.) – Je důležité, abyste se zúčastnil. (DU)

2.3.2.2 Infinitive clauses as objects

Infinitive clauses can serve as an object after transitive verbs (*He doesn't want to be disturbed. (DU)*) but can also complement the intransitive verbs like *fail*, *hesitate* or *tend* (*He tends to exaggerate. (DU)*) Generally, there are verbs that require just the infinitive (*He refused to cooperate. (DU)*), verbs that can include also the agent of the infinitive clause (*I should like you to go. (DU)*), but also verbs that take the infinitive clause as an object only if the agent is presented (*He requires his stuff to work hard. (DU)*) If the agent of the infinitive clause is not required by the main verb and is the same as the subject of the sentence, it is normally omitted (*He swears to have told the truth. (DU)*). If the infinitive agent is not the same as the subject, it is expressed by a pronoun inserted between the main verb and the infinitive object (*I hate you to be troubled. (DU)*), which is typical for the verbs like *hate*, *like*, *love*, *find*, *wish* etc.) The verbs of perception (*see*, *watch*, *hear* etc.) collocates with the bare infinitive object (*I saw it happen. (DU)*), however, if transformed into passive, the to-infinitive is required (*He was seen to enter the building. (DU)*). Some verbs, such as *acknowledge*, *admit*, *assume*, *suppose* etc. collocate just with the infinitive object *to be* and, moreover, it is usually omitted (*They declared him (to be) a traitor. (DU)*). For these verbs the usage of the agent is required, therefore if the agent of the infinitive object is the same as the subject of the main clause, it must be expressed by a reflexive pronoun (*I believe myself to be an impartial observer. (DU)*). In some cases the agent is introduced by a preposition *for*, if the verbs collocates with the preposition (*The majority voted for the*

project to go on. (DU) or when the agent is not situated right after the main verb (*I want very much for you to go. (DU)*) (Dušková, 2012, Burton-Roberts, 2016, Greenbaum and Quirk, 1991).

The extra position of the infinitive object is possible, but is not very common. If extra posed, the anticipatory *it* then functions as the object (*I found it difficult to adapt myself. (DU)*). After some verbs like *explain, know, learn, show, tell* etc. the infinitive object can be introduced by an interrogative pronoun (*I don't know, what to choose. (DU)*). In many cases the gerund (*I would prefer to go/going alone. (DU)*) or an subordinate clause (*I expect to be back on Sunday./ I expect that I shall be back on Sunday. (DU)*) can be used apart from the infinitive (Dušková, 2012).

The Czech translations are influenced by the agent of the infinitive clause. If the agent is absent (it is the same as the agent of the main verb), then it can be also translated by using the Czech infinitive (Dušková, 2012, Hais, 1991).

If you want to contact me... - Jestli mi budeš chtít napsat... (JKR)

However, according to Dušková (2012), if the agent is different, the infinitive agent can be seen as a part of the infinitive phrase, thus the subject of this phrase, which reflects as well in the Czech translation in a way that it belongs to the dependent clause.

I want you to keep me posted on everything that's going on at Hogwarts. - Chci, abys mě informoval o všem, co se v Bradavicích stane. (JKR)

However, the agent can be also in relation with both the main verb and the infinitive phrase; it can serve as indirect object together with the infinitive phrase functioning as a direct object after verbs like *tell, advice, forbid, teach* etc. or with a special group of verbs, such as *ask, encourage, inspire, invite, trouble* etc. the agent functions unusually as the direct object and the infinite phrase is then placed after it. These two cases result in the Czech variant having the agent included in the independent clause.

I am not asking you to do it alone.- Nežádám po tobě, abys to udělal sám. (JKR)

Sometimes the participle can be used instead of the infinitive object (usually with the verbs of perception), but then the meaning focuses more on the process (in Czech as *vid nedokonavý*) than the result (*vid dokonavý*) (Dušková 2012, Hais 1991).

*I felt his grasp slacken /slackening. – Cítil jsem, jak jeho stisk povolil /povoluje.
(DU)*

2.3.2.3 Infinitive clauses as nominal predicates

Another function of the infinitive clauses is a nominal predicate. More specifically, Longman claims that the infinitive clauses can serve as subject (*My goal is now to look to the future. (BI)*) or object predicative (*Fear thought it to be at least 90% during this winter. (BI)*). These structures provide further information about the subject or object and relate to copular (or linking) verbs, of which the most common is *to be* (Biber, 2002). Hais adds that the group of copular verbs also includes *seem, appear, prove, happen* etc. (*He seems to have got it over. (HA)*). The infinitive clauses can serve as a part of predicate after adjective *likely, certain* or *sure* (*He is not likely to make a fortune. (HA)*) (Hais, 1991).

According to Dušková (2012), the infinitive (or its transformations into a that-clause) cannot be extra posed and cannot take the role of subject, which proves the fact that the infinitive is a part of predicate.

If translated into Czech, the cases with the verb *to be* are often translated by using the Czech infinitive as well or a verbal noun. But if the verbs *seem, appear* etc. or the perfect infinitive occur, the predicative clause is more common to be used (Dušková 2012, Hais 1991).

"Zey are saying zat zis little boy is to compete also!" - „Oni ršíkají, se tady ten chlapeček má také ssoutěšit! “

All four of them appeared to be in a very deep sleep. – Všichni čtyři vypadali, že jsou pohrouženi do hlubokého spánku. (JKR)

2.3.2.4 Infinitive clauses as attributes

Concerning the attributive function, infinitive clauses can serve as noun postmodifiers (*The man to consult is Wilson.(DU)*) and have the same function as a relative clause. If the agent of the infinitive postmodifier is omitted, it may be the same as the subject or object of the main verb (*I asked about the next train to stop at Mickleham.(DU)*) or it might also be a general agent (*The obstacles to be overcome are formidable.(DU)*). If the agent is different from the one of the main verb or is not general, it can be introduced by a preposition *for* (*The man for John to consult is Wilson. (DU)*) (Dušková, 2012, Greenbaum and Quirk, 1991, Hais 1991).

Dušková adds that the infinitive attributes are usually used to convey a special, unique piece of information, usually after a definite article, ordinal numbers or phrases like *the only* (*It's the only thing to do., The first women to conquer Mount Everest was a Japanese. (DU)*) (Dušková, 2012).

Concerning the Czech translation, it is most commonly provided by a relative clause. Another option can be the Czech infinitive (the infinitive might stay in the position of attribute but it is also common to put it in the role of subject). (Dušková 2012, Hais 1991).

...he was the only living person to have survived a curse like Voldemort's. - ...byl jediný na světě, kdo přežil takovou kletbu, jakou vůči němu Voldemort použil. (JKR)

Dušková (2012) adds that the passive infinitive attribute has the ability to express possibility, necessity or future, which also reflects in the Czech translations.

But there is nobody here to judge! (150) Ale vždyť není koho soudit!

There are, however, two difficulties to be overcome. – Jsou však dvě obtíže, které je třeba překonat. (DU)

2.3.2.5 Infinitive clauses as adjuncts

The last function of infinitives to be discussed is the role of adjuncts. Most commonly, infinitives occur as the purpose adjuncts (*The driver slowed down to avoid an accident. (DU)*) and they are condensed versions of the adverbial clauses of purpose. The purpose can be emphasized by using collocations *in order to* or *so as to* (*The driver slowed down in order to avoid an accident. (DU)*) (Dušková, 2012, Greenbaum and Quirk, 1991, Hais, 1991).

According to Dušková (2012) and Hais (1991) the infinitive adjunct can also express the effect, usually after expressions like *such* or *so* (*She is not so foolish to believe that. (DU)*)

If the agent of the infinitive clause is different from the one of the main verb, it is again introduced by the preposition *for* (*He opened the door for her to go out. (DU)*) The infinitive adjunct can be put at the beginning of the sentence, where it has a cohesive (*to conclude, to sum up*) or qualifying function (*to be sincere, to tell the truth*). (Dušková, 2012, Hais, 1991).

Czech translations are most commonly provided by an adverbial clause, no matter if the agent of the infinitive clause is the same as the one of the main verb. Another way of translating is using two independent clauses. (Dušková 2012, Hais 1991).

...the whole village seemed to have turned out to discuss the murders. - ...Celá vesnice se sešla, aby ty mordy náležitě probrala.

...with the idea of refilling his hot-water bottle to ease the stiffness in his knee - ...že si znovu naplní ohřívací láhev, aby bolest v zatuhlém koleně aspoň trochu polevila.

He stayed to tend the garden for the next family... - Zůstal ve Visánku a staral se o zahradu další rodině... (JKR)

Dušková (2012) adds that if the purpose of the infinitive clause is unintentional, it influences the Czech translation as well, since it is translated as subsequent situations presented as two independent clauses. Short version of the Czech translation is also possible, then the second sentence can be turned into an adjunct, here more specifically the adjunct of time

I awoke to find the room flooded by sunshine.

Vzbudil jsem se a zjistil jsem, že pokoj je zalitý sluncem.

Vzbudil jsem se v pokoji zalitém sluncem. (DU)

2.4 Czech translations of the English condensed clauses

Before specifying any general ways of translating the English condensed structures into Czech, it is necessary to mention that every translation is original. Not every example may fit the rules due to the variability and uniqueness of languages in general.

As it can be seen from the chapters above, according to Dušková (2012) and Hais (1991), the most natural way of translating the English condensed clauses into Czech is the dependent clause, the second one is often the infinitive. This is true especially for the everyday communication. However, Minářová (2011) claims that even though the condensation is not that natural for the Czech language, the condensed non-finite clauses are often required to be used in the Czech academic style.

Janiš (1996) points out that not being aware of this phenomenon and the corresponding rules can lead to unnatural ways of translating into Czech. It means that there might be a tendency to copy the English structures into Czech, for example translating the English participles as the Czech participles (“přechodníky”). The form of Czech participles corresponds with the form of the English participles but they are considered archaisms. Therefore, it is nowadays recommended not using these structures since it might not sound naturally. Janiš provides an example using the Czech participle and suggests a more natural version of this example.

The vacuum-cleaner could now be heard quite close at hand, drowning Welch's recorder.

Original translation: *Vysavač zněl nyní docela blízko, přehlušuje Welchův dulcián.*

Recommended translation: *Vysavač byl nyní tak blízko, že přehlušil (i) Welchův Dulcián. (JA)*

CONCLUSION

The primary aim of this bachelor project was to provide a comprehensive theoretical overview of the English condensation along with the typical ways of translating of the condensed structures into Czech.

In order to achieve this aim, it was first necessary to compare the Czech and English language and underline the fact that the Czech language has a tendency to be more synthetic and prefers using the verbal structures, while the English is more analytic and tends to use nominal structures more frequently. This fact relates to the term of condensation, thus using the non-finite structures instead of full clauses, which was explained by analysing and comparing different linguistic approaches.

The main means of condensation or so-called condensers are the participle, gerund and infinitive. The project focused mainly on the related categorisation, morphology and syntax. It could be seen that the infinitive and gerunds have a wide range of syntactic roles, such as the nominal functions (subjects, object) but also the adverbial and attributive function. On the other hand, the participles are typical just for their adverbial and attributive function.

Concerning the Czech translations, it could be seen that, naturally, the Czech language prefers using the finite clauses (usually dependent clauses) to the non-finite ones, which are more typical for English. However, if one is not aware of this fact, it can lead to an unnatural way of translating into Czech, thus overusing the non-finite structures in places, where a finite structure should be used.

Hopefully, this overview on the topic of English condensation will be as beneficial for the others as it was for the author, since it forms an important part of the English grammar and definitely deserves more attention.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

BIBER, Douglas, Susan CONRAD and Geoffrey N. LEECH. *Longman student grammar of spoken and written English*. First published. Harlow: Longman, 2002. ISBN 0-582-23726-2.

BRINTON, Laurel J. *The structure of modern English: a linguistic introduction*. Philadelphia: John Benjamins Pub., c2000. ISBN 9789027225672.

BURTON-ROBERTS, Noel. *Analysing sentences: an introduction to English syntax*. Fourth edition. London: Routledge, Taylor & Francis Group, 2016. Learning about language. ISBN 978-1-138-94734-4.

CRYSTAL, David. *A dictionary of linguistics & phonetics*. 5th ed. Malden, MA: Blackwell Pub., 2003. ISBN 063122663x.

ČERNÝ, Jiří. *Úvod do studia jazyka*. 2. vyd. Olomouc: Rubico, 2008. ISBN 978-80-7346-093-8.

DUŠKOVÁ, Libuše. *Mluvnice současné angličtiny na pozadí češtiny*. 4. vyd. Praha: Academia, 2012. ISBN 978-80-200-2211-0.

GREENBAUM, Sidney a Randolph QUIRK. *A student's grammar of the English language*. 1st edition. London: Longman, 1991. ISBN 0582059712.

HAIS, Karel. *Anglická mluvnice*. 4., opr. vyd. Praha: SPN, 1991. Jazykové příručky pro veřejnost. ISBN 80-04-24717-2.

HLADKÝ, Josef. *Remarks on complex condensation phenomena in some English and Czech contexts*. Praha: MU, 1961. 11 s. Brno Studies in English 3.

MATHESIUS, Vilém., and ed. by Josef Vachek. *A Functional Analysis of Present Day English On a General Linguistic Basis*. First published. The Hague: Mouton. 1975.

MATHESIUS, Vilém. *Obsahový rozbor současné angličtiny*. Praha: Univerzita Karlova v Praze, nakladatelství Karolinum, 2016. ISBN 978-80-246-2267-5.

Merriam-Webster's collegiate dictionary. 11th ed. Springfield: Merriam-Webster, 2003. ISBN 0-87779-810-9.

MINÁŘOVÁ, Eva. *Stylistika pro žurnalisty*. Praha: Grada, 2011. Žurnalistika a komunikace. ISBN 978-80-247-2979-4.

QUIRK, Randolph, Sidney GREENBAUM a R. A. CLOSE. *A University grammar of English: workbook*. London: Longman, 1974. ISBN 0-582-52280-3.

ROWLING, Joanne Kathleen. *Harry Potter & the goblet of fire*. 2nd edition. London: Bloomsbury, 2015. ISBN 978-1-4088-6837-9.

ROWLING, Joanne Kathleen. *Harry Potter a Ohnivý pohár*. 9. vydání. Přeložil Vladimír MEDEK. V Praze: Albatros, 2017. ISBN 978-80-00-04828-4.

VACHEK, Josef. *Some Thoughts on the So-Called Complex Condensation in Modern English*. Brno: SPFFBU A, 1955.

ONLINE SOURCES

EIFRING, Halvor and Rolf Theil. *Linguistics for Students of Asian and African Languages*. [online]. 2005. [cit. 2019-04-17]. Dostupné z: [https://www.uio.no/studier/emner/hf/ikos/EXFAC03AAS/h05/larestoff/linguistics/Chapter%201.\(H05\).pdf](https://www.uio.no/studier/emner/hf/ikos/EXFAC03AAS/h05/larestoff/linguistics/Chapter%201.(H05).pdf)

JANIŠ, Viktor. *Ty naše překlady české* [online]. Interkom, 1996, **13**.(150) [cit. 2019-04-17]. Dostupné z: <http://interkom.vecnost.cz/1996/19961268.htm>

JELÍNEK, Milan. KONDENZACE. *CzechEncy - Nový encyklopedický slovník češtiny* [online]. 2017. [cit. 2019-04-17]. Dostupné z: <https://www.czechency.org/slovník/KONDENZACE>

Ústav pro jazyk český Akademie věd České republiky. *Internetová jazyková příručka*. [online]. Praha: Ústav pro jazyk český Akademie věd České republiky, ©2008–2012 [cit. 12. 2. 2019]. Dostupné z: <http://prirucka.ujc.cas.cz>

Abbreviation	Bibliography
BI	BIBER, Douglas, Susan CONRAD and Geoffrey N. LEECH. <i>Longman student grammar of spoken and written English</i> . First published. Harlow: Longman, 2002. ISBN 0-582-23726-2.
DU	DUŠKOVÁ, Libuše. <i>Mluvnice současné angličtiny na pozadí češtiny</i> . 4. vyd. Praha: Academia, 2012. ISBN 978-80-200-2211-0.
CR	CRYSTAL, David. <i>A dictionary of linguistics & phonetics</i> . 5th ed. Malden, MA: Blackwell Pub., 2003. ISBN 063122663x.
JA	JANIŠ, Viktor. <i>Ty naše překlady české</i> [online]. Interkom, 1996, 13.(150) [cit. 2019-04-17]. Dostupné z: http://interkom.vecnost.cz/1996/19961268.htm
JE	JELÍNEK, Milan. KONDENZACE. <i>CzechEncy - Nový encyklopedický slovník češtiny</i> [online]. 2017. [cit. 2019-04-17]. Dostupné z: https://www.czechency.org/slovník/KONDENZACE .
JKR	ROWLING, J. K. <i>Harry Potter & the goblet of fire</i> . 2nd edition. London: Bloomsbury, 2015. ISBN 978-1-4088-6837-9. ROWLING, J. K. <i>Harry Potter a Ohnivý pohár</i> . 9. vydání. Přeložil Vladimír MEDEK. V Praze: Albatros, 2017. ISBN 978-80-00-04828-4.
HA	HAIS, Karel. <i>Anglická mluvnice</i> . 4., opr. vyd. Praha: SPN, 1991. Jazykové příručky pro veřejnost. ISBN 80-04-24717-2.
IJP	Ústav pro jazyk český Akademie věd České republiky. <i>Internetová jazyková příručka</i> . [online]. Praha: Ústav pro jazyk český Akademie věd České republiky, ©2008–2012 [cit. 12. 2. 2019]. Dostupné z: http://prirucka.ujc.cas.cz
QG	GREENBAUM, Sidney a Randolph QUIRK. <i>A student's grammar of the English language</i> . 1st edition. London: Longman, 1991. ISBN 0582059712. QUIRK, Randolph, Sidney GREENBAUM a R. A. CLOSE. <i>A University grammar of English: workbook</i> . London: Longman, 1974. ISBN 0-582-52280-3.

RESUMÉ

Tato bakalářská práce studuje fenomén kondenzace a kondenzované struktury v anglickém jazyce společně s odpovídajícími českými překlady. V první části práce je rozebrána kondenzace jako lingvistický termín a zároveň je i nastíněno obecné srovnání anglického a českého jazyka. Část druhá studuje jednotlivé kondenzory, konkrétně příslušnou terminologii, morfologické rysy, syntaktické funkce a nejčastější způsoby překládání do českého jazyka, které jsou podloženy příklady z díla J. K. Rowlingové.

ANNOTATION

Jméno a příjmení:	Andrea Španihelová
Katedra:	Ústav cizích jazyků
Vedoucí práce:	Mgr. Jana Kořínková, Ph.D.
Rok obhajoby:	2019

Název práce:	Kondenzované věty a jejich český překlad
Název v angličtině:	Condensed clauses and their Czech translations
Anotace práce:	Tato bakalářská práce se zabývá kondenzací vět v anglickém jazyce a je čistě teoretická. První část práce se soustředí na pojetí kondenzace jako lingvistického termínu a zároveň přináší obecné srovnání českého a anglického jazyka. Část druhá studuje jednotlivé kondenzory, jejich syntaktické funkce a nejčastější způsoby překládání, které jsou podloženy příklady z moderní anglické beletrie společně s jejich českými protějšky.
Klíčová slova:	Kondenzace, kondenzované věty, infinitiv, gerundium, příděstí, překlad
Anotace v angličtině:	This bachelor project deals with condensed clauses in the English language and is theoretically based. The first part focuses on condensation as a linguistic term and also provides the general comparison of the Czech and English language. In the second part the main English condensers are described along with their syntactic functions and typical ways of translating into Czech. The translations are backed up by examples taken from modern English fiction.
Klíčová slova v angličtině:	Condensation, condensed clauses, infinitive, gerund, participle, translation
Přílohy vázané v práci:	Tabulky, CD
Rozsah práce:	47 s.
Jazyk práce:	Anglický jazyk