UNIVERZITA PALACKÉHO V OLOMOUCI
PEDAGOGICKÁ FAKULTA
KATEDRA ANGLICKÉHO JAZYKA A LITERATURY

Diplomová práce

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Gerunds and –ing participles and their translation into Czech

Prohlášení

Prohlašuji, že jsem tuto diplomovou práci vypracovala samostatně pod vedením Mgr. Silvie Válkové, Ph.D., a uvedla v ní veškerou použitou literaturu i ostatní zdroje uvedené v seznamu použité literatury.

Souhlasím současně s užitím práce ke studijním účelům.

V Olomouci dne …………………. ………..……………

podpis

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1 Introduction

A lot of English learners have lots of problems with understanding the system of English tenses, especially with understanding the progressive aspect and its meaning in the Czech language. When they learn the –*ing* forms, they do not realize it. It has been my teaching experience which encouraged me to write about this topic.

The aim of this diploma thesis is to describe one of the non-finite forms of verbs, –*ing* participles. In the first chapter of the theoretical part, I will summarise all the non-finite verb forms and clauses, and briefly introduce the –*ing* participle, which is the main focus of this thesis. In the second chapter, I will focus on the first type of the –*ing* participles, a gerund. I will describe various views of several grammarians, and the differences in their view of the gerund's functions and what it expresses. In the third chapter, I will focus on the –*ing* participle as a part of a progressive aspect of verbs and in condensed clauses, its functions and forms in a sentence and the main difference between a gerund and –*ing* participle. The next chapter will introduce the Czech present and past participles and shows the correct endings of both the participles. In the final chapter, I will make a basic comparison between English and Czech concerning these forms and how they are translated into the Czech language so as to be understandable for the Czech native speaker.

For the research part, which was conducted at three different secondary schools and focussed on the pupils in 9th grade, using the A2 level vocabulary that corresponds with those grades, I defined these hypotheses:

1) they translate the English gerund as the Czech verbal noun, ending with –*í*,

2) if they translate it, they use a word-for-word translation which is in some cases incomprehensible for the Czech-speaking person,

3) they do not know the term "gerund" because they do not need to know it at secondary school but they use it very often and they know how to translate it into Czech,

4) they translate the gerund as the deverbal noun which is not the equivalent of the English gerund,

5) the Czech pupils translate the English –*ing* participle as the Czech archaic participle and when they translate it, they do not use the correct ending,

6) they have difficulties with translating the present progressive tense although it is revised many times at secondary school.

The methods used were questionnaire analysis and comparison of the student's books used at the schools at which the research was conducted. Example sentences were taken from my teaching practice and according to various syntactic positions in a sentence.

As the resources for the theoretical part, I have used the grammar books written by the respected linguists both English and Czech, such as Sidney Greenbaum, Randolph Quirk, Libuše Dušková, Vilém Mathesius, etc. I have translated the Czech authors Libuše Dušková, Vilém Mathesius, Jarmila Tárnyiková, etc. and indicated it in the footnotes.

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2 Introduction to non-finite verb forms and clauses

2.1 Non-finite verb forms

Verb phrases are either **finite** or **non-finite**. A finite verb is a verb that carries a contrast in tense between the present and past, and may also be marked for person and number. In a finite verb phrase the first or only verb is finite, and the other verbs (if any) are non-finite. In a non-finite verb phrase all the verbs are non-finite. *Play* and *played* are finite verbs in these sentences:

We *play* football every day.   [1]

We *played* in a football match last week.   [2]

Play is in the present tense in [1] and *played* is in the past tense in [2].[1]

We *will play* some football later today.   [3]

We *have played* football every day this week.   [4] (Greenbaum, 1993 : 56, 57)

In [3] and [4] the verbs *play* and *played* are non-finite and they follow the auxiliary verbs *will* and *have* in the sentences. In [3] the auxiliary verb is *will,* indicating the future, in [4] *have,* which is indicating a present perfect tense. Auxiliary verbs are verbs which help to provide extra information about a tense, voice, modality, and aspect. If we consider the sentences from the point of view of **verb phrases**, both are finite because the auxiliary verbs in connection with *will* and *played* function as the main verbs.

According to Greenbaum (Greenbaum, 1993 : 57), the following are the non-finite verb forms:

1. the **infinitive**, often introduced by *to*: *(to) phone*

2. the *–ing* **participle** (including a gerund according to some authors[2]): *phoning*

3. the *–ed* **participle**: *phoned*

Such phrases do not normally occur as the verb phrase of an independent clause. (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, Svartvik, 1995 : 150)

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[1] author's note
[2] author's note

When defining a finite verb form, we can identify that it has tense, mood, person, number, aspect and voice. At non-finite verbs or non-finite verb forms, all the verb grammatical categories are impossible to identify. We can define only their aspect and voice.

When we want to transform a finite verb phrase ending with –*ing* participle into a non-finite, we omit the auxiliary *to be*.

Compare the following examples:

They caught him *smoking* cigarettes. (when he was smoking[3])   [1]

Smoking cigarettes is dangerous.   [2]

(Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, Svartvik, 1995 : 153)

In [1] we are speaking about a non-finite verb form which gives a sentence the meaning because it complements the sentence, in [2] we are speaking about a verbal noun called a gerund. In these examples, we have omitted the initial auxiliary *to be* which helps to form the progressive aspect. Omission of the auxiliary helps us to form two types of –*ing* verb forms – a gerund (mentioned above) and present –*ing* participle which are the focus of the following two chapters.

2.2 Functions and syntactic roles of non-finite verb forms

1. **the infinitive** – it can appear in the position of a subject, object, as a part of a predicate (after a modal verb, auxiliary and finite verb), part of an adjective complementation, adverbial infinitive (mostly adverbial of purpose), and attributive infinitive (pre- and postmodification).

2. **the –*ing* participle** (also called a present participle) – it has two types – a) a gerund – it can stand in the position of a subject, direct object, subject complement, appositive, adjectival complementation, prepositional complement (Quirk, 1995 : 1063), b) present participle – it can be found in the position of an attribute, object complement, and part of adjectival complementation, and part of a progressive aspect (Dušková, 1994)

3. **the –*ed* participle** (also called a past participle) – this participle can appear in the position of a modifier (it can modify a noun) and function therefore as an adjective, then it appears in a perfective aspect verb form, and in a passive voice form.

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[3] author's note

The syntactic functions of –*ing* participles are described more in the chapters about a gerund and –*ing* participle.

2.3 Non-finite clauses

Non-finite clauses function as either subordinate clauses (–*ing* clauses and –*ed* clauses) or they can have a grammatical role of a noun, adjective, or a adverb. The clauses contain a non-finite verb form. Here are three types of non-finite clauses according to Greenbaum (Greenbaum, 1993 : 107), depending on the form of the first verb in the verb phrase:

1. **infinitive clauses** with *to* and without *to*, e.g. They wanted *to pay for their meal*. We helped *unlock the car*. (in these cases, the clause functions as a noun and is in the syntactical position of an object)

2. **–*ing* clauses** (or –*ing* participle clauses), e.g. *Just thinking about the final round* put him in a combative mood. (the gerund form in the syntactical position of a subject)

3. **–*ed* clauses** (or –*ed* participle clauses), e.g. *Dressed in street clothes*, the patients strolled in the garden.

The non-finite clauses can occur either at the beginning, at the end, or in the middle of a sentence. The clauses can be divided by commas, depending on the position in the sentence and the function which they serve. In the *to* infinitive clauses, they are not divided because they function as a single unit (e.g. *To drink water from a bottle* is uncomfortable) and not as a sentence condensation. Condensation is the process of transforming the finite clause into non-finite clause (more about condensation in chapter No. 3.3.1).

3 Gerund

*"Eighty percent of success is **showing up**."*
(Woody Allen)

The general characteristic of a gerund is that it is a non-finite form which is formed by adding an *–ing* ending after a verb.

It is the form formed from the old **verbal noun** (see below) ending –ung, as in Old English *leornung* "learning". (see Algeo, Pyles, 2005).

- gerund is the term used for the non-finite verbal –ing form having prevailingly nominal features (but keeping the features of the verb in its complementation): syntactic position within the sentence and similar determination, e.g. His *coming* late was rather offensive. (Hornová, 2003 : 37).

- a verb form which functions as a noun, in Latin ending in *-ndum* (declinable), in English ending in *–ing* (e.g. *asking* in *do you mind my asking you?*) (Hornby, 2007 : 648).

- gerunds are similar to present participles; they both have an *–ing* suffix. However, gerunds differ in that they are not qualifiers; they name actions, behaviours, or states. Gerunds are frequently called verbal nouns (O'Dwyer, 2006 : 61).

- according to Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech and Svartvik, (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, Svartvik, 1995 : 1064), a gerund is a verb of the nominal *–ing* clauses which are sometimes called "gerundive" or "gerundival clauses".

All authors apart from Quirk *et al.* describe a gerund on its own. Only Quirk *et al.* describe it as a part of a nominal clause. This can be explained by the fact that the gerund is usually followed by various sentence elements, e.g. by adverbial, "of" genitive, object, etc.

All the definitions speak about a gerund being a verb form. If we consider the grammatical categories of a verb, we will find that not all of them can be applied to the gerund (we can apply only aspect, voice, and time reference). Therefore we have to be careful about confusing the gerund with the present progressive participle because present progressive

participles have the features of a verb only. On the other hand, gerunds primarily have the features of a noun, although both forms look the same. Compare the following:

reading books vs. *the reading of the books*

In the first example, we are speaking about the gerund, in the second example about the deverbal noun. To reiterate, the gerund functions as a noun but does not possess the grammatical categories of a noun ("of" genitive, preceding by the article, the plural form, etc.)

There is a fluent transition between both forms (the gerund and deverbal noun). Compare the following:

*"*His *drawing* fascinated me*"*, which can express a) the result of a verbal action; b) the act of a verbal action (an activity or process or a way of an action); c) the fact of a verbal action (the fact that he was drawing). (Dušková, 1994 : 569)[4].

In a), we are referring to a deverbal noun similar to deverbal nouns formed by various suffixes (-tion, -al, -ity, -ment, etc.). It is distinguished by all noun features: it forms a plural, it has an adjective modification, it can be predetermined by an article and it can be complemented by an "*of*" genitive, e.g. *His drawings fascinate me. Old drawings of towns fascinate me. He made a rough drawing of the flat.* In b), we are speaking about expressing the act itself – the way he quickly drew the picture fascinated me. Even this time we can premodify it with an article, forming the past and passive forms is also impossible and we can replace it by a different noun. In c), we are speaking about expressing the gerund because it preserves the verbal features – instead of an adjectival modification, we can use an adverbial modification (*His drawing the picture so quickly fascinated me*) (Dušková, 1994 : 569, 570)[5] and we can replace it by an infinitive, e.g. *To draw the picture so quickly makes me happy.*

Some paintings of Brown's, Brown's paintings of his daughter – these are deverbal nouns with a plural ending. It could be replaced by *pictures* or *photos*; it is thus a perfectly regular concrete countable noun, related only to the verb *paint* by word formation. (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, Svartvik, 1995 : 1291)

To summarise, a deverbal noun has the features of a noun and lacks the features of a verb which, on the other hand, is typical for a gerund, e.g. *Swimming* is fun. → we can replace *swimming* by

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[4] author's translation
[5] author's translation

to swim. It is usually a concrete noun which can be replaced by another noun with a similar meaning.

According to Quirk *et al.* (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, Svartvik, 1995 : 1521), we should not confuse the gerund with a deverbal noun because it is defined as being "derived from verbs". The term deverbal applied to nouns is not synonymous with the term verbal noun which we use only for the "gerund" class of nouns in *–ing*.

So since the gerund has features of both a verb and a noun, as is mentioned above, we call it a verbal noun. It was formed by the process of nominalization. According to Quirk, it is a word or a phrase which was formed by this process and it has a systematic correspondence with a clause structure related morphologically to a verb.

The gerund shares many of its syntactic properties with the infinitive with *to*. Thus both may occur as the subject, object or nominal predicate of a sentence, though only the gerund can take noun-qualifiers[6]. (Zandvoort, 1969 : 25)

The English language uses the gerund more often than other languages. It is not only a verbal noun but a real verb form which is complemented by an object like a real verb. (Mathesius, 2001 : 64, 65)[7]

3.1 Form of a gerund

The *–ing* form of both regular and irregular verbs is formed by adding *–ing* /ɪŋ/ to the base:

walk ~ walking   agree ~ agreeing   push ~ pushing

sing ~ singing   pass ~ passing   weep ~ weeping (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, Svartvik, 1995 : 98, 99)

It is a verbal noun – a "gerund" class of nouns in *–ing*. (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, Svartvik, 1995 : 1521)

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[6] adjective, adverb or modifier
[7] author's translation

Sunbathing is dangerous. Do you like *sunbathing*? (Hutchinson, 1998 : 52)

The gerund can have its own subject which can be different from the subject of a predicate e.g. A mother teaches her child *walking*. (see Mathesius, 2001 : 67)[8], *Her child* is the subject of *walking* (= the child will be walking after he learns how to do it), which is an object of teaches, and *a mother* is a subject of *teaches* = two different subjects in one sentence.

This construction is more usual in English than in Czech because the gerund (along with all the participial forms) has a more free usage in English. (see Mathesius, 2001 : 68)[9]

3.2 Functions of a gerund

Gerund may function as:

subject: *Watching* television keeps them out of mischief.

direct object: He enjoys *playing* practical jokes.

subject complement: Her first job had been *selling* computers.

appositive: His current research, *investigating* attitudes to racial stereotypes, takes up most of his time.

adjectival complementation: They are busy *preparing* a barbecue.

prepositional complement: I'm responsible for *drawing up* the budget. (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, Svartvik, 1995 : 1063)

Dušková also adds one more function of a gerund – adverbial – which is usually used after a preposition. A non-preposition gerund occurs only as a destination after verbs of movement, e.g. She's gone *shopping*; do you often go *swimming*? (see Dušková, 1994)

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[8] author's translation
[9] author's translation

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The gerund preserves all syntactic relations in the verb phrase, it is complemented by an accusative object and adverbials in the same way as other verb forms, e.g. *Buying cheap stationary, America's coming of age, investing in paper mills*, etc.

- The "inner subject"[10] remains unspecified as a "general subject", e.g. The nightmare consisted of *being* dead in a coffin in prison from eating Pop Tarts (we do not know who is dead in the coffin).

- The gerund can be preceded by a possessive pronoun, e.g. I thought you liked *my showing* an interest in your work.

- The gerund can be preceded by a possessive case, e.g. *Lydia's going* to Brighton was all that consoled her for the melancholy conviction of her *husband's* never *intending* to go there himself.

- The gerund can appear in an objective or accusative case of object constructions, e.g. *I remember her being* amused and touched by the movie.

- The gerund can follow a preposition which we call a prepositional complement (see above), e.g. I do think the stuff *about him disgracing* himself on the baseball field is silly. (Bělíček, 1994 : 358, 360).

3.3 Gerund reference

A gerund may refer to a fact or an action:

fact: Your *driving* a car to New York in your condition disturbs me greatly. [1]

action: Your *driving* a car to New York took longer than I expected. [2] (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, Svartvik, 1995 : 1064)

(If we consider the *–ing* participle, it expresses an activity which is in progress.)

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[10] The subject that is different from the subject of the main clause, it stands in the subjective or "nominative" case. e.g. Dick parted from him, *the garrison of Castlewood being ordered away*. (in this sentence, we do not know who ordered the garrison away = inner subject), (Bělíček, 1994 : 358)

When an *–ing* form occurs alone or preceded just by a genitive noun phrase, the construction can sometimes be syntactically ambiguous between an *–ing* clause and a noun phrase with a verbal noun in *–ing* as its head:

My hobby is *swimming*. [3]

I hate *lying*. [4]

They liked *our singing*. [5]

Our singing in [5] can refer either to the action of singing or to the mood of singing. Without further expansion by an object or an adverbial, the genitive (*our*) biases towards a mood interpretation. In contrast, the objective (*us*) in [5a] allows only an action interpretation:

They liked *us singing* (they liked when we were singing). [5a]

Since the *–ing* forms in [1] and [2] do not allow a mood interpretation, it appears that this interpretation belongs to the noun phrase structure rather than to the clause structure. Similarly, when we expand [5] by adding an object and thereby making the *–ing* construction unambiguously a clause, the mood interpretation is no longer available.

They liked *our singing folk songs*. (action = gerund)

When the *–ing* form is alone and is the direct object, as in [4], two interpretations of the implied subject are often possible. Thus, *I hate lying* may mean "I hate when I lie", linking the action specifically to the subject of the superordinate clause, or it may generalize ("I hate when people lie"). When the *–ing* construction contains a direct object or an adverbial and is therefore unambiguously clausal, the usual interpretation is that there is an implicit link to the superordinate subject:

I hate *lying*. = telling lies ["I hate it when I tell lies."]

They enjoy singing while playing the guitar. ["They enjoy it when they sing while playing the guitar."]

But this restriction is not absolute. It does not apply after verbs of speaking, where the generic interpretation holds:

She condemned *attacking* defenceless citizens. (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, Svartvik, 1995 : 1065)

3.4 Gerund in nominal clauses

If the *–ing* clause has a subject, the item realizing the subject may be in the genitive case or otherwise in the objective case (for pronouns having a distinctive objective case), or common case (for all other noun phrases). In general, the genitive is preferred if the item is a pronoun, the noun phrase has personal reference, and the style is formal:

I intend to voice my objections to *their* receiving an invitation to our meeting.

The genitive is avoided when the noun phrase is lengthy and requires a group genitive:

Do you remember *the students and teachers protesting against the new rule*?

On the other hand, the genitive case is preferred when the item is initial in the sentence:

My forgetting her name was embarrassing.

Some are troubled by the choice of case here. In some instances, an acceptable alternative is a *that*-clause, which is normally extraposed:

It was embarrassing *that I forgot her name*.

Unlike subject *that*-clause and *to*-infinitive clauses, subject *–ing* clauses are not normally extraposed. The superordinate clause can be interrogative or passive without extraposition:

Will *our saving* energy reduce the budget deficit?

Postponing the proposed legislation is being considered by the subcommittee. (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, Svartvik, 1995 : 1064)

An *–ing* clause may be the subject of a bare existential clause, in which case it normally appears in non-assertive context. With the *–ing* clause that has a genitive as its subject, this construction is anomalous because the *–ing* form is preceded by a determiner, generally *no* and less commonly *any*:

There's *no mistaking* that voice. [One could not mistake that voice.] [1]

There were *no lighting* fireworks that day. ["One could not have lit fireworks that day."] [2]

There isn't *any telling* what they will do. ["One could not tell what they will do."] [3]

There must be *no standing* beyond the yellow line. ["One must not stand beyond the yellow line."] [4]

If the *–ing* construction contains a direct object, it is generally paraphrasable with modal auxiliaries, as in [1-3]. In [4], where the construction lacks an object, a modal auxiliary is present in the sentence. Abbreviated forms with just the negative *–ing* clauses generally have the force of a prohibition:

No *smoking.* No *parking* here. No *playing* loud music. (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, Svartvik, 1995 : 1066)

The gerund also occurs in the function of a noun modifier in both in pre-position and post-position. We can see a gerund pre-modification of a noun in the examples, such as *dining table, filling station, ironing board, sleeping pill, spending money, swimming pool, flying time, etc.* (Dušková, 1994 : 577)[11]

The proof that these phrases are gerund phrases can be seen if they are deconstructed – dining table = a table for dining (not the table that is dining), sleeping pill = a pill for sleeping (not a pill that is sleeping), swimming pool = a pool for swimming (not a pool that is swimming). This can help us to recognize if the preceding *–ing* form is a gerund or not.

3.5 Summary of a gerund

To sum up a gerund, it is a verb form ending with *–ing* and has the features of both the noun and the verb.

1. verbal features

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[11] author's translation

- it uses the same prepositional or non-prepositional structure as the verb, e.g. to build a house vs. building a house

- it can express the active and passive voice, e.g. You should give up smoking. (active) I don't like being disturbed. (passive)

- it can distinguish present and past time reference and aspect, e.g. I don't mind going on foot. We don't like his having been writing letters to me,

- it can be replaced by the *to* infinitive.

2. <u>nominal features</u>

- it functions as a subject, object, complement, and appositive in a sentence, e.g. *Driving* a car requires a driving license. (object)

- it can be preceded by a preposition, e.g. I was congratulated on *having* finished my studies.

- it can be preceded by the 's genitive or pronouns, e.g. Excuse *my* interrupting you.

- it can function as an adjective and premodify a noun, e.g. chewing gum, swimming pool.

4 –ing participle

*"God is a comedian, **playing** to an audience too afraid to laugh."*

(Voltaire)

A word formed from a verb, ending in *–ing* (= the present participle) (Hornby 2007 : 1104).

The *–ing* participle functions as:

a) a part of a progressive aspect following the verb "to be": *He's calling* her now.

b) a sentence condenser: *Coming early,* I found her at home.

c) an attribute, e.g. *running* water, etc.

d) an object complement, e.g. I saw him *watching* TV.

It corresponds to the Czech verbal adjective and participle. (Dušková, 1994 : 580)[12]

- It is a non-finite verb form, which is used as a part of complex (analytical) verb phrases, for sentence condensation, as a determiner, etc. The present participle is often referred to as the *–ing* form. Participial phrases (complex forms of participles) can express the grammatical category of an aspect and voice, e.g. *Having been waiting*… - perfect and progressive aspect, *Having been invited*… - perfect aspect, passive voice. (Hornová, 2003 : 55, 56).

- a word formed from a verb (e.g. *going*, *gone*, *being*, *been*) and used as an adjective (e.g. *working woman*, *burnt toast*) or a noun (e.g. *good breeding*). In English, participles are also used to make compound verb forms (e.g. *is going, has been*).[13]

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[12] author's translation
[13] Oxford Dictionaries. *Participle* [online]. [cit. 15.2.2012]. Dostupné z:
<http://oxforddictionaries.com/definition/participle>.

To sum up, we can use the *–ing* participle as a determiner, adjective, for sentence condensation, and to express the grammatical category of aspect, voice, and time reference. Another category which can be applied to *–ing* participles is a tense. We cannot use a gerund for sentence condensation because it primarily functions as a noun and the process of condensation is possible only for verbal progressive participles.

In comparison with the gerund, the *–ing* participle can function as an adjective which means that it modifies a noun and has all the features of an adjective. This also means that, unlike the gerund, the *–ing* participle can be intensified and compared, e.g. *a more interesting piece of information, the most surprising statement*. Since the *–ing* participle can function as an adjective, we can call it a verbal adjective.

According to Bělíček, verbal adjectives represent a class of words on the boundary between participles and adjectives. Participles are verbal forms with adjective-like traits whose verbal character is seen in their ability to bear accusative objects: *a work consuming much time.* (Bělíček 1994 : 146).

4.1 Syntactic functions of –ing participle

According to Dušková, the *–ing* participle functions as an attribute and an object complement in a sentence. (see Dušková, 1994)

4.1.1 –ing participle as attribute

It occurs mostly in cases in which the participle expresses a characteristic or a permanent attribute, e.g. *developing countries, a squeaking door, a weeping willow, an entertaining person, a house with a winding staircase*, etc. The cases when the participle expresses a temporary feature are more rare, e.g. *a growing tendency, a vanishing view, extenuating circumstances, deafening noise, the visiting team,* etc.

An attributive participle corresponds to a relative clause. Compare the following: *a leaking pot = a pot that leaks, a squeaking board = a board that squeaks.* The participles gradually approach adjectives. They can be then intensified and compared, e.g. *a very becoming dress, a most*

astonishing piece of news, a fitting description, the most interesting book (Dušková, 1994 : 580, 581)[14]

The attribute form is preferred to a relative clause because it is shorter and more concise.

4.1.2 –ing participle as an object complement

It is part of complex transitive complementation which means that the direct object is followed by a non-finite clause acting as predication adjunct. The non-finite clause has no subject itself, but its implied subject is always the preceding noun phrase, which is the object of the superordinate clause. This noun phrase, which, if a personal pronoun is in the objective case, is commonly termed a *raised object*: semantically, it has the role of subject of the non-finite verb; but syntactically it is "raised" from the non-finite clause to function as object of the superordinate verb. Hence, in general, this noun phrase can become subject of the corresponding passive. (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, Svartvik, 1995 : 1201)

The noun phrase following the superordinate verb cannot take the genitive (or possessive) form:

I saw *him* lying on the beach.

The *–ing* predication can normally be omitted without radically altering the meaning:

I saw him *lying* on the beach. [I saw him.] (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, Svartvik, 1995 : 1206)

4.2 –ing participle as a part of progressive aspect

The progressive combines a form of the auxiliary *be* with the *–ing* participle. (Greenbaum, 1993 : 52)

As its name suggests, the *progressive aspect* (also sometimes called the *durative* or *continuous* aspect) indicates an event **in progress** at a given time. Or, according to Greenbaum (Greenbaum, 1993 : 52), it may also imply that it lasts for only a limited period and that it has not ended. Compare:

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[14] author's translation

Simple present: Joan *sings* well. [1]

Present progressive: Joan *is singing* well. [2]

These two sentences have the same tense, but different aspects. Notice the difference this makes to the meaning: *Joan sings well* refers to Joan's competence as a singer (that she has a good voice – a relatively permanent attribute); *Joan is singing well* refers to her performance on a particular occasion or during a particular season. (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, Svartvik, 1995 : 197)

The meaning of the progressive can be separated into three components, not all of which need be present in a given instance:

a) the event has *duration*

b) the event has *limited* duration

c) the event is *not necessarily complete*. (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, Svartvik, 1995 : 98)

A deeper generalization says that the simple present denotes the general, generic, normal, permanent, standard and customary actions, while the present progressive is designed to refer to non-standard, exceptional and occasional events. In progressive forms, the emphasis is laid on personal interest and attitudes, on news, novelties and astonishing communications. (Bělíček, 1994 : 234).

Compare the following:

She goes to school. vs. She is *going* to school.

In these two examples, the *–ing* participle refers to an action which is in progress and having a certain duration. In the example with the present simple tense, the focus is not on the duration but rather on the habit of going to school.

4.3 –ing participle as a part of nonfinite –ing clause

Nonfinite verb phrases have mood distinction, and cannot occur in construction with the subject of a main clause.

Finite: He *was doing* it easily.

Nonfinite: He *doing* it easily. (this sentence is incorrect because the verb "*to be*" needed to make the present progressive form is missing and therefore this sentence can not occur alone[15])

Since modal auxiliaries have no non-finite forms, they cannot occur in non-finite verb phrases. (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, Svartvik, 1995 : 153)

Non-finite clauses can be regarded as reduced clauses, reduced in comparison with finite clauses. They often lack a subject. However, we can analyse them in terms of sentence elements if we reconstruct them as finite clauses, supplying the missing parts that we understand from the rest of the sentence. (Greenbaum, 1993 : 107)

If the *–ing* participle is the first or only verb in the verb phrase, the phrase is non-finite. Non-finite verb phrases normally do not occur as the verb phrase of an independent sentence. (Greenbaum, 1993 : 57)

According to Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech and Svartvik, there are seven possible combinations of participles which are used for reducing the clause:[16]

simple	*eating*
complex	*having eaten*
	being eating
	being eaten
	having been eating
	having been eaten
	having been being eaten [rare]

These combinations are used according to the tense of a sentence which is about to be reduced.

Compare the tense of the following *–ing* participles:

Eating a heavy breakfast, we prepared for our long journey.   [1]

Having eaten a heavy breakfast, we prepared for our long journey.   [2]

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[15] author's note

[16] *–ing* participle combined with *–ed* participle

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In [1], eating and preparation took place at the same time, on the other hand in [2], the breakfast preceded the preparation. (Quirk, Greenbaum, 1999) More about reducing clauses will follow in subsequent chapters.

4.3.1 Sentence condensation

The process of changing a finite clause into non-finite is called reducing the clause. This means that we omit the auxiliary verb and reduce the verb form into one ending with *–ing*. We can have sentence condensation either with a subject or without.

Without subject: *Leaving the room*, he tripped over the mat.

With subject: *Her aunt having left the room*, I asked Ann for some personal help. (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, Svartvik, 1995 : 993)

When a subject is not present in a non-finite clause, the normal attachment rule for identifying the subject is that it is assumed to be identical in reference to the subject of the superordinate clause:

Driving home after work, I accidentally went through a red light. ["While I was driving home after work…"] (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, Svartvik, 1995 : 1121)

As sentence condensers, participles are used especially in those cases in which we want to shift the secondary or peripheral actions/events into the background against which the main activities are, as it were, projected. In a sense, most of the participial condensers function as semi-clausal (or non-finite clauses) of accompanying events, e.g. *He stood for a while, staring into the water, watching the weed flow.*

The only finite clause in the above English example (*He stood for a while,*) is followed by a sequence of two *–ing* condensers (semi-clauses), i.e. *staring, watching*. The semi-clausal structures introduced by "watching" moreover have an additional complex "accusative-with-infinitive" structure, i.e. *watching the weed flow and turn* and *watching the brown stones and surface shimmer*. This is an amalgam[17] (or fusion) of two predications. (Tárnyiková, 1993 : 78).

Sentence condensation is used mostly in written language. We try to avoid it in spoken language because it is sometimes difficult to recognize it when speaking.

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[17] A mixture or combination of different things. (Hornby, 2007 : 44)

4.3.1.1 Postmodification by non-finite –ing participle clause

Postmodification of the noun phrase is possible with –ing participle clause.

A tile *falling from a roof* shattered into fragments at his feet. ("which *fell* from a roof")

At the station you will see a lady *carrying a large umbrella*. ("who *will be carrying* a large umbrella").

It must be emphasized that –ing forms in postmodifying clauses should not be seen as abbreviated progressive forms in relative clauses. (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, Svartvik, 1995 : 1263) But not all –*ing* forms in non-finite postmodifiers correspond to progressive forms in relative clauses. Stative verbs, which cannot have the progressive in the finite verb phrase, can appear in participial form:

He is talking to a girl *resembling Joan*. ("who *resembles* Joan" not "who is resembling Joan")

It was a mixture *consisting of oil and vinegar*. ("that *consisted…*") (Quirk, Grennbaum, 1999 : 372)

In some cases, –*ing* participles occur in frozen expressions with no relative clause alternative, e.g. *for the time being* (not for the time that is). (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, Svartvik, 1995 : 1264)

4.3.1.2 Premodification by –ing participles

Everything here depends on the potentiality of the participle to indicate a permanent or characteristic feature. To a lesser extent, gradability (especially as indicated through intensification by *very*) is involved.

She has a very interesting mind. → Here *interesting* is fully adjectival.

Someone who told good stories could be *a (very) entertaining person* but one would not say this of someone who happened at the moment of speaking to be entertaining his friends with a good story. (Quirk, Grennbaum, 1999 : 384, 385)

In negative non-finite clauses, the negative particle is generally positioned before the verb:

It's his fault for *not* doing anything about it. (Greenbaum, Quirk, 1999 : 994)

4.3.2 Dangling –ing participle

- This is a participle which is a word that can function as a verb or an adjective, and it usually ends in *–ing*. (Knight, 2003 : 99).

- A participle that relates to a noun that is not mentioned. "Dangling participles" are not considered correct. In the sentence "*While walking home*, my phone rang", "*walking*" is a dangling participle. A correct form of the sentence would be "While I was walking home, my phone rang". (Hornby, 2007 : 385).

- Unattached participle, it condenses a clause whose subject is not the same as the subject of the main clause, but it is not expressed before the participle. Sometimes the "understood" subject is implied in the structure of the main clause. Such sentences are more acceptable in scientific literature, e.g. *Using similar techniques, the topic can be presented…* (Hornová, 2003 : 28).

Quirk also calls these clauses *unattached* (like Hornová) because the subject of a non-finite clause is not identical to the subject of the main clause.

The last two definitions describe the dangling participle as not being correct in common language which may be because of the fact that when you do not express the subject of one of the clauses, it gives the impression that the subject of the subjectless clause is the same as the one with the subject expressed. Therefore English speaking people avoid using dangling participles.

Dangling participles are tricky words or phrases that change the meaning of a sentence so that we don't say exactly what we intend. Because of where a participle is placed in a sentence, a verb that was intended to modify the subject of a sentence confusingly seems to modify the object. (Lynch, 2008).

In English, the subject of a participial clause is generally supposed to be identical to that of the main clause. What is important in accepting a given dangling participial construction is coherence of the situations described in the main clause and the participial clause. E.g. *Looking back on the twenty-five years of fostering children, is there any one memory that stands out for you?* (Radden, Panther, 2011 : 89, 92).

Rushing to catch the bus, Bob's wallet fell out of his pocket. → In this sentence, the modifying clause (*Rushing to catch the bus*) contains a participle (*rushing*). The participle is said to be dangling because the subject of the main clause (*Bob's wallet*) is not the thing modified by the initial modifying clause. It was not Bob's wallet that was rushing.

Flying south for the winter, I saw a huge flock of swallows. → The modifying clause (*flying south for the winter*) does not modify the subject of the sentence (*I*). I was not flying south, the birds were.

Driven to drink by her problems, we see how Janet will come to a sticky end. → The modifier refers to *Janet* and not to (*we*) the subject of the sentence. We are not driven to drink by her problems, Janet is.

Dangling participles are considered incorrect in written Standard English. The dangling participial construction evokes a conceptualizer who conceives the situation described in the main clause. Thanks to its constructional semantics, the dangling participle is especially common in the text genres which focus on the interaction with the hearer. (Radden, Panther, 2011 : 89, 92).

It is easy to fall into the trap of having dangling participles (modifiers) in our work. They are not corrected by computer grammar checkers and can be easily overlooked. The more we look at examples of dangling participles, the more we will be able to spot them and remove them from our own writing.[18]

Although it is up to us to decide whether to use it or not, we should try to avoid it in everyday language as much as possible in order not to confuse the hearer.

4.4 –ing participle vs. gerund

A distinction between –*ing* participle and gerund is made on the basis of function, not on that of outward form, but there are cases where it may offer some difficulty. In some of these the difficulty is only apparent. Thus, in *a dancing doll* (= doll that dances) or *a running man* (= a man who runs) we have to do with present participles, while in *a dancing-master* (= a teacher or

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[18] University of Bristol. *Dangling participles.* [online]. 2002-2010. cit. 29.12.2011. Dostupné z: <http://www.bristol.ac.uk/arts/exercises/grammar/grammar_tutorial/page_30.html>.

dancing) or *a running competition* (= a competition in running) with gerunds. (Zandvoort, 1969 : 44).

A gerund pre-modification differs from the participial one in intonation and semantics. With a noun, it forms one intonation unit with a falling curve and a primary stress on the first element and with a secondary stress on the noun. Different semantics are clear from the phrases, e.g. *drinking water = water for drinking, coughing fit = a fit of coughing* are both gerunds, *running water = water that runs, convincing arguments = arguments that convinc*e are both *–ing* participles (Dušková, 1994 : 577)[19]

In *a dancing doll* the participle and the noun have even stress; the participle is pronounced on a high level tone, the noun on a falling tone. In *a dancing-master* the noun has weaker stress than the gerund; the group of gerund plus noun is pronounced on a falling tone (Zandvoort, 1969 : 44).

To sum up the *–ing* participle:

- it can function as a verbal adjective, e.g. running water, paying guests,

- it can be used for sentence condensation, e.g. Going home, I met my mother-in-law.,

- it can be used as part of a progressive aspect, e.g. I am watching TV.,

- it can be used in a non-finite clause, e.g. a tile falling from the roof,

- it can be a part of a dangling participle where the subjects are different, e.g. Going home, my mobile phone fell onto the ground. The dangling participle is considered to be incorrect in both spoken and written everyday English,

- it differs from the gerund in that it does not have the functions of a noun.

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[19] author's translation

5 Czech participles[20]

Czech participles are parallel with English –*ing* participles.

They take the syntactic position of a complement in a sentence because they have a relation to both the subject and predicate. We can define the categories of number, tense, mood, verbal aspect, and gender = these are the categories of both a noun and a verb.

When the participle expresses the time relation of a main verb, we can distinguish the present and past participle: if we speak about time being in progress, we use the **present** participle formed from imperfective verbs; if we speak about time preceding or following the time of a main verb, we use the **past** participle formed from perfective verbs when speaking about past events and the present participle formed of perfective verbs when speaking about future events (therefore we can call it the *future participle,* but it is very rare and occurs only in professional literature). (Bauer, Grepl, 1980 : 176)

In order to use Czech participles correctly, we should know the correct forms and endings.

5.1 Forms of Czech participles

5.1.1 Present participle

It is formed either by the endings:

- *-a* (for verbs, the nouns of which are masculine)

- *-ouc* (for verbs, the nouns of which are feminine and neuter)

- *-ouce* (for verbs of the plural form, the nouns of which are of all genders)

We form this present participle from verbs which have the ending –*ou* in the 3rd person plural present tense: *nesou – nesa, nesouc, nesouce* (Melichar, Styblík, 1967 : 113). Other examples of such verbs are *perou se, hrnou se, etc.*[21]

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[20] all this chapter was translated by the author from the books by Melichar, Styblík (1967) and Bauer, Grepl (1980)
[21] author's note

or by the endings:

- *-e (-ě)* (for verbs, the nouns of which are masculine)

- *-íc* (for verbs, the nouns of which are feminine and neuter)

- *-íce* (for verbs of the plural form, the nouns of which are of all genders)

We form this present participle from verbs which have the ending *–í* in the 3rd person plural present tense: *ukazují – ukazuje, ukazujíc, ukazujíce; hledí – hledě, hledíc, hledíce.* (Melichar, Styblík, 1967 : 113), e.g. *Ukazujíc* mi své nové šaty, začala se červenat. Other examples of such verbs are *zalévají, píší, etc.*[22]

To determine to which group the verb belongs, we need to conjugate the verb into the 3rd person present tense. According to the ending of this form of the verb, we can recognize the ending of the participle.

5.1.2 Past participle

There are two types of conjugated verbs – the verbs which end with a consonant and the verbs which end with a vowel.

If the root of the verb ends with a consonant, the verb takes these endings:

- *-0* (for verbs, the nouns of which are masculine)

- *-ši* (for verbs, the nouns of which are feminine and neuter)

- *-še* (for verbs of the plural form, the nouns of which are of all genders)

  e.g. **VYNES–L** – *vynes, vynesši, vynesše*

This type of past participle is used very rarely.

If the root of the verb ends with a vowel, the verb takes these endings:

- *-v* (for verbs, the nouns of which are masculine)

- *-vši* (for verbs, the nouns of which are feminine and neuter)

- *-vše* (for verbs of the plural form, the nouns of which are of all genders)

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[22] author's note

e.g. **UKLONI**–L – *ukloniv se, uklonvši se, uklonivše se* (Melichar, Styblík, 1967 : 116), e.g. *Uklonivše se* zpěvákům, odešli jsme domů.

As with the present participle, to determine to which group the verb belongs, we need to conjugate the verb into the 3rd person present tense. According to the ending of this form of the verb, we can recognize the ending of the participle.

The Czech participles belong to a group of rather archaic words and are used very rarely or in literature to enrich the language.

In older Czech, it was possible to use a participle the subject of which was not identical to the subject of the main verb (a dangling participle, see above: chapter no. 3 – author's note), but the language of today no longer allows it. (Bauer, Grepl, 1980 : 176)

To summarise Czech participles:

- we can express the grammatical categories of number, tense, mood, verbal aspect, and gender from the Czech participle,

- they function as a complement in a Czech sentence,

- they are used particularly in professional literature,

- they are considered to be archaic expressions,

- they can express an activity happening simultaneously with another activity (present participle) or an activity which precedes another activity (past participle).

6 Translation of English gerunds and –*ing* participles into the Czech language

The difference between English and Czech syntax can be seen when using non-finite or nominal forms. English uses them much more than Czech. For example, when we speak about infinitives with *to*, English has a simple form (make), or with *to* (to make). In terms of the infinitives and tenses, English language has two types of infinitive: present infinitive (make, to make) and past infinitive (have made, to have made). Moreover, English language also possesses active and passive voice infinitives (be made, to be made, have been made, to have been made). (Mathesius, 2001 : 65)

The Czech language avoids using the passive voice as much as possible, while English is characteristic by the frequent use of the passive voice.

What occurs quite often when translating are *calques*. These are literal translations, meaning a word-for-word translation. But when translating from one language to another, the translator must be careful about the structures which occur in both languages.

6.1 Translation of gerunds

In this chapter, I have used a lot of translated gerunds and examples from Dušková's grammar book (Dušková, 1994), which is focused on English grammar with a Czech background, because she concentrates on this translation problem. The examples by Dušková are marked. I have also used some of my own examples from my teaching experience. These are not marked.

The first example which will be analysed is:

→ He likes *swimming*.

There are two ways to translate it – 1. "Rád *plave*.", 2. "Má rád *plavání*." In the second example, I have used the Czech verbal noun to demonstrate the typical ending, –*í*. Here, the gerund in the English sentence stands in the position of an object.

→ My father is responsible for *losing* my book.

"Můj otec je zodpovědný za ztrátu (popř. ztracení) mých klíčů., Můj otec je zodpovědný za to, že ztratil mé klíče." In this case, the ordinary noun "ztráta" was used. In English it is called a deverbal noun, which was described in the chapter about the gerund. Translating the gerund as a verbal noun "ztracení" and using the subordinate clause are also possible.

→ Peter finished *driving* his father's new red car.

"Peter dořídil nové červené auto svého otce." In Czech, when we want to express that an action is finished, we used the prefix *do-*, e.g. *finish reading* (dočíst), *finish swimming* (doplavat), etc. But using the phrase "dokončit čtení" is not natural for the Czech language.

→ *His drawing* the picture so rapidly fascinated me.

There are two ways to translate this sentence – a) Fascinovalo mě, že ten obraz nakreslil tak rychle., b) Skutečnost, že obraz nakreslil tak rychle, mě fascinovala. (Dušková, 1994 : 570) In this case, it is impossible to translate it word for word using the Czech verbal noun ending *–í* because it would become: "Jeho *nakreslení* obrázku tak rychle mě fascinovalo." This Czech sentence structure is strange and looks chaotic. It is impossible to use the Czech verbal noun in all cases and in this case the relative clause was needed instead. The gerund in the English sentence here stands in the position of a subject.

→ Its *having been* drawn rapidly does not detract from its value. (Dušková, 1994 : 569)

"Skutečnost, že byl nakreslen tak rychle, mu neubírá na hodnotě." In this case, we can see that the gerund preserves the features of a verb, especially the aspect which shows us the time reference that the picture was drawn in the past. In the first example, the time reference is expressed by the past form of a finite verb. As in the example above, the gerund in the English sentence stands in the position of a subject.

→ *His leaving* no address was most inconvenient. (Dušková, 1994 : 572)

In this example, the translation should again be made with the help of a relative clause, otherwise the Czech translation with a verbal noun would be incomprehensible (Jeho nezanechání adresy bylo nevhodné). In this case: "To, že nezanechal svou adresu, bylo nevhodné", the gerund is in the position of a subject. We have used the anaphoric reference of the Czech word "*to*". The real subject is the relative embedded clause, not the expression "*to*", it just refers to the relative clause. The gerund, again, is in the syntactic position of a subject.

In another analysed example, the extra clause, which was used, is more appropriate when translating.

→ The wet weather discouraged many people from *going* to the sports meeting.

"Vlhké počasí odradilo mnoho lidí, aby šlo na zápas." (Dušková, 1994 : 573) This time, Dušková used the nominal objective clause. We can notice that the English gerund is used after the preposition (I'm afraid *of going* there. He encouraged me *into coming* soon. I'm looking forward *to seeing* you again., etc.). Another possible translation, using the anaphoric expression, would be: "Vlhké počasí odradilo mnoho lidí od toho, aby šlo na zápas." The gerund in the English example sentence stands in the position of an object.

→ *training sportsmen* (Dušková, 1994 : 570)

This example is ambiguous because it can have two explanations. Firstly, "trénování sportovců" which is a gerund form, and secondly, "trénující sportovci" which is an *–ing* participle. It depends what is being communicated. We can predetermine a gerund by adding the genitive "of" in front of this phrase, e.g. the Czech way of training sportsmen. The English gerund functions as a premodifier.

Similarly in this example:

→ *Confiding* in him was a mistake. (Dušková, 1994 : 571)

In this case, we can translate the gerund as an infinitive – "Svěřit se mu byla chyba". If we wanted to translate it as a verbal noun, this form would be inappropriate for the Czech language ("Svěření se mu byla chyba."). The English gerund stands in the position of a subject.

→ I remember *locking* the door.

"Pamatuju si, že jsem zamkla dveře": I remember the act of doing it in the past. If we used the *to* infinitive here, it would refer to the future – I remember *to lock* the door: "Myslím na to, že musím zamknout dveře." This concludes that the gerund refers to the act of doing an activity in the past in connection with the verbs like *remember, recall,* etc. The *to* infinitive would be in the position of an adverbial of purpose. The English gerund occurs in the syntactic position of an object.

The gerund can also occur in the position of a premodifier:

→ *chewing gum, copying machine, swimming pool* (Dušková, 1994 : 577)

As I have already described, the difference between the gerund and –*ing* participle in such phrases can be seen by paraphrasing these short phrases – "žvýkací guma = žvýkačka, rozmnožovací stroj = kopírka, plovárna = bazén na plavání". As in the example above (training sportsmen), the English gerund functions as a premodifier.

6.2 Summary of translation of English gerunds into Czech

To summarise, the ways of translating the gerund into the Czech language are as follows:

- using the Czech verbal noun ending with –*í*, e.g koupání, plavání, etc.,

- using the Czech deverbal noun, e.g. ztratit – ztráta, chození – docházka, etc.,

- using the Czech infinitive ending with –*t*, e.g. sedět, věřit, etc.,

- using the relative clause, e.g. Skutečnost, *že obraz nakreslil tak rychle*, mě fascinovala.,

- using the subordinate clause, e.g. Pamatuji si, *že jsem zamkla dveře.*, etc.,

- using the anaphoric expression, e.g. *To*, že ten obraz tak rychle nakreslil, mě fascinovalo., etc.,

- using the Czech prefix *do-* to express that the activity was finished, e.g. Petr *dořídil* auto. *Dopsala* jsem úkol., etc.

- using the nominal objective clause, e.g. Vlhké počasí odradilo mnoho lidí od toho, *aby šlo na zápas.*, etc.

6.3 Translation of –ing participles and clauses

The Czech language uses the subordinate clauses more often than English to avoid the Czech participle (chapter No. 4). As I have already stated, the participle is used often in English, but in the Czech language, it should be avoided because it is an archaic expression, used almost exclusively in literature.

When translating the English participle, Czech people have some problems with word order. When translating, they try to keep the sentence length and the number of words the same. But sometimes it is better to use the relative clause to better understand the meaning.

The Czech participle has the syntactic function of a complement in a Czech sentence. It can function either as a Czech complement on its own or a Czech complement relative clause. If there is a choice to use the Czech complement clause, it is a better option for translating than using the Czech participial complement. For example:

→ Viděl jsem ho, *dívaje* se na televizi. – complement

→ Viděl jsem ho, jak se dívá na televizi. – complement subordinate clause

The Czech language uses relative clauses more often since the sentence structure is more understandable for a Czech-speaking person.

The first two examples to be analysed are as follows:

→ He is *going* home. vs. He goes home.

I have put these two examples together in order to show the time reference. In the first example, we can see that the activity is happening at the moment of speaking and could be translated, adding an extra Czech word as: "Právě jde domů." By adding the word "právě", we highlight that the activity is in progress. On the other hand, the second example expresses an everyday activity where adding the extra Czech word is not necessary: "Chodí domů.", meaning every day. In the English language, adding an extra word is not necessary because, unlike the Czech language, its formal means (in this moment the present progressive tense) indicate the activity in progress.

→ I saw him *watching* TV.

In this case, the translation: "Viděl jsem ho, dívaje se na televizi" would be correct according to the correct usage of Czech participle endings, but since we have said that we should avoid using such archaic expressions, the translation "Viděl jsem ho, jak se dívá na televizi" is more appropriate. It should be noted that we haven't avoided the Czech participle as such, we have just replaced it with a participial clause, which is still correct.

In postposition, the attributive *–ing* participle is used in the same way as the Czech language if it is complemented with an object or adverbial:

→ In psychology, we attempt to state the laws *underlying* human behaviour (object in this case[23]).

According to Dušková (Dušková, 1994 : 581), the Czech translation should be: "V psychologii se pokoušíme formulovat zákony, na nichž se zakládá lidské chování." Again, we can see that a relative clause is used here, but if we translate the sentence using the participle, the sentence would become: "V psychologii se pokoušíme formulovat zákony, představující základ lidského chování.", using the verbal adjective, which is perfectly understandable. So the use of a relative clause in this case is not necessary. It all depends on the Czech vocabulary which we use in terms of translation. It is not essential to use relative clauses in all cases.

→ I lay on my bed, *tossing* restlessly.

"Ležel jsem na lůžku a neklidně se převracel" (Dušková, 1994 : 583). This participial clause was translated using the conjunction "*and*" and the superordinate clause. The subject of the English subordinate clause is identical to the subject of the main clause. Therefore, the participial transformation is possible.

→ I started the steak *thawing*.

"Začal jsem řízek rozmrazovat" (Dušková, 1994 : 586). The translation was made using the Czech infinitive, which is another way of translating the *–ing* participle into the Czech language. Changing the word order would be helpful in this case: "Začal jsem rozmrazovat řízek", because the infinitive usually follows the main verb in the Czech language if we do not want to emphasize one of the sentence elements, as in: "Začal jsem *ten řízek* rozmrazovat". We can even replace the word *thawing* with the *to* infinitive (I started the steak to thaw).

We already know that the *–ing* participles can express the time reference:

→ *Being* removed from school because of ill health, he received a rather unorthodox education.

"Jelikož byl vzat ze školy pro chatrné zdraví, dostalo se mu dost neortodoxního vzdělání" (Dušková, 1994 : 583). Dušková used the passive voice for translating this sentence. However, since the Czech language does not use the passive or tries to avoid it as much as possible using the general subject, the translation "Jelikož jej odhlásili ze školy kvůli chatrnému zdraví, dostalo se mu dost neortodoxního vzdělání" is more appropriate. The general subject "*oni*" (not

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[23] author's note

expressed in the Czech sentence) is not expressed to avoid defining who removed the boy in question from school (it is not an important piece of information in this case).

→ *Having* established a basis for this theory, the next step is the structure and properties of the components.

"Když jsme pro tuto teorii vytvořili základ, další krok je analyzovat strukturu a vlastnosti složek" (Dušková, 1994 : 586). This is a typical example of a dangling participle used in professional literature. A general subject is usually used, the author himself or the readers.

6.4 Summary of translation of –ing participles into Czech

To reiterate, the ways of translating the –*ing* participles into the Czech language are as follows:

- using an extra Czech word, e.g. *Právě* se dívá na televizi.

- using the Czech subordinate complement clause, e.g. Viděl jsem ho, *jak se dívá na televizi.*, etc.,

- using the Czech infinitive, ending with –*t*, e.g. Začal jsem rozmrazovat řízek.

- using the relative clause or a Czech verbal adjective, e.g. V psychologii se pokoušíme formulovat zákony, na nichž se zakládá lidské chování. V psychologii se pokoušíme formulovat zákony, představující základ lidského chování.

- using two superordinate clauses with a superordinate conjunct "*and*", Ležel jsem na lůžku a neklidně se převracel.

- using the general subject, e.g. Jelikož jej odhlásili ze školy kvůli chatrnému zdraví, dostalo se mu dost neortodoxního vzdělání.

As we can see, neither the gerund nor the –*ing* participle has one form of translation into the Czech language. When translating these forms, we have to be careful about Czech syntax because it is not always appropriate to use the equivalents of these forms – gerund contrasted with a verbal noun, and –*ing* participle contrasted with a verbal adjective.

Research

7 Research

7.1 Introduction to the research

The goal of this research was to find out whether pupils at secondary schools can translate the gerund and *–ing* participle in a way which is understandable for a Czech-speaking person. The research was conducted at three different schools which I chose for their various locations and level of English. The first is the 2. secondary school ZŠ, Dvořákův okruh 2, Krnov, where two classes of 9th graders consisting of 38 pupils all together were surveyed. The second is the 4. secondary school, Žižkova, 3, Krnov, where I gave questionnaires to one class consisting of 17 pupils. At the third chosen school, the grammar school, Hejčín, Tomkova 45, Olomouc, two classes of pupils were surveyed, one of which attends the English department (the length of study is six years) with an extended number of English lessons, and the second, the lower grammar school. I expected that the classes would have different levels of knowledge of English because it is commonly known that there are different emphases placed on languages between grammar schools and secondary schools. The number of English lessons also makes a difference.

The questionnaires are divided into two parts – one part includes the questionnaires from the pupils from the secondary schools in Krnov and the other part includes the questionnaires from the pupils from the grammar school in Hejčín, Olomouc. I decided to divide it this way because the level of their English was different. The pupils at the grammar school in Hejčín have an extended number of English lessons, and since they attend the English section, the supposed level should be higher.

Another part of the research is a comparison of the student's books at the secondary schools at which the research was conducted. My goal was to compare them in terms of a curriculum of gerunds and *–ing* participles: how big the focus on these forms is, if any, how much space there is for teaching pupils these forms, and how important the books think the forms are for the pupils.

The results may be ambiguous because the number of samples from the secondary schools is 55 and 29 from the grammar school making 84 samples overall.

7.2 Methods of the questionnaire

The methods used will be an analysis of the translated samples and their comparison with the possible translations as mentioned in the chapters above, e.g. using the Czech verbal noun ending with *–í*, anaphoric expression, the subordinate clause, the Czech deverbal noun, the relative clause, the Czech infinitive, ending with *–t*, an extra Czech word, subordinate clause, two superordinate clauses with a superordinate conjunct, etc. The number of decimal places in the percentage value was reduced to one.

The next method used will be a comparison with the Czech national corpus. This is a database of texts, both written and spoken (audio recordings in the case of spoken language), which is used for language research. It is possible to look for words and phrases in a context and find their frequency in the corpus and their original text source. All data in the corpus is constant. The internet evolves very quickly and is changing every day making it impossible to find the number of words which are included in documents on the internet. These internet documents are not reliable sources, as they cannot be guaranteed to exist the next day. Therefore, we have the national corpus which does not change.[24]

7.3 Questionnaire analysis

I have put together 16 sample sentences, using both the gerund and *–ing* participle. They were decided upon according to their syntactic position in the sentence. The number of each syntactic function is two. As a result, there are 2 example sentences of a gerund as a subject, object, appositive, and complement, and 2 sentences of *–ing* participle as a part of a progressive aspect, sentence condensation, attributive, and complement. The vocabulary used was taken from the list of A2 level vocabulary which pupils in 9th grade are expected to know.[25]

To evaluate the questionnaires, the translated sentences are be taken one by one, analysed, and compared with the Czech equivalents according to the Czech national corpus. The focus is particularly on the translated forms of the gerunds and *–ing* participles, not on the vocabulary of a whole sentence itself. Further on, they are compared with their Czech equivalents as I have

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[24] Český národní korpus: http://www.korpus.cz/
[25] The list of A2 vocabulary can be found here: http://www.cambridgeesol.tw/userfiles/PDF/KET_V%2008.pdf

introduced them in the theoretical part. Some interesting examples of the translations are mentioned as well along with an explanation as to why they are highlighted.

The pupils of the secondary schools in Krnov have three English lessons per week. The number of samples at these two schools was 55. The pupils at the grammar school in Hejčín have four English lessons per week. The number of samples at the grammar school was 29. The answers are divided according to the type of school, then the final results are combined. The correct answers include the Czech verbal noun ending with –í and also the Czech deverbal nouns although these are not the equivalent of the English gerund.

7.3.1 Translating gerund

1. I think that *going* to school is important for children.

The gerund in this example subordinate clause is in the syntactic position of a subject.

To preserve the gerund in the Czech translation, it should be translated as follows: "Myslím si, že *chození* do školy je pro děti důležité.", using the Czech verbal noun for translation or "Myslím si, že *chodit* do školy je pro děti důležité.", using the Czech infinitive.

According to the answers of the pupils from the secondary school, 41,8% of them translated the gerund *going to school* as "chození do školy" which corresponds to the Czech verbal noun. 7,2% of the pupils translated this gerund as "chodit do školy" which corresponds to the Czech infinitive. 20% of the pupils did not write down any answer or they started translating the sentence but they did not finish it. 22,8% of the pupils translated the gerund incorrectly.

In compliance with the Czech national corpus, the most common usage is the expression "chodit" with 3963 occurrences. The verbal noun "chození" has only 130 occurrences. As a result, if we want to translate according to the national corpus, we should choose the version with the infinitive, but from the answers of the pupils, the more common version was "chození".

Some interesting examples of the pupils' translation are as follows: "Myslím si, že školní docházka je pro děti důležitá." or "Myslím si, že škola je pro děti důležitá." This Czech translation was used in 9% of the samples. In the second example, the pupils avoided translating the gerund completely. In the first example they transformed the verbal noun into a deverbal noun "docházka" which does not correspond to an English gerund.

Some incorrect translations are as follows: "Myslím, že půjdu pro děti do školy., Děti se do školy transportujou., Myslím, že chodí do školy s populárními dětmi." In the first example, the pupils probably confused the gerund *going to school* with the future going to. But they forgot that for forming the going to future you need the whole verb *to be* → I'm going to school. In the third example, an incorrect translation was caused by a confusion between the word *important* and the word *popular*.
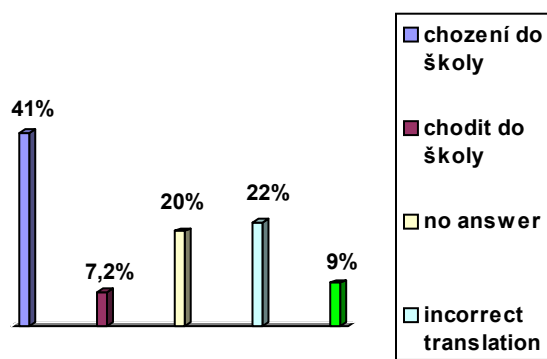
The pupils from the grammar school, Hejčín, had no incorrect answers or any cases where the sentence could not be translated. From the results, 75,9% of them translated the gerund as "chození", using the verbal noun, 20,7% used the infinitive "chodit" and 1 pupil used the subordinate clause "Mysím si, že je důležité, aby děti chodily do školy.", which equates to 3,5%.
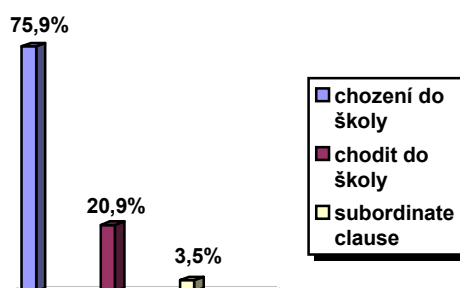
Therefore, the most commonly used translation of the gerund phrase *going to school* from all the pupils is "chození do školy", although it does not correspond with the Czech national corpus as the expression being used the most often. The pupils from the grammar school were more successful in translating the sentence. The result is that 66,7% of the pupils translated the gerund correctly, 33,3% incorrectly.

66,7%

33,3%

☐ correctly
☐ incorrectly
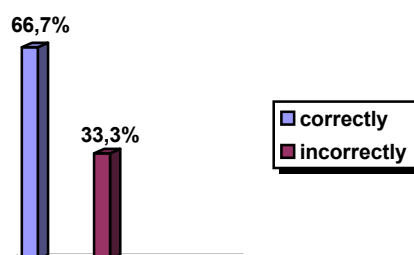
2. My father is responsible for *losing* my keys.

The gerund in this example sentence is in the syntactic position of a prepositional complement.

The Czech translations of the sentence can be as follows: "Můj otec je zodpovědný za *ztrátu* mých klíčů." or "Můj otec je zodpovědný za to, *že ztratil mé klíče.*" In the second example, the subordinate clause was used, and a deverbal noun was used in the first. In accordance with the Czech national corpus, the occurrence of the word "ztráta" can be found in 2392 examples. Having looked at the expression "ztracení" (a verbal noun), it is only found in 49 examples. The usage of the subordinate clause occurs in 3417 examples.

According to the answers of the pupils from both secondary schools, using a deverbal noun "ztráta" and a verbal noun "ztracení" are most common. 38,1% of the pupils translated the gerund as "ztráta mých klíčů", 14,5% of the pupils as "ztracení mých klíčů". 7,2% of the pupils used the adjective: "Můj otec je zodpovědný za *ztracené* klíče." This would be possible to use in the Czech language, but the English equivalent for this translation is "my *lost* keys" where the past participle was used instead of *losing*. 40% of the pupils translated the gerund incorrectly or not at all. In four of the samples, the children confused the subjects and their translation was as follows: "Můj otec je naštvaný, když *ztratím* klíče." where the subject "já" is used. But *my father* is the subject of the whole sentence.

38,1% **40%**

14,5%

7,2%

☐ ztráta
☐ ztracení
☐ incorrect translation
☐ past participle
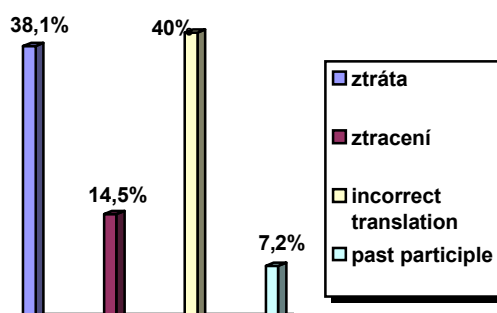
Of the pupils from the Hejčín grammar school, 48,3% used the verbal noun "ztracení", 20,7% "ztráta" and 31% did not translate the gerund at all.
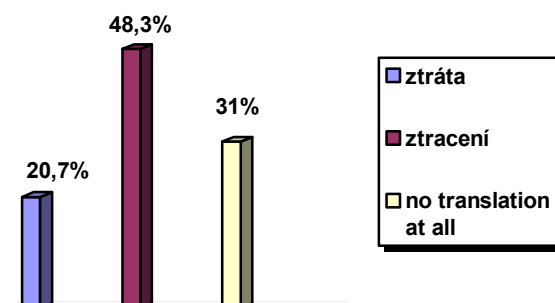
To summarise, the number of correctly translated gerunds is higher for the pupils from the grammar school. The gerund was translated correctly by 58,3% and incorrectly by 41,7%.
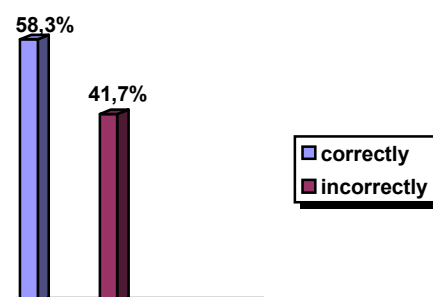
3. My friends like *playing* computer games.

The gerund in this example sentence is in the syntactic position of an object.

The Czech translation is as follows: "Mí přátelé *rádi hrají* počítačové hry." or, "Mí přátelé mají *rádi hraní* počítačových her."

89% of the pupils used the first translation, "Mí přátelé rádi hrají počítačové hry." 5,4% of them (three samples) used the second translation, "Mí přátelé mají rádi hraní počítačových her." which is a literal translation that should be avoided when translating. 5,4% of the samples were incorrectly translated as "Moji kamarádi hrají počítačové hry." which translates as an activity either in progress or a habitual activity. The form in this case would be the *–ing* participle, not a gerund.

46

In comparison with the Czech national corpus, the pupils used the translation correctly and in accordance with the corpus. The occurrence of the expression "hrají" as a translation for *like playing* appears in 4827 cases.

Since the phrase "I like doing something." is known to children very well, they did not have any problems with translating it and there were no sample sentences which were not translated. All of them were translated either the first way, or the second way.
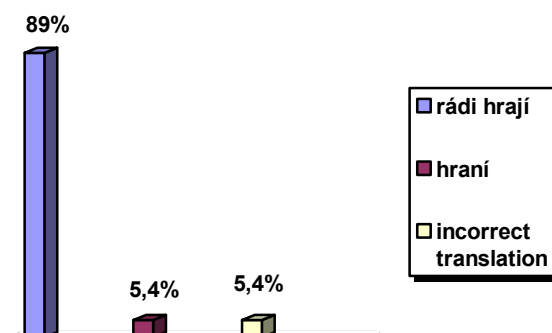
From the Hejčín grammar school, 65,5% used the translation "rádi hrají" and 34,5% the verbal noun "hraní". No non-translated sentences appeared.
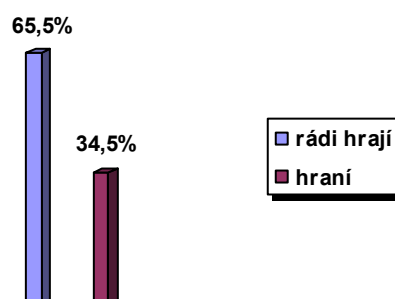
To compare these two schools, most pupils preferred using the phrase "rádi hrají" to using "mají rádi hraní". A higher number of samples using the phrase "rádi hrají" were taken from the pupils from the secondary schools.

From the correct translation of the gerund, 96,4% of the pupils used the correct translation and only 3,6% the incorrect translation.

96,4%

□ correctly
■ incorrectly

3,6%
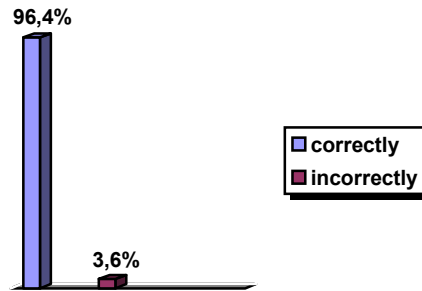
4. Your favourite activity, *swimming* in the ocean, costs money.

The gerund in this example sentence is in the syntactic position of an appositive.

This gerund can be translated either as the Czech verbal noun "plavání" or the infinitive "plavat". According to the Czech national corpus, the gerund *swimming* translated as "plavání" occurs in 1092 examples and as "plavat" in 593 examples.

In this case, there were no untranslated sentences. All the pupils managed to translate it either as: "Tvá oblíbená aktivita, *plavání* v moři, stojí peníze." or as: "Tvá oblíbená aktivita, *plavat* v moři, stojí peníze." The translation "stojí peníze" was also in the form of "je náročná na peníze" which I considered as the same in meaning and therefore did not divide it into two different groups. Since 94,5% of the pupils translated this gerund as a verbal noun "plavání" and not as the Czech infinitive "plavat", the first form in this case is considered to be the one which is used significantly more. Only 5,5% (3 samples overall) of the pupils used the Czech infinitive.

94,5%

□ plavání
■ plavat

5,5%
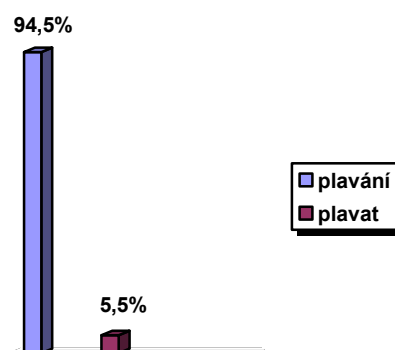
The results from the pupils from the grammar school were 96,6% for the verbal noun "plavání" and 3,4% for the infinitive "plavat". All samples were translated in one of these ways.

96,6%

3,4%
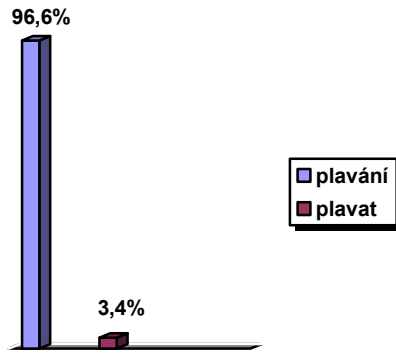
- plavání
- plavat

To sum up, in this sentence the word "plavání" is preferred by nearly all the pupils. 95,2% of the translations were correct and only 4,8% incorrect.


100%

- correctly
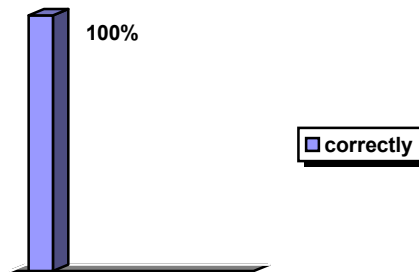
5. Johnny finished *reading* the book.

The gerund in this example sentence is in the syntactic position of an object.

In this case, using the prefix "do-", which marks the finishing of an activity in the Czech language, is appropriate to use. "Johnny *dočetl* knihu." Another option "Johnny dokončil *čtení* knihy." is also appropriate if we want to use the gerund according to the Czech national corpus (see the results below). The occurrence of the word "čtení" occurred in 2752 samples in the Czech national corpus, the word "dočetl" only 279.

43,6% of the pupils used the verbal noun "čtení" when translating, 38,1% of them used the phrase "dočetl knihu", 7,2% of the pupils used the deverbal noun "četba" which can be considered as the correct translation as well. The Czech language is a verbal language which means that it focuses more on verbs than on nouns, the opposite of the English language. Accordingly, the translation using the version "dočetl" should be preferred. The rest of the percentages were the translations that can be seen below.

Other translations (11,1% overall) of this sample sentence were: "Johnny přečetl knihu., Johnny přestal číst knížky., Johnny dočítá knížku., Johnny skončil číst knížku." We can assume that they confused the gerund with the present progressive tense.
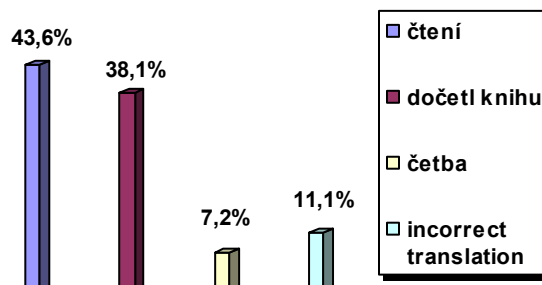
The pupils from the grammar school translated the sentence correctly. No one used the deverbal noun "četba". 79,3% used the version with "dočetl" and 20,7% "čtení". These pupils did not use the word-for-word translation which was used by some of the pupils from the secondary schools.
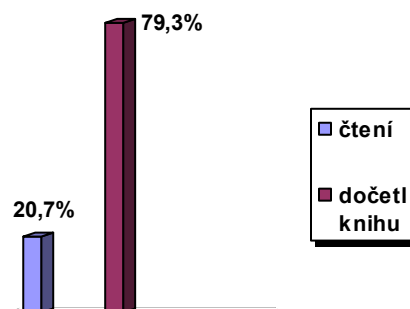
To summarise, the pupils at the grammar school Hejčín do not use word-for-word translations. The pupils from the secondary schools use it more often. 88,1% of the translations were correct, 11,9% incorrect.
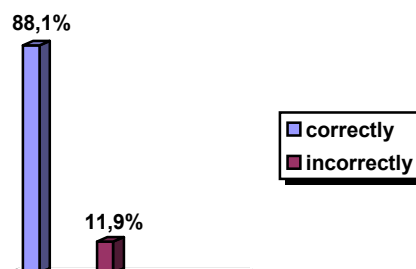
6. *Watching* TV gives children new information.

The gerund in this example sentence is in the syntactic position of a subject.

In this case, the Czech verbal noun is used: "*Sledování* televize dává dětem nové informace."

87,2% of the pupils used this version, using the verbal noun. Only one sample, which equates as 1,8%, contained the Czech infinitive "*dívat se*" which can be considered as the correct translation as well. The other six samples (10,9% overall) were translated using *the children* as the subject: "Děti sledují televizi…" usually ending with adding the word "informace", e.g. "Děti sledují v televizi nové informace., Děti se dívají na televizi na zprávy." One sample was not translated at all. According to the Czech national corpus, the occurrence of the expression "sledování" occurred in 1829 samples. The infinitive "dívat se" occurred in only 16 examples.

"Díváním se na televizi děti získávají informace." → in this case, a pupil used the Czech 7th case (called *instrumental*). The gerund in this case is in the syntactical position of an adverbial of manner.
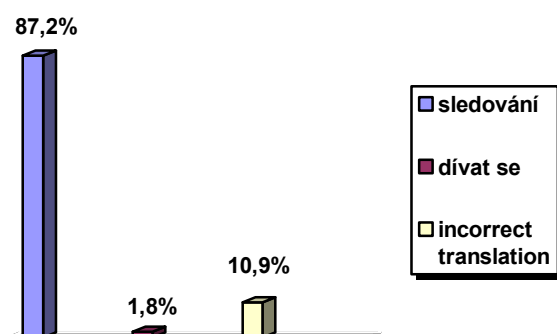
96,6% of the pupils from the grammar school Hejčín used the translation "dívání se" or "sledování". None of them used the Czech 7th case. Only 3,4% (one pupil) did not translate the sentence at all. These pupils did not even use the infinitive "dívat se". So we can say that the only translation used by the pupils was the Czech verbal noun "dívání se" or "sledování".

96,6%

3,4%

■ **sledování,
díváni se**

■ **no translation
at all**
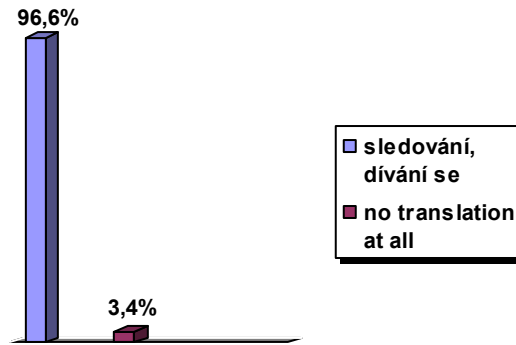
From the results, we can see that the pupils from the grammar school Hejčín did not use the infinitive "dívat se" at all. The pupils from both types of school preferred using the translation "sledování" or "dívání se". 91,7% of all the pupils translated the gerund correctly, 8,3% incorrectly.

91,7%

8,3%

□ **correctly**
■ **incorrectly**
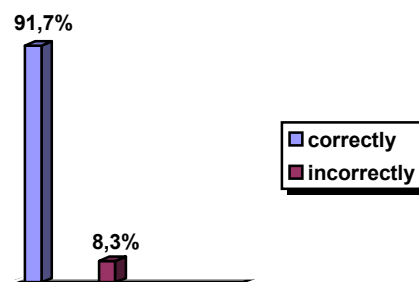
7. My mother's hobby is *sitting* in the garden.

The gerund in this example sentence is in the syntactic position of a complement.

The Czech translation of this sentence is as follows: "Koníčkem mojí mámy je *sezení* (*sedět*) na zahradě." or "Moje máma ráda sedí na zahradě.", but in the second example, the English structure would be different (My mother likes sitting in the garden.). To preserve the translation, using the first example is more appropriate.

In 72,7% of the samples, the pupils used the expressions "sedění", "sezení" and "vysedávání." Considering the Czech language, the word "sedění" is incorrect from the point of view of standard Czech but was used often in the pupils' answers. According to the Czech national corpus, there are only 27 occurrences of this expression and 64 occurrences of the word "vysedávání". On the other hand, the expression "sezení" has 732 occurrences. The expression "sezení" was used by 49,1% of the pupils, "sedění" 18,1% of the pupils, and only 5,4% of the

pupils used the translation "vysedávání". All of these forms are verbal nouns. Only one pupil was not able to translate the sentence at all (1,8%). Therefore, to follow standard Czech, we should use the translation "Koníčkem mojí mámy je sezení na zahradě."

The other options of translating this sentences were "Hobby mojí mámy je sedět na zahradě." where 12,7% of the pupils used the Czech infinitive "sedět". The same number of pupils translated the sentence using the expression "ráda sedí" as mentioned above.
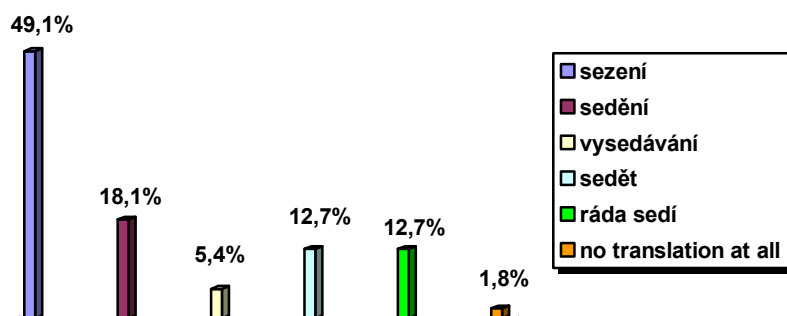
As for the pupils from the grammar school, 86,3% of them used the word "sezení", 10,3% the non-standard Czech word "sedění" and 3,4% the word "vysedávání". No one used the infinitive "sedět".
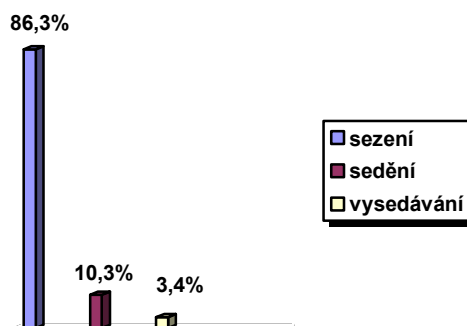
Both groups of pupils preferred using the word "sezení", although the pupils from the grammar school used it more often than the pupils from the secondary schools. On the other hand, the occurrence of non-translated samples counted as only 1,8%. 90,5% of the pupils used the correct translation of the gerund, 9,5% were incorrect.

90,5%

□ correctly
■ incorrectly

9,5%
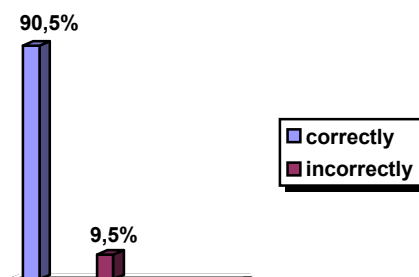
8. Her job, *analysing* data, is quite boring.

The gerund in this example sentence is in the syntactic position of an appositive.
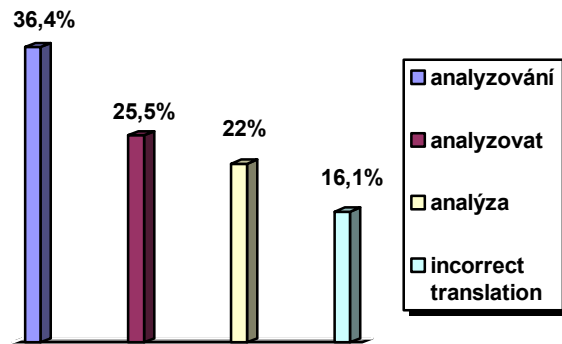
According to the Czech national corpus, the most occurrences can be found for the translation "Její práce, *analýza* dat (or *analyzovat* data), je celkem nudná." which is a deverbal noun, making 1584 occurrences overall. The expression "analyzovat" has 624 occurrences, and the verbal noun "*analyzování*" has only 31 occurrences. Therefore, the translated sentence with either the expression "analýza" or "analyzovat" is considered to be the most used according to the corpus.

Surprisingly, the most used phrase was the one with the least number of occurrences in the national corpus – "analyzování". 36,4% of the pupils used this translation. 25,5% of them used the translation with "analyzovat" and only 22% used the most common usage according to the Czech national corpus, "analýza".
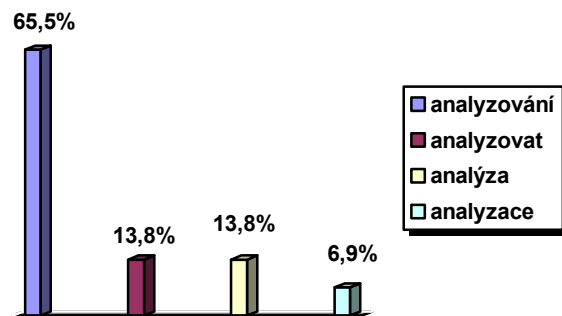
From the results, we can say that for the translation of this appositive gerund, the pupils use the Czech verbal noun "analyzování", which differs in comparison with the most common expression according to the Czech national corpus, "analýza".

Other translations included: "Její práce, analyzuje data, je nic moc." or "Její práce analyzovala data a je nudná." The pupils probably translated it word for word[26] and did not focus on the meaning itself.

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[26] also called a *calque* – author's note

According to the answers of the pupils from the grammar school, 65,5% of the pupils used the translation "analyzování", 13,8% "analýza" and the infinitive "analyzovat" and 6,9% used the word "analyzace" which does not occur in the Czech national corpus.

From the total results, we can show that the expression which is preferred by both types of school is the Czech verbal noun "analyzování". 89,3% of the translations were correct, 10,7% were incorrect.
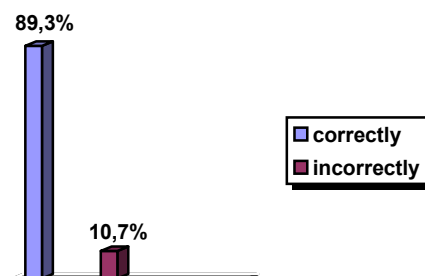
7.3.2 Summary of translated gerunds and comparison of schools

To sum up all the translations of the gerund, the pupils used the verbal noun with the ending *–í* more often, although it was not appropriate in all cases. The pupils from the secondary schools used it in 6 out of 8 cases (chození, plavání, čtení, sledování, sezení (sedění, vysedávání), analyzování) and the pupils from the grammar school in 6 out of 8 cases as well (analyzování, sezení (sedění, vysedávání), sledování (dívání se), plavání, ztracení, chození). As a result, we can say that translating the English gerund as a Czech verbal noun is used most often.

From all the possible translations which I have stated in chapter 6.2, we can say that the most usual ones are a Czech verbal noun, a Czech deverbal noun (which is not a gerund), the Czech infinitive ending with *–t*, and the subordinate clause. The deverbal noun is not an equivalent of the English gerund, but since the pupils used the Czech verbal noun as a translation of the English gerund, it can be considered as a used version of translation.

Only sentence no. 1 showed more than 15% of the pupils having some difficulties with translation or not translating the sentence at all. It may be caused by the fact that the children confused this gerund with the *going to* future. Another reason may be the position of the gerund. In this sentence, it has the function of a subject but of a subordinate clause.

The pupils showed that in the majority of cases they know how to use the gerund in a sentence. This topic is not taught in secondary schools, however, as we will have a chance to see further on in the chapter comparing the student's books.

7.3.3 Translating –ing participles

1. Susan is *bringing* me an apple.

The syntactic function of this *–ing* participle is a part of a present progressive tense.

The correct form is the one where the Czech progressive tense is used. Therefore the translation is as follows: "Susan (Zuzana) mi zrovna *nese* jablko." or "Zuzana mi *přináší* jablko." In the first example, the word "zrovna" expresses an additional piece of information which shows that the activity is in progress. According to the Czech national corpus, there are 3681 occurrences for the first example with "nese" and 4774 occurrences for the word "přináší". What the pupils should primarily express is the progressive aspect.

Pupils translations are as follows: only 21,8% translated the sentence correctly and 9% more at least used the progressive aspect making 30,8% overall. Some of the examples of the progressive aspect used by the pupils are as follows: "krájí, podává, bere", etc.

The rest of the translations used expressions such as "donesla" or "vzala" where the pupils confused the present progressive aspect with the past tense. The translations were as follows: "Zuzana mi vzala jablko." or "Zuzana mi donesla jablko." Out of the total 55 questionnaires, 36,4% of the pupils translated the sentence using the past simple tense instead of the present progressive. 16,4% of them were not able to translate the sentence at all, while 12,7% used a different translation but preserved the past tense. 3,7% translated the verb *bring* correctly but used "je přinášející"

The pupils had difficulties recognizing that they were translating the present progressive tense. Since the present progressive tense is taught in 6th grade and revised many times in the following three grades, these are unexpected results.
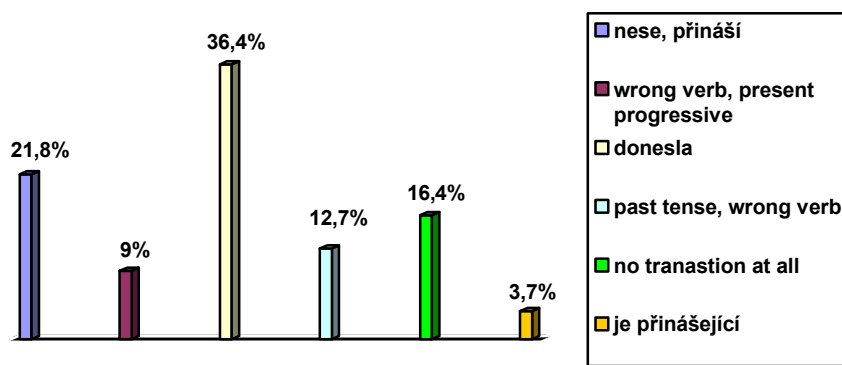
From the results of the pupils from the grammar school, the most used translation was "nese" or "přináší", expressing the progressive aspect. 75,9% of them used this translation. 13,8% used the past tense instead of the present progressive tense and 10,3% used a different translation of the verb *bringing* but preserving the progressive aspect.
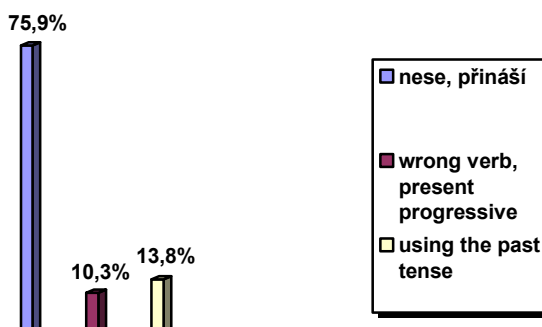
The pupils from the grammar school showed the ability to express the progressive aspect in comparison to the pupils from the secondary schools. From the results, we can see that there was no sample from the pupils from the grammar school which was not translated or translated word for word (přinášející, see above). 40,5% were correct translations, 9,5% of the pupils used at least the progressive aspect and 50% translated the gerund incorrectly. The results were equal.
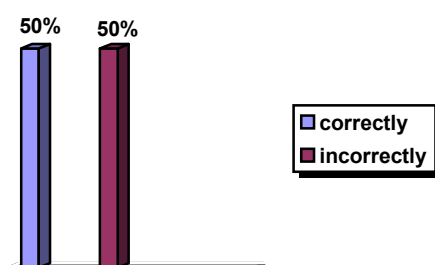

2. At the station, you will see a small child *looking* for his parents.

The function of this *–ing* participle is a sentence condensation.

The translations can be as follows: "Na zastávce uvidíš male dítě, které *hledá* své rodiče.", "Na zastávce uvidíš malé dítě *hledající* své rodiče." or "Na zastávce uvidíš male dítě *hledat* své rodiče." (a subordinate clause, verbal adjective, and an infinitive). According to the Czech national corpus, the word "hledající" occurs in only 286 samples, on the other hand 4307 samples were found for the expression "hledá". The infinitive "hledat" has 6035 occurrences.

In comparison with the answers of the pupils, 21,8% of them used the translation with "hledající", the same number used "dívající" which is not a correct translation of the expression *look for* but at least the verbal adjective was preserved. 23,6% translated the sentence incorrectly. Only 9% used the infinitive "hledat", the same number used the subordinate clause "které hledá". 14,5% did not translate the sentence at all. Some of the incorrect translations are: "Na stanici uvidíš male dítě s jeho rodiči., Na stadioně jsem viděl male dítě s jeho rodiči."

As a summary, the translations which can be taken as correct amount to 61,8%. Included in this number is the translation of *look for* as "dívat se", although the meaning is incorrect. The most important fact here was the translation of the word, using the verbal adjective.
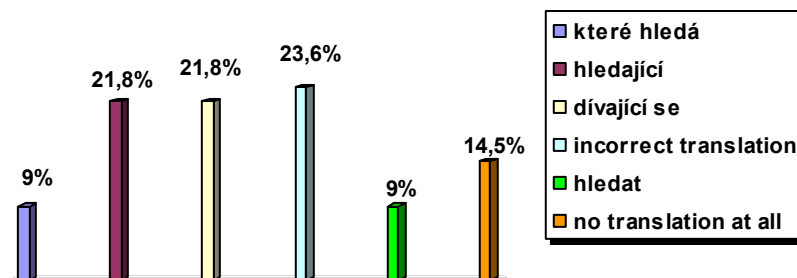
According to the results of the pupils from the grammar school, the most used translation was the verbal adjective "hledající" which counted for 72,4% of the results. The infinitive "hledat" was used by 3,4%, the relative clause was used by 10,4% and 13,8% did not translate the word *looking for* correctly but preserved the verbal adjective ending with –í.
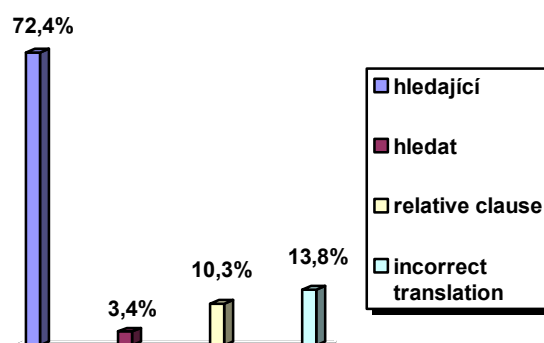
Unlike the pupils from the secondary schools, the pupils from the grammar school used the translation "hledající" in 72,4% of all samples. The infinitive "hledat" was used just by 3,4%, the relative clause by 10,4% and an incorrect translation was given by 13,8%.

The pupils from the secondary schools had more difficulties translating this sentence. From their results, the highest percentage was from incorrect translations. On the other hand, five of them used the relative clause in comparison with the pupils from the grammar school where it was used by only one of them. 56% of all the translations were correct, 47% were incorrect.

56%

44%

☐ correctly
■ incorrectly
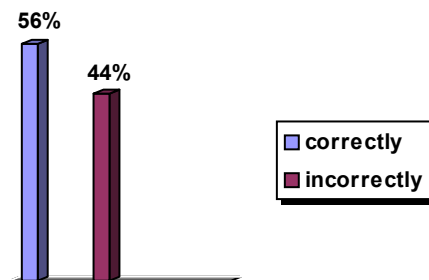
## 3. This is *interesting* information for me.

The syntactic function of this *–ing* participle is an adjective (attribute).

The translation of this participle is "zajímavá". It has 1525 occurrences in the Czech national corpus. Accordingly, the translation is as follows: "Toto je pro mě *zajímavá* informace." or "Tato informace je pro mě *zajímavá*."

From the results, this translation was easier for the pupils. 69,1% of them used the correct translation "zajímavá". 16,4% translated it incorrectly but used a different word, e.g. "důležitá, nova, nepříjemná" etc. which can be still considered as using the correct form of the participle. 14,5% did not translate the sentence correctly at all, using neither the word "zajímavý" or a verbal adjective.

69,1%

16,4%   **14,5%**

☐ zajímavá

■ different adjective

☐ incorrect translation
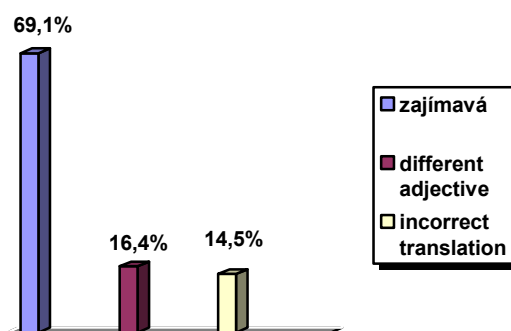
Unlike the pupils from the secondary schools, from all the results of the pupils of the grammar school, there was only one incorrect answer where the pupil used a different translation. 96,6% were correct and the one incorrect answer equals 3,4%.

96,6%

3,4%

■ zajímavá

■ different adjective
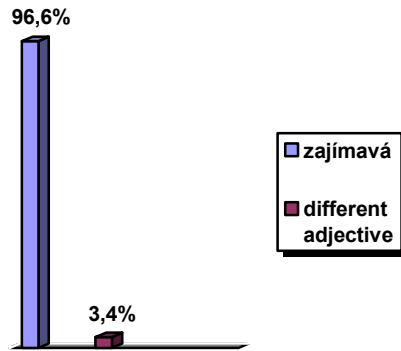
Better results were shown by the pupils from the grammar school. It was quite surprising that there were so many incorrect translations because the word *interesting* is a commonly used adjective and an equal number of correct answers was expected from the pupils from the secondary schools. 78,6% were correct answers, 10,7% of which were different adjectives and 10,7% were incorrect answers.

89,3%

10,7%

■ correctly

■ incorrectly
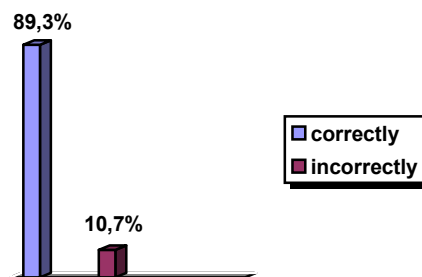
4. I saw him *watching* TV.

The syntactic function of this *–ing* participle is a complement.

Here there are three possibilities for translating: using the subordinate nominal clause of complement or an infinitive. "Viděla jsem ho, *jak se dívá* na televizi." → this is the subordinate clause. "Viděla jsem ho *dívat* se na televizi." → this is the infinitive, and "Viděla jsem ho dívajícího se na televizi." → this is the adjective. According to the Czech national corpus, the number of occurrences of the phrase "jak se dívá" is only 15, but if we consider only the word "dívá", the number is much higher – 1612. The number of cases of the infinitive "dívat se" is 442 and only 14 samples for the adjective "dívající se".

Originally, this sentence was assumed to be one of the difficult ones, but surprisingly, the pupils managed the translation very well. 50,9% of them used the translation with the infinitive but only

5,5% of them used the subordinate clause. 56,4% of the answers were correct overall. Another translation was using the verbal adjective "dívající" which was used by only 3,6% (in the Czech national corpus, there are only two occurrences). 38,1% of the samples used an incorrect translation: "Díval jsem se na jeho televizi., Díval jsem se s ním na televizi." etc.

More than half of the samples were correctly translated and we can suppose that the pupils can use the English complement.
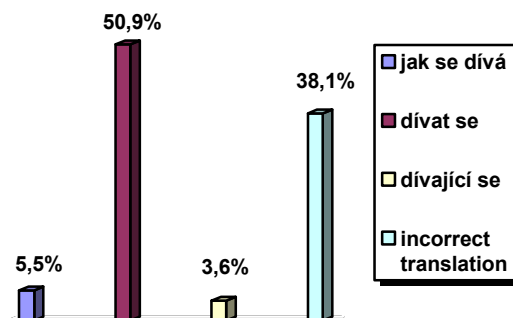
From the results of the pupils from the grammar school, 31% of them used the translation "dívajícího se", and the same number used the subordinate nominal complement clause "jak se dívá na TV". 13,8% used the translation with the infinitive "sledovat" and 24,7% the infinitive "dívat se". Apart from the non-translated samples, the pupils were able to translate all mostly correctly.
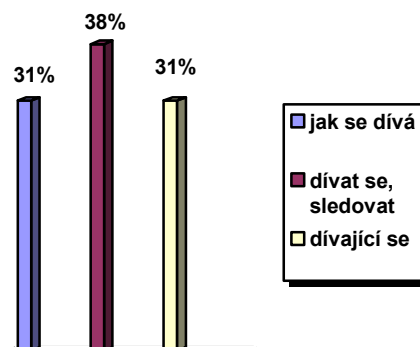
To sum up, just the like the pupils from the secondary schools, the majority of pupils from the grammar school used the infinitive "dívat se" or "sledovat" which we can consider to be the most used answer for this question. But, unlike the pupils from the secondary schools, the pupils from the grammar school were able to translate the sentence as either one of the predicted ways. From all the answers, 73,8% were correct and 26,2% were incorrect.

73,8%

26,2%

☐ correctly
☐ incorrectly
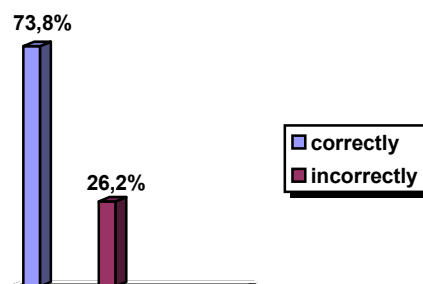
5. All my friends came to the party, *eating* hamburger.

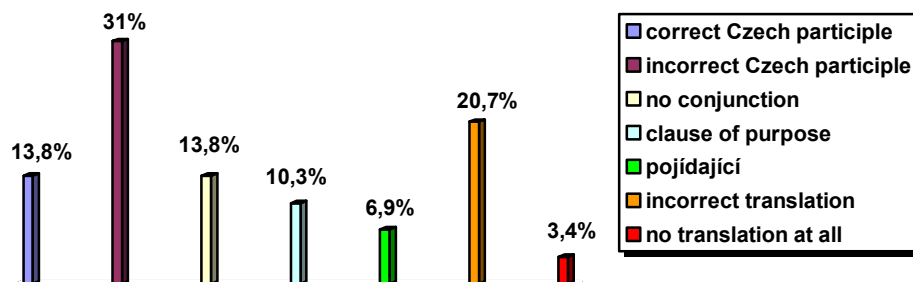The function of this *–ing* participle is a sentence condensation.

In this sentence, using the Czech participle is possible: "Všichni mí přátelé přišli na párty, *jedíce* hamburger." or "Všichni mí přátelé přišli na párty a *jedli* hamburger." It is possible to use either the Czech participle or the superordinate clause connected to the first superordinate clause with a conjunct. In the Czech national corpus, we can find no case of using the Czech participle, which supports the fact that Czech participles are archaic expressions and are not used in everyday Czech. For the expression "jedli", 429 occurrences can be found. Since this is an example of a sentence condensation which the pupils do not know, the high number of incorrect answers was expected. What was also expected was the the verbal adjective "pojídající".

The results showed that 56,4% of the pupils' answers were incorrect. They were using the clause of purpose instead – "Všichni mí přátelé přišli na párty jíst hamburgery." 18,2% of them used the correct translation: "Všichni mí přátelé přišli na párty a jedli hamburgery." 12,7% used the verbal adjective "pojídající", and 10,9% used the correct translation but forgot to use the conjunction. Still, I considered this translation to be correct. We call this phenomenon *a juxtaposition* which means connecting the superordinate clause but without any connector. One pupil did not translate the sentence at all.

Although the children do not know sentence condensation, they are still able to translate it in some cases and when they do not translate it correctly, they at least use the adverbial or purpose. 41,8% of the pupils translated the sentence well.

Legend: two main clauses · pojídající · no conjunction · incorrect translation

Values: 18,2% · 12,7% · 10,9% · 56%
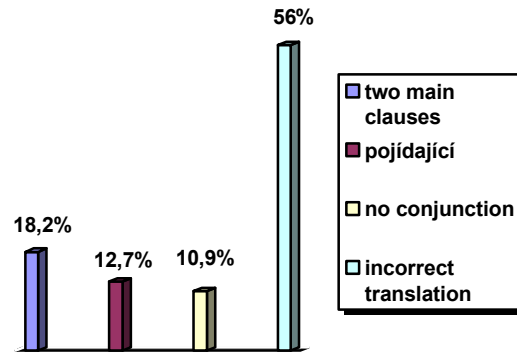
For the pupils from the secondary schools, the results were various. Most translations used the Czech archaic participle (44,8% overall) but 31% used the incorrect ending ("jedíc"). 13,8% translated the sentence completely correctly. 13,8% used the juxtaposition, 6,9% used the word "pojídající", 20,7% translated the sentence incorrectly, 3,4% (one pupil) did not translate it at all, and 10,3% used the clause of purpose. As a result, the most translations used the Czech participle.

Legend: correct Czech participle · incorrect Czech participle · no conjunction · clause of purpose · pojídající · incorrect translation · no translation at all

Values: 13,8% · 31% · 13,8% · 10,3% · 6,9% · 20,7% · 3,4%

The pupils from the grammar school can use the Czech participle although with an incorrect ending. The pupils from the secondary schools showed more incorrect translations, using mainly the clause of purpose. The pupils from the grammar school showed more variation of translation. 13 of the pupils from the grammar school used the Czech participle, but 9 of them with the incorrect ending and only four of them with the correct one. 60,7% of all of the pupils did not translate the participle correctly at all and 39,3% correctly. From these results, we can see that the majority of the pupils do not know how to use sentence condensation.

39,3% **60,7%**

☐ correctly
☐ incorrectly
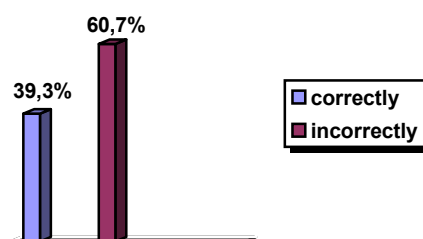
## 6. Mrs. Carlson is *walking* to work. vs. Mrs. Carlson *walks* to work.

The syntactic function of this *–ing* participle is a part of a present progressive tense.

These two sentences were contrasted to find out if the pupils could recognize the difference between the present simple and progressive tenses. The translations are as follows: "Paní Carlsonová *jde* právě do práce (pěšky)." using an extra word to express the activity in progress or "Paní Carlsonová *je* (pěšky) na cestě do práce." and "Paní Carlsonová *chodí* do práce pěšky." The Czech national corpus found 35086 cases of using the word "jde" and 4673 for "chodí".

According to the results of the pupils, 49,1% of them translated the first sentence correctly, using the present progressive tense and 54,5% translated the second sentence, using the present simple tense. The number of incorrect answers where the pupils used mostly the past tense is 38,2% for the first sentence and 32,7% for the second sentence. 12,7% of the pupils confused the two tenses.

In some cases, an extra word could be found. It was mostly the word "zrovna" or "teď" so we can say that some pupils realized the difference between these two tenses even in Czech and were able to express it. Since not all Czech verbs are able to express the difference between an activity in progress and habitual activity, it is sometimes appropriate to use an extra Czech word to distinguish these two types of activity.

As a summary, the pupils had some difficulties in translating the example with the present progressive tense but the difficulties were minimal. On the other hand, what is surprising is the fact that more than 35% used the past simple tense in either the first or the second sentence, although the pupils start learning the present progressive tense in 6th grade and make many revisions in the following grades.

jde 49,1%
chodí 54,5%
šla instead of jde 38,2%
šla instead of chodí 32,7%
mistaken tenses 12,7%
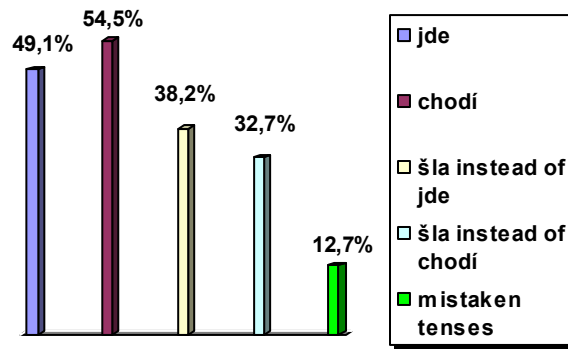
Unlike the pupils from the secondary schools, the pupils from the grammar school showed better results again. 86,2% of them correctly translate both the tenses, sometimes expressing the extra word "právě". 10,3% mistook the tenses and only one pupil (3,4%) translated the sentence incorrectly, using the past tense.

jde 86,2%
chodí 86,2%
mistaken tenses 10,3%
incorrect translation 3,4%
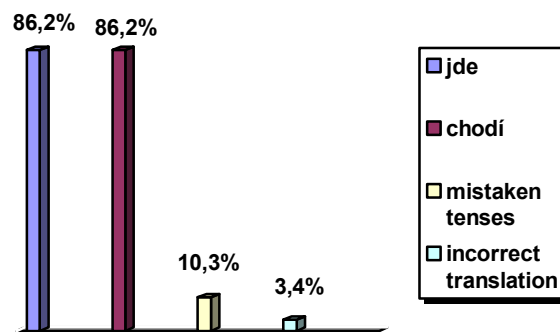
The results show that the pupils from the grammar school have better preparation that includes the present simple and progressive tense. They are able to recognize the difference between these two tenses. The pupils from the secondary schools can recognize the present simple but have some difficulties recognizing the progressive tense. Out of all the translations, 64,3% were correct and 35,7% incorrect.


correctly 64,3%
incorrectly 35,7%
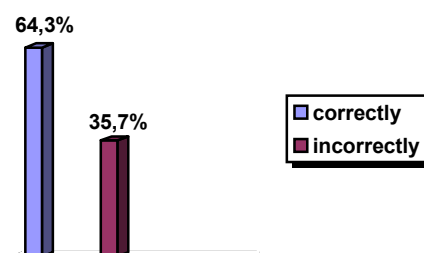
7. A *flying* plane is high in the sky.

The syntactic function of this *–ing* participle is an adjective (attribute).

The translation of this sentence is as follows: "*Letící* (*létající*) letadlo je vysoko na nebi." According to the Czech national corpus, there are 286 occurrences of the word "létající" and 212 of the word "letící".

The majority of the pupils used the correct translation – 45,5% overall. 25,5% did not translate it correctly, 5,5% did not attempt it and 23,6% confused the adjective with the present progressive tense, using the translation "Letadlo letí vysoko ve vzduchu."
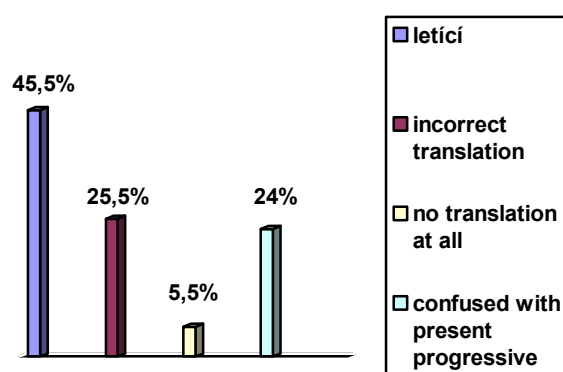
The grammar school pupils' results showed more correct answers than at the pupils of the secondary schools. 75,9% used the verbal adjective "letící", 20,7% did not translate the participle at all and one pupil (3,4%) used the present progressive tense "Letadlo letí…". One of the students tried to translate the phrase "flying plane" as "létající talíř".
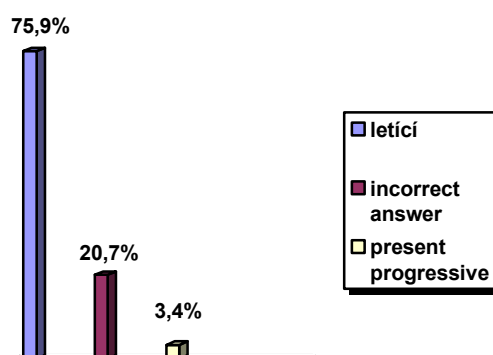
To summarise, the verbal adjective was used by the most number of pupils from both types of school. The number of incorrect answers was almost the same in both groups of pupils. Overall, 56% of the answers were correct and 44% incorrect.

correctly 56%
incorrectly 44%
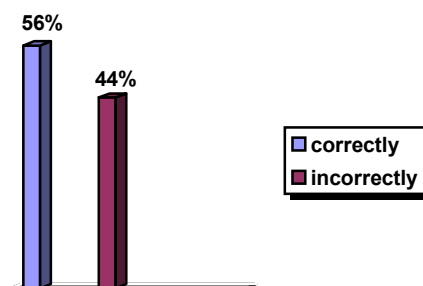
8. I hate him *lying* about school.

The syntactic function of this –*ing* participle is a complement.

The translation of this sentence, using the subordinate nominal object clause is: "Nesnáším, když *lže* o škole." 342 occurrences for the word "lže" are found in the Czech national corpus. Another option can be "Nesnáším jeho *lhaní* o škole." with 118 occurences.

According to the pupils answers, there is one more possibility for translating it but the structure is changed – the pronoun in object case *him* is changed into a possessive pronoun "jeho" = *his*. "Nesnáším jeho *lhaní* o škole.", which was used by 40% of the pupils. Only 16,4% used the translation with the subordinate object clause and 38,1% used an incorrect translation, using various different structures: "Nesnáším ho ve škole., Nesnáším školu.", etc. 5,5% of the pupils did not attempt to translate the sentence.

The pupils avoided using the subordinate objective clause and instead tried to translate the sentence word for word, using the deverbal noun "lhaní".

16,4% **subordinate clause**
40% **jeho lhaní**
38,1% **incorrect translation**
5,5% **no translation at all**
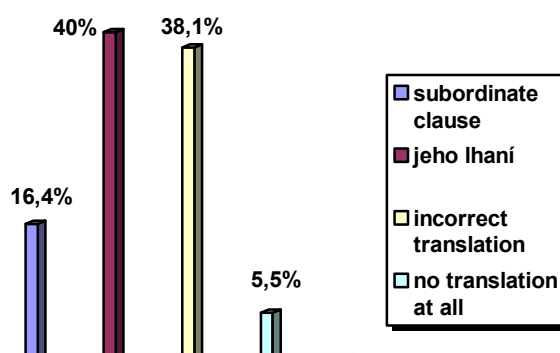
According to the results of the pupils from the grammar school, 51,7% translated the participle, using the subordinate clause, 34,5% used the translation "lhaní", 6,9% used an incorrect

translation, and only 3,4% did not translate the participle at all. One pupil used the word-for-word translation "lhajícího".
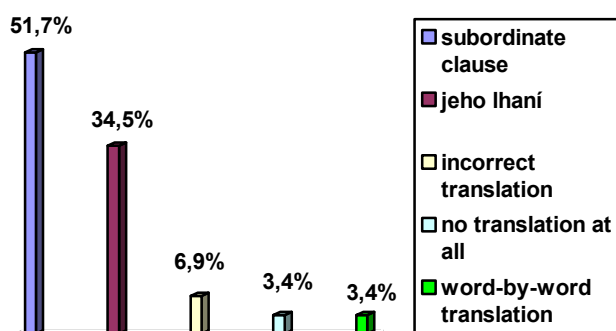
To sum up, the majority of pupils from the secondary schools used the deverbal noun "lhaní" and the pupils from the grammar school the subordinate clause. A higher number of incorrect translations were given by the pupils from the secondary schools. Overall, 66,7% of all the answers were correct and 33,3% incorrect.

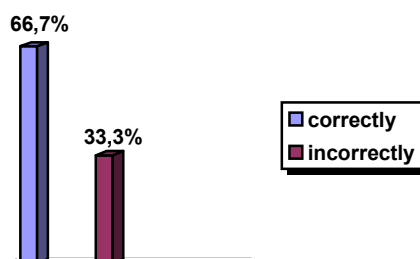## 7.3.4 Summary of translated –ing participles and comparison of schools

Knowledge of the progressive aspect was expected from the pupils who should know and recognize it, but this was not the case, with the pupils from the secondary schools in particular having some difficulties with translating. A lot of them had more difficulties with the simple progressive aspect than with the sentence condensation or with the *–ing* participle as a complement. Some of the pupils from both types of school used an extra word to highlight the progressive aspect. Some of the pupils from the grammar school translated the participle as the Czech participle although most of them used the incorrect ending.

From all the possible translations which I have stated in chapter 6.4, it can be said that the majority of translations of the *–ing* participles use the verbal adjective, the infinitive, an extra

Czech word or the adjective. The other possibilities were used as well but not as often as these listed.

From all the results, it was shown that the pupils had difficulties with the sentence condensation in sentence no. 5. Some of the pupils were trying to use common sense for this sentence, as was the case in sentence no. 2.

To compare these results with the results of the gerund translation, we can see that the pupils had more difficulties with translating the –*ing* participles. Originally, this was not expected to be the case due to the fact that, in particular, the present progressive tense is taught and revised many times throughout secondary school.

7.3.5 Arrangement of the sentences according to the difficulty of translating

According to the results of the pupils, the sentences are listed here in order, with the sentence with the highest percentage first.

1. Your favourite activity, *swimming* in the ocean, costs money.	100%
2. My friends like *playing* computer games.	96,4%
3. *Watching* TV gives children new information.	91,7%
4. My mother's hobby is *sitting* in the garden.	90,5%
5. Her job, *analysing* data, is quite boring.	89,3%
6. This is *interesting* information for me.	89,3%
7. Johnny finished *reading* the book.	88,1%
8. I think that *going* to school is	75,9%

important for children.	
9. I saw him *watching* TV.	73,8%
10. I hate him *lying* about school.	66,7%
11. Mrs. Carlson is *walking* to work. Mrs. Carlson walks to work.	64,3%
12. My father is responsible for *losing* my keys.	58,3%
13. At the station you will see a small child *looking* for his parents.	56%
14. A *flying* plane is high in the sky.	56%
15. Susan is *bringing* me an apple.	50%
16. All my friends came to the party, *eating* hamburger.	39,3%

Surprisingly, the pupils had the most difficulties with translating the easiest sentences where the present progressive tense was used (the sentence *Susan is bringing me an apple.*). The pupils from the grammar school showed a higher number of the correct answers. The least problems occurred when translating the gerund in the syntactic position of a subject.

7.4 Student's Books used at the schools

The student's books used at these three schools are Maturita solutions (elementary and pre-intermediate levels), English Plus and Project. The grammar school uses Maturita solutions and English Plus, and the secondary schools use Project. All of these student's books are published by the same publisher – Oxford University Press.

In first of the books, Project, the pupils go through three of these books – 1st, 2nd, and 3rd levels. In the 1st edition, the present continuous is introduced in unit 6. There are 10 exercises

including listening, reading and gap-filling. There is no revision of this tense at the end of the book. In the 2nd edition, the present continuous is revised in unit 2. This unit is completely focused on the present progressive tense. There are various exercises but the stress is not on speaking and it is known that the more one speaks and uses the particular grammar, the more he learns. There is a very short revision of the unit at the end of the book. In the 3rd book, the present progressive tense is revised in the introduction of the book and contrasted with the present simple tense. There are eight exercises focused on this tense. The continuous aspect is taught again in unit 3 as part of the past tense.

In the Maturita solutions student's book, the present continuous is introduced in unit 6 of the elementary level book. The grammar starts with a listening exercise, followed by seven exercises in the unit and six more in the revision chapter at the end of the unit. Some speaking exercises are also included in the Teacher's book. Spelling rules are also included in this book. The tense is also practiced in the sub-unit in the reading section where the text used is longer than that found in the Project book. The language review of the unit also includes some practice, plus there is one listening exercise in the revision of the units 1 – 4. In the next book, pre-intermediate, unit 1 is focused on the present progressive where it is contrasted with the present simple tense. The whole unit is focused on the present progressive and present simple and the differences between these two tenses. In this unit, the gerund is also introduced but not as a gerund but as a "verb + infinitive or –ing form". The past progressive is introduced in the next chapter.

In the English Plus student's book, the present progressive tense is introduced in unit 4 (the same as in Maturita solutions). The first introduction of the tense has 6 exercises but the pupils first have to deduce the form from the text on the previous page. In the next exercise, they have to deduce the spelling rules as well. Speaking is included, too. The following four pages practice the tense and are divided into different skills – speaking, writing, and listening. There are many exercises so there is a lot of space for practicing. There is, of course, a review at the end of the unit. The communicative review, which is the second page of the review part, focuses primarily on speaking and communication. At the end of the book, in the "Extra listening and speaking" section, one can find some additional exercises, mainly listening, to practice the tense, as well as one more reading in the "Culture" section. With this number of exercises, the secondary schools are not able to complete them all. In the pre-intermediate book, the present progressive is revised in unit 2. There are speaking and grammar exercises in the language focus section (1 speaking exercise, 5 grammar exercises) and on the following page where the

questions are revised separately in 6 exercises (1 speaking exercise, 1 listening exercise, 4 grammar exercises + rules deduction). In the review part, there are 5 exercises (1 speaking, 4 grammar exercises). The progressive aspect is taught again in unit 4 but as a part of the past tense. There are 2 whole pages focused only on this aspect where the grammar exercises are combined with speaking. In the review part, there are 2 full pages of different exercises.

The interesting thing about the books is that in the Project and Maturita solutions books, the present progressive tense is practiced with vocabulary connected with clothes and dressing (e.g. *I'm wearing a blouse today.*, etc.) but in English Plus with animals.

As for the gerund, there is no mention of it as a *gerund* but the pupils are taught it in the form of *verb + infinitive or –ing*.

To summarise, the textbook with the biggest emphasis on the present progressive tense is English Plus. It is used by the pupils from the English section from the grammar school Hejčín where they have enough lessons to practice it fully. The pupils from the secondary schools do not have this opportunity, but there are still enough exercises for practicing in the Project book. But there are still enough exercises for practising in the Project book, and compared to Maturita solutions, the revision is more frequent.

7.5 Conclusion of the research

According to the research, it has been found that the most commonly used translation of the gerund is the Czech verbal noun ending with *–í*, e.g. plavání, kreslení, etc. that is an equivalent for the English gerund, which confirms the first hypothesis. The Czech verbal noun was the most frequent translation, used in three quarters of the sentences with gerunds. Apart from this form, the pupils also used the Czech deverbal noun, although it is not an equivalent for the English gerund, and they also, in some cases, used a word-for-word translation which was often chaotic. Both results confirm the second and fourth hypotheses. From the comparison of the student's books, it was found out that the term "gerund" does not appear there but the form us used, e.g. *Swimming* is my hobby, but it is called *verb + infinitive or –ing*. The pupils can deal with its translation quite easily. This confirms the third hypothesis.

As for the translation of *–ing* participles and the fifth and sixth hypotheses, the pupils have some difficulties with recognizing and translating the present progressive tense. They confuse it with the past simple or with the present simple tenses. As we can see from the list of the sentences

arranged according to their difficulty of translation, the sentences in which the present progressive tense was used are placed 11th and 15th, despite the fact that, from the comparison of the student's books, revision is made often, especially in the Project and English Plus student's books. In the Maturita solutions student's book, the revision is not that frequent (only at the beginning of the pre-intermediate book). The reason for such results may be the fact that the pupils do not realize that the progressive aspect exists in the Czech language as well but in a different form than in the English language, or perhaps they do not realize it since it is their native language. In the case of the 5th hypothesis regarding Czech archaic participles, a higher number of these forms was expected but the pupils did not use them that often. There were only a few samples with these forms and when they were used, they had an incorrect ending.

8 Conclusion

The English system of tenses is sometimes difficult for a learner to understand, just as in any other foreign language. The focus group of this thesis was the pupils at the secondary schools where the progressive aspect is introduced.

Both these forms, the gerund and *–ing* participle, have many different translations in the Czech language as stated in chapter 6, and also many syntactic roles in a sentence. Although the pupils do not know the term *gerund* or *–ing participle*, they use the forms very often but translate it incorrectly in some cases. They are sometimes not able to express the difference between the present progressive and simple present tenses where the *–ing* participle occurs. As for the gerund, they also have some difficulties with translation but they always find a way to translate it into the Czech language, most often by using a Czech deverbal noun. Even though this is not the equivalent of the English gerund, it can still be accepted as a translation.

Both the theoretical part and the research are useful in the fact that it helps us to structure all the possible translations of both the gerund and the *–ing* participle. Since the Czech language is rich as for the vocabulary, there is not only one translation of both these forms. Furthermore, it helps us to realize that the bad translation of these forms can cause the change of the meaning. Therefore all the Czech learners should be careful about the translation. The research can be used by the Czech teachers of English in showing the pupils that there is not only one Czech translation of the meaning of *–ing* forms and that they have more possibilities. It can be also used for distinguishing the *–ing* forms according to their position in a sentence which can help the pupils to recognize a noun with the *–ing* ending from a verb in present progressive tense.

To finish this diploma thesis, I will use the quote by the Italian writer Leonardo Sciascia: "*The best thing on translation was said by Cervantes: translation is the other side of a tapestry.*" Though it isn't exactly what was intended, the original idea still shows through.

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Název práce:	Gerundia a přítomná participia a jejich překlad do češtiny
Název v angličtině:	Gerunds and *–ing* participles and their translation into Czech
Anotace práce:	Tato diplomová práce popisuje jednu z neurčitých slovesných tvarů, a to přítomná participia (v angličtině *–ing* participles). Shrnuje formy, které se nazývají gerundia a přítomná participia. Popisuje také různé pohledy různých lingvistů na tyto formy a jaké jsou jejich funkce ve větě a také, co vyjadřují. V další kapitole jsou popsána česká participia přítomná a minulá a jaké jsou jejich správné koncovky, jelikož si je rodilí mluvčí češtiny někdy pletou. V poslední kapitole jsem se zaměřila na překlad těchto participiálních forem a jak vypadá jejich správný překlad v češtině, aby byly pro rodilého mluvčího češtiny srozumitelné. Výzkumná část obsahuje analýzu dotazníku, který jsem rozdala na základních školách v Krnově a Olomouci. Na tomto dotazníku bych chtěla ukázat, že ačkoliv děti termín „gerundium" neznají, běžně jej používají. Poté bych se chtěla zaměřit i na překlad participií. Mým cílem bylo ukázat, že žáci mají problémy s překladem některých těchto forem, vyskytujících se ve větě, popř. že je překládají jako český již zastaralý přechodník. A když už je používají, tak je používají se špatnými koncovkami. Příkladové věty jsem vzala ze své učitelské praxe a také podle toho, jakou syntaktickou pozici v nich gerundia a participia zastávají.
Klíčová slova:	Anglická gerundia, anglická přítomná participia, česká participia, infinitivy, překlad, neurčitý tvar sloves, slovesný vid, slovesný rod, průběhový čas, spisovná čeština

Anotace v angličtině:	This diploma thesis describes one of the non-finite forms of verbs, –*ing* participles. It summarises these non-finite –*ing* verb forms called the gerund and the –*ing* participles. It describes various views of several grammarians, and the differences in their view of the gerund's and –*ing* participle functions and what they express. The next chapter will introduce the Czech present and past participles and shows the correct endings of both the participles. In the final chapter, I made a basic comparison between English and Czech concerning these forms and how they are translated into the Czech language so as to be understandable for the Czech native speaker. In the research part, conducted at secondary schools in Krnov and Olomouc, I would like to show that pupils do not know the term "gerund", although they use it quite often. I then focus on various translations of these non-finite forms. My aim is to show that pupils have some difficulties with translation of these forms into Czech. They translate it incorrectly, sometimes using the archaic Czech participle which corresponds with the English –*ing* participle and gerund. Example sentences are be taken from my teaching practice and according to various syntactic positions in a sentence
Klíčová slova v angličtině:	English gerunds, English –*ing* participles, Czech participles, infinitives, translation, non-finite verb forms, aspect, voice, progressive tense, standard Czech
Přílohy vázané v práci:	X
Rozsah práce:	80 stran
Jazyk práce:	anglický