TECHNICKÁ UNIVERZITA V LIBERCI
Fakulta přírodovědně-humanitní
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Translation of Reporting Verbs in English Fiction

Bakalářská práce

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Zásady pro vypracování:

Předmětem bakalářské práce jsou slovesa uvozující přímou a nepřímou řeč v anglické a české beletrii. Cílem práce je ověřit předpoklad, že škála těchto sloves bude v českém překladu bohatší než v anglickém originále. Dílčími cíli pak bude zjistit, zda se překladové protiklady liší v přímé a nepřímé řeči a v různých typech vět (oznamovací, tázací, rozkazovací). Při zpracování bakalářské práce se uplatní následující metody: studium literatury, sestavení korpusu překladových protikladů, kvantitativní a kvalitativní analýza.

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24. června 2022   Denisa Kořínková

Anotace

Tato bakalářská práce se zabývá uvozovacími slovesy v anglické a české beletrii. Jejím cílem je ověření předpokladu, že škála těchto sloves je v českém překladu bohatší než v anglickém originále. Dalším cílem práce je zjistit, zda se překladové protiklady uvozovacích sloves liší v přímé a nepřímé řeči a v různých typech vět (oznamovací, tázací, rozkazovací).

Práce je rozdělená na tři dílčí části. První teoretická část nabízí důležité informace spojené s uvozováním, uvozovacími slovesy a další problematikou, týkající se tohoto tématu. Druhou částí práce je metodologie, která popisuje proces, kterým byla zpracována praktická část. Praktická část je třetí dílčí částí této práce a obsahuje několik grafů, které zobrazují informace, získané z tabulky v přílohách. Na konci práce jsou všechny zjištěné informace shrnuty v závěry.

Klíčová slova

Uvozování, terminologie uvozování, přímá řeč, nepřímá řeč, vnitřní řeč, volná přímá řeč, volná nepřímá řeč, uvozovací slovesa, anglická uvozovací slovesa, česká uvozovací slovesa, uvozování v různých typech vět, teorie překládání, překlad uvozovacích sloves

Annotation

This bachelor's thesis deals with reporting verbs in English and Czech fiction. Its main goal is to verify the assumption that the range of these verbs is broader in the Czech translation of fiction than in its English original. Another goal is to discover whether translation opposites of reporting verbs differ in direct and indirect speech and different types of sentences (declarative, interrogative, imperative).

The thesis is divided into three main parts. The first is the practical part, which offers the necessary information about reporting, reporting verbs and other important related issues. The second essential part of the thesis is the methodology, which describes the procedure used in processing the practical part, which is the third integral part of the thesis. The basis of the practical part is a set of graphs with information obtained from a table in the appendices. At the end of the thesis, all the research findings are summarized in conclusions.

Keywords

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1 Introduction

Speaking and communication are indispensable aspects of functional life. We often talk about ourselves, our moods, impressions, or needs. In addition, we frequently report on someone's actions and deeds, and doing this efficiently is essential because if we do not communicate ideas clearly, misunderstandings can appear.

This bachelor's thesis focuses on reporting verbs in English fiction, namely in the book *The Silence of the Lambs* by Thomas Harris, and their translation in the Czech version of the book. The thesis aims to verify the assumption that the range of these verbs is broader in the Czech translation than in the English original. I came to this assumption after reading several fiction books in Czech and English. It occurred to me that English authors tend to repeat reporting verbs, while Czech translators vary these verbs more. Another goal is to ascertain whether the translation opposites of reporting verbs differ in direct and indirect speech and different sentence types (declarative, interrogative and imperative). The theoretical background provides information about reporting in the English and Czech language, then Czech and English reporting verbs, and it also presents basic information about translating. The second thesis' part describes the methodology used for the practical part. The following practical part analyses one hundred instances of reporting verbs in the English and Czech versions of the book *The Silence of the Lambs*; the findings are presented in graphs. Consequently, conclusions are drawn.

As mentioned above, the book used for the analysis is *The Silence of the Lambs* by Thomas Harris. The book seems perfect because it was published in 1988 and uses modern language enough to analyse its reporting verbs. Secondly, after reading the book, I ascertained that it was rich in reporting verbs, which was fundamental for processing the thesis.

2 Theoretical background

As this thesis deals with reporting verbs, it is essential to define the necessary terminology related to this topic and describe the differences between reporting verbs in English and Czech. At the end of the theoretical part, a few valuable remarks concerning the differences caused by translating books into other languages are mentioned.

2.1 Reporting

John Sinclair (1994, iv) talks about the human language and its uniqueness over other communication systems. Above all, he talks about how great it is for a human language to be able to speak of itself. Sinclair explains this by the example that, for example, birds, especially parrots, can imitate sounds and words, but they cannot refer to each other. As another example, he gives dogs and their language, i.e., barking. Sinclair assumes that dogs cannot incorporate their comments about the barking and sounds of other dogs as their owners do in their language.

2.1.1 Terminology of reporting

This chapter shows that reporting does not have a fixed terminology, and the terms differ among different sources. It also proves how comprehensive reporting is and how many parts it can include.

Geoff Thompson (1996, vi-vii) explains that it can be challenging to talk about reporting since usually at least two different people are involved. He describes these two people as the one being reported and the one doing the reporting. Thompson adds that besides the two different people involved, there are also two different parts of the language; the part being reported and the part in which the reporting is being done. In Thompson's words (1994, vi-vii), the following terms clarify the information mentioned above:

- **speaker, writer**: the person who said or wrote what is being reported

- **hearer, reader**: the person to whom the speaker or writer was talking or writing

- **reporter**: the person who reports the language event

- **language event**: the original act of speaking or writing by the speaker or writer

- **report**: the complete account of the language event (which may or may not include identification of the speaker/writer; and may include a direct quotation or some indirect speech, or both, or neither)

- **message**: the part of the report which represents what was said or written in the language event

- **reporting signal**: the part that signals the report, for example, a reporting verb such as *say*. Occasionally, punctuation marks such as inverted commas may act as reporting signals.

To understand the terms, Thompson (1996, vii) provides an example sentence taken from a novel, see example (1). In that example, Thompson describes that the speaker is *Michael* (a character in the story), and the hearer is the *businessman* (another character from the novel). The reporter is the narrator or the author of the story. The language event is the conversation between Michael and the businessman, the report is the part of the sentence highlighted in bold, and the message is *Take care*. Lastly, the reporting signals are the verb *said* and the inverted commas.

(1) **Michael said 'Take care' to the businessman** and followed Wilfred through the mob.

The reporting terminology may differ slightly. According to Biber et al. (2002, p.196), a reporting clause specifies the speaker/writer (the same as by Thompson). Still, in contrast to

Thompson, Biber et al. call the receiver of the information the addressee. They further present the type of act (for instance, *ask*, *say*, *think*) and the mode of the act (*abruptly*, *apologetically*, *bitterly*).

In addition to the reporting terminology, it is essential to clarify the possibilities of reporting in the English and Czech language. This issue is enlightened in the following Chapters 2.2 and 2.3.

2.2 Reporting the language of others in the English language

Concerning reporting in the English language, Quirk et al. (1985, p.1020) operate with the terms reporting clause and reported clause. The former refers to the speaker/writer (Caroline said; Caroline wrote), the mode of the act (Caroline said hesitantly), or circumstances (Caroline replied). The latter, which represents the utterance itself, may be in the form of direct or indirect speech.

Direct and reported (indirect) speech can convey information about one's speech. Direct speech expresses what people say with their words, see example (2), and reported speech means that we later report the speaker's words (3). Parrott (2000, p.216) explains that when reported speech is taught in EFL[1] classes, the learners need to consider the context they are reporting to change from direct to reported speech. He also mentions that they need to know several reporting verbs such as *say*, *tell*, *explain* or *suggest*, and they must be able to construct the clauses that follow these verbs.

(2) My grandmother told me, 'I would like to visit my niece in Austria.'

(3) My grandmother told me she would like to visit her niece in Austria.

As reporting direct and indirect speech is the main topic of this thesis, the following two chapters will expose the differences between them in more detail.

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[1] English as a foreign language

2.2.1 Direct speech

Direct speech conveys precisely what someone has said, often dramatizing, creating a sense of immediacy, or because the precise words used were important. Direct speech can be found in newspaper reports, fiction, and oral narratives (Parrot, 2000, p.217).

Quirk et al.'s explanation of direct speech (1985, p.1021) complies with Parrot's description. Quirk et al. describe direct speech as a speech that aims to convey the exact words that someone (who may be the reporter) utters or has uttered in writing or speech.

"Direct speech is usually signalled by being enclosed in quotation marks" (Quirk et al. 1985, p.1022); see example (4). This statement is confirmed by Thompson (1996, p.2), who says that the most common reporting signal for direct quote structures in writing is inverted commas (' ' or " "). He adds that inverted commas are placed around the quote and can signal a quote even if there is no reporting clause, see example (5).

(4) The President said, 'A failure by Congress to approve new taxes will lead to larger budget deficits, higher interest rates, and higher unemployment.'

(5) She asked him how old he was. 'Twenty-three.'

Reporting someone's speech in the written language is marked by a reporting signal (commas), but it differs when reporting spoken language. Thompson (1996, p.5) explains that there are no punctuation marks in the speech, so we have to indicate that we are using a quote in another way. He adds a few possibilities, such as raising the pitch of our voice for the quote or pausing slightly before and after the quote and using a particular intonation pattern.

Besides the reporting signal, Thompson (1996, p.1) comments on the direct quote structure. He explains that the primary type of direct quote structure consists of two clauses: a reporting clause (the reporting signal), highlighted in bold in example (6), and a quote (the message), see example (7).

(6) **I said**, 'I'm going out.'

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(7) I said, **'I'm going out.'**

Quirk et al. (1985, p.1022) explain that reporting clauses may occur before, within, or after the direct speech and that the medial position, highlighted in bold in Quirk's example (8), is widespread. When the reporting clause is positioned medially or finally, see example (9), subject-verb inversion may occur if the verb is in the simple present or past.

(8) 'I suppose,' **Andrea said**, 'there is no punch left.'

(9) 'I am so hungry,' **Maria complained**.

Quirk et al. (1985, p. 1022) also explain that the structural relationship between the reporting clause and the direct speech poses some analytical problems. They add that direct speech functions as a subordinate clause in some respects. See the part of example (10) in bold.

(10)   Dorothy said, **'My mother is on the phone.'**

They further comment that in example (10), the direct speech seems to be a direct object, and we can ask a what-question and elicit the direct speech as a response; see Quirk's example (11).

(11)   A: What did Dorothy say?

         B: 'My mother is on the phone.'

According to Quirk et al., we can make the direct speech a subject complement in a pseudo-cleft construction, see example (12).

(12)   What Dorothy said was **'My mother is on the phone.'**

If we summarize this chapter, we will ascertain that reporting direct speech does not have one exact form but can vary in different ways; also, direct speech can have many syntactic functions in a sentence.

2.2.2 Reported speech

Reported (indirect) speech is a phenomenon used daily in any language. It is used when we are interested in the speaker's information, not the words they used. When reporting a speech, we often use fewer words than were initially intended by the first speaker (Parrott 2000, p.217). Parrot also says that reported speech is frequently encountered in a newspaper or other reports, fiction, and when talking or writing about conversations. The fact that reported speech is a phenomenon often used in fiction is proved in this thesis, dealing with reporting in the fiction book *The Silence of the Lambs*.

Quirk et al. (1985, p.1021) explain that reported speech conveys in the words of a subsequent reporter what has been said or written by the speaker or writer, who may be the same person as the reporter.

Reported speech can take many syntactical forms and in terms of this thesis, it is advantageous to know them. According to Quirk et al. (1985, p.1025), indirect speech takes the form of a nominal that-clause. See an example of this type of clause, where the indirect speech is a direct object (13), an example where indirect speech is an extraposed subject (14), and where indirect speech is a subject complement (15).

(13)   Harry said **that there was no time left**.

(14)   It happens pretty often **that there is no time left**.

(15)   What Harry said was **that there was no time left**.

Thompson (1996, p.10) also comments on the possible forms of reported speech. He mentions that even though one widespread way of reporting someone's words or thoughts is using a reported that-clause with *that***,** the word *that* can often be omitted, see (16). However, in formal situations, especially in writing, that-clauses without *that* are relatively rare. Thompson (1996, p.10) comments that the more formal the context, the more likely we will find *that* used whenever it can be.

(16)   Andrea said she didn't want to move.

Thompson (1996, p.13) further adds that many reported clauses begin not with *that* but with a wh-word: *what*, *why*, *where*, *when*, *who*, *whom*, *whose*, *which* and *how*. He shows two examples of these wh-clauses; see examples (17) and (18). "These clauses can be used to report wh-questions. They can also be used to report exclamations, and to give a summary of statements." (Thompson 1996, p.13)

(17)   Finally, she asked **what** I'd brought with me in the way of shelter, clothing, and

        money.

(18)   I asked the two men **why** they were taking the risk.

As another form of the reported clause structure, Thompson discusses whether- and if-clauses and provides examples (19a,b). Additional forms described by Thompson (1996, p.15) are the to-infinitive clause, see (20a) and the clause where the reported clause is negative (20b). In these cases, *not* is placed before *to*. Thompson provides one more possibility of reported speech structure: "There are a fairly small number of reporting verbs which can be followed by a non-finite reported clause with the *-ing* form of the verb." (Thomspon 1996, p.16). See Thompson's example (21).

(19)   a) I asked him **whether it was still raining**.

        b) That's why I asked **if I could spend the night here**.

(20)   a) I promised **to play bridge with Lady Penrith**.

        b) They claimed **not to have read it**.

(21)   They had admitted **taking the drug** allegedly for medical complaints.

2.2.3 Inner speech

A vital phenomenon associated with speech that is often found in fiction is inner speech. Nordquist (2020) states that inner speech is a form of internalised, self-directed dialogue. He

generally describes it as talking to oneself. Sams (2010, p.3150) deals with inner speech in her article and states that people often include their inner thoughts as reported speech when telling stories. She adds that reporting this unspoken speech gives the speaker a chance to 'retell' the story to say what they wished they could have thought of while the story was taking place. This allows the speaker to let other people know what they are thinking or what they were thinking (Sams, 2010, p.3150). Inner speech is frequently found in the book *The Silence of the Lambs*, however, it is not a part of the research in the practical part.

2.2.4 Free direct and free indirect speech

Besides direct and indirect speech, the primary modes of reporting, two secondary modes of reporting are connected. These secondary modes are free direct speech and free indirect speech. Both do not contain reporting clause, and the act of communication may be signalled, for instance, by shifts in the tense forms of verbs. The report can represent mental activity, which is, by its nature unspoken (Quirk et al., 1985, p.1021).

Quirk et al. (1985, p.1032) expand on the description of free direct and free indirect speech. Free indirect speech is used extensively for reporting speech or stream of thought. As for the form, they add that it is a form of indirect speech; the difference is that the reporting clause is omitted, and the potentialities of direct-speech sentence structure are retained. As Quirk et al. say, it may be direct questions and exclamations, vocatives, interjections or tag questions. "It is therefore only the backshift of the verb, together with equivalent shifts in personal pronouns, demonstratives, and time and place references, that signals that the words are being reported, rather than being in direct speech" (Quirk et al. 1985, p. 1032).

2.2.5 English reporting verbs

According to Thompson (1996, p.33), many reports include a reporting signal that can show a lot of different kinds of information, for instance, the manner of the speech. Thompson leads this by an example, see (22a,b). He continues, saying that a reporting signal can also reveal whether the speaker is human or not, see examples (23) and (24).

(22)   a) 'Come closer, ' Debilly **whispered**.

            b) She heard Helen **shout**, 'Look at it.'

(23)   **He** says he doesn't understand why he did it.

(24)   By a yellow circle on the pavement, **a notice** says: 'Take pictures here.'

As seen in (24), the speaker/writer does not have to be a human. Thompson claims that one of the main ways in which it is possible to use the reporting signal to give information about the report is by choice of reporting verbs. "You can choose a reporting verb which simply shows that you are reporting what someone else has said or written without adding any extra information. These are neutral reporting verbs" (Thompson 1996, p.33). See example (25).

(25)   He **said** several tons of assistance are being sent to the refugees daily.

Thomson (1996, p.35) explains that the primary reporting verb is *say* and that it can be used to report any language event – statements, questions, suggestions, etc. He adds that when using a neutral reporting verb with mentioning the hearer, it is possible to use the verb *tell*, which can be used to report statements, instructions, and suggestions, but not questions, see (26). Thompson also mentions that for reporting questions, the verb *ask* can be used as a neutral verb, see (27), and the verb *write* to report written language events, see example (28).

(26)   Anthony **told** him the proposal was out of the question.

(27)   'When can I go home?' he **asked** almost daily.

(28)   He **wrote** that 'he is a truthful narrator, but he is not a scientific discoverer'.

Except for neutral reporting verbs, Thompson (1996, pp.33-40) mentions that their other function is to provide information about the speaker's purpose or attitude, see (29). He appends a list of essential verbs that indicate the speaker's intention: *acknowledge, admit, advise, affirm, allege… confirm, contend, counsel, declare* […] *suggest, swear, teach, testify, threaten, vow, warn.*

(29)   His English was poor, and he **joked** that even his Italian was not too good.

Then he comments that it is also possible to report how the speaker spoke or, for instance, if they spoke positively or negatively, see example (30). Thompson shows a variety of groups of reporting verbs. In particular, verbs that indicate how quietly or loudly the speaker spoke: *bawl, bellow, boom* […] *holler, mumble, murmur, mutter*. Then, for instance, a group of verbs indicating the speed of talking: *babble, blurt, chatter, drawl,* etc.

(30)   The Agency had been **criticized** for being slow off the mark.

Parrot (2000, p.218) divides reporting verbs slightly differently. He mentions five groups: neutral verbs (*say* and *tell*), topic or 'summarising' verbs (*discuss* or *talk about*), then non-attitude verbs, whose function is to comment on the function of what is said but do not involve a judgment about the attitude behind it: *add, answer, ask, explain, mention*, attitude and interpretation verbs: *accuse, allege, beg, blame…*, and other verbs and expressions.

In the appendices of this thesis, there is Table 3, containing the most frequently used reporting verbs, adapted from a combination of two online sources: *Education First: Reporting verbs* and *The University of Adelaide: Verbs for Reporting*. There is a lot of research probing the most frequent reporting verbs. For instance, Fárová (2016, p.149) deals with the occurrence of reporting verbs in English fiction. She describes her research using a parallel corpus, called *InterCorp*[2], limited to non-translated fiction texts (original texts). The result of her study was

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[2] An extensive parallel synchronous corpus, covering as many languages as possible. Teachers and students of the Faculty of Arts, Charles University in Prague and other collaborators of the UČNK take part in its creation (Škrabal, 2022).

that the most common reporting verb is the verb *say*, which was found in the *InterCorp* corpus in 84% of all the instances of reporting verbs. It can therefore be expected that in the practical part of this thesis, the research will present the verb *say* as the most represented reporting verb.

When researching reporting, knowledge of transforming direct speech into indirect speech is required. Therefore, the following Chapter 2.2.6. highlights general remarks concerning the transformation.

2.2.6 General transformation rules

Transforming direct speech into indirect speech and the other way in English is based on fulfilling fundamental rules. For instance, the reporter must change the tense forms to transform the speech correctly. The rules are very well described by Parrot (2000, pp.221-222):

Table 1: Transformation rules in English (adapted from Parrot pp.221-222)

Present changes to past:	I don't eat meat. → She said she **didn't** eat meat.
Auxiliary verbs in the present also change to the past:	I'm afraid they're working and don't want to stop. → She said they **were** working and **didn't** want to stop. I've never travelled outside the US → She said she **had** never travelled outside the US.
Past simple changes to past perfect:	I saw her. → He said he **had seen** her.
Auxiliary verbs in the past also change to the past perfect:	I was looking for Julie. → He said he **had been** looking for his sister.
The following modal verbs often change: *can, may, must*:	I can see them. → She said she **could** see them. We may go there later. → She said they **might** go there later. I must leave. → She said she **had to** leave.

The auxiliary verbs in future forms change from present to past.	I'll see you. → He said he **would** see me. I am going to be back tomorrow. → He said he **was** going to be back the next day.

Parrot (2000) adds that a few forms exist which do not need to change:

Table 2: No transformation changes (adapted from Parrot pp.221-222)

Verbs already in the past perfect:	We'd finished our work. → He said they **had finished** their work.
The following modal verbs: could, might, ought, should, would:	You should eat more. → She said I **should** eat more. I couldn't eat anything → She said she **couldn't** eat anything.

When reporting someone's speech, it is essential to pay attention to the typical changes in expressions of time and place. For instance, Parrot (2000, p.223) shows this shortly and straightforwardly:

here → there   now → then

this → that   today → that day

these → those   yesterday → the day before

come → go   tomorrow → the next way

bring → take   this week → that week

                 this month → that month (Parrot 2000, p.223)

2.3 Reporting the language of others in the Czech language

This thesis examines reporting not only in English but also in the Czech language. Therefore, this chapter deals with this topic. In the Czech language, reporting someone else's speech is called *reprodukce prvotních výpovědí*. Karlík et al. (2002, p.375) describe three cases

of Czech reporting. Firstly, in the form of direct reported speech (31), secondly, in the form of a notice unit with a particle *prý* (32), and thirdly, in the form of indirect reported speech (33).

(31)   Řekl: „Přivezu ti nějaký dárek”

(32)   Prý přivezu ti nějaký dárek.

(33)   Řekl, že mi přiveze nějaký dárek.

For a more detailed view of the form of reporting in the Czech language, Karlík et al. (2002, pp.375-376) explain that within using direct reported speech, *reprodukovaná výpověď* retains its original situational form, and it does not change in any expressive way. They also add that commas may be used in a written form. Karlík et al. further acknowledge that the *reprodukovaná výpověď* mainly retains its original form, even when using the particle *prý*. However, the statement may have a grammatically changed form (34). Karlík et al. further add that when using indirect reported speech, the initial statement (direct speech) acquires the syntactic nature of a subordinate noun clause, functioning as a direct object, most often connected by the conjunctions *že* or *aby*, see (35).

(34)   Že prý abych otevřel okno

(35)   Přál si, aby měl víc času.

2.3.1 Czech reporting verbs

Karlík et al. (2002, p.519) explain that so-called *verba dicendi* are used to report speech in the Czech language. They further comment that *verbum dicendi* indicates 'speech acts' and that from the point of view of lexical semantics, the verb *říci/říkat* can be considered the fundamental representation of the group.

Karlík et al. (2002, p.519) add the other members of the group may be characterized in relation to the verb *říci/říkat*; firstly, an articulated speech (*říci/říkat, mluvit, povědět/povídat, mlčet*), secondly, the verb *říci* + the way of speech (*breptat, mumlat, koktat, slabikovat*), thirdly,

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the verb *říci* + sound characteristics of speech (*šeptat, volat, křičet, řvát, bručet, syčet*), fourthly, *říci* + means of communication (*telefonovat, telegrafovat, faxovat*), then *říci* + determination of the phase of the communication act (*domluvit, rozmluvit se, zahájit, navázat, pokračovat, dodat, odpovědět*), and lastly, *říci* + determination of the communication function of speech (*oznámit, pomlouvat, poručit, ptát se, slíbit*).

Karlík et al. (2002, p.376) also explain that in terms of reproductive function, *verba dicendi* must be divided into two categories. First, *vlastní verba dicendi* (*říct, povídat, dít, prohodit, podotknout, pronést* […] *dodat, pokračovat*), and second, *slovesa ilokuční* (*oznámit, hlásit, ptát se, příkázat* […] *varovat*). They comment that the reason for such a division is that by using a verb of the first type, we rather reproduce the content of the initial statement, see their example (36). On the contrary, the second type of verb is characterized primarily by the *komunikační funkce reprodukované výpovědi*, see (37). To make the term *komunikační funkce reprodukované výpovědi* clear, Karlík et al. (2002, p.145) say that it is a goal (purpose, intention) with which a statement by the spokesperson towards the addressee in a given specific communication situation was produced.

(36)   Mason řekl: „Na tom může něco být." – Mason řekl, že na tom může něco být,

(37)   Mason připustil: „Na tom může něco být." – Mason připustil, že na tom může něco být.

Fárová (2016, pp.148-149) deals with the most common reporting verbs in the Czech language. For her research, aimed to investigate the most used reporting verbs, Fárová used data from a comparable monolingual corpus called *Jerome*[3]. She found out that out of 4125 occurrences of reporting verbs in translated texts (texts translated into Czech from other languages), 1,051 cases (25.48%) were the verb *řekl/a* and 354 cases (8,58%) the verb

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odpověděl/a. The result was slightly different for non-translated texts (originally written in Czech). Out of 5,486 occurrences of reporting verbs, 34.18% were the verb *řekl/a* and 2.93% the verb *odpověděl/a*. Thus, her corpus research shows that the two most commonly used reporting verbs are verbs *říct* and *odpovědět*.

Fárová (2016, pp.157-159) aims to explore the other most frequent reporting verbs in Czech fiction. In her following research, she used the same data from the *Jerome* corpus and analysed only non-translated texts this time. She ascertained that in addition to the first two places, which occupied the verbs *řekl/a* and *odpověděl/a*, the third place was taken by the verb *pravit* (with a 2% occurrence). Then the verb *pokračovat* (1,4%) and the verb *ozvat se* (a 1,3 % occurrence). Fárová further mentions the remaining frequent verbs such as *podotknout*, *usmát se*, *dodat*, *poznamenat* and *odvětit*.

2.4 Reporting in different types of sentences

As this thesis also focuses on whether the translation opposites of the reporting verbs differ in various types of sentences (declarative, interrogative, imperative), namely, if the different sentence types tend to contain particular reporting verbs, the following two subchapters deal with the direct and indirect speech in interrogative and imperative sentences.

2.4.1 Direct and indirect speech in interrogative sentences

Questions are one of the most common components of communication. Every day, we ask someone questions or answer different questions. However, to entrust someone with these questions further, that is, to correctly form indirect speech from direct speech, we must know the rules concerning direct and indirect speech in interrogative sentences.

Acharya (2021) divides the rules for working with direct and indirect speech in interrogative sentences into nine points: 1) identifying the sentence type, 2) typical reporting

verbs, 3) connectives *if* or *whether*, 4) interrogative pronouns, interrogative adjectives, interrogative adverbs, 5) transformation into a statement, 6) the word *shall*, 7) interrogative tags, 8) + 9) changes of pronouns and reporting verbs.

Firstly, Acharya says it is necessary to identify the type of sentence. Interrogative sentences typically begin with an auxiliary verb or a wh-word. Secondly, the sentence typically ends with a question mark, see Acharya's example (38).

(38)   "**Are** you ill**?**" / "**Why** are you late**?**"

Secondly, Acharya states that in indirect speech, interrogative verbs such as *ask*, *enquire*, *demand*, and *want to know* are used as reporting verbs before the reported speech in place of the simple verb *say* or *tell*. See his example (39).

(39)   Direct: He **said** to me, "Are you ill?"

            Indirect: He **asked** me if I was ill.

Thirdly, he describes that if the reported speech in direct speech is introduced by the verbs such as *be*, *have*, *do,* or any other auxiliary verbs like *can*, *shall* or *will*, the connectives *if* or *whether* are used after the reporting verb. See his example (40).

(40)   Direct: He said to me, "**Are** you ill?"

            Indirect: He asked me **whether/if** I was ill.

Fourthly, Acharya notes that if the reported speech is introduced by interrogative pronouns (such as *who* or *which*), interrogative adjectives (*what, how much*), or interrogative adverbs (*why, when, where, how*), the conjunctions *if/whether* are not used. Instead of that, interrogative pronouns (*who, which*), interrogative adjectives (*what, how much*), or interrogative adverbs (*why, when, where, how*) are used, as in example (41).

(41)   Direct: He said, "**Where** is the post office?"

            Indirect: He asked **where** the post office was.

Another point by Acharya describes that the interrogative form of the reported speech in direct narration must be changed into a statement. Then he adds that we must write full assent stop at the end of the sentence instead of a question mark. See Acharya's example (42).

(42)   Direct: The teacher said to him, "Have you done your homework**?**" (a question mark)

         Indirect: The teacher asked him if he had done his homework**.** (a full stop)

Sixthly, Acharya explains that an interrogative sentence beginning with *shall* in the direct narration takes the form of *would*. He adds that *should* is used only when the statement is a polite question or involves a matter of propriety or duty.

Acharya's point number seven involves sentences with question tags. He says that sometimes the interrogative sentence is formed in the direct narration by adding interrogative tags. He also says that in indirect narration, the tag is omitted after the meaning of the sentence has been guessed from it (affirmation or negation); see examples (43) and (44).

(43)   Direct: I said to Salil, "You can speak English, **can't you?**"

         Indirect: I **asked** Salil **if** he could speak English.

(44)   Direct: She said to me, "Sanyika can't speak Hindi. **Can she?**"

         Indirect: She **told** me that she **did not think** Sanyika could speak Hindi.

Acharya's penultimate and final point concern changes in pronouns and reporting verbs.

He divides the changes of pronouns into three separate categories. In his words, the first one deals with pronouns in the form of the first person. If the subject of the direct form is in the first person, the subject of the reported speech will be replaced by the subject of the reporting verb (Acharya 2021). See his example (45).

(45)   Direct: **She** says, "**I** am ill today."

         Indirect: **She** says that **she** is ill today.

Acharya then explains that if the subject of the reported speech of direct form is in the second person, the subject of the reported speech will be replaced by the object of the reporting verb, as in his example (46).

(46)   Direct: He says to **me**, "**You** can do this work."

         Indirect: He tells **me** that **I** can do that work.

Lastly, Acharya describes the case where the pronoun is in the form of the third person. He says that the subject will be replaced by the object of the reporting verb, see Acharya's example (47).

(47)   Direct: I said, "**He** will not wait for his friend."

         Indirect: I said that **he** would not wait for his friend.

         → no change of the pronoun

2.4.2 Direct and indirect speech in imperative sentences

This subchapter deals with imperative sentences and the transformation from imperative direct speech into imperative indirect speech. Acharya (2021) explains that an imperative sentence always indicates a command, request, or advice. He further assigns typical reporting verbs connected with an imperative to three categories. Firstly, verbs of command (*tell*, *order*, *command*, *change*, *bid*, *require*), verbs of request (*ask*, *request*, *desire*, *beg*, *solicit*, *beseech*, *pray*, *entreat*, *implore*), and verbs of advice (*advice*, *exhort*, *urge*, *persuade*).

Acharya describes the verb of the reported speech in an imperative sentence is changed into the infinitive (to + verb); see his example (48).

(48)   Direct: I said to him, "Please, **explain** the passage."

         Indirect: I requested him **to explain** the passage.

Acharya points out that if the verb of the reported speech contains a negative, the word *not* is used in the indirect speech before the infinitive (*not + to*). As in his example (49).

(49)   Direct: The teacher said to me, "**Don't** make noise in the class."

Indirect: The teacher ordered me **not to** make noise in the class.

2.5 Translation theory

As this thesis' primary goal is to compare the translation differences between two languages, it is necessary to introduce a particular theory on this issue. Levý (2012, pp.21-25) explains that when empiricists try to generalise the translation rules, they often conclude that the translator should have three essential pieces of translation knowledge. They should know the language from which they translate, the language into which they translate, and lastly, the factual content of the translated text, which according to Levý (2012, p. 21), means the period and local realities or various peculiarities of the author.

He also adds that the work of interpreters and professional and literary translators has those problems in common that result from the differences between the two languages; technical, psychological, and other difficulties in deciphering the source text and transmitting the message to another language.

Levý (2012, pp.88-90) comments on the duality of the translated work. He says the translated work is a mixed, hybrid entity that intertwines two structures; the semantic content and formal outline of the original, and on the other hand, the whole set of language-related artistic features provided by the work of the translator. Levý reminds us that translation is a unified concept, i.e., a firm view of the work and a unified basic approach. He points out that fluctuations in translations can very often be observed, even in those means that depend entirely on the Czech interpreter's skill. The translation often traces how the translator gradually finds a better solution to some recurring situations.

2.5.1 Translation of reporting verbs

Fárová (2016, p. 145) explains that when reading fiction in the English and Czech originals, the readers may notice that the variety of verbs differs. She says there is a relatively small group of verbs in English prose, where the verb *say* stands out significantly, while in Czech fiction texts, the range of these reporting verbs is very varied. She adds that some of these verbs belong semantically outside the group of the most frequently used communication verbs. Fárová also mentions that when watching translations from English into Czech, it seems that translators often do not choose the nearest equivalent but vary the reporting verbs to avoid repetition.

In her master thesis, Váňová (2007) also deals with reporting verbs; primarily, she aims to find out if the number of the Czech translation of the verb *say* as *říci/říct* differs between the old and the more recent versions of translation. She uses books from 1966 to 1776 to research the 'more recent' versions, for instance, *The Jungle Book*. To examine the 'old' versions, she used books from 1926 to 1947, for example, *A Passage to India* or *Mrs. Dalloway*. Váňová (2007, p.69) describes that the results of her thesis showed that in all but one translation, the percentage of the Czech verb *říci* is significantly lower than that of the English verb *say*. In her research, the verb *say* has a 66.36% occurrence in older texts and a 68,32% occurrence in more recent texts. The verb *říci* has a 49.09% occurrence in older translations and 42.30% in more recent translations; thus, the difference is 17.27% in older and 26.02% in more recent translations. Therefore, we could expect that the current research might approximately indicate a 25% difference between the occurrences of the verbs *say* and *říci*.

3 Methodology

As this thesis aims to verify the assumption that the range of reporting verbs in fiction is richer in the Czech translation than in the English original, the method of creating a parallel corpus was chosen for the research. It is a frequently used quantitative method in linguistics; for example, Fárová (2016) uses it for her study on the occurrence of reporting verbs in English fiction. The advantage of research using a parallel corpus is that in this way, it is possible to compare certain phenomena standing side by side; in this case, a comparison of a reporting verb in original English fiction with its Czech translation in the Czech version of a fiction book.

Table 5, placed at the end of the thesis in the appendices, serves as a parallel corpus for this thesis. For an example of Table 5, a short part, named Table 4, is given here:

Table 4: A sample of the created corpus

English original	Czech translation	Direct/indirect speech	Type of sentence (direct speech)
Your instructors **tell** me you're doing well (p. 2)	Vaši instruktoři mě **informovali**, že si vedete dobře (p. 8)	indirect	declarative
"A job came up and I thought about you," he **said** (p. 2)	„Objevil se tu takový případ a já si vzpomněl na vás," **řekl** (p. 8)	direct	declarative

As seen, the table consists of four columns; in the first column, there are examples of English reporting verbs taken out of the original version of the book. In the second column, there is a Czech version of the verb, taken out of the Czech version of the book. For context, these two columns always indicate not only the verbs themselves but the pieces of sentences in which the verbs are located. The third column contains whether the first and second columns are examples of direct or indirect speech. A description of the differences between direct and indirect speech can be found in the theoretical part of the thesis, namely in Chapters 2.2, 2.2.1

and 2.2.2). The column with direct and indirect speech is in the table because this thesis also focuses on the translation opposites of reporting verbs in direct and indirect speech. The last column indicates the type of sentence in direct speech. Namely, whether it is a declarative, interrogative or imperative sentence. If some examples were indirect speech, the type of sentences in their direct version of the speech was determined. Direct and indirect speech transformations in interrogative and imperative sentences are also described in the theoretical part of the thesis (Chapters 2.4.1 and 2.4.2).

As also seen in Table 4, the reporting verbs are marked in bold in the table, and after each example sentence, there is information with the page number in the particular version of the book. Altogether, there are a hundred rows of examples in the corpus (Table 5), as it is a number that is easily converted to percentages. All the findings essential for this thesis are converted into various graphs located in the practical part of the thesis.

As mentioned in the introduction of the thesis, the reporting verbs were selected from the book *The Silence of the Lambs* by Thomas Harris; more precisely, the original English version from 1988 and the Czech version from 1999. Jana Odehnalová translated the book into Czech. *The Silence of the Lambs* is a horror psychological novel whose main characters are serial killer and cannibal Hannibal Lecter and young FBI agent Clarice Starling. The book is full of dialogues; thus, it contains many reporting verbs. The book also includes a lot of ungrammatical and sometimes vulgar expressions. These vulgar expressions are appropriately marked in the table: (vulgarity).

Regarding the selection of reporting verbs for the corpus, only verbs that report a sentence and not a phrase were selected. This decision was made because the thesis examines translation opposites in different types of sentences, which would not be possible with phrases. For further filtering of the verbs, Table 3 was created, located in the appendices. The table contains a combination of the most common verbs, adapted from two online sources *Education First:*

Reporting verbs and *The University of Adelaide: Verbs for Reporting*. This thesis does not examine the number of reporting verbs in each language separately but their translation differences. Therefore, only the verbs from Table 3 were used for the corpus, to create a specific selection frame. The last condition for choosing a verb for the corpus was that the verb must not report inner speech or thoughts. Inner speech is described in the theoretical part (Chapter 2.2.3), but this thesis does not address it further. All the results observed from the created corpus and entered into the graphs are further described in more detail and compared in the conclusions of the thesis.

4 Practical part

The basis of the practical part of this thesis is presented in a set of graphs that display the information obtained from Table 5, located in the appendices. The introductory Graph 1 and Graph 2 reflect rather general information, which is, however, essential for further examination of the following graphs.
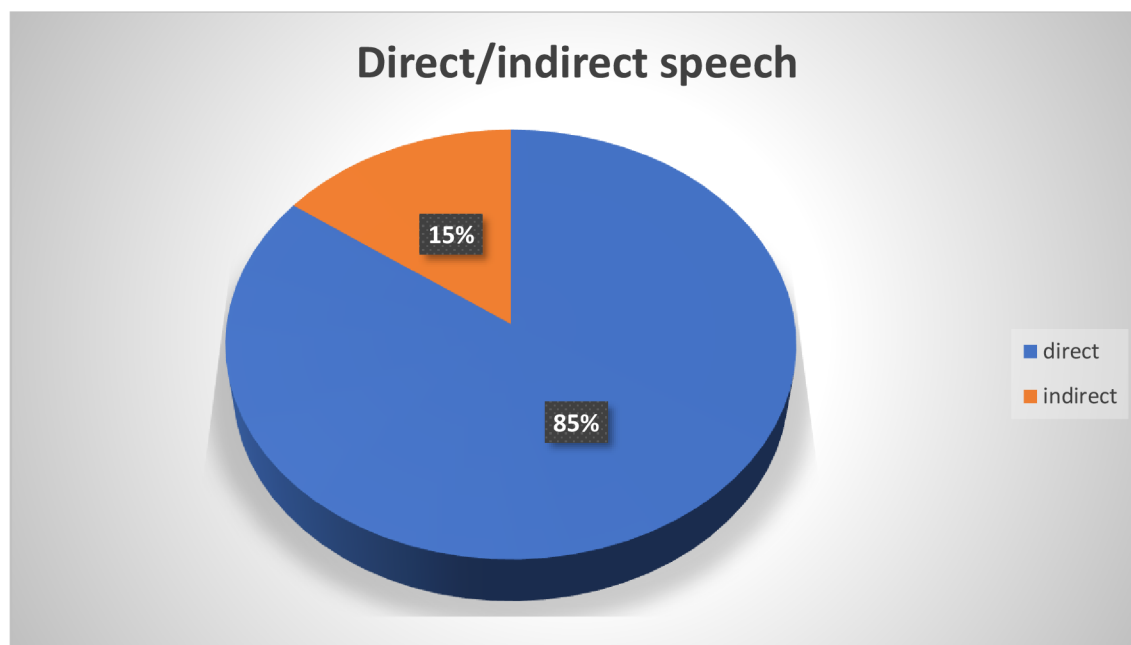
The subject of Graph 1 is the ratio of direct and indirect speech. As can be seen, direct speech (see example 50) strongly prevails with 85 samples, i.e., 85%. In contrast, there are only 15 examples of indirect speech (see 51), i.e., 15%. These numbers are essential for the following Graphs 5 and 6, in which these numbers will continue to be worked with.

(50)   "Mainly because you're available," Crawford said (p. 5)

    „Především proto, že jste po ruce,“ řekl Crawford (p. 10)

(51)   The Law Enforcement Bulletin says you're [...] (p. 3)

    V Law Enforcement Bulletinu psali, že [...] (p. 9)

Graph 1: The ratio of direct and indirect speech

Graph 2 displays the ratio of sentence types in both direct and indirect speech. As mentioned in Chapter 2.4, the research subject was these types of sentences: declarative, interrogative, and imperative. The type of sentence was determined by the direct form of the speech. As seen, declarative sentences (see 52) are the most numerous, with 76 occurrences out of one hundred examples, presenting 76%. Interrogative sentences (see 53) and imperative sentences (see example 54) occupy the second place. In both these types of sentences, 12 occurrences were found, i.e., both present 12%.

(52)   "Buffalo Bill has a two-story house," Dr. Lecter said (p. 62)
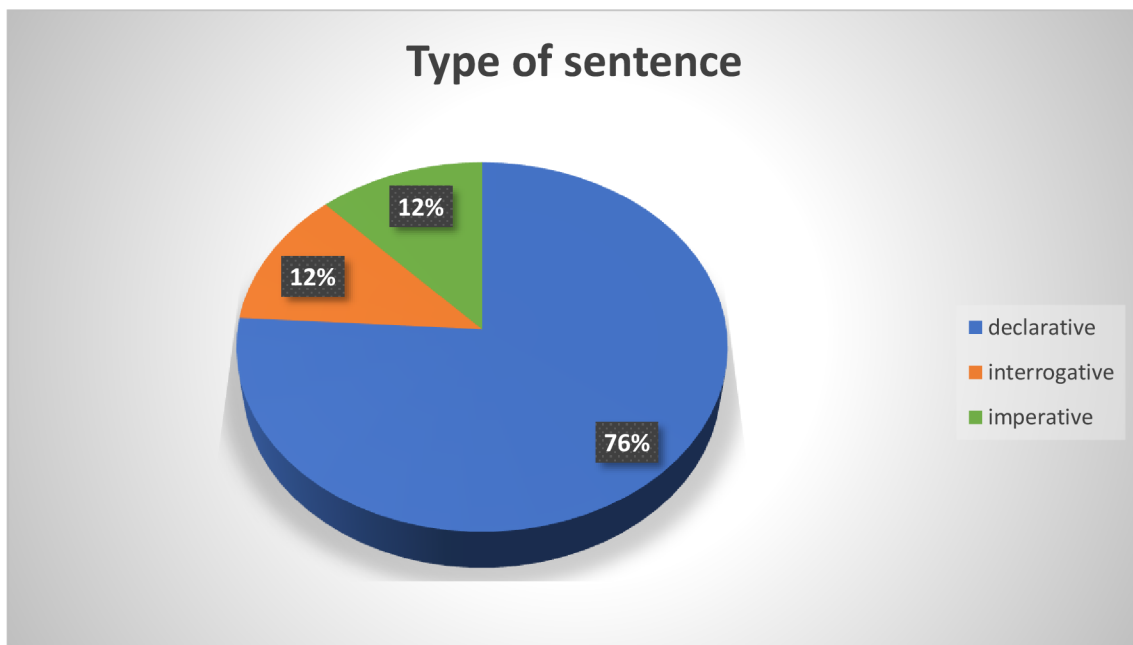
           „Bufallo Bill má patrový dům,“ řekl dr. Lecter (p. 63)

(53)   "Would you like a chair?" Barney asked her (p. 17)

           „Přála byste si židli?“ zeptal se jí Barney (p. 21)

(54)   "Take samples […]," Crawford said (p. 84)

           „Naberte vzorky […],“ řekl Crawford (p. 84)

Graph 2: The ratio of sentence types

The following Graph 3 displays the representation of various English reporting verbs from the original version of the book. It shows verbs of both direct and indirect speech and all three sentence types together.

Graph 3: English reporting verbs

The most common reporting verb is the verb *say* (see 55), with 85 occurrences out of 100; that means an 85% occurrence. This finding is in line with Fárová (2016). Thanks to the parallel corpus *InterCorp*, she found that the most commonly used reporting verb is the verb *say*. In percentage terms, the results are almost the same; in the research of Fárová, the verb *say* occurred in 84% of all cases.

The second most frequently found reporting verb in Graph 3 is the verb *ask* (6%, see 56), which is typical for reporting interrogative sentences. Examining the reporting verbs in different types of sentences can be found in Graphs 7-12. The third place is occupied by the verb *tell* (see example 57), with a 4% occurrence. The verbs *confirm* (58), *profess* (59), *suggest* (60) and *advise* (61) have only two or one occurrences in the table.

(55)   "She's got something in her throat," Starling said (p. 84)

(56)   "What if you… postulate… […]?" Starling asked (p. 75)

(57)   "Drop me [...]," Crawford told the driver (p. 91)

(58)   The clerk confirmed that […] (p. 33)

(59)   Dr. Hannibal Lecter professed to […] (p. 27)

(60)   "We might […]," Mr. Yow suggested (p. 46)

(61)   "Don't lump the spiders […]," the guard advised (p. 98)

Graph 4 presents the results of a similar examination as Graph 3, i.e., reporting verbs in both direct and indirect speech and regardless of the sentence type. However, it does not examine English but Czech reporting verbs.

Graph 4: Czech reporting verbs

Graph 4 clearly displays that the most represented Czech reporting verb from Table 5 is the verb *říci* (see 62), which occurs in the table in 71 cases (71%). Other verbs appear in the table on a much smaller scale. The second place takes the verb *zeptat se* (see 63, typical for interrogative sentences) with a 9% occurrence, and the third place the verb *odpovědět* (64) with a 3% occurrence. The fourth place is divided by the verbs *psát* and *potvrdit*, both with a 2% occurrence. The remaining verbs appear only once in the table. These verbs are: *informovat*,

ozvat se, pravit, otázat se, přísahat, oznámit, navrhnout, zavolat, poznamenat, prohlásit, povídat, pokračovat, and *radit.*

(62)   „Ano, jsem stále [...], řekla Starlingová (p. 21)

(63)   „Co je to? Nějaký lusk?" zeptal se Crawford (p. 85)

(64)   „Taková mrtvoly jsem vlastně [...]," odpověděla (p. 75)

Some of these verbs are referred to in Chapter 2.3.1 as *verba dicendi*. Firstly, the verb *říci*, which is considered to be the fundamental representation of the group, then the verbs *zeptat se* and *oznámit*, which are characterized as a connection of the fundamental verb *říci* + determination of the communication function of speech, further the verbs *odpovědět* and *pokračovat* (*říci* + determination of the phase of the communication act), and the verb *zavolat* (*říci* + sound characteristics of speech).

If we compare the results shown in Graph 4 with the results of Fárová's research (mentioned in the theoretical part in Chapter 2.3.1), we will find that the results are generally similar. Fárová found out that the most common Czech reporting verb is the verb *říci*, which corresponds with Graph 4. On the other, Fárová has the verb *odpovědět* in the second place, while it occupies the third place in Graph 4. Fárová found the verbs *pravit, pokračovat* and *ozvat se* among the other most frequently used Czech reporting verbs, as represented in Graph 4.

Another interesting phenomenon that could be investigated is the percentage difference between the number of occurrences of the verbs *say* and *říct/říci*. Váňová's research, described in Chapter 2.5.1, deals with this issue. Váňová (2007) finds that in more recent literature, the difference between the two verbs is approximately 26%. If we compare this result with the results in Graphs 3 and 4, where the verb *say* is represented in 85% and the verb *říct* in 71%, we will find that the percentage difference is not as significant as in Váňová's research; more precisely, it is only 14%. The difference is most likely because both pieces of research are based

on different books and authors, and not all reporting verbs are examined in this thesis, but only the most frequently used ones (see the methodology).

However, what is vital for this thesis is the comparison of Graph 3 with Graph 4. This thesis aims to verify the assumption that the Czech language is more affluent in reporting verbs than the English language, and the verification of this assumption is clearly seen when looking at these two graphs. It can be seen from Graph 3 that the total number of different English reporting verbs found in Table 5 is seven, whereas, in the same examples, there are eighteen different Czech reporting verbs (Graph 4). From this comparison, it can be deduced that the Czech language is more affluent in reporting verbs than English. As Fárová (2016) states in Chapter 2.5.1., it seems that Czech translators try to vary reporting verbs as much as possible in order to avoid repetition.

As one of the thesis's partial goals is to determine whether the translation opposites of reporting verbs differ in direct and indirect speech, the following Graph 5 and Graph 6 focus on the translation differences (thus different number of occurrences of reporting verbs), first in direct and then in indirect speech.
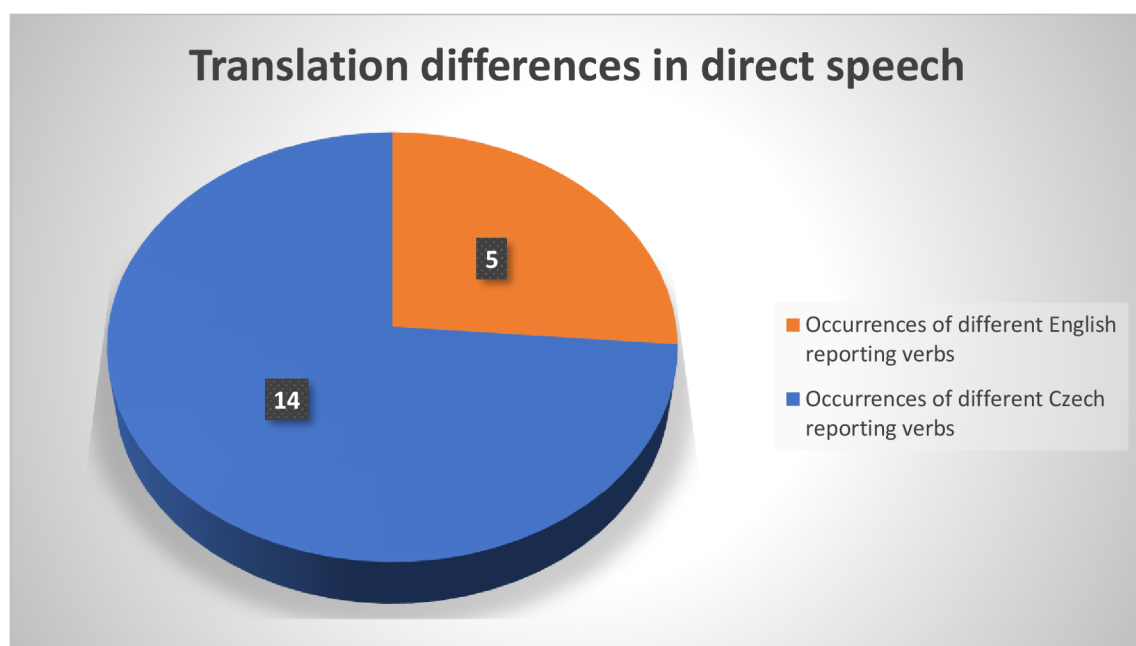
Graph 5: Translation differences in direct speech
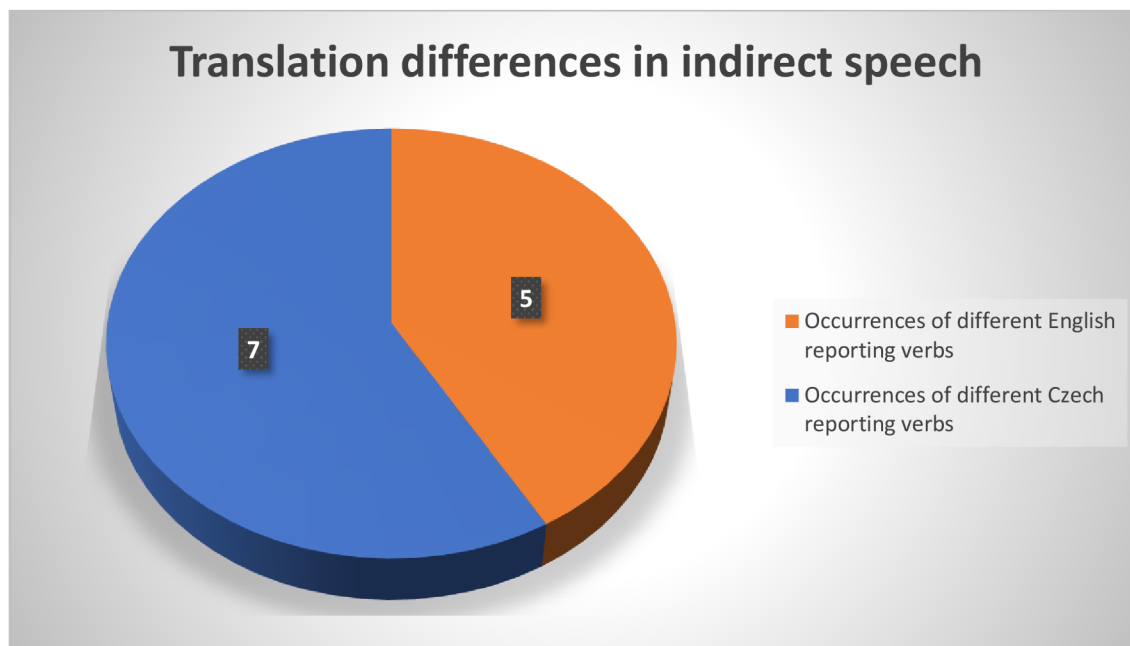
*Graph 6: Translation differences in indirect speech*

Graph 5 and Graph 6 display the number of various English and Czech reporting verbs in direct (Graph 5) and indirect speech (Graph 6). These two graphs are the only ones that do not display the results as a percentage, as it is not the ratio that matters but the number. As already found in Graph 1, there is an 85% occurrence of direct speech. Those 85 examples were examined, and the results are displayed in Graph 5. As for direct speech, there are five different English reporting verbs (*say*, *ask*, *tell*, *suggest*, *advise*), while the number of different Czech verbs is relatively more significant, namely fourteen (*říct*, *zeptat se*, *ozvat se*, *pravit*, *otázat se*, *oznámit*, *navrhnout*, *odpovědět*, *zavolat*, *poznamenat*, *povídat*, *prohlásit*, *pokračovat*, *radit*). From this result, it can be concluded that the Czech language is more affluent in reporting verbs than the English language, in terms of reporting direct speech.

The results are relatively different for indirect speech (Graph 6). As Graph 1 showed, only 15 examples were used to examine indirect speech. In these 15 examples, five different English reporting verbs (*say*, *tell*, *confirm*, *profess*, *ask*) and seven different Czech reporting verbs (*říct*, *potvrdit*, *psát*, *přísahat*, *povídat*, *zeptat se*, *informovat*) occur there. Compared to direct speech reporting (Graph 5), where the ratio is 14:5, the ratio is much smaller here, namely

7:5. Comparing these two ratios points to the fact that the Czech language varies reporting verbs more in the direct than in the indirect speech. Nevertheless, the Czech language is richer in these verbs in both types of speech than in English.

Another important goal of the thesis is to determine whether the translation opposites of reporting verbs differ in different types of sentences. The results found are shown in the following Graphs 7-12.

Graphs 7 and 8 show the ratio of different reporting verbs in declarative sentences. As already known from Graph 2, there are 76 examples of declarative sentences in the corpus, and those 76 examples are examined in Graphs 7 and 8. Graph 7 shows that the most common verb that reports declarative sentences is the verb *say*, which strongly predominates over the other verbs with a 92% representation. The verbs *tell* and *confirm* take the second place, and both occur in 3%. The verbs *profess* and *suggest* take the third place, with only a 1% occurrence. That means that out of the 76 examples of declarative sentences; there are only five different verbs (*say*, *tell*, *confirm*, *profess*, *suggest*).
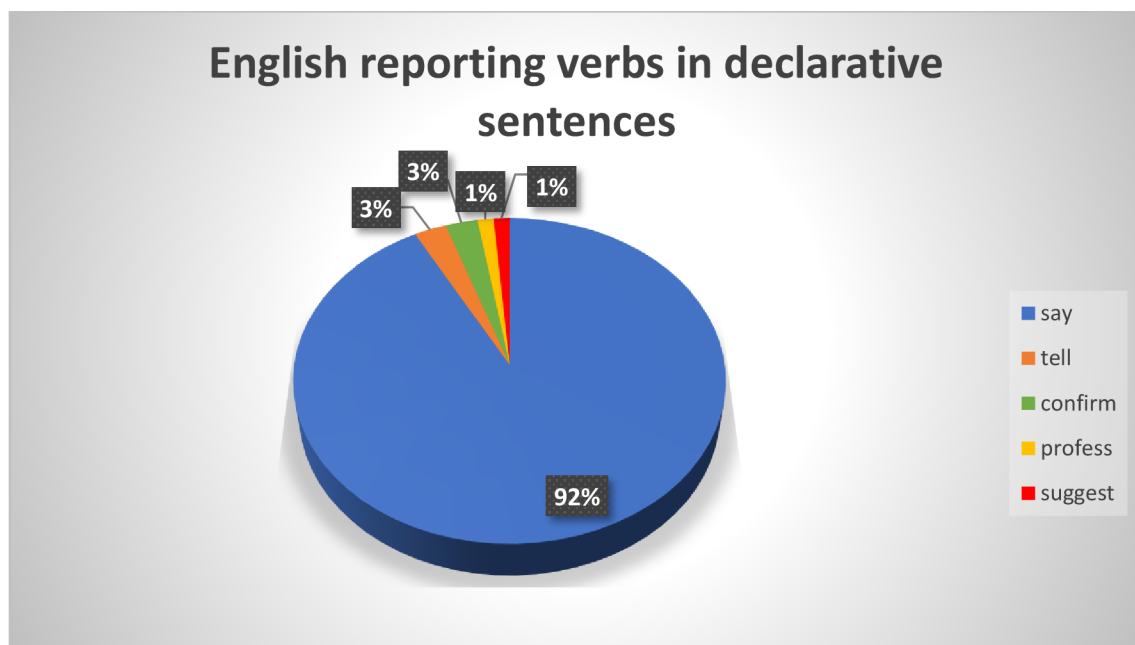
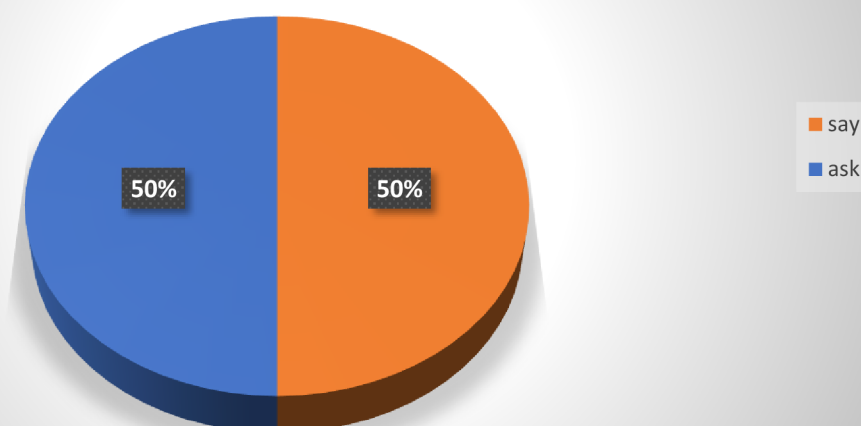*Graph 7: English reporting verbs in declarative sentences*

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When reporting declarative sentences in the Czech language (Graph 8), the verb *říct*, which also wholly prevails over other verbs, comes first. Nevertheless, there are many more Czech reporting verbs in Graph 8 than the English ones in Graph 7, namely fifteen. In addition to the verb *říct*, which has 76%, they are the verbs *odpovědět* (4%), *psát* (3%), *potvrdit* (3%), *informovat* (2%), *ozvat se* (2%), *pravit* (2%), *přísahat*, *oznámit*, *navrhnout*, *zavolat*, *poznamenat*, *prohlásit*, *povídat*, and *pokračovat*. From this result, it can be seen that in reporting declarative sentences, as far as Table 5 is concerned, the Czech language is much richer in reporting verbs. In other words, the lexical density is more significant in the Czech language than in the English language.
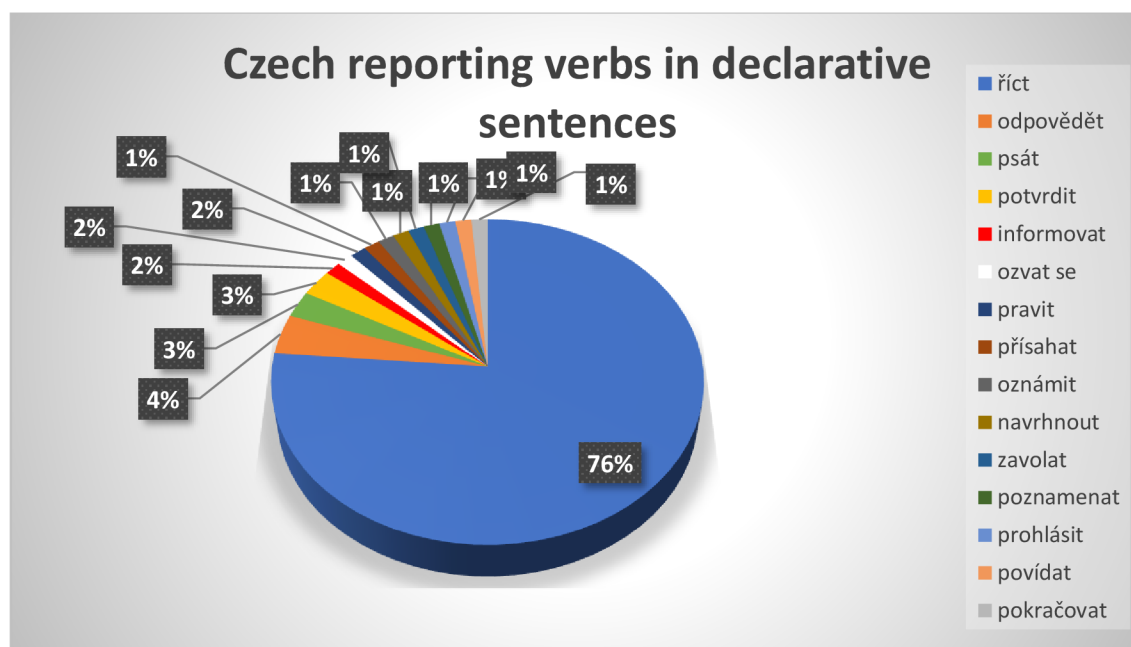
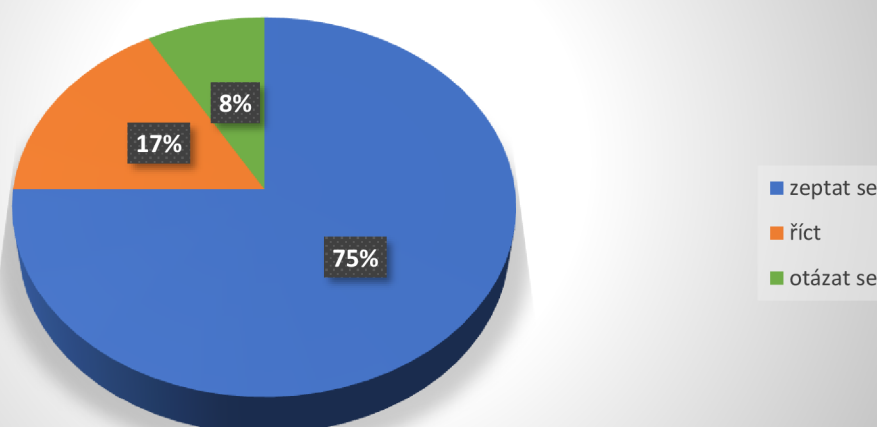*Graph 8: Czech reporting verbs in declarative sentences*

However, the following Graph 9 and Graph 10, which focus on translation differences in interrogative sentences, provide relatively different results.

Graph 9: English reporting verbs in interrogative sentences

Graph 10: Czech reporting verbs in interrogative sentences

Graphs 9 and 10 show information about interrogative sentences, more precisely, the ratio of the occurrences of different verbs reporting this type of sentence. It is based on examples of interrogative sentences, of which there are only 12 in the corpus; see Graph 2. Graphs 9 and 10 indicate that the number of reporting verbs is almost identical in the two languages. There are only two English verbs reporting interrogative sentences (Graph 9); the verbs *say* (see 65) and

ask; see (66), both in the same proportion, and only three Czech reporting verbs; *říct* (see example 67), *zeptat se* (68) and *otázat se* (69). Although the data for examining the verbs reporting interrogative sentences are relatively small, certain tendencies can still be traced; for instance, not only in the case of declarative sentences but also in the case of interrogative sentences, the analyzed English fiction tends to overuse the reporting verb *say*. However, in the Czech language, the most frequently represented reporting verb is no longer the verb *říct* but the verb *zeptat se*, with a 75% occurrence.

(65)   "Didn't a sleazo […]?" Starling said (p. 6)

(66)   He asked if you were busy (p. 40)

(67)   „[…] chápete, co mám na mysli?" řekl (p. 80)

(68)   „Přála byste si židli?" zeptal se jí Barney (p. 21)

(69)   „Často o tom přemýšlíte […]"? otázal se dr. Lecter (p. 27)

The following Graph 11 and Graph 12 display information about the translation differences of the verbs reporting imperative sentences. This examination was the last goal of the thesis.
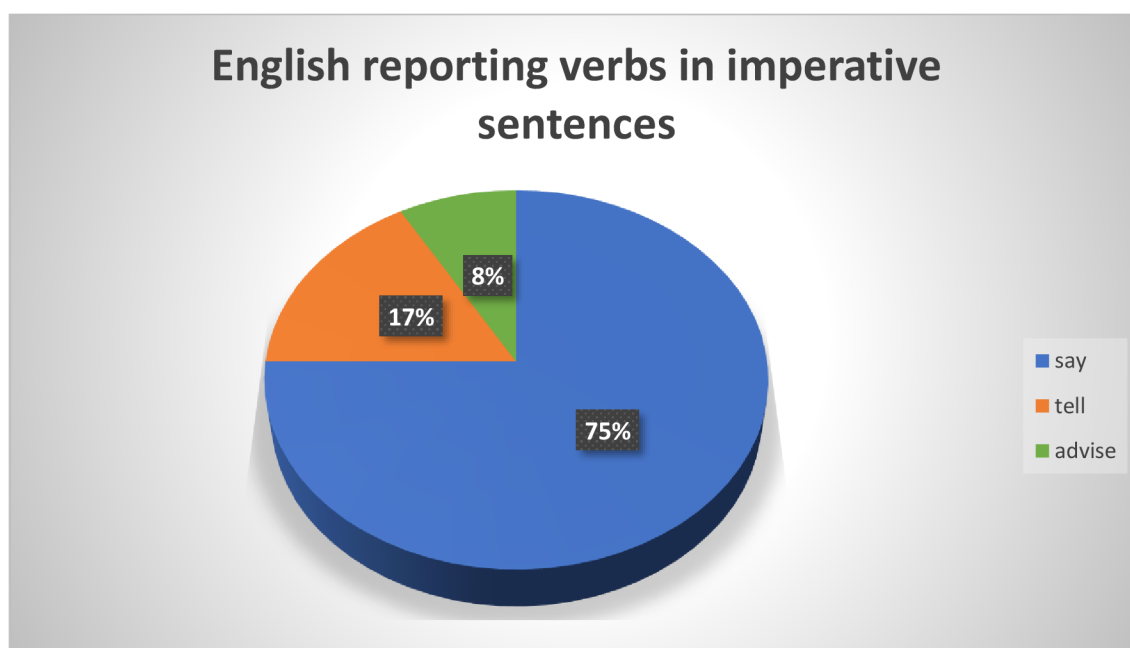
Graph 11: English reporting verbs in imperative sentences

Graph 12: Czech reporting verbs in imperative sentences

Graph 11 and Graph 12 show results that differ significantly from those shown in the previous Graphs 3-12. It is evident from Graphs 3-12 that the Czech language tries to vary reporting verbs more than the English language. However, Graph 11 and Graph 12 show an exciting finding. When reporting imperative sentences in the examined fiction, the English language is slightly more affluent than the Czech language. Nevertheless, general conclusions cannot be drawn from these results, as again, only 12 examples were examined (as in the examination of interrogative sentences).

Although Chapter 2.4.2 describes that the English language can also be relatively rich in verbs reporting imperative sentences (e.g., *tell*, *order*, *command*, *bid*, *require*, *ask*, *request*, *desire*, *beg*), there were only three verbs in the corpus; the verbs *say* (70), *tell* (71) and *advise* (72). The verb *say* is again the most common represented (74%), as in the case of reporting the declarative sentences (Graph 7). In Graph 11, the verb *tell* has an 11% representation, and the verb *advise* occurred in 8%.

However, there are even fewer Czech reporting verbs when reporting imperative sentences (Graph 12), namely two; *říct* (73) and *radit* (74). The verb *říct* significantly predominates over the verb *radit*, with a 92% occurrence.

(70)   "Give me your attention," she said (p. 56)

(71)   "Drop me [...]," Crawford told the driver (p. 91)

(72)   "Don't lump the spiders […]," the guard advised (p. 98)

(73)   „Nechte toho,“ řekla Starlingová (p. 56)

(74)   „Nikdy nepleťte [...],“ radil jí průvodce (p. 97)

5 Conclusions

The aim of this bachelor's thesis is to identify verbs reporting direct and indirect speech in a sample of Czech and English fiction and analyse them in terms of their frequency and their translation opposites. The thesis begins with a short introduction containing essential information about the main topic, goals and the book used for the research, namely *The Silent of the Lambs* by Thomas Harris.

The following theoretical part includes several chapters with information that helps to better understand the topic of the thesis; also, studying all the information was advantageous when creating the research. As the thesis focuses on verbs reporting direct and indirect speech, it first describes reporting in general, associated with possible terminology, and then it continues with an explanation of the reporting options and English and Czech reporting verbs. Also, inner speech, free direct and free indirect speech is mentioned there. However, the thesis does not focus on these types of speech and does not examine them further. At the end of the theoretical part, there is information about translating from one language to another and its associated problems.

The methodological part of the thesis describes the procedure by which the parallel corpus (the base of the practical part, located in the appendices) was managed. The practical part consists of a set of graphs that display the information obtained from the corpus. For each graph, there are comments that clearly explain in detail what information each graph displays and what phenomenon and examples it is based on.

The primary task of the practical part was to verify whether the Czech language is truly richer in reporting verbs than the English language. Nevertheless, it must be taken into consideration that the results are based on the created parallel corpus composed of only a hundred examples from a single book, so the results are greatly influenced by the writing style

of the author (Thomas Harris) and the translator (Jana Odehnalová). As already mentioned in Chapter 2.5, the translated work is a mixed, hybrid entity, dependent on the language-related artistic features of the translator. Therefore, general conclusions cannot be drawn from the results, but exciting tendencies can still be observed.

The research has confirmed that the range of reporting verbs is broader in the Czech language, at least as far as the book *The Silence of the Lambs* is concerned. Graph 3 and Graph 4 showed that the number of different English reporting verbs present in the corpus is seven, while there are eighteen Czech reporting verbs. This result clearly proves that the Czech language uses a wider variety of such verbs while the English language tends to rely on a limited range. The finding was made regardless of the type of speech and the sentence type.

The second important task of the practical part was to examine the translation opposites in different types of sentences. For this examination, it was essential to determine the sentence types in the corpus. Regarding the ratio of the sentence types, declarative sentences are the most common (76%). The interrogative and imperative sentences occurred both in 12%. A detailed examination of the declarative sentences revealed that there are five English and fifteen Czech verbs reporting this sentence type. That means that the Czech language is three times richer than the English language in terms of reporting declarative sentences. The examination of interrogative sentences yielded relatively different results. When reporting interrogative sentences in the English original, only two verbs (*say* and *říct*) are repeated, both to the same extent. Nevertheless, the Czech language is only slightly richer in this respect, with only three verbs appearing there (*zeptat se*, *říct* and *optat se*). As for the Czech version, there is an exciting change that the verb *říct* no longer takes the first place, but the verb *zeptat se* does (a 75% occurrence). In the English version, the verb *say* still occurs quite often in this type of sentence, even though the English language has a relatively large number of verbs that can report interrogative sentences, see Chapter 2.2.5. The reporting of imperative sentences also carries

noticeable tendencies. For this type of sentence, there are more English than Czech reporting verbs in the corpus. The verbs *say*, *tell* and *advise* are repeated in the English original and the verbs *říct* and *radit* in the Czech translation. So, when we summarize the translation opposites for all three types of sentences, the translation opposites differ the most in declarative sentences. The results even showed that when reporting imperative sentences, the range of reporting verbs is broader in English fiction. In any case, as already mentioned, these results are somewhat indicative.

The third task of the practical part was to determine whether the translation opposites differ in direct and indirect speech. The result is that Czech fiction is more affluent in reporting verbs than English fiction when reporting direct speech. When reporting indirect speech, the difference is not that significant. The ratios are 14: 5 (Czech reporting verbs: English reporting verbs) for direct speech and 7: 5 for indirect speech, see Graph 5 and Graph 6.

In the practical part, all the questions the thesis aimed at were answered. In the following research, for example, one could compare the differences in translation opposites in examining not only clauses (as was the case in this thesis) but also phrases. The topic of reporting and reporting verbs is fascinating and encourages the study of all sorts of phenomena associated with them.

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List of Appendices

7 Appendices

Table 3: The most common English reporting verbs (adapted from *Education First: Reporting verbs* and *The University of Adelaide: Verbs for Reporting*)

A	B	C
accept, accuse, acknowledge, add, admit, advise, advocate, agree, alert, allege, analyse, announce, answer, applaud, apologises, appraise, argue, articulate, ask, assert, assess, assure, attack	beg, believe, blame, boast	claim, clarify, command comment, complain concede, concur, conclude confirm, congratulate, consider, contradict, critique, contend, convince, compare
D	**E**	**F**
debate, decide, declare, define, demand, deny, describe, disagree, discard, disclaim, discount, discover, discuss, dismiss, dispute, disregard, doubt	estimate, evaluate, examine, expect, explain, explore, express, extol	fear, feel, find, forbid, forget
G	**H**	**I**
guarantee, guess	highlight, hold, hope, hypothesise	identify, ignore, illustrate, imagine, imply, indicate, infer, inform, insist, instruct, investigate, invite
J	**K**	**L**
justify	know	learn, list
M	**N**	**O**
maintain, mention	note	observe, oppose, outline
P	**Q**	**R**
persuade, point out, posit, postulate, praise, prefer, present, profess, promise, propose, prove	question	realise, reason, recognise, recommend, refute, reject, remark, remember, remind, repeat, reply, report, request, restate, reveal
S	**T**	**U**
say, scrutinise, see, show, speculate, state, stress, study, subscribe, suggest, support, suppose, suspect, swear	teach, tell, theorise, think, threaten	underscore, understand, urge, uphold
V	**W**	
validate, verify	warn, wonder	

Table 5: Parallel corpus (the basis for the practical part of the thesis)

English original	Czech translation	Direct/indirect speech	Type of sentence (direct speech)
Your instructors **tell** me you're doing well (p. 2)	Vaši instruktoři mě **informovali**, že si vedete dobře (p. 8)	indirect	declarative
"A job came up and I thought about you," he **said** (p. 2)	„Objevil se tu takový případ a já si vzpomněl na vás,“ **řekl** (p. 8)	direct	declarative
The *Law Enforcement Bulletin* **says** you're [...] (p. 3)	V *Law Enforcement Bulletinu* **psali**, že [...] (p. 9)	indirect	declarative
"Mainly because you're available," Crawford **said** (p. 5)	„Především proto, že jste po ruce,“ **řekl** Crawford (p. 10)	direct	declarative
"You're jammed [...]," Starling **said** (p. 5)	„Máte toho teď hodně [...],“ **řekla** Starlingová (p. 10)	direct	declarative
"Didn't a sleazo [...]?" Starling **said** (p. 6)	„Pokud mne paměť neklame [...], že?“ **řekla** (p. 11)	direct	interrogative
"We've had [...]," Chilton **said** (p. 8)	„Už jsme tady měli [...],“ **řekl** Chilton (p. 13)	direct	declarative
"I understood [...]," Starling **said** (p. 9)	„Jestli jsem to dobře pochopila [...],“ **řekla** Starlingová (p. 14)	direct	declarative
"How often (vulgar phrase)?" Alan **asked**. (p. 10)	„Jak často (vulgar phrase)?“ **zeptal se** Alan (p. 15)	direct	interrogative
"Dr. Chilton wants [...] right now," Starling **said** (p.10)	„Doktor Chilton chce [...] teď hned,“ **řekla** Starlongová (p. 15)	direct	declarative
"No, I don't," Dr. Chilton **said** (p. 10)	„Ne, nechci,“ **ozval se** dr. Chilton (p. 15)	direct	declarative
And they **say** you're a student (p. 10)	tam **se píše**, že jste studentka (p. 15)	indirect	declarative
"Lecter's a considerable nuisance," Chilton **said** (p. 11)	„Lecter je jenom pro zlost,“ **pravil** Chilton (p. 15)	direct	declarative
"He did [...] I fought," Starling **said** (p. 11)	„Domnívala jsem se [...],“ **řekla** Starlingová (p. 15)	direct	declarative
"Lecter never [...]," Chilton **said** (p. 12)	„Lecter nikdy [...],“ **řekl** Chilton (p. 17)	direct	declarative
"I keep him in here," Chilton **said** (p. 12)	„Tak tady ho máme,“ **řekl** Chilton (p. 17)	direct	declarative
"I'm still [...], yes," Starling **said** (p. 17)	„Ano, jsem stále [...], **řekla** Starlingová (p. 21)	direct	declarative

"Would you like a chair?" Barney **asked** her (p. 17)	„Přála byste si židli?" **zeptal se** jí Barney (p. 21)	direct	interrogative
He **says**, 'I can smell (vulgar phrase)' (p. 18)	**Řekl**: Cítím (vulgar phrase)" (p. 22)	direct	declarative
"Yes, they were first-ate," Dr. Lecter **said** (p. 20)	„Ano, to se mi opravdu povedlo, "**řekl** dr. Lecter (p. 24)	direct	declarative
"You wonder […]?" Dr. Lecter **asked** (p. 23)	„Často o tom přemýšlíte […]"? **otázal se** dr. Lecter (p. 27)	direct	interrogative
Dr. Hannibal Lecter **professed** to […] (p. 27)	Dr. Hannibal Lecter **přísahal**, že o tom nic neví. (p. 31)	indirect	declarative
The clerk **confirmed** that […] (p. 33)	Ten jí **potvrdil**, že […] (p. 37)	indirect	declarative
The salvage yard **confirmed** that the automobile (p. 37)	Sipperovo vrakoviště **potvrdilo**, že automobil (p. 40)	indirect	declarative
"I was so in hopes […]," Mapp **said** (p. 37)	„Tak hrozně jsem doufala, […]," **řekla** Mappová (p. 41)	direct	declarative
"Dr. Chilton […]," the woman **said** (p. 38)	„Doktor Chilton […]," **oznámil** ženský hlas (p. 41)	direct	declarative
"Your friend Miggs is dead," Crawford **said** (p. 39)	„Váš přítel Miggs je mrtev," **řekl** Crawford (p. 42)	direct	declarative
He **asked** if you were busy (p. 40)	**Zeptal** se mě, jestli máte moc práce (p. 43)	indirect	interrogative
He **said** you were a Stoic (p. 40)	**Řek**l mi, že jste stoik (p. 43)	indirect	declarative
"A lawyer in Baltimore […]," Crawford **said** (p. 41)	„Právník z Baltimoru, […]," **řekl** Crawford (p. 44)	direct	declarative
"It doesn't appear […]," he **said** (p. 45)	„Zdá se, […]," **řekl** (p. 48)	direct	declarative
"Mr. Raspail had […]," he **said** (p. 45)	„Zajistil jsem to tam, […]," **řekl** (p. 48)	direct	declarative
"We might […]," Mr. Yow **suggested** (p. 46)	„Možná bychom sem mohli […]," **navrhoval** pan Yow (p. 49)	direct	declarative
"It smells like mice in there," Starling **said** (p. 47)	„Smrdí to tam myšinou," **řekl** (p. 49)	direct	declarative
"I hear them," Starling **said** (p. 47)	„Ano," **odpověděla** Starlingová (p. 49)	direct	declarative
"Hold it," Starling **said** (p. 54)	„Nechte toho," **řekla** Starlingová (p. 56)	direct	imperative
"I'd wait if I were you," Starling **said** (p. 55)	„Být vámi, počkala bych," **řekla** Starlingová (p. 56)	direct	declarative
"Thanks, you won't be sorry," Johnetta Johnson **said** (p. 55)	„Díky, nebudete litovat," **řekla** Jonetta Johnsová (p. 56)	direct	declarative

"WEYE mobile […]," Harry **said** (p. 55)	„K bráně […],“ **řekl** Harry (p. 56)	direct	declarative
"Give me your attention," she **said** (p. 56)	„Věnujte mi trochu pozornosti,“ **řekla** (p. 57)	direct	imperative
"Take it easy," the assistant **said** (p. 56)	„Klídek,“ **řekla** asistent (p. 57)	direct	imperative
she **said**, "It was […]." (p 58)	**řekla**: „Bylo to […].“ (p. 59)	direct	declarative
Raspail **said** the young man […]. (p. 59)	Raspail **říkal**, že mu ten hoch […]. (p. 60)	indirect	declarative
"Dr. Lecter–that seems […]," he **said** (p. 60)	„Doktore Lectere – to je […],“ **řekl** (p. 61)	direct	declarative
"Buffalo Bill has a two-story house," Dr. Lecter **said** (p. 62)	„Bufallo Bill má patrový dům,“ **řekl** dr. Lecter (p. 63)	direct	declarative
"Where is your field gear?" he **said** (p. 65)	„Kde máte svou plnou polní?“ **zeptal se** (p. 66)	direct	interrogative
"Taking you along today, […]," he **said** (p. 67)	„To, že vás dneska bere […],“ **řekl** (p. 68)	direct	declarative
"That wouldn't be the Blue Canoe," Starling **said** (p. 68)	„Tohle nemůže být Blue Canoe,“ **řekla** Starlingová (p. 69)	direct	declarative
"It *is* old," Brigham **said** (p. 68)	„To je *skutečně* stařešina,“ **řekl** Brigham (p. 69)	direct	declarative
"Take a pew and read," is all he **said** (p. 69)	„Posaďte se a čtěte,“ bylo všechno, co **řekl** (p. 70)	direct	imperative
"I'm hot, are you hot?" he **said** (p. 73)	„Je mi vedro, vám taky?“ **zeptal** se (p. 74)	direct	interrogative
"Bobby, it's too damned hot in here," he **said** (p. 73)	„Bobby, je tady příšerý vedro“ **zavolal** na pilota (p. 74)	direct	declarative
"Elk River, about […] U.S. 79," he **said** (p. 74)	„Řeka Elk, asi […] od dálnice 79,“ **poznamenal** (p. 74)	direct	declarative
Jimmy Price **says** you can […] (p. 74)	Jimmy price **říká**, že dokáže […] (p. 75)	indirect	declarative
"Actually, I never had […]," Starling **said** (p. 74)	„Taková mrtvoly jsem vlastně […],“ **odpověděla** (p. 75)	direct	declarative
They **tell** you to pretend (p. 74)	**Řeknou** vám, abyste si představoval (p. 75)	indirect	imperative
"What if you… postulate… […]?" Starling **asked** (p. 75)	„Což kdybychom… stanovili […]? **Zeptala** se Starlingová (p. 76)	direct	interrogative
said, "She don't look […]." (p. 79)	**řekl**: „Nevypadá ani zpoloviny […].“ (p. 79)	direct	declarative
"Well, if she just […]," the other young deputy **said** (p. 79)	„No, jestli si […],“ **prohlásil** druhý policista (p. 79)	direct	declarative

"I'd just […]," the older deputy **said** (p. 79)	„Já osobně bych si […],“ **řekl** starší policista (p. 79)	direct	declarative
"I appreciate […]," Crawford **said** (p. 80)	„Vážím si toho […],“ **řekl** Crawford (p. 80)	direct	declarative
"It was somebody […]," he **said** (p. 80)	„To vás zavolal […],“ **řekl** (p. 80)	direct	declarative
"[…] you understand what I mean?" Crawford **said** (p. 80)	„[…] chápete, co mám na mysli?“ **řekl** (p. 80)	direct	interrogative
"They should have […]," she **said** (p. 83)	„Měli jí dát na ruce […],“ **řekla** (p. 82)	direct	declarative
"Dr. Lecter […]," Starling **said** (p. 83)	„Doktor Lecter […],“ **řekla** Starlingová (p. 83)	direct	declarative
"Get her ears with the Polaroid," was all he **said** (p. 83)	„Vezměte jí polaroidem uši,“ bylo jediné, co na to **řekl** (p. 83)	direct	imperative
"I don't know," Starling **said** (p. 84)	„Nevím,“ **řekla** Starlingová (p. 83)	direct	declarative
"She's got two nails […]," Starling **said** (p. 84)	„Tady na levé ruce […],“ **řekla** Starlingová (p. 84)	direct	declarative
"Take samples […]," Crawford **said** (p. 84)	„Naberte vzorky […],“ **řekl** Crawford (p. 84)	direct	imperative
"You want to […]?" Crawford **said** (p. 85)	„Otisky budete snímat […]?“ **zeptal se** Crawford (p. 84)	direct	interrogative
"She's got something in her throat," Starling **said** (p. 84)	„Má něco v krku,“ **řekla** (p. 85)	direct	declarative
"When a body […]," Lamar **said** (p. 85)	„Když někdy […],“ **říkal** Lamar (p. 85)	direct	declarative
"What is it, some kind of seed pod?" Crawford **said** (p. 86)	„Co je to? Nějaký lusk?“ **zeptal se** Crawford (p. 85)	direct	interrogative
"Nawsir, that's a bug cocoon," Lamar **said** (p. 86)	„Ne pane, […],“ **řekl** Lamar (p. 85)	direct	declarative
"You might want […],"Lamar **said** (p. 86)	„Možná byste chtěli, […],“ **řekl** Lamar (p. 85)	direct	declarative
"Measure too," Crawford **said** (p. 86)	„Také to změřte,“ **řekl** Crawford (p. 85)	direct	imperative
"Looks like a burn […]," Starling **said** (p. 86)	„Tady vzadu na lýtku […],“ **řekla** Starlingová (p. 85)	direct	declarative
"Old people gets those a lot," Lamar **said** (p. 86)	„Starý lidi tohle hodně mají,“ **řekl** Lamar (p. 85)	direct	declarative
"We'll ask […]," Crawford **said** (p. 86)	„Zeptáme se […],“ **řekl** Crawford (p. 86)	direct	declarative
"One time Billy […]," Lamar **said** (p. 86)	„Jednou zastřelili […],“ **řekl** Lamar (p. 86)	direct	declarative

"That's a good [...]," Crawford **said** (p. 86)	„To je dobrá [...]," **řekl** Crawford (p. 86)	direct	declarative
'Well, make up [...],' he **says** (p. 87)	,No tak si vymysli [...],' **řekne** vám (p. 86)	direct	imperative
"We'll need [...]," Crawford **said** (p. 87)	„Budeme ptřebovat [...]," **řekl** Crawford (p. 86)	direct	declarative
"Them hooks are [...]," Lamar **said** (p. 87)	„Ty háčky jsou [...]," **řekl** Lamar (p. 86)	direct	declarative
The sheriff **said** they were [...] (p. 87)	Šéf **povídal**, že to byli [...] (p. 87)	indirect	declarative
"I expect they [...]," Lamar **said** (p. 87)	„To jsem si [...]," **řekl** Lamar (p. 87)	direct	declarative
They'll **tell** you they [...] (p. 87)	**řeknou**, že třeba zápasili (p. 87)	indirect	declarative
"They do it lots of places, " Starling **said** (p. 88)	„To se dělá všude," **řekla** Starlingová (p. 87)	direct	declarative
"No, hold it [...]," Lamar **said** (p. 89)	„Položte si ji [...]," **řekl** Lamar (p. 88)	direct	imperative
"Drop me [...]," Crawford **told** the driver (p. 91)	„HOĎ MĚ [...]," **řekl** Crawford řidiči (p. 90)	direct	imperative
"I'll post [...]," Crawford **said** (p. 92)	„Až přinesu [...]," **řekl** Crawford (p. 91)	direct	declarative
"I'm wondering if [...]," Starling **said** (p. 93)	„Zajímalo by mne [...]," **řekla** Starlingová (p. 92)	direct	declarative
Lecter **said** Buffalo [...] (p. 93)	Lecter **říkal**, že Bufallo [...] (p. 92)	indirect	declarative
Lecter also **said** Buffalo lives [...] (p. 94)	Lecter také **říkal**, že Bill bydlí [...] (p. 93)	indirect	declarative
"He hauled the body [...]," Starling **said** (p. 95)	Starlingová **pokračovala**: „Naložil to tělo [...]" (p. 94)	direct	declarative
"Yeah, that's how I see it," Crawford **said** (p. 95)	„Jo, tak nějak mi to taky připadá," **řekl** Crawford (p. 94)	direct	declarative
"Those cops know [...]," she **said** (p. 95)	„Ti policajti dobře vědí [...]," **řekla** (p. 94)	direct	declarative
"Don't lump the spiders [...]," the guard **advised** (p. 98)	„Nikdy nepleťte [...]," **radil** jí průvodce (p. 97)	direct	imperative
"[...] is time up then?" Starling **asked** (p. 99)	„[...] vyprší vám čas?" **zeptala se** Starlingová (p. 97)	direct	interrogative
"Of course time's up then," the pudgy one **said** (p. 99)	„Ano, pak vyprší čas," **odpověděl** (p. 97)	direct	declarative