Expressing Future States and Events in English and German

Radka Zídková

Tomas Bata University in Zlín
Faculty of Humanities

Univerzita Tomáše Bati ve Zlíně

Fakulta humanitních studií

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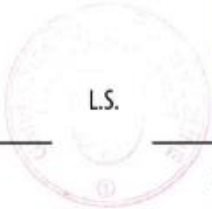Jazyk zpracování: **Angličtina**

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L.S.

_____
Mgr. Libor Marek, Ph.D.
děkan

_____
doc. Mgr. Roman Trušník, Ph.D.
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ABSTRAKT

Tato bakalářská práce se zabývá vyjadřováním budoucích stavů a dějů v anglickém a německém jazyce. Oba jazyky budoucí čas nevyjadřují pomocí inflekce slovesa jako je tomu v přítomném i minulém čase, nýbrž pomocí určitých konstrukcí. Pomocí Českého národního korpusu analyzuje tvorbu budoucího času v obou jazycích. Na základě výsledků konstatuje, jaké německé jazykové konstrukce jsou nejvíce využívané za účelem vyjádření budoucího času jakožto protějšky konstrukcí anglických.

Klíčová slova: sloveso, budoucí stav, budoucí děj, čas, slovesný čas, aspekt

ABSTRACT

This bachelor thesis deals with the expression of future states and events in English and German. Both languages do not form the future tense by inflection on the verb, as it is the case of the present and the past tense, but they use future time constructions. Using Czech National Corpus it analyses how the two languages express future time. Based on the results it states which German constructions referring to the future time are used the most as counterparts to the English ones.

Keywords: verb, future state, future event, time, tense, aspect

CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION

This bachelor thesis deals with how both English and German express the future time. While both languages inflect the verb when it comes to indicating the past or the present, they do not turn to inflection when it comes to expressing the future time. It is divided into theoretical and practical part.

The theoretical part is furthermore divided into two chapters. The first chapter focuses on the English language and its understanding of what a verb is as well as which verbal categories it can carry. Two of the verbal categories, tense and aspect, are then described in more detail with one part being dedicated to their combinations. The English chapter is concluded with a list and descriptions of several grammatical constructions which are used within the English language in order to indicate futurity.

The second chapter deals with the German language, once again establishing the verb as a part of speech and stating its verbal categories. As, according to the used sources, the German verb does not assume the verbal category of aspect, it is only the verbal category of tense that is defined in detail this time. The German chapter finishes with the constructions which this language can use to express the future time.

The second practical part is based on the analysis of four most frequently used English constructions referring to the future time, *will*, *be going to*, present simple and present progressive, and their German counterparts. The Czech National Corpus was used for this analysis, searching for such examples from the category of subtitles, as this category has the highest probability of wielding the most parallel results in both languages. The first chapter describes the methodology and the individual steps involved in the research. The second chapter includes the results obtained from the corpus. The aim of this bachelor thesis is to determine the most common constructions the German language uses as a counterpart for the English ones.

I. THEORY

1 ENGLISH VERB

1.1 Verb as a part of speech

Verbs are generally used to express actions and states of events, which is something that both Aarts (2011) and Dušková (2003) agree on. According to Quirk (1985) and Aarts (2011), verbs are found in the most central position in a clause. Quirk (1985) supports this theory by saying that the position of a verb is "normally medial rather than initial or final" (Quirk 1985, 50) and its position is generally obligatory. The ordinary word order does not let verbs to be moved to a different position within a clause (1). Such strict syntactic position of verbs supports the theory of English language being a "fixed word-order language" (Quirk 1985, 51).

(1)   I quite **dislike** him.
       *I quite him **dislike**.
       ***Dislike** I quite him.

Morphological categories, such as person, number, tense or aspect, and syntactic functions are what distinguish a verb as a part of speech within a clause. According to how many morphological categories verbs showcase, they can be divided into two groups, the finite group and the non-finite one. Finite verbs express all their grammatical categories, including the agreement with the subject in person and number which can be seen in (2). Non-finite verbs, on the other hand, do not have the ability to convey this agreement (3) (Dušková 2003, 165).

(2)   He **plays** this game often.
(3)   **To play** this game is his hobby.

The only syntactic function finite verbs carry within a clause is the function of a predicate. Contrastingly, non-finite verbs can be seen in any other syntactic position except for the predicate one, for example in the subject position, as depicted in the example above (3) (Dušková, 2003).

Additionally, verbs contribute to the selection of other elements within a clause (Quirk, 1985). Those verbs capable of standing on their own are called intransitive verbs, while those requiring an object to be present in the clause are called transitive verbs. A group of verbs requiring the direct object as well as the indirect object within a clause are called ditransitive verbs (Aarts, 2011).

Many experts divide verbs into different categories. Huddleston (2002, 74ff.) divides verbs into two categories, the lexical verbs and the auxiliary verbs. The auxiliary category is made up of only few verbs with distinct syntactic properties, the example of which could be the verbs *can* or *must*, while the lexical verbs include the rest. Quirk (1985, 96), however, divides verbs into three main categories based on their function within the phrase. The first category is called the full verbs class, which is opened and includes verbs such as *jump* or *eat*. The second one is the primary verbs class. This one is closed and consists of verbs *be*, *have* and *do*. The last class, which is also a closed one, is called the modal auxiliary verbs class with verbs such as *will* or *can*.

Verbs may also be divided into two other categories which are called the stative category and the dynamic category. While dynamic verbs portray an action being carried out (4), stative verbs portray states (5) (Cowan, 2008). There are also grammatical consequences of this particular division of verbs. One of the most profound grammatical consequences is that dynamic verbs can be used in the present, past and future progressive while the use of stative verbs in such cases is usually incorrect (Cowan, 2008).

(4)   *He **reads** a book.*
(5)   *He **has** a book.*

1.2   Verbal categories

Morphological categories of English verbs, sometimes also called verbal categories, include person, number, tense, aspect, mood and voice. Furthermore, Dušková (2003) divides these categories into those which are respective to verbs and those which are congruent. Person and number belong under the congruent category, as they only express the agreement between a verb and a noun (Dušková, 2003). The respective categories of a verb include tense, voice, aspect and mood. The categories of aspect and tense are of more importance in this thesis and so they will be discussed in more details later on. The categories of person, number, voice and mood will be described only briefly.

1.2.1 Person and number

The only way to spot the presence of the person category and the number category is to take a look at the suffix in plural and singular verb forms. The most prominent example of an agreement is found in the 3rd person singular (6). The only verb with a different verb form for the 1st person singular is the verb *be* (7). Such different verb form is making it easier to recognize singular form from the plural one, which otherwise always appear to be the same (Dušková, 2003).

(6)   *She **greets** him with joy.*

(7)   *I **am** working on it. We **are** working on it.*

1.2.2 Voice

Another verbal category is the category of voice. There are two types of voice, the active voice and the passive one. This category is an optional one, as the standard verb can possess either one of the two types (Veselovská, 2017). Quirk (1985) defines the voice as a category which gives us the possibility to look at the action in a sentence from two different perspectives without any change to the conveyed meaning (8). This means, that if the active voice is used, the subject is the performer of the action. Meanwhile, the passive voice indicates that the subject is not the performer of the action. The active voice is created with the use of a standard verb and the passive voice contains the verb *be* and the past participle of a lexical verb (Dušková, 2003).

(8)   *He **saw** the apple. (active voice)*

      *The apple **was seen** by him. (passive voice)*

1.2.3 Mood

According to Dušková (2003) the English language distinguishes four types of mood: indicative, imperative, subjunctive and conditional. Contrastingly, Veselovská (2017) divides the mood category into indicative, interrogative, imperative and optative. Another intake on the verbal category of mood is by Aarts (2011), who distinguishes only three moods, indicative, subjunctive and imperative, as the traditional ones in the English language. The indicative mood is used within statements (9), the subjunctive mood may be used when a speaker expresses their wishes (10) and the imperative mood is found within commands (11). Although the types of mood may differ according to individual experts, what Dušková (2003), Aarts (2011) and Huddleston (2005) all agree on, is

that the mood is closely related to the "semantic dimension of modality" (Huddleston 2005, 53), which refers to the category of meaning.

(9)   He reads a book. (indicative mood)

(10)   I wish I were you. (subjunctive mood)

(11)   Go close the door. (imperative mood)

1.3   Tense

As mentioned before, tense belongs among the verbal categories alongside person, number, mood, voice and aspect. Tense also falls under the deictic category, just like certain pronouns or adverbs. Deictic category refers to words which are related to the time of speaking (Dušková, 2003). As stated by Veselovská (2017), tense is an optional verbal feature. This means, that the standard verb can assume any tense and which tense the verb carries in the end depends on the planned meaning. English tense system is divided into three dimensions, which are present, past and future (Cowan, 2008).

Tense is used to show the relation between the time in which the action takes place and the time of speaking about the action. In (12) we can see that the predicate *wrote* appears in its past form. This creates an assumption that the action of writing was done before the present time of someone making this utterance.

*(12)   I **wrote** to her about it.*

Before discussing the topic of tense in more depth, the notion of **time** should be briefly introduced, followed by the differences between the two concepts. Time is a notion which we all experience in our lives. We tend to divide the events and situations happening all around us into three sections which are called the past, the present and the future (Aarts, 2011). To better picture what time may look like, Quirk (1985) presents time as a limitless straight line, on which the present is an ever moving mark with anything behind it being in the past and anything ahead being in the future.

Tense and time are two different terms which cannot be used interchangeably. The term tense denotes the verbal category, while the term time denotes the non-linguistic time (Dušková, 2003). The main difference between tense and time is that tense refers to a grammatical system created in order to pinpoint a certain situation, event or action in time (Aarts, 2011).

1.3.1 The present tense

The present tense expresses the action, which takes place at the same time or overlaps with the same time as the speaking itself (Comrie, 1976). The present time, in the English language, may be expressed with the use of inflection on the verb. This can be seen in the third person singular, where the inflection –s is added to the verb (13) (Cowan, 2008).

> *(13)   She **sings**.*

The present tense may sometimes be used as a reference to a past time. Such use of present tense, however, occurs only during an informal type of narrative (14) (Huddleston, 2005).

> *(14)   I was standing next to the entrance when this man **walks** up to me.*

1.3.2 The past tense

When the action takes place prior to the speaking, the past tense is used (Comrie, 1976). There are two possible ways of indicating the past time in the English language. If the verb in question is regular, the inflection –ed is added to it (15). If, however, the verb is irregular, the form of the verb changes altogether (16).

> *(15)   I **promised** to be there.*
> *(16)   She **sang** in the opera.*

1.3.3 The future tense

The future tense is used as a means of expressing the action which will happen sometime after the time of speaking (Comrie, 1976). Although both the present and the past tense were morphologically realized by inflections on verbs or by changing the form of an irregular verb, the future tense cannot be created in such way (Cowan, 2008). According to Huddleston (2005), the English language, contrarily to the general belief, does not actually belong among the languages which have "three-term tense system" (Huddleston 2005, 56), as the future tense cannot be created by verb inflection. The English language may only talk about future time with the use of several constructions which will be more discussed later on (Huddleston, 2005). Quirk (1985) also agrees that the English language has no such thing like the future tense and only uses certain constructions to refer to future time. A different approach is taken by Dušková (2003). She states that many researchers refuse to accept the concept of "futurum"

(Dušková 2003, 228) and see modals as a way to refer to the future. However, she points out that the use of modal verbs *shall* and *will* are used the most when it comes to expressing the future and that the contracted form of *will*, *'ll* (17), is a clear futurum (Dušková 2003, 228).

*(17) I'**ll** see you tomorrow.*

1.4 Aspect

The aspect, as a grammatical category, indicates how the action verb is experienced in time. The aspect is not, unlike the verbal category of tense, deictic. This means that it is not relative to the moment of speaking (Quirk, 1985). According to Biber, Conrad and Leech (2002), aspects are used in order to determine whether the described event or state is completed or if it still continues which adds more meaning to the time expressed by the verbal category of tense. As mentioned before, the difference between tense and aspect, as provided by Quirk (1985), can be the fact that tense is deictic, while aspect is not which means that unlike tense, aspect is not dependent on the time of speaking.

The English language has two aspects, the perfective one and the progressive one. Not all verbs, however, have to carry an aspect, as it is an optional verbal category (Veselovská, 2017).

1.4.1 The perfective aspect

Aspect can also indicate the point of view of the speaker on the action they describe. If the speaker perceives the action as complete, it is indicated by the perfective aspect (Cowan, 2008). A quite broad explanation of the perfective aspect is that it refers to a time preceding the time indicated by the used tense or other elements within the sentence (Quirk, 1985). The perfective aspect is created with the use of the verb *have* and a past participle (-en), as can be seen in (18) with the use of present tense (Cowan, 2008).

*(18) I **have stood** here.*

1.4.2 The progressive aspect

The progressive aspect may be also referred to as durative or continuous. This aspect points to a situation in progress at a certain time (Quirk, 1985). As Aarts (2011) states, the progressive aspect is used to denote dynamic situations which continue for a certain period of time. This aspect is indicated with the verb *be* and the present participle *-ing* (Cowan, 2008), which is portrayed in (19) with the use of present tense.

> (19) I **am standing** here.

Quirk (1985) also connects the stative/dynamic division of verbs with the progressive aspect. He states that with stative verbs the use of progressive aspect is often unacceptable. Stative verbs are used in order to portray states which implies that no progress is happening (20).

> (20) I **have** a house.
>
> *I **am having** a house.

1.4.3 The perfective progressive aspect

Aspects can be occasionally merged into the perfective progressive aspect which is used only occasionally and which merges the meanings of both the perfective and the progressive aspect together (Biber, Conrad and Leech, 2002). The example of the perfective progressive aspect can be seen in (21) with the use of the present tense.

> (21) I **have been standing** there.

1.4.4 Tense and aspect combinations

As stated before, the English language has 3 tenses, although many refuse to accept the notion of future tense, and 2 aspects. These two verbal categories may be combined to create "12 grammatical temporal concepts" (Veselovská 2017, 90) with which the English language gives its verbs an extensive amount of meanings. The combinations of the verbal category of aspect and the verbal category of tense may be seen in the table with examples using the verb *laugh*.

Tab. 1 Tense and aspect combinations

	ØASPECT	+PROGRESSIVE	+PERFECTIVE	+PROGRESSIVE +PERFECTIVE
PRESENT	*He laughs*	*He is laughing*	*He has laughed*	*He has been laughing*
PAST	*He laughed*	*He was laughing*	*He had laughed*	*He had been laughing*
FUTURE	*He will laugh*	*He will be laughing*	*He will have laughed*	*He will have been laughing*

1.5   Grammatical structures referring to future

As mentioned before, the English language is widely considered to only possess the present and the past tense. Therefore, the future tense does not exist, as it cannot be expressed by the inflection on the verb. However, there is still the need to somehow refer to the future time. Consequently, the English language has several means of indicating the future time, such as the use of modal auxiliaries, semi-auxiliaries and with the help of present simple or present progressive (Quirk, 1985).

1.5.1   Will

The two modal verbs *will* and *shall* are used the most when it comes to indicating the future time (Quirk 1985, 213). The modal verb *will* can be used with the subject in the first, the second and the third person in both singular and plural forms (22). According to Foley and Hall (2003), the modal verb *will* is mostly used when the speaker wants to express a prediction or a guess. There are, however, cases in which *will* is used even though the future is quite certain and not just a guess. For such situations the structure *be going to* may be preferred. Nonetheless, if we want to use the modal *will*, an adverb is usually added (23) (Foley and Hall, 2003). Quirk (1985) also mentions that the use of *will* as means of referring to the future is preferred to *be going to* when it comes to formal style of communication.

(22)   **I will be** there. **You will be** there. **We will be** there.

(23)   Look at her face. She **will probably** start crying soon.

1.5.2 Shall

The modal verb *shall* (24) may be used only when the subject is in first person singular or plural (Quirk, 1985). Foley and Hall (2003) state that the general use of the modal *shall* is becoming rather outdated nowadays.

(24) ***I shall arrive*** *at five o'clock.* ***We shall arrive*** *at five o'clock.*

1.5.3 Be going to

The structure *be going to* is generally used to predict some occurrence for which evidence exists in the present time (Foley and Hall, 2003). The common interpretation of this structure is the "future fulfilment of the present" (Quirk 1985, 214). This general description can be furthermore divided into two more specific meanings of this structure. The first one is "the future fulfilment of present intention", which is connected with personal subjects (25). The second description is "the future result of present cause" with which personal as well as non-personal subjects can be used (26) (Quirk 1985, 214).

(25) ***I am going to*** *visit my grandparents.*
(26) ***It is going to*** *rain.*

Unlike the modal verb *will*, the grammatical structure *be going to* is not commonly used within conditional clauses (27) (Quirk, 1985).

(27) *If you stay, you **will** be happy.*
*?If you stay, you **are going to be** happy.*

Cowan (2008) summarizes the main difference between expressing the futurity by *be going to* and *will* as follows: the speaker uses *will* to indicate the future time, they express the probability of something happening based on their own suspicion. With the use of *be going to* the speaker expresses a generally certain or scheduled activity.

1.5.4 The present simple

The use of present simple as means of expressing the future is also quite common. Its use is mostly common in subordinate clauses after *if* or *when* (28). The use of simple present in main clauses gives the impression that the future is quite certain. Such use of the simple present can be, for example, connected to statements about the calendar (29) (Quirk, 1985).

(28) *What will he say if he **sees** you with her?*
(29) *Next month **is** April.*

The use of simple present can also indicate future when it is used in a sentence together with a time expression (Cowan, 2008). According to Huddleston (2005), such use of present simple indicates something regularly happening or something scheduled taking place in the future (30).

(30) *The bus **leaves** at five o'clock.*

1.5.5 The present progressive

The general meaning behind the use of present progressive is an already arranged future state or event. According to Foley and Hall (2003), the use of present progressive implies that certain steps have already been taken in order to fulfil the set plan (31).

(31) *I **am seeing** my sister next week. (= We have set the date)*

In the chapter dealing with aspect, it was mentioned that the progressive aspect cannot be usually used together with stative verbs. Quirk (1985) mentions this again, saying that the use of present progressive for future time reference is no exception (32).

(32) **The leggings are being on sale next week.*
       The leggings will be on sale next week.

As the use of present progressive is connected with arrangements and plans, we cannot use it with situations which are beyond human control, such as weather predictions (33) (Foley and Hall, 2003).

(33) **It is raining tomorrow.*
       It is going to rain tomorrow.

1.5.6 Other means of expressing the future

The use of the constructions *be to* and *be about to* is also quite common when it comes to expressing future states and events. According to Quirk (1985) and Cowan (2008), the construction *be to* is used to indicate a future plans, intentions or commands (34). The construction *be about to* is used to express a very near future (35).

(34) They **are to** arrive here.

(35) The plane **is about to** take off.

Will and *shall* were mentioned as two modal verbs frequently used to express the future. However, more modals than just the mentioned two have the ability to refer to future time occurrences. Among such modals *must* or *may* belong (36). Indicating the future is their secondary connotation (Quirk, 1985).

(36) I **must** see her. (in the near future)

His mood **may** improve. (in a day or two)

Quirk (1985) also briefly mentions two other constructions, *be sure to* and *be bound to*, which may be used to indicate the future time (37). Nonetheless, these two constructions are not as frequently used as the other constructions which were already mentioned.

(37) The sales **are sure to** drop soon.

He **is bound to** come for dinner.

2 GERMAN VERB

Although it is possible to find studies which include aspect among the verbal categories of a German verb, the grammars which were used as sources for this thesis do not. As a result, the same approach regarding the German verb and its verbal categories was taken in this thesis as well.

2.1 Verbs and conjugation

Engel (1996) states, that the German verb, as a part of speech, belongs among words which can be conjugated. This means that such words can change their form by inflection. The German language also distinguishes the finite and non-finite verb forms. German verbs can appear in many different forms depending on whether they are finite or non-finite (Engel, 1996). The finite ones can be conjugated and so they express all verbal categories. The non-finite verb forms, the infinitives and the participles, cannot be inflected for the verbal categories of person, number and mood (Helbig and Busha, 2001).

2.2 Verbal categories

According to Helbig and Busha (2001), the German verbal categories include person, number, tense, mood and voice[1]. This division slightly differs from the English one, due to the missing category of aspect.

2.2.1 Person and number

Just as the person verbal category has three persons and the number verbal category has singular and plural verb forms in the English language, the German language is no different. However, it is much easier to distinguish the person and the number verbal category in the German language rather than in the English language. Each person has its own suffix which is added to both singular and plural verb forms (Helbig and Busha, 2001). The example (38) shows the individual personal suffixes on the German verb *brauchen* "to need".

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[1] The description of a verb, its verbal categories and how it expresses future time is written in a slightly different manner in the German part than in the English part. That is due to the missing verbal category of aspect.

(38) 1. *Ich brauche*   *es*   *schicken.*   *Wir*   *brauchen*   *es*   *schicken.*

        I   need-1sg.PRES   it   send-INF   We   need-1pl.PRES   it   send-INF

        'I need to send it.'   'We need to send it.'

     2. *Du brauchst*   *es*   *schicken.*   *Ihr*   *braucht*   *es*   *schicken.*

        He   need-2sg.PRES   it   send-INF   You   need-2pl.PRES   it   send-INF

        'He needs to send it.'   'You need to send it."

     3. *Er braucht*   *es*   *schicken.*   *Sie*   *brauchen*   *es*   *schicken.*

        He   need-3sg.PRES   it   send-INF   They   need-3pl.PRES   it   send-INF

        'He needs to send it.'   'They need to send it.'

2.2.2 Mood

When it comes to mood, the German language is not very different from the English language. According to Helbig and Busha (2001, 29) and Durrell (2002, 233), Indikativ (indicative) (39), Konjunktiv (subjunctive) (40) and Imperativ (imperative) (41) are the three moods a German verb may assume. The interpretation of each mood is the same as in the English language, as Indikativ is used for statements, Imperativ for commands and Konjunktiv may be used to express wishes.

*(39) Er **singt**.*

     'He sings.'

*(40) Er **sänge**.*

     'He would sing.'

*(41) **Singt**!*

     'Sing!'

2.2.3 Voice

The German language has three types of voice which include Aktiv (the active), Vorgangspassiv (the processual passive), Zustandspassiv (the state passive) (Helbig and Busha 2001, 143). This means that the German language has two different verbs which can be used together with the Partizip II to form the passive voice. Vorgangspassiv can also be sometimes referred to as the werden-passive and so the verb *werden* is used (42). Zustandspassiv, or the sein-passive, uses the verb *sein* (43) (Helbig and Busha, 2001).

*(42) Die Tür **wird** von ihm **geöffnet**.*

     'The door gets opened by him.'

*(43) Die Tür **ist geöffnet**.*

     'The door is opened.'

The main difference between these two passives is that Vorgangspassiv indicates a process, while Zustandspassiv expresses a state (Durrell, 2002).

2.3 Tense

According to Helbig and Busha (2001) and Engel (1996), the German language has six grammatical tenses, including **Präsens** (the present), **Präteritum** (the preterite), **Perfekt** (the perfect), **Plusquamperfekt** (the pluperfect), **Futur I** (the future I) and **Futur II** (the future II) (Helbig and Busha 2001, 29). The German language has two simple tenses, Präsens and Präteritum, and four compound tenses, which can be formed only with the use of an auxiliary verb (Durrell 2002, 291). It is also important to note that the German language has no progressive tenses and, if necessary, has to use additional structures or words to make the progress of an action or a state clear (Durrell, 2002).

2.3.1 Präsens

Präsens can be described as the tense of standard conversations, which is also claimed by Weinrich (1993) and Eisenberg (1998) who state that Präsens is the most used tense of all. According to Helbig and Busha (2001), there are four different interpretations of this tense. The first interpretation is the current present (44) which is used to describe the states and events taking place in the present time (Helbig and Busha, 2001).

*(44) Sie **schreibt** jetzt einen Brief.*
     She write-3sg.PRES now a Letter
     'She writes a letter.'

The second interpretation is the present denoting the past (45). In order to use Präsens in this way it must be clear that we talk about the past; either form the context or with the use of words which indicate time such as *gestern* "yesterday" (Helbig and Busha 2001, 130-131).

(45) *1914* **beginnt** *der Erste Weltkrieg.*

1914 begin-3sg.PRES the First World War

'In 1914 begins the First World War.' (Helbig and Busha 2001, 132)

The third indication is the general present (46) which is used when stating something commonly accepted and understood (Helbig and Busha 2001, 132.). The last interpretation is the present denoting the future which will be discussed more closely later on. Such division is provided by Eisenberg (1998) as well.

(46) *Im Winter* **fällt** *Schnee.*

In winter fall-3sg.PRES snow

'Snow falls in winter.'

2.3.2 Präteritum

Präteritum is used to denote events and states which happened in the past and ended before the time of speaking (Helbig and Busha, 2001). This tense is a counterpart of the English past simple (Durrell, 2002). Präteritum (47) is the most used tense when it comes to narratives which deal with both fictional and non-fictional events taking place in the past (Eisenberg, 1998).

(47) *Ich* **war** *dort mit meine Mutter.*

I be-1sg.PAST there with my mother

'I was there with my mother.'

2.3.3 Perfekt

German Perfekt is a counterpart of the English present perfect (Durrell, 2002). According to Helbig and Busha (2001, 135ff.) there are three possible meanings of this tense, the description of a past event (48), the description of a past event with a relevance to the present (49) and the description of a future event, which will be more discussed later on.

(48) *Wir* **sind** *gestern dort* **gegangen**.

We be-1pl.PRES yesterday there go.PP

'We have gone there yesterday.'

(49) *Sie*   *ist*   *eingeschlafen*.

She   be-3sg.PRES   sleep.PP

'She has fallen asleep.'

When compared to the English past and present perfect tenses, where the difference between the two tenses is strictly marked, Durrell (2002) states that there is no such explicit difference between Präteritum and Perfekt and their use depends more on the style of delivery rather than their meaning, as Präteritum is preferred when it comes to written language while Perfekt is preferred in spoken language.

2.3.4 Plusquamperfekt

Plusquamperfekt may be understood as the English past perfect. This tense is formed by putting the past form of the auxiliary *haben* or *sein* and the past participle of a verb (Durrell 2002, 302). The main interpretation of this tense is the denotation of a past event within the past (50), which is something that both Durrell (2002) and Helbig and Busha (2001) agree on.

(50) *Gestern*   *hatte*   *sie* *das* *Geld* *mir*   *bezahlen*.

Yesterday   have-3sg.PAST she   the   money to me   pay-INF

'She had paid me the money yesterday.'

2.3.5 Futur I

German Futur I is created by using the auxiliary verb *werden* together with a verb in its infinitive form (Durrell 2002, 300ff.). According to Eisenberg (1998, 148), Futur I is very similar to Präsens, as it can express the present time (51) as well as the future time. However it carries the modal component of speculation which Präsens does not.

(51) *Sie* *wird*   *jetzt*   *zu*   *Hause*   *sein*.

She   will-3sg.PRES now   in   home   be-INF

'She will be home now.'

2.3.6 Futur II

Futur II corresponds with the English future perfect (Durrell, 2002) and it can be also referred to as Vor-Futur (pre-future) (Weinrich 1993, 52). It is created by using the auxiliary *werden* together with past participle and either the verb *haben* or *sein* in their infinitive form. According to Eisenberg (1998) Futur II is a combination of Perfekt and Futur I.[2]

2.4 Expressing the future time

2.4.1 Präsens denoting the future

The present denoting the future is used when the time of speaking takes place prior to the time of the action. It is possible, however not necessary, to use temporal indication together with such intended meaning of Präsens (52) (Helbig and Busha, 2001).

(52) *In   einem   monat   **fliegt**   meine   Shwester   nach   Spanien.*
In   a   month   fly-3sg.PRES   my   sister   to   Spain
'My sister is flying to Spain in a month.'

According to Eisenberg (1998) Präsens denoting the future is a rival for the use of Futur I. In the German language it is quite common to use Präsens where the English language uses *will* or *be going to*. In the everyday conversations, Präsens is actually used more frequently than Futur I to indicate the future time, however it is necessary for the futurity to be obvious from the context.

2.4.2 Perfekt denoting the future

Perfekt may be used as a substitute for Future II which means that it is used in order to indicate a state or an event taking place before a certain point in the future (Helbig and Busha, 2001). It is necessary for the futurity to be understood from the context if Perfekt is used to refer to the future time (53) (Durrell, 2002).

(53) *Morgen   **habe**   ich   das Buch **gelesen**.*
Tomorrow   have-1sg.PRES   I   the book read.PP
'I will have the book read by tomorrow.'

---

[2] Eisenberg (1998) divides the use of this tense into two categories, the first one being the denotation of the past and the second one being the denotation of the future.

If a sentence contains a subordinate clause which refers to the future, it is common to use Perfekt (54) (Durrell, 2002). The use of Perfekt as an indication of the future time is only occasional nowadays and the use of temporal indication is compulsory (Eisenberg, 1998).

(54)	*Wenn*	*ich*	*dem*	*Lehrer*	*die*	*E-Mail*	***geschickt***	***habe,***
	When	I	the	teacher	the	email	send.PP	have-1sg.PRES

werde	*ich*	*nach*	*Hause*	*gehen.*
will	I	to	home	go-INF

'After I send the email to the teacher, I will go home.'

2.4.3 Futur I denoting the future

The primary use of Futur I is to refer to the future time, meaning that the state or event will take place after the moment of speaking (55) (Durrell, 2002).

(55)	*Ich*	***werde***	*bald*	*dort*	***arbeiten****.*
	I	will-1sg.PRES	soon	there	work-INF

'I will work there soon.'

It is possible to compare the German Futur I to the English construction of *will* together with a verb (Durrell 2002, 301). It can also be used to express an intention or a personal decision which is connected to the future time (56) (Eisenberg, 1998).

(56)	*Ich*	***werde***	*das*	*Buch*	*nie*	***verlieren****!*
	I	will-1sg.PRES	the	book	not	lose-INF

'I will not lose the book!'

Helbig and Busha (2001) mention that if Futur I is used in order to express the future time, a temporal indication may be used, however it is not obligatory.

If the futurity is understood from the context, people tend to use Präsens instead of Futur I. The use of Futur I within a sentence where Präsens would refer to the future time as well, indicates prediction or an intention (57) (Durrell, 2002).

(57)	*Es*	***wird***	*morgen*	***regnen****.*
	It	will-3sg.PRES	tomorrow	rain-INF

'It will rain tomorrow.'

2.4.4 Futur II denoting the future

As this tense is very similar to the English future perfect, Futur II is used to indicate a state or an event which will take place before a certain time in the future (58) (Durrell, 2002).

(58) *Bis   nächsten   Monat   **wird**   sie   neue   Arbeit*
By   next   month   will-3sg.PRES she   new   job

beginnen   haben*.*
start-INF   have-INF

'She will have started a new job by next month.'

If Futur II is used in order to denote the future time, it is compulsory to use a temporal indication and optional to use a modal factor of presupposition (Helbig and Busha, 2001).

II.   ANALYSIS

3 METHODOLOGY

The aim of this research is to find out how both German and English languages express future states and events. It is possible to assume that the constructions referring to the future will be created in similar way, as both languages belong under the Germanic languages branch. Furthermore, neither English nor German express the future time by inflecting verbs. The Czech National Corpus, more precisely InterCorp, which enables to compare a searched query in two or more languages, was used for the purposes of this research. This chapter will describe the processes used for the analysis.

First, it was necessary to decide which English constructions will be used to see how both languages express the future time. I decided to use the structures which in practice appear the most within the English language when it comes to referring to the future time. These structures are *will*, *be going to*, present simple and present progressive.

The next step was to visit the Czech National Corpus and select the languages in which my searches will be done. I chose the version of the English corpora titled InterCorp v12 - English. After that I selected the second aligned corpora, the German one, called InterCorp v12 – German in which the corresponding results were to be found as well. All my queries were furthermore specified so that the results were taken only from the category of subtitles. I picked this category because I hoped that the texts from both languages would be the most similar, as movie scripts should not vary too much from each other in different languages. Although most of the results could not be connected to any movie, as the language was too vague (1), I recognized one example which was from one of the Harry Potter movies and one from Johnny English due to the use of proper names within the sentences.

> (1)   *I'll go with you.*
>   *You're going to be disappointed.*

Then, after the corpus found all the examples of my request, I shuffled the results in order to make sure I get the most diverse selection. For the constructions *will* and *be going to* I always worked with 300 examples which I also downloaded into an excel table. On the other hand, it proved to be substantially harder to find the same amount of examples for present simple and present progressive. It was also more difficult to find the correct query to enter in order to narrow the final results down to the examples in which present simple and present progressive expressed the future time. For each

of the two expressions I ended up downloading three excel tables, each including one additional word which helped narrowing the selection to the future time references. These were the words *next*, *later* and *tomorrow*. In the end I was able to gather 206 examples for the present simple and 85 examples for the present continuous.

Now, as I was working with the excel tables, it was always necessary to first go through each individual expression and spot the ones which did not express the future time (2) or the results which did not correspond with each other in the English and the German translations, as sometimes such results also found their way into the selections. These examples were excluded entirely.

> (2)   *You're going to City Hall.*
>   *It is next to the phone.*

As the last step I went through all the remaining examples, examining them more closely and identifying the future time expressions in the German translations. The English structures referring to the future time were already marked by the corpus. I created a pie chart for all four examined future time expressions. All provided examples were taken from the generated results from the Czech National Corpus.

4 RESULTS

4.1 Will

4.1.1 Methodology

Using the verb *will* is the most common way of expressing the future time (Quirk, 1985) and so it was the first structure referring to future time I researched. *Will* had to be searched as lemma, which allowed the corpus to search for and include every form of the verb *will* on the result page. This helped a lot with the research as it automatically found even the contracted form *'ll*. However, the corpus also included the contracted form *'d* which stands for *would* and which is not suitable for the purposes of this research. Such unusable examples made slightly over 14 % out of the 300 results I worked with. Another 22 % out of the 300 results consisted of examples which did not correspond with each other at all, or which were expressed differently. Among such unsuitable examples belonged the ones which avoided the use of a verb altogether (3), omitted the subject used in the English sentences (4), or left out a vital part of the original sentence (5).

(3)   *I'**ll** see you later.*
      Bis später.

(4)   *They'**ll** have another one inside.*
   *Da drinnen gibt es noch mehr.*

(5)   *You'**ll** see how beautiful the sunsets are up here.*
      Hier oben sind die Sonnenuntergänge wunderschön.

After excluding all these unsuitable examples I was left with 192 useful ones. The pie chart below illustrates the percentage out of the 192 results of how much a certain German structure referring to the future time was used as a counterpart to the English *will*.

Fig. 1 Will results
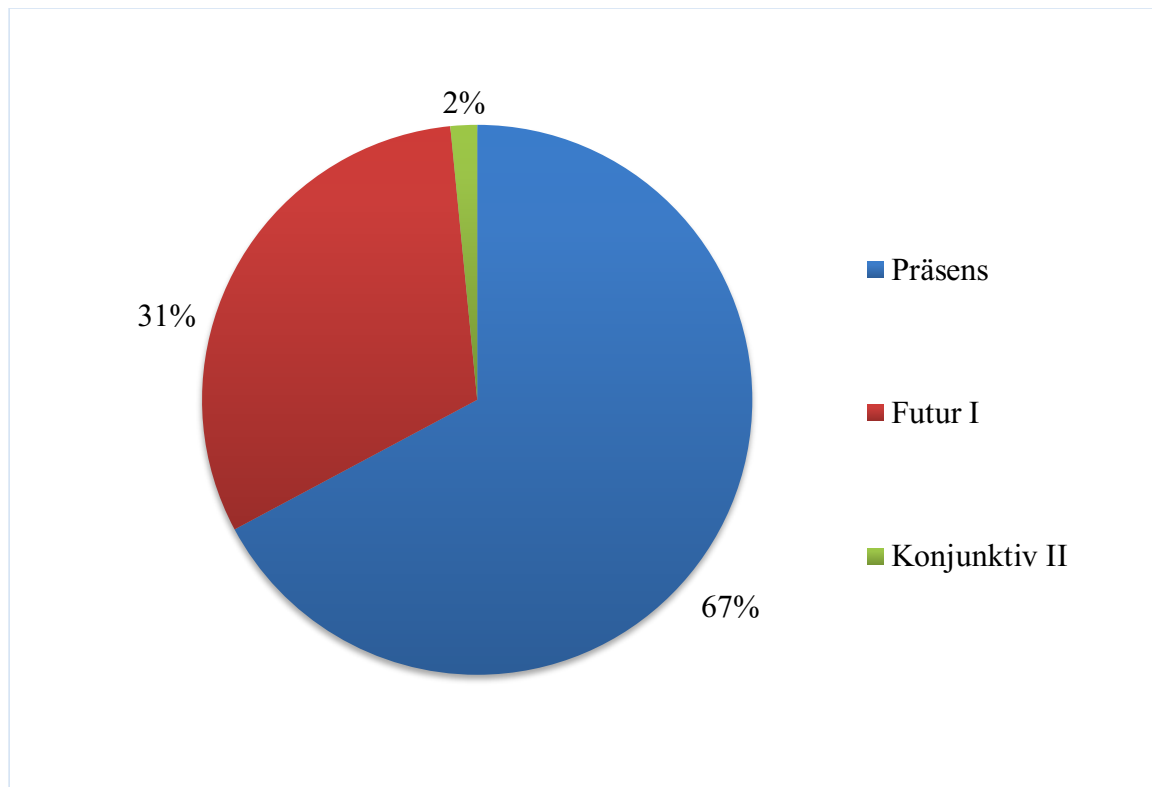
4.1.2 Präsens

According to Durrell (2002), the English *will* usually corresponds with the German Futur I. Nevertheless, he also states that Präsens can be used to refer to the future time and it does not matter, whether *will*, *shall* or *be going to* is used in English. He also claims that in practice the use of Präsens as means of indicating the future is even more frequent that the use of Futur I. These results supports Durrell's claim. From the pie chart it is apparent that Präsens is preferable when it comes to indicating the future time, concerning subtitles at the very least. It is, however, important to mention that the future time reference must be clear in order to use Präsens in such way. Präsens was used in exactly 67 % out of the 192 useful results. This amounts to 129 individual examples. In the table below are some examples of the translations containing Präsens.

Tab. 2 Examples of English will expressed as German Präsens

ENGLISH	GERMAN
You**'ll** be killed!	Du **bringst** dich **um**!
I**'ll** drop you in that vat of defrost…	Ich **schmeiße** dich in den Defroster…
I**'ll** write you tonight.	Ich **schreibe** dir heute Nacht.
We**'ll** see you next week?	**Sehen** wir uns nächste Woche?
Tomorrow, you**'ll** be one of us.	Morgen **bist** du einer von uns.
Clearly you realise if word of this gets out, we**'ll** have to recall our entire line.	Wir **müssen** unsere ganze Produktion zurückrufen, wenn das jemand erfährt.
Will you come to the house tonight?	**Kommst** du heute Abend?
It **will** be so simple.	Es **ist** ganz einfach.
If I let go of you, you **will** die.	Wenn ich Dich gehen lasse, **stirbst** du.
We**'ll** call the police and tell the truth.	Wir **rufen** die Polizei und sagen die Wahrheit.
He**'ll** bring others!	Er **holt** Verstärkung!
Don't you ever do that again or I**'ll** break your head.	Wenn du das noch mal machst, **schlag** ich dir den Kopf ein, klar?
Yeah, go ahead and I**'ll** be there.	Machen Sie weiter. Ich **bin** gleich da.
I**'ll** send another check tomorrow.	Ich **schick** morgen einen anderen Scheck.
Well, I**'ll**... think of something.	Nun, ich … **lasse** mir was einfallen.
He**'ll** beat us easily.	Er **schlägt** uns leicht.
Knock, and the door **will** open.	Klopf an, und die Tür **öffnet** sich.

4.1.3 Futur I

Although Durrell (2002) suggests that it is German Futur I which corresponds with the English future time construction *will* the most, it was proved by these results that in practice it is not the case. Consequently, German Futur I which is formed with the auxiliary *werden* together with a verb (Durrell, 2002) was used in only 60 examples. This amounts to just 31 % of the results.

Tab. 3 Examples of English will expressed as German Futur I

ENGLISH	GERMAN
We**'ll** wait for him here.	Dann **werden** wir hier auf ihn **warten**.
I **will** go to your home, Michael.	Ich **werde** zu ihnen Hause **gehen**, Michael.
My lord Ptolemy **will** retire.	Eure Hoheit Ptolemäus **werden** sich **zurückziehen**.
I**'ll** miss you.	Ich **werde** dich **vermissen**.
You'll be very sorry because I**'ll** drench you.	Sehr Leid sogar, weil ich dich dann **durchnässen werde**.
I**'ll** never be like you, never.	Ich **werde** nie wie du **sein**, niemals.
Now, I**'ll** say two.	Jetzt **werde** ich zwei **sagen**.
… and then finally everybody **will** know about me.	Und dann **wird** endlich jeder **wissen**, wer ich bin.
I'll sing them an encore that they**'ll** never forget.	Ich singe ihnen eine Zugabe, die sie nie **vergessen werden**.
Mother **will** go to bed with a severe headache.	Mutter **wird** sich mit schweren Kopfschmerzen ins Bett **legen**.
Iris, you **will** sleep here and I will sleep over there.	Iris, du **wirst** hier **schlafen** und ich da drüben.
I**'ll** tell you what I had on mind.	Das **werde** ich Ihnen **sagen**.
We **will** die before reaching the exit.	Wir **werden sterben**, bevor wir einen Ausgang erreicht haben.
Will he live?	**Wird** er **leben**?
Anna **will** marry many times.	Anna **wird** öfters **heiraten**.
Then we **will** master our bodies.	Dann **werden** wir unsere Körper **meistern**.
Unfortunately, the car **will** never fly again.	Leider **wird** der Wagen nie wieder **fliegen**.

4.1.4 Konjunktiv II

Even though most of the result were formed with the use of Präsens or Futur I, three examples and thus 2 % out of the 192 were created with the use of Konjunktiv. The use of this mood indicates that a statement is merely possible, uncertain or imagined (Eisenberg, 1998).

Tab. 4 Examples of English will expressed with the use of German Konjunktiv

ENGLISH	GERMAN
Maybe that**'ll** help!	Das **könnte helfen**!
Hermione, **will** you please tell me what it is we're doing?	Hermine, **würdest** du mir bitte **sagen**, was wir hier gerade machen?
If the judge hears the prisoner was lounging at the railroad station… he**'ll** really give it to me.	Wüsste der Richter , dass der Gefangene sich am Bahnhof aufhält , **würde** er 's mir aber **geben** .

In the first example it is quite clear why Konjunktiv was used in the German sentence. The English translation includes the word *maybe* which indicates certain possibility. This adverb was omitted in German and instead this possibility was expressed by the Konjunktiv *könnte*. The second example is a request which may or may not be granted and so this uncertainty is expressed by Konjunktiv *würdest*. The third example is a conditional sentence, consisting of a subordinate clause and a main clause. Durrell (2002) explains that it is possible to use Konjunktiv II in both clauses. Although he shows this use of Konjunktiv II on sentences expressing unreal conditions, in this case it is more likely expressing possibility as in the previous two examples.

According to the obtained results, Präsens is the most frequent counterpart to English *will*, as it appears even more frequently than Futur I, at least when it comes to the category of subtitles. On the other hand, the use of Konjunktiv as a counterpart for English *will* seems to be quite rare, as it was used in only three out of the 192 examples.

4.2 Be going to

4.2.1 Methodology

The second English structure I researched was *be going to*. This structure is also very frequently used, the choice between it and *will* depends merely on whether the activity is planned or spontaneous (Cowan, 2008). As the finite verb *be* carries the agreement with a subject within a clause, it can change its form. This needed to be taken into consideration and just like the verb *will*, *be* needed to be searched as lemma, allowing the corpus to include its other forms such as *am* or *are* within the final results. This, however, caused the same issue as when the future time reference *will* was searched and the corpus included the past forms of the verb *be*, *were* and *was*, within the final results as well. The rest of this structure, *going to*, could be searched as simple words, meaning the corpus was not searching for any other form of these two words other than the forms written in the query. Unfortunately it was unavoidable that the corpus also included examples with the structure of *be going to* which did not indicate the future time. Some sentences also used this phrase as means of expressing an action of heading somewhere, as can be observed in the examples below (6).

> (6)   *They are going to Salt Lake City.*
>   *I am going to bed.*

The sentences not using *be going to* as a reference to the future time (6) together with the examples containing past tense of the verb *be* (7) made roughly 20,30 % out of the 300 overall results. Another 23 % were made up by examples whose English and German counterparts did not correspond with each other. Among other issues with examples which made the 23 % of unsuitable results belongs for example the omission of tense altogether (8).

> (7)   *I was worried he **was going to** take me to the headmistress' office.*
>   *Or how about those killer bees that **were going to** attack America.*

> (8)   *You're going to be retired like him too.*
>   *So wie er, auch gleich arbeitslos.*

After excluding all the results which were not useful for the purposes of this thesis, only 170 results were left. These appropriate results made up only 56,70 % out of the 300

original examples. The pie chart below portrays the outcome of how the structure *be going to* was expressed within the German language out of the final 170 results.

Fig. 2 Be going to results
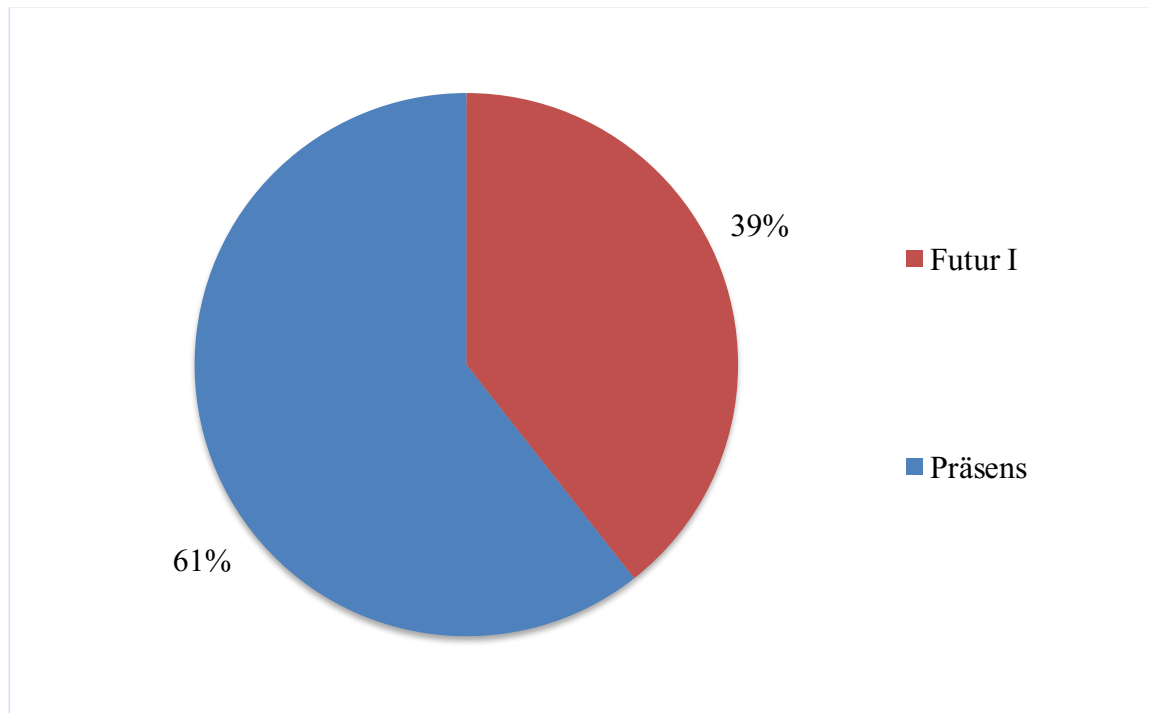
4.2.2 Präsens

As can be seen from the pie chart, the use of Präsens was preferred in almost the same amount of examples as with the English future time structure *will*. Präsens, as an equivalent to *be going to*, appeared in 103 examples out of the 170 suitable results. As subtitles mainly consist of direct speech it is not very surprising that Präsens is used so often. That could be, once again, due to the fact that within the German language it is preferred to use Präsens in direct communication in order to refer to the future time, according to Durrell (2002).

Tab. 5 Examples of English be going to expressed with the use of German Präsens

ENGLISH	GERMAN
I'm **going to** pick herbs now, Master.	Ich **gehe** jetzt Kräuter pflücken, Meister.
Let me tell you how you **are going to** pay for this.	Ich sag Ihnen, wie Sie dafür **bezahlen**.

We**'re going to** hijack the Venture Star.	Wir **kapern** den Avenger Star.
I**'m going to** tell you my story.	Ich **erzähle** Ihnen meine Geschichte.
It**'s going to** be fine.	Es **wird** schon gut.
You**'re going to** choose it, not us,…	Den **wählen** Sie, nicht wir,…
You **are going to** be hearing from my lawyer.	Sie **hören** von meinem Anwalt.
You**'re going to** get him for me.	Sie **kriegen** ihn für mich.
You**'re going to** college?	**Gehst** du aufs College?
I**'m going to** report you to the Geneva Convention!	Ich **zeig** dich bei der Genfer Konvention **an**!
15-L-27, I**'m going to** need backup.	15-L-27 , ich **brauche** Verstärkung.
The car**'s going to** explode!	Das Auto **explodiert** gleich.
You**'re going to** be dead inside of a year.	In einem Jahr **sind** Sie tot.
Are you sure she**'s going to** be up this late?	Bist du sicher, dass sie so spät noch auf **ist**?
Leo, it**'s going to** be okay.	Leo, es **wird** alles wieder gut.
… and here we**'re going to** stay.	Wir **bleiben**, wo wir sind.
They **are going to** kill us!	Die **bringen** uns **um**!

4.2.3   Futur I

As a counterpart for the English structure *be going to*, Futur I was used in 39 % out of the 170 suitable results. This equals to 67 individual examples which is considerably less than the use of Präsens as a counterpart for the structure *be going to*.

Tab. 6 Examples of English be going to expressed with the use of German Futur I

ENGLISH	**GERMAN**
Kids, we**'re going to** have to eat this cake by ourselves.	Kinder, wir **werden** diesen Kuchen selbst essen **müssen**.
I**'m going to** do it.	Ich **werde** es **tun**.
"He**'s going to** tell."	„Er **wird** es **erzählen**."
There **are going to** be changes.	Es **wird** Veränderungen **geben**.

I**'m going to** talk to her…	Ich **werd** mit ihr **reden**…
Cloud**'s going to** come back too, right?	Cloud **wird** auch **zurückkommen**, oder?
Your father**'s going to** love it.	Dein Vater **wird** es **lieben**.
I**'m going to** put a bronze plaque up.	Ich **werde** eine Bronzetafel **aufhängen**.
I**'m going to** show it to you.	Ich **werde** es dir **zeigen**.
You**'re going to** pay for this.	Du **wirst** dafür **büßen**.
Claire**'s going to** sing.	Claire **wird singen**.
What**'s going to** happen?	Was **wird geschehen**?
You know, Mr. English, I**'m going to** miss you.	Wissen Sie, Mr. English, ich **werde** Sie **vermissen**.
Barney, what**'s going to** happen with Marty?	Barney, was **wird** mit Marty **passieren**?
It's snowing in the city and you**'re going to** need that.	Es schneit in der Stadt. Den **werden** Sie **brauchen**.
You**'re going to** be disappointed.	Sie **werden** enttäuscht **sein**.
It**'s going to** get chilly.	Es **wird** kalt **werden**.

According to the gathered results, the English structure *be going to* has only two most frequent German counterparts, Präsens and Futur I. For as far as subtitles are concerned, Präsens, which was used in more than a half of the overall results, is preferred more than Futur I, as it was the case with the English structure *will*.

4.3 Present simple

4.3.1 Methodology

According to Quirk (1985) the present simple is the second most common way of referring the future time. However, the issue with this future time reference was, that unlike *will* or *be going to*, this structure has no definite form, as any verb can assume it. Due to that reason, researching present simple in the same way as *will* or *be going to* was impossible. To overcome such obstacle, the Czech National Corpus allows tags to be used within the query. In this case the tag VBZ which stands for "Verb, 3rd person singular present" was the most appropriate one to use. Furthermore, in order to make sure that only examples referring to the future time will be included in the final results, the words *next*, *later* and *tomorrow* were also added to the query so that three different result pages were generated.

The total amount of gathered examples was 206, with 140 examples including the word *next*, 13 examples including the word *later* and 53 examples with *tomorrow*. Out of the 206 examples only roughly 19,90 %, that is 41, were suitable for the purposes of this research. Despite the narrowed selection, 12,60 % of the 206 overall results did not express the future time (9).

(9)   *I'm good for today, it**'s tomorrow** I'll feel it.*
        *You'll have to show me how it **works later**, okay?*

In another 68 % the English and German counterparts did not correspond with each other or the time expression was excluded altogether in the German language. The results containing the word *next* were narrowed down the most, as many examples with this word were not referring to the future time at all (10).

(10) *It**'s next** to the phone.*
        *My shop **is next** door.*

As a result, the only examples with the word *next* included in the appropriate results were additionally containing another time reference such as the word *week*. The pie chart below illustrates the outcome of how the present simple was expressed in the German language.

Fig. 3 Present simple results
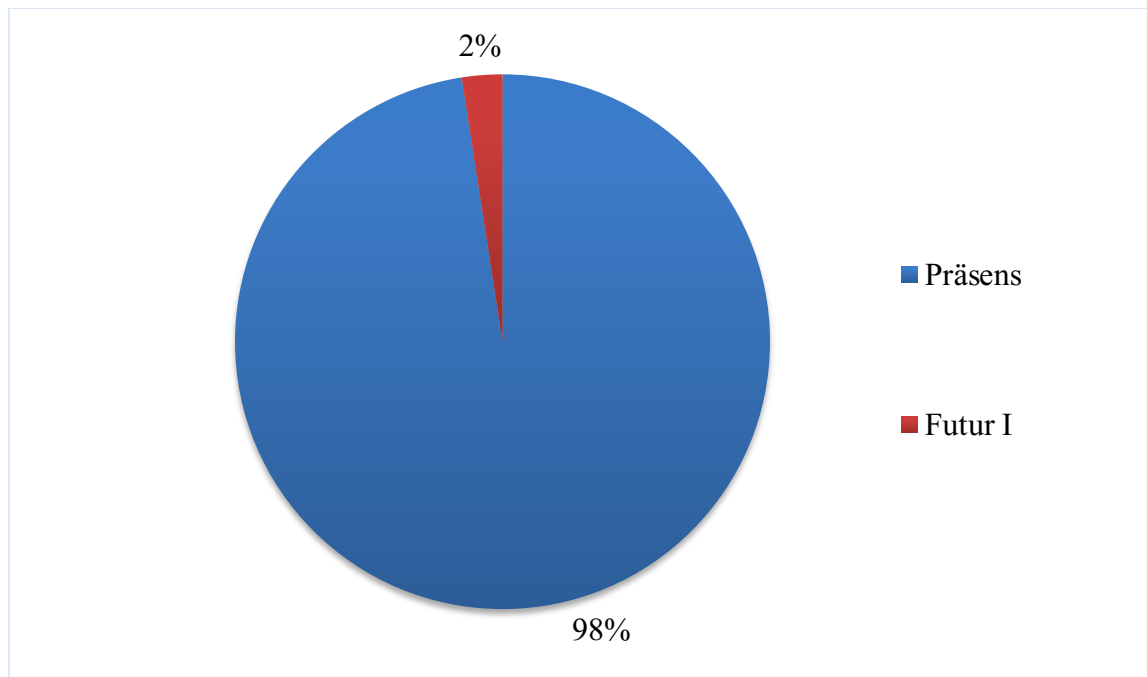
4.3.2 Präsens

Präsens was used in 98 % from the 41 suitable examples. This means that 40 results contained Präsens, leaving only one example with Futur I. The table below gives individual examples of Präsens being used as a counterpart for English present simple.

Tab. 7 Examples of English present simple expressed with the use of German Präsens

ENGLISH	GERMAN
It**'s next** Saturday.	Es **ist** am **nächsten** Samstag.
The annual meeting of our stockholders **is next** week in Los Angeles.	Die Aktionärsversammlung **findet nächste** Woche in Los Angeles statt.
The dome **arrives later**.	Die Kuppel **kommt später**.
Wednesday **is tomorrow**.	**Morgen ist** es Mittwoch.
Their shuttle **arrives tomorrow**.	Ihr Shuttle **kommt morgen**.
He **leaves tomorrow** and the girl with him.	Er **reist morgen ab** und das Mädchen kommt mit ihm mit.
The only way they can get back East is on the train that **leaves tomorrow**.	Zurück nach Osten kommen sie nur mit dem Zug , der **morgen abfährt**.
It **happens tomorrow**.	Es **passiert morgen**.

The funeral **is tomorrow**.	Die Beerdigung **findet morgen statt**.
Listen, the gold **arrives tomorrow**.	Hören Sie , das Gold **kommt morgen an**.
We must have a conference with the admiral before he **goes tomorrow**.	Wir müssen mit dem Admiral reden, bevor er uns **morgen verlässt**.
So what **happens tomorrow** if you don't get a flower?	Also was **passiert morgen** wenn du keine Blume bekommst?
The final performance **is tomorrow**, you guys.	Die letzte Probe **ist morgen**.
My niece is here, but she **leaves tomorrow**.	Meine Nichte ist hier, aber sie **reist morgen ab**.
The coronation **is tomorrow**, and your brother has the support of the Americans.	Die Krönung **findet morgen statt** und Ihr Bruder hat die Unterstützung Amerikas.

Quirk (1985) stated that the use of present simple as a means of indicating the future time may be connected to the calendar. Such use can be observed even within this example (11).

(11) *Wednesday **is tomorrow**.*
***Morgen ist** es Mittwoch.*

Quirk (1985) also mentioned that it is common to use present simple within subordinate clauses after *if* or *when*. An example proving this claim can also be found in the table, however present simple is used here within the superordinate clause as well (12).

(12) *So what **happens tomorrow** if you **don't get** a flower?*
*Also was **passiert morgen** wenn du keine Blume **bekommst**?*

4.3.3 Futur I

The table below contains the only example in which Futur I was used as a counterpart for English present simple. According to the results, it is safe to assume that Futur I is not very commonly used as the counterpart for English present simple.

Tab. 8 Examples of English present simple expressed with the use of German Futur I

ENGLISH	GERMAN
Whatever **happens tomorrow**, I think it's in your best interest … … to get an attorney who's gonna represent your interests alone.	Was auch immer morgen **passieren wird**, Sie sind gut beraten, wenn Sie sich einen Anwalt nehmen, der ganz allein Ihre Interessen vertritt.

4.4 Present Progressive

4.4.1 Methodology

Although it may not be the most common way of referring to the future time, present progressive can still be used in some occasions. Its use is the most common when connected to a scheduled activity (Foley and Hall, 2003) which can be inferred from several sentences from the table below. For example, when the activity which should take place in the future involves several people, it almost inevitably means that the activity is scheduled. This is very well indicated in this example (13).

   (13)   *The Broadcasting Council **is meeting tomorrow**…*
         *Der Rundfunkrat **tritt morgen** zusammen…*

The research method used for present progressive was almost the same as with the present simple structure with only minor changes. In order to search for present progressive, a different tag had to be used. Czech National Corpus' tag for "Verb, gerund or present participle" is VBG. However, if the searches had been done using only the tag VBG, the corpus would have also found examples which did not contain a future time reference but a mere gerund forms (14).

   (14)   ***Singing** is my passion.*
         ***Swimming** brought her joy.*

In order to avoid such results, the query did not contain only the tag and the additional words *next*, *later* or *tomorrow*, it also contained the word *be* which was searched as lemma. Although this definitely narrowed the selection down, there was still a number of unwanted results included, mostly due to the verb *be* assuming its past forms. The same issue was encountered during the research of the structure *be going to*.

The total amount of gathered examples was 85. Out of these only around 32,90 %, 28 individual examples, were useful and 50,60 % did not indicate the future time (15). In 16,50 % of the results the English and German sentences did not correspond with each other.

(15) *Tell me who **was sitting next** to you on the roller coaster!*
      *Look **who's sitting next** to me.*

Fig. 4 Present progressive results
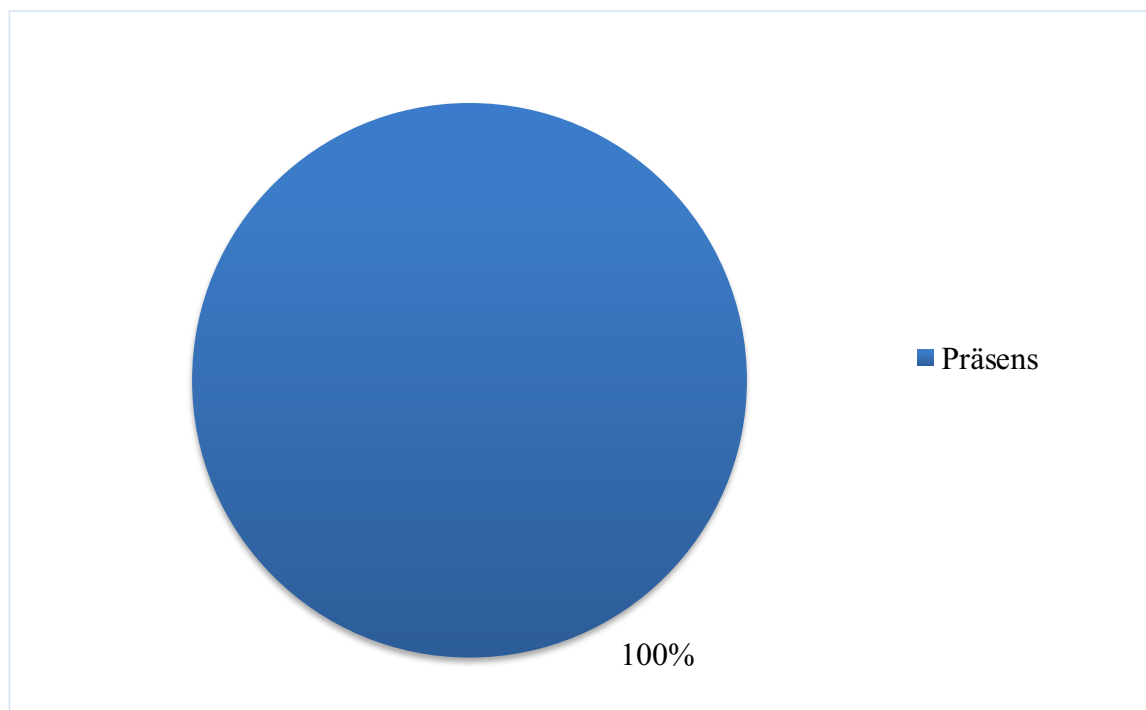
4.4.2 Präsens

The results gathered for English present progressive and its German counterparts are similar to the results obtained for present simple. The only exception is that Futur I was not used as a counterpart to English present progressive at all, meaning that Präsens was used in all 28 examples.

Tab. 9 Examples of English present progressive expressed with the use of German Präsens

ENGLISH	GERMAN
I'**m going next time**.	**Nächstes Mal geh** ich **hin**.
Which reminds me, **I'm quitting next week**.	Welche mich daran erinnert, dass ich **nächste Woche kündige**.
You **are leaving next** week for Frankfurt, and from there to Orange County.	**Nächste Woche fliegst** du nach Frankfurt und von dort nach Orange County.
I think he'**s coming later**.	Ich glaube, er **kommt später**.
I'**m leaving tomorrow**.	Ich **reise morgen ab**.
It'**s coming tomorrow**.	Es **kommt morgen**.
The Broadcasting Council **is meeting tomorrow** and they'll decide which of the broadcasts is illegal.	Der Rundfunkrat **tritt morgen** zusammen und entscheidet, welche dieser Ausstrahlungen illegal sind.
I'**m going tomorrow**, dad.	Ich **gehe Morgen**, Papa.
What'**s happening tomorrow**?	Was **passiert morgen**?
Really sorry to bother you, but the auditors **are coming tomorrow**.	Wirklich leid, Sie zu belästigen, aber der Prüfer **kommen morgen**.
You'**re working tomorrow**, 6a.m.	Du **arbeitest morgen**, Abfahrt 6 Uhr.
Your friend **is coming tomorrow**.	**Morgen kommt** Ihr Freund.
Really, I'**m coming tomorrow** to pick it up.	Klar, **morgen hol** ich 's **ab**, mit dem Transporter.
She and her sister ship at Vandenberg **are leaving tomorrow** for launch prep in Florida…	Dieses und das Schwesterschiff **gehen morgen** nach Florida.
I **am flying tomorrow**.	Ich **fliege** erst **morgen**.

CONCLUSION

The main objective of this bachelor thesis was to determine the most common constructions the German language uses as counterparts for the English ones. As stated in the theoretical part, among the English grammatical constructions referring to the future time which are the most common belong *will*, *be going to*, present simple and present progressive. Other grammatical constructions were also mentioned, however their use is not as frequent as of the four ones which were studied in the analysis.

An important part of this bachelor thesis was also the description of the English future tense. According to many experts, the future tense actually does not exist within the English language, as it cannot be formed by an inflection on verb like the past or present tense. Consequently, English uses several construction to refer to the future time.

The practical part was dedicated to the analysis of how the four most frequently used English future time constructions, *will*, *be going to*, present simple and present progressive, are expressed within the German language. The German Futur I was anticipated to be the most frequent counterpart to the English future time reference *will*, as it was suggested by Durrell (2002) in the theoretical part of this thesis. However, this was not the case. In reality, more than a half of the obtained results included Präsens within the German sentences. Almost the same results were achieved when the English structure *be going to* was analysed, once again with more than a half of its German counterparts including Präsens. There was no noticeable difference between the German sentences which used Präsens and those which used Futur I as a counterpart to English *will* and *be going to*. Präsens also became an almost exclusive German counterpart to present simple, with only one of the gathered results containing German Futur I. Moreover, Präsens was the only counterpart of present progressive.

It is also important to note that all examples were acquired from the category of subtitles. The influence of this category on the final results should also be considered. Subtitles are the transcriptions of what characters say in movies which means that the majority of the obtained examples were imitating everyday dialogs. As Eisenberg (1998) emphasizes, Präsens is used more frequently than Futur I in direct speeches. This is possibly reflected within the gathered examples used in the analysis.

Based on the obtained results from the practical part, German language uses Präsens the most as a counterpart for all four English future time constructions which were analysed. These findings support Eisenberg's claim that people tend to use Präsens when referring to the future time in everyday dialogs.

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