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## Diploma Thesis

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### **English resultative phrases and their Czech equivalents**

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Podpis Tejček

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## **Abstract**

This diploma thesis examines resultative phrases in English and their Czech equivalents. The major questions to be addressed are whether English teachers teach resultative phrases in lower secondary school and how well English resultative phrases are understood by 9th grade students. The theoretical part clarifies the definitions of phrases and constructions. It also defines types of phrases and specifies resultative phrases. The research section consists of two subsections. The first part focuses on teachers' perspectives on teaching resultative phrases. They consider whether resultative phrases are appropriate for students in lower secondary school. The second part concerns the students and focuses on the translation of selected resultative constructions and their phrases, as well as how well these phrases can be comprehended by 9th grade students. To collect the data, teachers and students completed an open-ended questionnaire sheet. The results from the sheet are presented and analysed. The findings indicate that English teachers do not teach English resultative phrases. Additionally, English, and Czech resultatives and their phrases differ, indicating that they are not equivalent.

**Key words:** Resultative construction, resultative phrase, resultative, construction, sentence, phrase, English, Czech, teacher, student, RP, PP, AP.

## Table of contents

Introduction.....	10
1 Terminology .....	12
2 Definitions .....	13
2.1 Construction.....	13
2.2 Resultative construction .....	14
2.3 Phrase.....	16
2.4 Resultative phrase.....	16
3 Types of phrases.....	18
3.1 Noun phrase.....	18
3.2 Verb phrase.....	19
3.3 Adjective phrase .....	19
3.4 Prepositional phrase .....	20
4 Types of resultative phrases .....	22
4.1 Resultative phrase = Prepositional phrase .....	22
4.2 Resultative phrase = Adjective phrase.....	23
5 Verbs.....	25
5.1 Transitive.....	25
5.2 Intransitive .....	27
5.3 Unaccusative.....	28
5.4 Unergative.....	28
6 Syntax of resultative sentence .....	31
7 Resultative versus depictive construction .....	34
8 Practical part .....	35

8.1	Methodology.....	35
8.2	Teachers.....	37
8.2.1	Teacher 1.....	37
8.2.2	Teacher 2.....	38
8.2.3	Teacher 3.....	39
8.2.4	Teacher 4.....	39
8.2.5	Teacher 5.....	40
8.2.6	Teacher 6.....	40
8.2.7	Teacher 7.....	41
8.2.8	Summary.....	42
8.3	Students (RP = AP).....	43
8.3.1	The river froze solid.....	44
8.3.2	Sara painted the wall blue.....	46
8.3.3	The gardener watered the flowers flat.....	48
8.3.4	The bottle broke open.....	51
8.3.5	She ate herself sick.....	53
8.4	Students (RP = PP).....	55
8.4.1	Tom broke the sink into pieces.....	55
8.4.2	He drank himself to death.....	57
8.4.3	The tiger bled to death.....	59
8.4.4	She walked herself into exhaustion.....	61
8.4.5	She cried herself to sleep.....	63
8.5	Summary.....	65
8.6	Discussion.....	66
	Conclusion.....	69
	Resources.....	71

Appendices .....	74
Resumé .....	86
Annotation.....	87

## **Table of figures**

Figure 1 Levels of sentence structure.....	14
Figure 2 Noun phrase expansion .....	19
Figure 3 Verb phrase expansion .....	19
Figure 4 Structure of PP.....	21
Figure 5 Types of ditransitive verbs.....	27
Figure 6 Transitive and intransitive verb .....	27
Figure 7 Constituent structure of English sentences.....	32
Figure 8 Subject and object in English sentence .....	32
Figure 9 Differences between subject and object as noun phrase .....	33



## **List of Abbreviations**

RP = Resultative Phrase

NP= Noun Phrase

VP = Verb Phrase

AP = Adjective Phrase

PP = Prepositional Phrase

AdvP = Adverbial Phrase

S = Subject

V = Verb

O = Object

A = Adverbial

C = Complement

## **Introduction**

The English language has become a medium of communication for speakers of various native tongues. It is currently being taught and studied all over the world. Learning English allows people to broaden their horizons and become more interconnected with the rest of the world. People who know English have access to a wealth of relevant information and can study, work, and travel abroad. However, the most important capability it affords us is the ability to communicate with others.

English can be studied extensively in primary and secondary schools for communication purposes. The study can also be defined narrowly, and university students and linguists examine it. In terms of the interrelationships between English and Czech, resultative phrases are a very specific area of interest that has not been investigated yet. So far, no papers have dealt with these relationships. Therefore, there is room for further study.

In this paper, I attempt to shed light on the issue of resultatives and compare English and Czech resultatives in terms of their equivalence. There are also some major thoughts about the syntax of resultatives and the placement of resultative phrases in both languages. Additionally, translation difficulties are discussed. It would be a difficult and time-consuming task to collect, discuss, and compare all English resultative phrases. Therefore, only a limited number of resultative phrases are presented and analysed.

This thesis aims to compare English and Czech resultatives and resultative phrases. Resultatives are compared based on their structural characteristics, while resultative phrases are compared based on their placement and, thus, whether they have an equivalent.

The theoretical part of the thesis clarifies the terminology used by the authors and defines terms such as construction, phrase, resultative construction, and resultative phrase. In addition, it discusses the four fundamental types of phrases and defines the two most common English resultative phrases, adjective phrase, and prepositional phrase. Furthermore, it classifies verbs into four types: transitive, intransitive, unaccusative, and unergative. It also explains the syntax of resultatives and distinguishes between resultative and depictive constructions.

The practical part is divided into two sections. The first section focuses on teachers and their perspectives on teaching resultative phrases, and teachers also share their thoughts on teaching these phrases in lower secondary schools. The second section is designed for students in 9th grade and focuses on the translation and comprehension of selected English resultatives

and their resultative phrases. These students' translations are compared for similarities and potential equivalents in resultative phrase placement.

Two major research questions are posed. The first research question asks whether English teachers in lower secondary schools teach resultative phrases and how teachers perceive them. The second research question is whether 9th grade students can comprehend English resultative phrases and whether these phrases have Czech equivalents.

The qualitative research method was conducted to collect relevant data from teachers and students. The study was conducted at a school in Bludov. Both students and instructors were personally approached and asked to complete an open-ended questionnaire sheet. The teachers were given instructions and were left to complete the sheet on their own. The students were given a questionnaire sheet with ten English resultatives to translate. The translation of the students took place in their English classes under the supervision of the teacher. They finished in approximately fifteen minutes, and all sheets were subsequently collected.

# 1 Terminology

Because terminology in the literature appears to be ambiguous, I explain the terms I use in my thesis here. In my thesis, I will use the term "resultative" as a synonym for "resultative construction" and "resultative sentence". As a result, the term "resultative" refers to the entire sentence. The term "resultative phrase" (RP) on the other hand, will be used as a word or phrase at the end of the sentence. This is typically an adjective phrase (AP) or a prepositional phrase (PP). This is illustrated in the following example (Goldberg and Jackendoff, 2004, p. 536):

(1) The gardener watered the flower flat.

To find the "resultative phrase," we must look at the end of the sentence. There is the term *flat*, which refers to the result of the water poured by *the gardener*. Therefore, the word *flat* here is a resultative phrase in the form of an adjective phrase. To summarise this, I will primarily address two issues. Firstly, I will look at resultative sentences in general. And secondly, I will discuss resultative phrases, which typically appear at the end of sentences.

## **2 Definitions**

### **2.1 Construction**

In linguistics, a construction is a word or a group of words that are put together. It can be as simple as morphemes or as complex as idioms. As a result, constructions vary in terms of size and complexity. The syntax and semantics of constructions are examined (Goldberg, 2006, p. 5). According to Crystal (2019, p. 2), construction is primarily associated with sentences. These sentences contain a few words that have been combined to make sense. He defines grammar as "the system of rules governing the construction of sentences." Therefore, grammar is essential in sentence construction.

According to Crystal (2019, p. 227), any English sentence follows three basic principles. To begin, all adult native speakers of the language are aware of a set of sentence construction rules that have been condensed into a grammar. This kind of formation is referred to as grammatical. Secondly, sentences are the largest constructions to which grammar rules apply. As a result, we need to have some familiarity with grammatical analysis in order to successfully complete the task of identifying sentences. The grammar has informed us of the various possible sentences once we have mastered good English grammar. And lastly, sentences are independent constructions that can be used on their own. The diagram below from Crystal (2019, p. 229) illustrates the level of constructions:

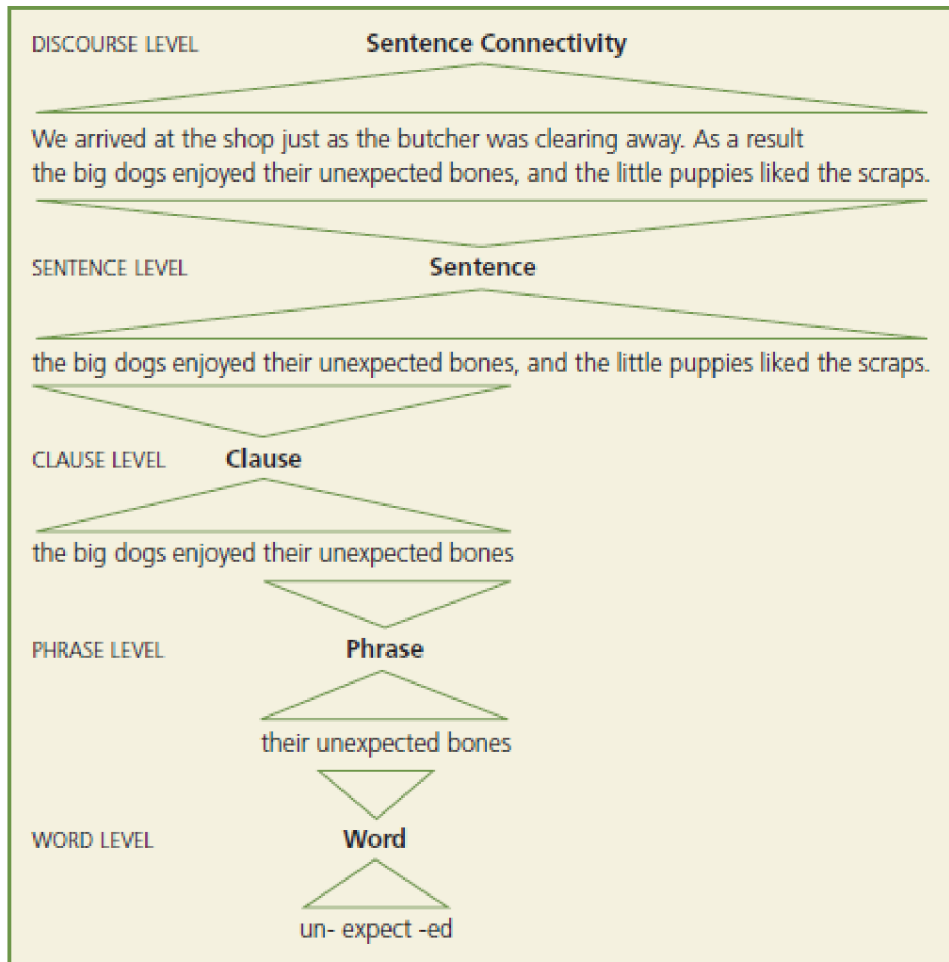


Figure 1 Levels of sentence structure. (From Crystal, 2019, p. 229)

This diagram depicts the construction level from longest to shortest. Sentences can be connected into paragraphs, which can then be connected into larger units such as texts. A sentence, on the other hand, can be divided into clauses. The clauses are then subdivided into phrases, which are further subdivided into single words.

## 2.2 Resultative construction

Many authors use the terms “resultative construction”, “resultative sentence”, and “resultative” interchangeably (Goldberg and Jackendoff, 2004), (Levin and Rappaport Hovav, 2005), (Boas, 2010), and (Zhang, 2018). According to Goldberg (1995, p. 3), argument structure construction is a subclass of constructions. Sentences in English that include a resultative phrase are known as resultative constructions. There are numerous types of resultative constructions. These constructions include syntactic and semantic relationships (Goldberg and Jackendoff, 2004, pp. 532-534). As an example, the sentence (2) is shown below

(Gorlach, 2014, p.60). Because it includes the resultative phrase *flat*, this sentence is also known as "resultative construction", "resultative sentence", or "resultative".

The resultative construction is a type of sentence where the main verb *watered* causes the result of *tulips* being *flat*. In addition, this action of *watering* was caused by *Thomas*. The adjective *flat* then describes the new state that has been created by pouring *water* on the *tulips*. This new state causes *the tulips* to be *flat* (Zhang, 2018, p. 1).

(2) Thomas watered the tulips flat.

Christie (2015, p. 1) also uses the term “resultatives” referring to “resultative sentence” or “resultative construction”. Moreover, she also points out that the resultative construction received its name due to the result that is specified at the end of the sentence. Besides that, she states that resultative construction can be spotted by certain features that appears there. Most prominently, there are some verbs in the sentence that are either transitive or intransitive. Furthermore, there are adjective and prepositional phrases that usually appear after the verbs (Christie, 2015, p. 2).

Zhang (2018, p. 1-2) examines three types of English resultative constructions. These types are further described. To make it more consistent, each type is examined in a separate paragraph where the example sentence appears below each paragraph.

The first type deals with transitive resultatives. These resultatives include the subject (a person) that does the action (main verb) and the resultative phrase that is the result of the action caused by the person. The example sentence is given below (3): *The wall is blue* now because it is a result of *Sara's painting* it. *The wall* cannot be painted by itself. There is an agent (*Sara*) that does the action. Besides, there is an object *wall* which makes the construction transitive (Zhang, 2018, p. 1).

(3) Sara painted the wall blue.

The second type of resultative construction involves unaccusative verbs. This sentence is intransitive because it lacks an object. The sentence indicating that follows (4). There is a word *freeze* which is unaccusative. In addition, this sentence implies that the *pond froze* on its own because it was cold. There is no agent (person) who is responsible for the action. This change in state was caused by freezing temperatures (Zhang, 2018, p. 1).

(4) The pond froze solid.

The third type of the resultative is the one with unergative verbs. This construction has a few relations to be considered. There is an agent (a person) that does the action. There is also a main verb that causes the result. The result is in the form of resultative phrase which is usually an adjectival or prepositional phrase. This result shows backwards what was accomplished by the agent and how the agent accomplished it (Zhang, 2018, p. 1). It can be illustrated in the example below (5) (Zhang, 2018, p. 1). In these types of sentences, there is often a reflexive pronoun such as *herself*, *himself*, *themselves* and so forth. These reflexive pronouns function as an object and they are referred to as fake reflexives (Goldberg and Jackendoff, 2004, p. 536, as cited in Simpson, 1983).

(5) Fiona laughed herself stupid.

### 2.3 Phrase

According to Fontaine (2013, p. 26), phrase is: “a contraction of a clause”. A phrase is a basic unit of a clause, and it is smaller than clause. A phrase includes one or more words. Kroeger (2005, p. 35) defines a phrase as: “a group of words which can function as a constituent within a simple clause”. The main categories of phrases are noun phrases, verb phrases, adjective phrases, and prepositional phrases. The reason why they are called this way lies in the most important part of the phrase which is called “head”. This important component determines the type of the phrase. Besides, there is a transition from word level to phrase level. This transition is logical and looks this way: Nouns transform into noun phrases, adjectives transform into adjective phrases, verbs change to verb phrases and prepositions become prepositional phrases (Kroeger, 2005, p.36 – 40). Crystal (2019, p. 234) also mentions another two phrases that are used only marginally. These are pronoun phrases and adverb phrases. Example of pronoun phrase is: “You there”! Example of adverb phrase is: “Terribly slowly”. In this thesis, I will focus on adjective and prepositional phrases in particular because they are both resultative phrases.

### 2.4 Resultative phrase

As explained in the terminology section, the term "resultative phrase" has a different meaning than “resultative construction”, “resultative sentence” and “resultative”. Goldberg and Jackendoff (2004), however, use the term "resultative" to mean "resultative phrase" (RP). Consequently, according to them, these terms are interchangeable. The resultative is an argument structure construction that signifies "someone causing something to change state" (Goldberg, 2006, p. 7 as cited in Goldberg, 1995).



In the sentence below (6) (Gorlach, 2004, p. 60), the resultative phrase is the word *flat*. *Thomas* did the action and as a result, *the tulips* flattened. Therefore, *the flat plants* are the result of the *Thomas' watering* (2004, p.532-536).

(6) Thomas watered the tulips flat.

Other authors, such as Iwata (2005) and Zhang (2018), use the term "resultative" as a synonym for "resultative sentence" or "resultative construction". This terminology corresponds to the terminology stated at the beginning of the thesis. In terms of resultative phrase, it is defined as a word or phrase that conveys the outcome caused by someone or something. Specifically, the word *flat* used in the preceding example (6).

There is an occurrence of RP within the resultative construction. The RP describes a transformation that a person or thing underwent as a result of participating in a particular action. The primary verb that appears in the construction conveys the action (Levin, 1995, p. 34). The RP can either be a single word or a phrase that consists of multiple words. It is customarily placed at the very end of the sentence in which the result is shown, as seen in (7) and (8). The RP is placed after several different word classes. Iwata (2005, p. 451) provides some examples that illustrate how the RP comes after the noun in the form of the object. The fake reflexive pronoun *themselves* is used in (8), which demonstrates the use of the reflexive pronoun *themselves*.

(7) He hammered the metal flat.

(8) They yell themselves hoarse.

### 3 Types of phrases

A phrase is a syntactic construction that contains more than one word but lacks the subject-predicate structure of a clause. The type of a phrase is determined by the most important word in it. If it's a noun, the phrase is called a noun phrase; if it's an adjective, it's called an adjective phrase, and so on. Six word classes recognise phrasal constructions: nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, pronouns, and prepositions. However, the syntactic patterns that can exist within each type of phrase differ significantly, ranging from the extremely constrained possibilities of the pronoun phrase to the extremely variable patterns of the noun phrase (Crystal, 2019, p. 234).

#### 3.1 Noun phrase

Herring (2016) defines noun phrases (NP) as: “groups of two or more words within a sentence that function grammatically as nouns. They consist of a noun and other words that modify the noun”. The words that precede and follow the main noun provide additional information about it. These are known as modifiers. Besides, NPs differ in length. They may be lengthy and contain numerous words. They may also consist of only two words. They function as NPs regardless of length. Two examples of noun phrases are shown below (Herring, 2016).

(9) He brought the shovel with the blue handle.

(10) The oranges that fell from the orange tree are delicious.

The main noun that conveys meaning in sentence (9) is *shovel*. This noun is called “head” because it is the most important word in terms of meaning. The noun is modified by definite article *the* and the prepositional phrase *with the blue handle* which adds further information about the *shovel*. In sentence (10), the *oranges* carry the meaning of the sentence. It is primarily about oranges. Then, the further information is given. For instance, the *oranges* are not from the supermarket, but they are *from the tree*. Moreover, *delicious oranges* are those which *fell from the tree*, not the ones growing on the tree now. In this case, the whole phrase is the noun phrase because it specifies the information about the *orange*. In addition, it is possible to test the noun phrase by replacing it with a pronoun. The sentence is correct if the pronoun replaces the noun phrase. To demonstrate this, consider examples (9) and (10) from above. These noun phrases can be replaced by pronouns in the following way:

(11) He brought it.

(12) They are delicious.

Four rules govern the expansion of noun phrases. The rules are displayed in the table below.

<b>Rule</b>	<b>Examples</b>
Noun	Thomas
Determiner + Noun	My saucer
Determiner + Noun + PP	The book on the table
Determiner + Adjective + Noun	My flat saucer

*Figure 2* Noun phrase expansion (From Finegan, 2008, p. 147)

### 3.2 Verb phrase

Prior to discussing verb phrases (VP), it is necessary to discuss the fundamental classification of verbs. Verbs and verb phrases, however, go hand in hand. Verb is a single word that occurs in a sentence. In contrast, a verb phrase is a group of words that function together. In a single verb phrase, three verb classes are possible. The first is the lexical verb, which is a meaning-carrying main verb. For instance, *cook*, *rest*, or *walk*. The second class consists of modal verbs that serve as auxiliary verbs. Common modal verbs include *can*, *could*, *might*, *may*, and *should*. The third class consists of primary verbs, which can be both main verbs and auxiliary verbs. Only three verbs operate in this manner: *Do*, *be*, and *have* (Crystal, 2019, p. 224).

In addition, this paragraph focuses on the internal structure of VP because several expansions of NP have already been covered. Verbs are the only constituent to appear in each of these rules. NPs and PPs, on the other hand, are optional. The table below outlines three expansion strategies for VP. These phrases are located on the right following *Tom* (Finegan, 2008, p. 149).

<b>Rule</b>	<b>Examples</b>
Verb	Tom cried.
Verb + NP	Tom won a bicycle.
Verb + NP + PP	Tom won the bike in May.

*Figure 3* Verb phrase expansion (From Finegan, 2008, p. 149)

### 3.3 Adjective phrase

Adjective phrases (AP) are typically made up of an adjective and a preceding intensifier. Examples of APs are *very happy*, *too awkward*, or *cold enough*. AP can also stand alone as one

word (Crystal, 2019, p. 234). This one-word adjective is frequently used in the form of a resultative phrase, as shown in the examples (13) and (14) below (Christie, 2015, p. 14):

(13) Tom danced himself silly.

(14) The pond froze solid.

These two examples demonstrate that the APs here are *silly* and *solid*. These types of RPs often appear with fake reflexives such as *himself*, *herself*, or *themselves*.

### 3.4 Prepositional phrase

To begin, it is necessary to define prepositions. Prepositions are used to show how two parts of a sentence relate to one another in space or time, as well as to express the meaning relationship between them. The vast majority of common prepositions are single-word phrases with no distinct endings or variations. Nonetheless, many prepositions are made up of several words. The following are some examples of prepositions (Crystal, 2019, p. 225).

- **Single-word prepositions:** *about, at, before, by, down, for, from, in, of, on, out, over, round, since, through, to, under, up, with.*
- **Multi-word prepositions:** *ahead of, because of, due to, instead of, near to; as far as, by means of, in accordance with, in spite of, on behalf of.*

**Types of prepositions** (Bruckfield, 2011)

- **Prepositions of direction** - specify the direction of an entity relative to a referent. In example (15), it is *to*.

(15) He is driving to Canada.

- **Prepositions of orientation** - specify an entity's vertical or horizontal position in relation to a referent. In (16), it is *behind*.

(16) The cat is behind the tree.

- **Prepositions of location** - use the broader concept of place to specify a position or location of an entity in relation to a referent. In (17), it is *in*.

(17) Thomas is in the house.

- **Prepositions of transportation** - specify the position of an entity relative to a means of transportation. In (18), it is preposition *on*.

(18) The man is on the bus.

- **Prepositions of time** - give the duration of an event or action, or the relationship between an entity and its time referent. In (19), it is *in*.

(19) I always take my vacation in January.

- **Non-spatial prepositions** - specify events and situations that are not related to space or time. *According to* is the preposition in (20).

(20) They played according to the rules.

The preposition and its object comprise a prepositional phrase (PP). This object can take the form of a pronoun, a noun, or a noun phrase. In addition to adjectives and adjuncts, adverbs and conjunctions may also appear between the preposition and the object. Below (21) is an example of PP *down the dark alley* (Herring, 2016):

(21) She came down the dark alley.

PP consists of preposition *down* and NP *the dark alley*. NP can also be further divided into three parts. *Alley* is the head of the phrase and carries the meaning. *Dark* is an adjective that appears between the preposition *down* and the object *alley*. This adjective specifies the type of *alley*. There is also a definite article *the* that concretizes which *dark alley*.

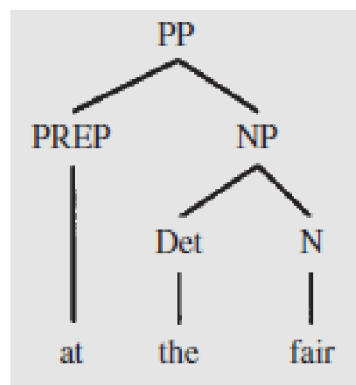


Figure 4 Structure of PP (From Finegan, 2018, p. 150)

The figure 4 above shows simpler example of PP than in (21). PP *at the fair* is further divided into preposition *at* and NP *the fair*. Furthermore, *the fair* is divided into determiner *the*, and NP *fair*. The determiner is the article at the same time. Therefore, the phrase-structure rule for PP is: Preposition + NP.

## 4 Types of resultative phrases

English resultative phrases are either AP or PP. These two phrases most likely appear at the end of the resultative sentence. These two phrases are a result of an action that happened. However, a clear distinction must be made between RPs and adjuncts because adjuncts are not the result of an action (Goldberg and Jackendoff, 2004, p. 536).

### 4.1 Resultative phrase = Prepositional phrase

The first type of RP is PP, and this phrase appears at the end of the sentence. Below (22), (23) are some examples of PPs from different authors (Goldberg and Jackendoff, 2004, p. 536), (Christie, 2015, p. 7). RP in the sentence (22) is *into pieces* which is PP at the same time. This PP includes a preposition *into* and a noun phrase *pieces*. Semantically speaking, the result of the *bathtub* being broken is the action of *Bill*. *Bill* has *broken the bathtub* on purpose or accidentally.

In example (23), PP is *across the room*. As mentioned before, PP consists of the preposition *across* and NP *the room*. The meaning behind the resultative sentence is following. *Tony danced* the way that he got on the other side of the room. Therefore, he appeared on the other side of the room by his *dancing*. In other words, he *danced* through the room.

(22) Bill broke the bathtub into pieces.

(23) Tony danced himself across the room.

Firstly, PP that appears as PP describes the result of the action performed by the verb. In (22), *into pieces* is the result of *broke*. Secondly, PP specifies how *the bathtub* was broken. Besides, PP in (22) is voluntary because the sentence might omit *into pieces*. This sentence includes a transitive verb. Example (23), *across the room* is the result of *danced*. PP specifies how *Tony danced*. This sentence includes an intransitive verb *dance* and a fake reflexive *himself*.

In addition, the meaning of PP does not need to correspond with the rest of the resultative. For instance, the resultatives (24) and (25) illustrate that PP does not have anything in common with NP and VP (Levin and Rappaport Hovav, 1995, p. 67). In example (24), the choice of NP *the phone* and VP *rang* is arbitrary and does not need to have any relation to *slumber*. NP and VP might theoretically have a relation to *slumber*, and it would make sense, but the relation is voluntary.

(24) The phone rang me out of my slumber.

(25) The system doesn't hallucinate meanings into the text.

## 4.2 Resultative phrase = Adjective phrase

AP is the second type of RP, which also appears at the end of the sentence. The examples below (26), (27) demonstrate that RP is also AP. In (26), AP appears as RP when modifying the object of a transitive verb. As seen in an example (26), *dry* is an AP modifying *the pub*, and there is a transitive verb *drank*. On the other hand, when AP is followed by intransitive verb such as *froze*, it typically describes the subject's state or a condition after the action has been completed. In (27), *solid* describes the *river's* state resulting from the action it has performed on itself (Goldberg and Jackendoff, 2004), (Christie, 2015):

(26) They drank the pub dry.

(27) The river froze solid.

The adjective in (26) is *dry*. In terms of meaning, *the pub* became *dry* because some people did the action and *drank* everything in the *pub*. This action led to the circumstance that *the pub* is empty and there is nothing to *drink*. On the other hand, it could imply that people drank a large amount of alcohol there, but some drinks remained.

The example (27) shows intransitive verb *froze* that is followed by RP *solid*. This RP is also AP which shows the state of the *river*. This sentence shows that *the river* has *frozen* by itself. Consequently, there is no agent that would do the action. Almost certainly, the weather and temperature are consequences of the *frozen river*.

### Transitive verb within resultative sentence

Here are some more examples where AP modifies the object of a transitive verb (Levin, 1993, p. 100):

(28) She painted the wall green.

(29) Pauline hammered the metal flat.

(30) Jasmine pushed the door open.

(31) The guests drank the teapot dry.

In (28) (29) (30) and (31), there are transitive verbs *painted*, *hammered*, *pushed*, and *drank*. Modified objects of resultative sentences are *the wall*, *the metal*, *the door*, *the teapot*, and *the stove*. In (28), *green* modifies *the wall*. In (29), *flat* modifies *the metal*. In (30), *open* modifies *the door*. And in (31), *dry* modifies *the teapot*.

### Intransitive verb within resultative sentence

The examples of AP which describes the subject's state or a condition when AP is followed by intransitive verb follows (Levin, 1993, p. 100). In the example (32), AP *shut* describes the condition of *the door*. The action of *sliding* happened by itself without any person being involved. Other examples of resultative sentences with intransitive verbs include (33) and (34). The construction (33) denotes that *the bottle broke* on its own, whereas the AP *open* describes the conditions of *the bottle*. The sentence (34) contains AP *solid* which describes the state of *the river*. All three sentences might end with the verbs, and still be grammatically correct, which makes the verbs intransitive. In other words, all RPs *shut*, *open* and *solid* may be omitted without violating any grammatical rule (Akiko, 1997, p. 283).

(32) The door slid shut.

(33) The bottle broke open.

(34) The river froze solid.



## 5 Verbs

### 5.1 Transitive

The transitivity of verbs is a distinction that is more closely connected to resultative sentences. They can either behave transitively or intransitively. A typical feature of transitive verb is that the sentence cannot stop with the verb because the sentence would be grammatically incorrect. In other words, the object must come after the verb. The following are examples of transitive verbs: *Bring, like, carry, need, get, or find*. As shown in the example (35), this verb must have an object (Crystal, 2019, p. 224). The verb *find* requires an object which is the word *bone* here. The sentence is not grammatical when the word *bone* is omitted. We cannot use *The dog found*.

(35) The dog found a bone.

In terms of semantics, some words have a specific meaning within a resultative sentence. For instance, the word *pound*. Levin and Rappaport Hovav (1995) describe the meaning of *pound* this way: “Cause to change state by means of contact by impact”. Therefore, the action of a person means a change of state. This can be illustrated below in (36). *Pam* uses the power to change *the metal* by hitting it (Levin and Rappaport Hovav, 1995, p. 74).

(36) Pam pounded the metal flat.

#### Transitive resultatives

##### 1. Selected

Transitive resultatives might be divided into two categories, selected and unselected. In selected ones, the direct object is selected by the verb randomly. In these resultatives, RP can be omitted, and the sentences will still make sense. In terms of RP, both AP and PP can be omitted. This is illustrated in examples (37), (38) from Goldberg and Jackendoff (2004, 536):

(37) The gardener watered the flowers flat.

(38) Bill broke the bathtub into pieces.

In (37) RP is *flat* being AP at the same time. In (38) RP is *into pieces*, and it is PP. In both cases, RPs can be omitted, and the sentences will be still grammatically correct. Then, the sentences are as follows: (37) *The gardener watered the flowers* and (38) *Bill broke the bathtub*.

##### 2. Unselected

Unselected transitive resultatives are the opposite of selected in terms of RP omission. Here, RPs cannot be omitted, otherwise the sentence would be ungrammatical. This is illustrated in examples below (39), (40) (Goldberg and Jackendoff, 2004, 536).

(39) They drank the pub dry.

(40) The professor talked us into a stupor.

In (39), RP *dry* is AP in parallel. In (40), RP *into a stupor* is PP. In case of RP omission, the sentences would be grammatically incorrect and look like this: (39) \**They drank the pub*. In (39), it does not make sense to drink the pub as we cannot drink any building. In (40) \* *The professor talked us*. The example (40) sounds strange and does not make sense. It might be changed into meaningful sentence by switching the verb *talked* to *told*, for instance.

Additionally, there is a unique type of unselected transitive resultative known as the “fake reflexive” resultative. This type of resultative has unchangeable reflexive object. In other words, the reflexive object in this context is a reflexive pronoun such as *himself*, *herself*, and *themselves*. In resultative sentences, the reflexive pronoun must be followed by another word, as shown in examples (41) and (42) below (Goldberg and Jackendoff, 2004, 536).

(41) We yelled ourselves hoarse.

(42) Harry coughed himself into insensibility.

In (41) and (42), the reflexive pronoun cannot be the final word. Otherwise, the sentence is grammatically incorrect. The following AP or PP must follow the fake reflexive. In addition, the reflexive pronouns cannot be replaced by other NPs. This is illustrated in example (41) here: \**We yelled Harry hoarse*. Examples (41) and (42) are ungrammatical when uttered this way: (33) \**We yelled ourselves* and (34) \**Harry coughed himself*.

### **Ditransitive verbs**

A ditransitive verb is one that has two objects. That usually refers to the direct and indirect objects of a sentence. For the verb's meaning to be clear, it must be followed by a noun or a pronoun. Here are some examples of ditransitive verbs in use (Carnie, 2012, p. 59):

(43) I spared him the trouble.

(44) I put the book in the box.

(45) I gave the box to Leah.            vs            I gave Leah the box.

There are essentially three types of ditransitive verbs as seen in examples (43), (44) and (45) above. Example (43) requires two NP objects, *him* and *trouble*. Example (44) shows that the verb *put* requires NP *the book* and PP *in the box*. Additionally, the example (45) shows that there are ditransitive verbs that seem to combine these two types and allow either NP or PP in

the second position. Specifically, *the box* and *Leah* might be interchanged. This can be all summarized in the chart below (Carnie, 2012, p.60).

V <sub>[NP __ NP NP]</sub> (ditransitive type 1)	<i>spare</i>
V <sub>[NP __ NP PP]</sub> (ditransitive type 2)	<i>put</i>
V <sub>[NP __ NP [NP/PP]]</sub> (ditransitive type 3)	<i>give</i>

Figure 5 Types of ditransitive verbs (From Carnie, 2012, p. 60)

## 5.2 Intransitive

A common feature of intransitive verbs is that the sentence can end with the verb and still be grammatically correct. They can be used in the absence of an object. Some examples of common intransitive verbs are: *Go, fall, appear, wait, matter, or happen* (Crystal, 2019, p. 224). In an example sentence (46), the verb *wait* does not need to be followed by an object. The sentence might have this form and it is grammatically correct. The sentence can be prolonged by adding for example *for him*, but this addition is voluntary.

Regarding intransitive resultatives, a direct object may be absent, and the RP comes immediately after the verb. This is demonstrated in examples (47) and (48) (Goldberg and Jackendoff, 2004, 536). RP in (47) is *solid* which is AP. RP in (48) is *of the room* which is PP. Both RPs come immediately after the intransitive verbs *froze* and *rolled out*.

(46) I did not have to wait.

(47) The pond froze solid.

(48) Bill rolled out of the room.

Some verbs might also be both transitive and intransitive as shown in examples below (Finegan, 2018, p. 152). These verbs are *win, sing, or study*.

Intransitive	Transitive
Josh won.	Josh won a prize.
Taylor sings.	Taylor sings lullabies.
Suze studied at Oxford.	Suze studies economics at Oxford.

Figure 6 Transitive and intransitive verb (From Finegan, 2018, p.152)

### 5.3 Unaccusative

Unaccusative verbs do not need a fake reflexive within the resultative construction. (Christie, 2015, p.16). The subject does not initiate the action expressed by the verb. If there is no object in the resultative, the verb is unaccusative (Levin and Rappaport Hovav, 1995). The examples (49), (50), (51) below demonstrate this (Levin and Rappaport Hovav, 1995, p. 39). The example (49) demonstrates that *the river froze* on its own. Water's solidification occurred on its own and it was most likely caused by the weather. Furthermore, there is no one who would initiate the action in examples (50) and (51). In (50), *the bottle broke* on its own, most likely due to environmental factors such as heat or pressure. In (51), *the gate swings* by itself, most likely due to wind.

(49) The river froze solid.

(50) The bottle broke open.

(51) The gate swung shut.

In terms of resultative phrases, they can follow the unaccusative verbs *froze*, *broke*, and *swung* as shown in (49), (50) and (51). RPs are *solid*, *open*, and *shut* which are adjectives. RPs followed by unaccusative verbs such as *broke* or *beaten* can also be PPs *to pieces* or *to death* as shown in examples (52), (53) below (Levin and Malka Rappaport, 1995, p. 52).

(52) The vase broke to pieces.

(53) Moshe was beaten to death.

In examples (49), (50), (51), (52) and (53), all verbs are intransitive, therefore the sentences might stop with those verbs. Specifically, those intransitive verbs are *froze*, *broke*, *swung*, *broke* and *beaten*. On the other hand, there exist stative verbs such as *remain*, *smell*, *feel*, *appear*, *imagine*, *believe*, or *survive* which are not compatible with RPs (Levin and Rappaport Hovav, 1995, p. 61).

### 5.4 Unergative

Unergative resultatives require a fake reflexive object such as *himself*, *herself*, or *themselves* (Christie, 2015, p.16). Therefore, if there is a fake reflexive in the resultative, it can be assumed that the verb is unergative. Examples below (54), (55) show unergative verbs within the construction (Levin, Rappaport Hovav, 1995, p. 35). In example (54), there is a verb *shout* which is unergative here because it precedes the fake reflexive object *herself* which makes the verb unergative. In example (55), unergative verb is *laugh*. In both examples, it is necessary to use fake reflexive *herself/themselves*, otherwise the sentence would be ungrammatical.

(54) Dora shouted herself hoarse.

(55) Officers laugh themselves helpless.

Levin and Rappaport Hovav (1995, p. 52) also asserts that RPs cannot be simply followed by unergative verbs. This is a significant difference between unaccusative and unergative verbs in terms of RP addition. As seen in examples (54) and (55), RPs *hoarse* and *helpless* are not followed by unergative verbs *shouted* and *laugh*. There is a fake reflexive *herself* and *themselves* that stands between the unergative verb and RP. Examples (54) and (55) include RPs that are APs. However, more examples are demonstrated (56), (57) below where RPs are PPs (Levin and Rappaport Hovav, 1995, p. 52).

(56) The armies fought each other to pieces.

(57) Rina ran herself to death.

On the contrary, an unergative verb *run* can be used if it changes the state of a thing by a person. This use of *run* eliminates the need for a fake reflexive. It is demonstrated in the following example (58) (Levin and Rappaport Hovav, 1995, p. 53).

(58) The joggers ran the pavement thin.

As seen in the examples above, unergative verbs are also intransitive verbs. It indicates that the sentence can end with the verb and does not require further words. To illustrate this, the preceding sentences can be condensed as follows: *Dora shouted. Officers laugh. The armies fought. Rina ran. The joggers ran.* Besides, there are more unergative verbs such as *yell*, *grumble*, *bark*, or *cry* (Levin and Rappaport Hovav, 1995, p. 36).

### **Summary**

To summarise, an intransitive verb is one that appears in a sentence without a direct object. *Cry*, *hurry*, *laugh*, and *disappear* are examples of intransitive verbs that can exist without a direct object. Conversely, transitive verbs are those that are used in sentences with a direct object. Examples include *make*, *buy*, and *find*, as in *buy a motorbike* or *find a penny*. While some verbs can be both transitive and intransitive, others can only be transitive or intransitive (Finegan, 2018). In addition, a ditransitive verb has two objects and is typically followed by the direct and indirect objects of the sentence, though it may also be followed by the direct object and an object complement (Carnie, 2012).

According to Levin and Rappaport Hovav (1995), there is a distinction between unergative and unaccusative verbs within a resultative construction. These two types of verbs have distinct behaviours. Unaccusative verbs do not require fake reflexives within the resultative. However, unergative verbs require fake reflexives. Christie (2015) also mentions

that in unergative resultatives, a fake reflexive is required. On the other hand, unaccusative resultatives do not require a fake reflexive. In conclusion, Levin, Rappaport, and Christie all agree on the definition of unaccusative and unergative verbs.

## 6 Syntax of resultative sentence

Syntax is the study of sentence structure. It studies how sentence components are arranged and assembled. The word “syntax” has a Greek origin, and it means “arrangement” or “putting together” (Yule, 2020, p.112). The rules governing how words and groups of words can be arranged make up most of the English grammar because word order is at the core of syntax (Crystal, 2019, p. 226).

### Syntax of resultative sentences

The shortest clause type is made up of a subject and a verb. For example, *I yawned*. This clause is enough to be grammatical in English. Nevertheless, the structure of a resultative sentence differs because someone or something initiates the action denoted by the verb and causes something to change. Therefore, two shortest structures of a resultative sentence are: Subject (S) + Verb (V) + Complement (C) as seen below in 1, or Subject (S) + Verb (V) + Adverbial (A) as seen in the sentence 2. (Crystal, 2019, p. 233). He also presents another two clause types which might be resultatives as seen in example sentences 3 and 4.

**1. S + V + C**

The lake (S) froze (V) solid (C).

**2. S + V + A**

Bill (S) rolled (V) out of the room (A).

**3. S + V + O + C**

Tom (S) hammered (V) the metal (O) flat (C).

**4. S + V + O + A**

Bill (S) broke (V) the bathtub (O) into pieces (A).

The preceding examples demonstrate that resultative sentences typically contain three of four elements. The resultatives are made up of a subject and a verb, followed by a complement or an adverbial. Complements are mostly APs such as *solid* or *flat* in 1 and 3. Complements can be associated with either the subject or the object. To summarise, RPs have a complement in the form of APs. Adverbials, on the other hand, take the form of RPs, which are PPs. For instance, adverbials in examples 2 and 4 are *out of the room* and *into pieces*. Adverbials are commonly found at the end of sentences and can express a variety of meanings such as location, time, or manner. The adverbial in example 2 expresses a location, whereas the adverbial in example 4 expresses a manner. Adverbials, which appear as PPs, provide additional information about an event. This is shown in 2 and 4 where RP/PP may be omitted, and the

sentences would still be grammatically correct. Whereas adverbials *out of the room* and *into pieces* add more information (Crystal, 2019, p. 233).

### Syntax of prepositional phrases

In English prepositional phrases, there is a rule that a preposition comes before NP. It is important to mention “the noun phrase” because “noun” is insufficient. Noun phrases include proper nouns such as *Paris*, pronouns such as *me*, or articles with a noun such as *the cat*. If there were a rule that a preposition must come before the noun, there would be room for an ungrammatical structure such as *with cat*, which lacks the article *a*. (Yule, 2020, p. 99). Figure 7 below shows the structure of PPs at the right column. First PP *from Brazil* consists of the preposition *from* and the proper noun *Brazil*. The second PP is longer and includes the preposition *in*, the indefinite article *a* and the noun *cage*. Besides that, there might also be longer PPs with four words such as *out of the room*.

Noun phrase	Verb	Noun phrase	Prepositional phrase
The old woman She	brought kept	a large snake it	from Brazil in a cage

Figure 7 Constituent structure of English sentences (From Yule, 2020, p. 99)

### Subjects, objects, and adjuncts

The terms "subject" and "object" are used to describe the various functions of NPs in sentences. The subject is the first NP before the verb, while the object is the second NP after the verb. Furthermore, there is another phrase at the end of the sentence called "adjunct". Additional information such as when, how, or where something occurred is provided by this adjunct. Adjuncts could be PPs and figure 8 shows an illustration of this structure (Yule, 2020, p. 100).

Subject	Verb	Object	Adjunct
The old woman She	brought kept	a large snake it	from Brazil in a cage

Figure 8 Subject and object in English sentence (From Yule, 2020, p. 100)

There are more obvious differences between subjects and objects. The subject is typically a person or thing that performs the action of the verb. On the other hand, the object is



a person or thing that undergoes the action. Figure 9 depicts a summary of the differences between subject and object (Yule, 2020, p. 100).

<b>Subjects</b>	<b>Objects</b>
• the first noun phrase	• the noun phrase after the verb
• controls the verb (singular or plural)	• no influence on verb
• often performs the action	• often undergoes the action
• pronouns: <i>I, he, she, we, they</i>	• <i>me, him, her, us, them</i>

*Figure 9* Differences between subject and object as noun phrase (From Yule, 2020, p. 100)

## 7 Resultative versus depictive construction

A resultative sentence must undergo a change of state. A person or thing causes the change. Nonetheless, there are some sentences that appear to be resultatives at first glance, but they are not. This is because the main verb in the sentence does not cause the result. The example (59) below (Goldberg and Jackendoff, 2004, p. 536) shows that the sentence includes the verb *handed* and the adjective *wet*. However, the word *wet* is not the RP because the action of *handing* does not cause *the towel* to become *wet*. *The towel* could have been *wet* before it was handed to *him*. Consequently, the person did not necessarily make the *towel wet*. In other words, the verb *handed* does not cause the *towel* to be *wet*.

(59) She handed him the towel wet.

Christie (2015, p. 3) also mentions the idea of causation. A typical feature of resultative construction is the action caused by someone resulting in something. Nevertheless, some sentences do not cause anything to happen. Christie describes this sentence as a depictive construction which needs to be distinguished from a resultative one. The example of depictive construction follows (Christie, 2015, p. 3). Semantically, example (60) only describes *Kevin serving the soup*. At the same time, when *Kevin* was *-serving the soup*, *the soup* was already *cold*. Therefore, *Kevin* did not cause *the soup* being *cold* by *-serving* it. *The soup* did not undergo any change of state.

(60) Kevin served the soup cold.

## 8 Practical part

This paper contains two research sections. The first section is about teachers and their perspectives on teaching resultative phrases. They express their thoughts on whether resultative phrases are appropriate for lower secondary school students. The second part deals with the students. It focuses on the translation of selected resultative phrases, and it examines to what extent these phrases are comprehensible for 9<sup>th</sup> grade students.

The research questions to be addressed in the first section are as follows: Do English teachers in lower secondary school teach resultative phrases? How do they perceive them? The second part deals with these research questions: To what extent are English resultative phrases comprehensible for 9<sup>th</sup> grade students? Do these English resultative phrases have equivalent to Czech ones?

### 8.1 Methodology

#### Basic information

The research was carried out in a lower secondary school in the Czech Republic. The school is in the small town of Bludov in Northern Moravia. It has students not only from Bludov, but also from nearby villages such as Bohutín, Chroмеč, and Vyšehoří. As a result, students from various villages are mixed together in lower secondary school classes. Bludov is one of the biggest schools in the area.

#### A note about terminology

There are some discrepancies in school terminology. There are some differences in school terminology. Specifically, educational levels. Some readers may be confused by these terms because the Czech education system differs from that of other countries. Furthermore, English terminology varies across countries. The terms used by Americans may differ from those used by the British. As a result, three terms are used in this paper that need to be defined. These terms are based on the Czech educational system.

These terms are: Primary school, lower secondary school, and upper secondary school. At primary school, pupils visit 1<sup>st</sup>, 2<sup>nd</sup>, 3<sup>rd</sup>, 4<sup>th</sup>, and 5<sup>th</sup> grade, and they are six to eleven years old. At lower secondary school, pupils visit 6<sup>th</sup>, 7<sup>th</sup>, 8<sup>th</sup>, and 9<sup>th</sup> grade, and they are eleven to fifteen years old. Additionally, upper secondary school usually attend students from fifteen to nineteen years old. Primary and lower secondary schools are compulsory to attend, whereas the upper secondary schools are attended voluntarily. In this paper, I focus on lower secondary school level.

### **Data gathering process**

The study included both students and teachers. The data was collected in April 2023. The survey results were written down on a questionnaire sheet. This sheet is listed in the annex. Students were approached individually and asked to complete sheets in their English classes. Teachers were also all approached personally so that there was a greater probability of participating in the questionnaire. Thus, no one was contacted via email or direct phone call. The questionnaire sheet was designed, and it is an original.

In approximately fifteen minutes, students completed the research sheet. Most students were willing to cooperate, creating a pleasant classroom environment. Teachers were given the research paper with no time limit and instructed to complete it as soon as possible. All the teachers were willing to take part in the study because they were both interested and inquisitive.

### **Teachers**

The sheet was distributed to English teachers who primarily instruct classes in lower secondary schools. Lower secondary school grades consist of 6th, 7th, 8th, and 9th grades. Children in these classes range in age from 11 to 15 years. The research focuses on 9th grade students, the majority of whom are 15 years old. There are seven English teachers in Bludov, and all seven filled the survey. Sometimes, the English classes are divided into two groups. For example, grade 7.A could be divided into two groups, and so could grade 7.B. Therefore, in theory, four teachers could teach 7th graders. The class division is dependent on numerous factors, including the number of students, the number of students with special educational needs, the number of qualified English teachers, the availability of classrooms, and the school's financial resources.

Questionnaires sheets are open-ended, and they investigate resultative phrases. Especially if teachers are familiar with them and teach them in English classes. The sheet was personally distributed to teachers and briefly explained. The explanation focused on what RPs are. Because those phrases are not commonly used, known, or taught, the explanation is believed to be necessary. Furthermore, if the teacher had any questions about the sheet and needed clarification, that information was provided. Aside from that, the questionnaire's questions were translated into Czech language because some teachers might not have sufficient knowledge to comprehend it. In particular, those who teach 6th or 7th grade or who teach English but do not have a teaching qualification for teaching English. Furthermore, the Czech translation provided support and assistance to teachers. However, only the English sheet was filled in. The research involved all seven teachers.

## Students

The questionnaire sheet was presented to two classes. The first class is 9.B, which I teach, and the second class is 9.A, which is taught by my colleague. I swapped an English class with a colleague for the purpose of being present and managing the research in 9.A.

The sheet included ten sentences, of which five addressed RPs as APs and five as PPs. The order of the resultative sentences was chosen at random. Nevertheless, they considered the level of English so that 9th grade students could understand it. According to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages, the vocabulary in those phrases should be comprehensible to most students, whose English level should be A2.

The procedure was the same in both classes where the research was conducted. Firstly, I explained to students what the purpose of the sheet is and what they are going to do with it. Secondly, I handed them the sheet and instructed them to translate the sentences as accurately as possible. Their goal was to have those sentences translated into Czech. Finally, after translating the sentences, the sheets were collected and analysed. The sheet took approximately fifteen minutes to complete.

In 9.A, eighteen students participated in the research, with three sheets being eliminated due to the students' language barrier. Two students are of different nationalities, and one has a very poor command of the English language. To summarise, fifteen sheets from 9.A were examined. In 9.B, on the other hand, eighteen students took part in the research. Due to the low level of English, two sheets were eliminated. These discarded sheets add no value to the research. As a result, sixteen sheets from 9.B were analysed in overall. In total, thirty-one sheets were examined in this research.

## 8.2 Teachers

Each open-ended question was read and analysed to process the data gathered from teachers. The answers to these questions are presented in a meaningful manner here. First, each questionnaire sheet was examined individually. Then, common concepts were put together, and various ideas were examined. Finally, at the end of this subchapter, all of the findings are summarised. The sheet distributed to teachers is listed in the appendix.

### 8.2.1 Teacher 1

#### **The translation of the resultative sentences from English to Czech:**

*Jezero úplně zamrzlo.*

*Tom rozbil umyvadlo na kousky.*

*Upil se k smrti.*

The teacher instructs students in grades 3 and 4. She also teaches English conversation, which is a voluntary subject chosen by students at the beginning of the school year. Students in the 8th and 9th grades take the class "conversation in English."

Some types of RPs are familiar to the teacher. She has heard them both in college and in films or videos. She believes that when teaching RPs, students will benefit from learning new vocabulary and phrases. These types of phrases, on the other hand, may be difficult for students to learn and understand. She also claims that she would not teach those phrases because they are too difficult to translate, even for students in 9th grade. She would only teach these phrases if the course book included them.

She believes that teaching these phrases will help her understand texts and films better. Nonetheless, there are some difficulties in teaching these phrases, such as incorrect translation or dealing with sentence structure. As a result, she believes that these phrases are inappropriate for lower secondary school students.

#### 8.2.2 Teacher 2

##### **The translation of the resultative sentences from English to Czech:**

*Jezero zcela zamrzlo.*

*Tom rozbil dřez na kusy.*

*Upil se k smrti.*

She teaches 6th grade students. These are common phrases that the teacher is familiar with. She claims that she came across idiomatic expressions such as *freeze solid*, which is a Czech translation of *promrznout na kost*. She also asserts that she would not have chosen to use such a Czech translation in the first sentence considering the *lake*.

Concerning the benefits for students, she believes that these types of phrases are simple for students to understand because similar phrases are used in Czech as well. She specifically means phrases *into pieces* and *to death*.

Furthermore, she would consider mentioning these phrases in English lessons, however she is not sure about "teaching" them. She could bring up the phrase *drink to death* in a lesson about celebrities and life stories. Furthermore, she would use the phrase *into pieces* when teaching phrases with break/broke/broken, or when the phrase is included in a story. She mentions another example sentence: *The plate broke into pieces*.

In terms of the advantages and disadvantages of teaching these resultative phrases, she claims that she has not used them in years. She would need to re-learn these phrases and sees this as a benefit. On the contrary, she makes no mention of any difficulties she

might encounter while teaching RPs. She also claims that RPs are typically found in advanced texts or are used with the past tense. As a result, she believes that RPs are appropriate for students in the 8th and 9th grades.

### 8.2.3 Teacher 3

#### **The translation of the resultative sentences from English to Czech:**

*Jezero zamrzlo.*

*Tom rozbil dřež na kousky.*

*Upil se k smrti.*

The teacher teaches 6th grade. She claims to have seen these phrases before, but she had not realised they are known as resultative phrases. She believes that learning a new vocabulary, as well as practising parts of speech such as nouns, verbs, adjectives, and prepositions, may be beneficial to students. On the contrary, students' limited vocabulary may be a barrier to learning these phrases.

She would make some reference to the RPs in her lessons, but she would not teach them directly. When mentioning these phrases in an English class, she would link them to articles or videos about famous people. Aside from that, she may use RPs in lessons to practise translation. Translation activities could be done on tablets or smartphones, and students could practise using a good translator to assist them.

In terms of benefits, she is open to learning something new in general, but she specifically mentions that she can improve her vocabulary. She does, however, mention certain challenges in teaching these phrases, such as feeling insecure in front of the class. Her insecurity implies that she is unfamiliar with the phrases and is not confident enough to use them in the lessons. As a result, she believes that RPs can be used in 8th and 9th grade, but they are probably better suited for upper secondary school students.

### 8.2.4 Teacher 4

#### **The translation of the resultative sentences from English to Czech:**

*Jezero zamrzlo.*

*Tom roztránil dřež.*

*Upil se k smrti.*

This school year, she teaches 8<sup>th</sup> grades. She does not use these phrases in her everyday English, because she does not teach levels high enough to teach these phrases. She knows these phrases mostly from books. She does not teach the phrases because this particular grammar is not a part of our national curriculum. She believes that the students at primary school should

deal with more important grammar issues. Nevertheless, when mentioned in the class, students might have some difficulties with sentence structure, irregular verbs or with past tenses in general.

She would not consider teaching them because this type of grammar is not essential for primary school students. She would only teach more advanced students in lessons which are aimed to particular speaking skills. As a beneficial for the teacher, she believes that all useful phrases are good to know, so when introducing these phrases to students, she might learn something new as well. Besides that, she claims that teaching is challenging not only when teaching RPs, but in general.

To sum up the suitability of RPs for students, she believes that they are difficult for such young learners. They might be confused when dealing with them, therefore, she would not teach these phrases.

#### 8.2.5 Teacher 5

##### **The translation of the resultative sentences from English to Czech:**

*Jezero pevně zmrzlo.*

*Tom rozbil umyvadlo na kousky.*

*Upil se k smrti.*

He teaches 6th grade and has heard these phrases before in TV shows or stories. He claims that by learning RPs, students can expand their vocabulary and learn something new and unusual. On the contrary, students may find it difficult to deal with these phrases.

He would not teach these phrases separately but would show them to students at some point. He would prefer to teach these phrases in 9th grade, and he would incorporate RPs into engaging topics such as movies or songs. In terms of advantages, he claims that he may learn something new about the English language. Nevertheless, he would have to teach himself these phrases before teaching them to others, which could be challenging.

To sum up, he claims that English RPs are appropriate for 9th grade students but may be difficult for lower classes.

#### 8.2.6 Teacher 6

##### **The translation of the resultative sentences from English to Czech:**

*Jezero zamrzlo.*

*Tom rozbil umyvadlo na kousky.*

*Upil se k smrti.*



She teaches 4th and 7th grade and claims to have never heard these phrases before. Or she may have seen them but cannot recall where. She makes no mention of any student benefits because she believes that students in primary and lower secondary school should not learn these types of phrases because they are too difficult for them. However, if they are learned, she mentions some difficulties that students may face, such as understanding or constructing these phrases.

She would not consider teaching these phrases because she believes that some students lack basic grammar skills, such as using the present or past tense. As a result, she may teach these phrases later, most likely at the lower secondary school level. She also mentions that these types of sentences may be appealing to gifted children because they enjoy the language and are genuinely interested in it.

To summarise, she claims that these structures are too difficult for students to understand. She also questions whether these phrases are important and how frequently students will use them in the future. As a consequence, she claims that RPs are inappropriate for students in lower secondary school.

#### 8.2.7 Teacher 7

##### **The translation of the resultative sentences from English to Czech:**

*Jezero zcela zmrzlo.*

*Rozbil dřež na kusy.*

*Upil se k smrti.*

She currently teaches 8th and 9th grade. She has previously encountered similar phrases and asserts that they are similar to Czech ones. She believes that students could improve their capacity to create new sentences and acquire new vocabulary. On the other hand, she finds the complexity of phrases and their comprehension difficult.

She might consider teaching them. She believes that students will understand them but will be unable to apply them. She most likely means that students will no longer use these phrases in the future. Besides that, in 9th grade, she would teach RPs when dealing with a specific type of vocabulary. She also believes that teaching these expressions can be fun. However, teaching these phrases may be challenging due to students' lack of knowledge.

To summarise, she believes that students have a lot to learn at primary and lower secondary school levels and thus, it is preferable to deal with RPs at the upper secondary school level.

### 8.2.8 Summary

#### **Sentences used in the questionnaire sheet:**

1. *The lake froze solid.*
2. *Tom broke the sink into pieces.*
3. *He drank himself to death.*

All seven teachers understood and were able to translate the resultative sentences used in the questionnaire sheet. The translations are mostly identical. There are only minor differences in word structure between *zmrzlo* and *zamrzlo*. Another example of this subtle distinction is *na kousky* versus *na kusy*. Because the Czech language allows for this type of flexibility, the meaning of these phrases remains consistent. Furthermore, the word *sink* was translated into two different Czech synonyms, but both are correct because they essentially mean the same thing. The word *sink* was translated into *dřez* or *umyvadlo*. Sentence (1) also includes other synonymous translations into Czech, such as *úplně*, *zcela*, and *pevně*.

Because of the synonymous words, sentence (1) differed the most in full sentence translation. This sentence might have been the most difficult to translate because this sentence structure is not used in Czech. Moreover, six of the seven teachers translated the sentence (2) the same way when the synonymous words were considered. One teacher used an interesting translation, *Tom rozřídil dřez*, which denotes "the sink is broken into pieces," but the English PP is not directly translated into Czech PP. The other six teachers translated this sentence (2), maintaining the PP at the end. This means that English PP *into pieces* remains referred to as Czech PP *na kousky/na kusy*. Furthermore, sentence (3) had the most consistent translation into Czech. This sentence was translated exactly the same by all seven teachers, with no word changes. This translation also preserved English PP *to death* into Czech PP *k smrti*.

Six out of seven teachers have seen resultative sentences and RPs before and are acquainted with them to some extent. They typically hear these phrases in books, films, or TV shows. Nonetheless, one teacher is unfamiliar with resultatives because she has never seen them before.

In terms of student benefits, most teachers mention that students can expand their vocabulary and learn new words and phrases. Two teachers, on the other hand, do not mention any specific benefits for English learners because they find these phrases difficult or useless to learn.

According to the teachers, the most difficult aspects of learning RPs are a lack of understanding, a lack of grammar and vocabulary knowledge, and an overall difficulty. These

observations are logical because, according to the Common European Framework of Reference, English learners in lower secondary schools have an A2 level. This means that learners can only understand a small number of RPs and constructions. The majority of these structures appear to be appropriate for upper secondary school or university students.

Six out of seven teachers would not directly teach resultatives and RPs in lower secondary school for a variety of reasons. Nonetheless, under certain circumstances, some of them would mention or show them to students. If they were mentioned in the lesson, teachers would use these phrases in connection with famous people, celebrities, life stories, films, songs, or when learning new vocabulary.

There are some benefits as well as drawbacks for teachers when teaching these constructions. In terms of benefits, teachers mention better understanding of texts, vocabulary enrichment, having more fun in the classroom, and general knowledge expansion. As challenges, they point out translation issues, insecurity in front of the class, not knowing the phrases themselves, and inadequate student knowledge.

### 8.3 Students (RP = AP)

The following tables show students' translations of resultative constructions and phrases. The tables are divided into two columns. The larger one on the left illustrates the complete resultative construction, while the second column on the right shows the resultative phrase.

Ten sentences were analysed and translated by students. The first five sentences deal with RPs in the form of APs. The remaining five sentences feature RPs in the form of PPs. If the English AP or PP corresponds to the Czech AP or PP, it is written in the right column in the following way: **PP=PP** or **AP=AP**. It means that the English PP is equivalent to the Czech PP. The first two capital letters, as seen in parentheses (**PP=PP**) on the left belong to the English sentence, while the capital letters (**PP=PP**) on the right belong to the Czech sentence. Furthermore, these arrows are also used in the right column: →. It denotes a change in the type of phrase. For instance, if this combination in parentheses (**AP → PP**) is used, the English sentence includes RP that is AP, and the Czech equivalent sentence contains RP that is PP. As a result, when translated, English AP becomes Czech PP. There is also an abbreviation AdvP in the right column, which stands for adverbial phrase, which seems to appear as RP in Czech resultative constructions. Besides that, if there is no Czech equivalent, a hyphen is used to represent this: (-).

When referring to the meaning in the right column, the abbreviations PP, AP, and RP are only used when the Czech translation is believed to be correct. In other words, even if the RP (PP or AP) is equivalent to the English sentence, there is a hyphen (-) in the box if the Czech translation appears to be incorrect or too clumsy. Consequently, if any abbreviation (PP, AP, RP) appears in the right column, the translation is meaningful. Furthermore, the translation must adhere to the verb tense of the English sentence, therefore any change in verb tense is not permissible.

Firstly, student translations are presented in alphabetical order. Second, analysis follows, where the findings are discussed. These key points, comments, and findings are discussed further below the table. Because thirty-one questionnaire sheets were used for this study, thirty-one results were analysed in total. Some English resultatives may not have a Czech equivalent for a variety of reasons. Students might have found it difficult to translate, or their command of the English language might have been inadequate. The success of the translation was also likely determined by prior knowledge of these phrases and the level of idiomatic expressions. Therefore, some tables may contain lines with incomplete sentences. In addition, some lines only contain hyphens, indicating that a student was unable to translate the sentence.

### 8.3.1 The river froze solid

**RP = AP**

<b>The river froze solid</b>	<b>solid</b>
-----	-
Led na řece je pevný.	-
Řeka byla zamrzlá a tvrdá.	-
Řeka hodně zamrzla.	-
Řeka je hluboce zmrzlá.	-
Řeka je pevně zamrzlá.	-
Řeka je pevně zamrzlá.	-
Řeka natvrdo zmrzla.	-
Řeka pevně mrzla.	-
Řeka pevně zamrzla.	-
Řeka pevně zamrzla.	-
Řeka pevně zamrzla.	-
Řeka pevně zamrzla.	-
Řeka pevně zamrzla.	-
Řeka pevně zamrzla.	-
Řeka pevně zamrzla.	-
Řeka pevně zamrzla.	-

Řeka pevně zamrzlá.	-
Řeka pevně zamrzla.	-
Řeka pevně zmrzla.	-
Řeka silně zamrzla.	-
Řeka solidně zamrzla.	-
Řeka tvrdě zamrzla.	-
Řeka tvrdě zamrzla.	-
Řeka tvrdě zamrzla.	-
Řeka tvrdě zamrzne.	-
Řeka zamrzla do tvrda.	-
Řeka zamrzla.	-
Řeka zmrzla celá.	-
Řeka zmrzla.	-
Ta řeka je pevně zamrznutá.	-

This resultative is comprehensible for students in terms of meaning. The majority of students correctly used the past tense, which is crucial for retaining the meaning. All of the students were able to translate *river* into *řeka*. Then, the English AP *solid* was translated into synonyms such as *pevně*, *tvrdě*, *silně*, *solidně*, *hodně*, or *natvrdo*. These words are mostly interchangeable in the context of the sentence, with no meaning change. Nonetheless, in English resultative, the AP *solid* becomes an adverbial phrase (AdvP) in Czech. The Czech sentence requires the assistance of an adverb to become meaningful and make sense. This adverb typically occurs in the middle of a sentence, whereas English AP is found at the end.

Furthermore, the Czech sentence uses words with similar meanings to translate *froze*. Learners translated *froze* into *zmrzla*, *zamrzla*, or *zamrzla* which essentially means the same. This demonstrates the flexibility of the Czech lexicon.

Some students also used incorrect verb tenses when translating the resultative. Some of them used the present simple tense, implying that the *river* frequently becomes *frozen* and is probably still *frozen* now. However, the English resultative indicates that the *river* was *frozen* in the past, but it does not necessarily have to be *frozen* now. Therefore, using the present simple tense is incorrect. As a result of this observation, English AP *solid* and Czech AP *pevný* are equivalent, as shown in the table as the first sentence (*Led na řece je pevný*). It may appear to be equivalent at first glance, but it is not. The Czech translation is in the present tense, which makes the translation incorrect, and thus English *solid* does not correspond to Czech *pevný*.

Therefore, AP (RP) *solid* is not equivalent to the Czech adjective *pevný* in terms of their usage within a sentence. As a result, this construction is not prevalent in Czech and must be

translated in another manner. There are specific ways to translate it into Czech, such as using an adverb in the middle of the sentence. It should also be noted that the Czech translations contain no adjectives. The translations also indicate that these types of English constructions may not have a syntactical equivalent in Czech.

### 8.3.2 Sara painted the wall blue

**RP = AP**

<b>Sara painted the wall blue</b>	<b>blue</b>
Sára maluje modrou zed'.	-
Sára namalovala tu zed' modře.	AP → AdvP RP = RP
Sára vymalovala zed' modře.	AP → AdvP RP = RP
Sára nabarvila zed' modře.	AP → AdvP RP = RP
Sára vymalovala zed' modrou.	AP → NP RP = RP
Sára natřela zed' modrou.	AP → NP RP = RP
Sára pomalovala zed' modrou barvou.	AP → NP RP = RP
Sára malovala modrou zed'.	-
Sára barví zed' na modro.	-
Sára barví zed' na modro.	-
Sára nabarvila stěnu na modro.	AP → PP RP = RP
Sára nabarvila zed' na modro.	AP → PP RP = RP
Sára nabarvila zed' na modro.	AP → PP RP = RP
Sára namalovala stěnu na modro.	AP → PP RP = RP
Sára namalovala stěnu na modro.	AP → PP RP = RP
Sára namalovala zed' na modro.	AP → PP RP = RP
Sára namalovala zed' na modro.	AP → PP RP = RP
Sára namalovala zed' na modro.	AP → PP RP = RP
Sára namalovala zed' na modro.	AP → PP RP = RP
Sára namalovala zed' na modro.	AP → PP RP = RP
Sára namalovala zed' na modro.	AP → PP RP = RP
Sára namalovala zed' na modro.	AP → PP RP = RP
Sára namalovala zed' na modro.	AP → PP RP = RP
Sára natřela zed' na modro.	AP → PP

	RP = RP
Sára natřela zeď na modro.	AP → PP RP = RP
Sára natřela zeď na modro.	AP → PP RP = RP
Sára natřela zeď na modro.	AP → PP RP = RP
Sára obarvila stěnu na modro.	AP → PP RP = RP
Sára přebarvila zeď na modro.	AP → PP RP = RP
Sára přemalovala zeď na modro.	AP → PP RP = RP
Sára vymalovala zeď na modro.	AP → PP RP = RP
Sára vymalovala zeď na modro.	AP → PP RP = RP

There are some synonyms to mention in the table above. To begin, *vymalovala*, *přemalovala*, *přebarvila*, *obarvila*, *natřela*, or *nabarvila* are all Czech translations of *painted*. *Vymalovala*, *obarvila*, *natřela*, and *nabarvila* are all synonymous and mean the same thing. However, in my opinion, *přemalovala* and *přebarvila* have slightly different meanings. It indicates that the *wall* has previously been *painted* and has recently been *painted*, for instance, for the second time. Therefore, the English equivalent of *přemalovala* and *přebarvila* could be *repainted*. Nonetheless, because none of these words alter the sentence's core meaning, they may be considered synonyms. Other synonymous words used in the construction are *zeď* and *stěna*, which both mean the same thing especially when it comes to painting something inside the house. *Zeď* and *stěna* are equivalents to the *wall*.

The sentence at the very top of the table contains a hyphen because there is no equivalent due to the inadequate translation. In the Czech translation, the student used the present continuous tense, which is not the case in the English sentence. Moreover, three students translated the sentence in such a way the English AP became the Czech AdvP. In terms of RP in this case, the Czech AdvP *modře* appears to correspond with English AP *blue*. Therefore, there may be cases in Czech where RP is AdvP, which is rarely seen in English constructions. Furthermore, I believe that these Czech sentences with AdvP could be considered resultatives because *Sára* performed the action of *painting*, and the *blue wall* is the result of her *painting*.

Additionally, three students translated AP *blue* to the Czech NPs *modrou* and *modrou barvou*. In this context, *modrou* is the same as *modrou barvou*, as *barvou* can be omitted and the sentence remains grammatically correct. Thus, although both phrases are RPs, the English

AP becomes the Czech NP. NPs are rarely used in English resultatives, whereas they seem to be used occasionally in Czech ones.

Additionally, there is also one translation in which English AP appears to correspond to Czech AP. The sentence is: *Sára malovala modrou zeď*. *Modrou* is an adjective in this context, however there are two problems with it that prove that English and Czech APs are not equivalent. Firstly, the Czech translation has a different meaning because it says *Sára was painting the wall* that is already *blue*. Thus, no one knows if *Sára* completed the *painting* or if she only *painting* some parts of the *wall*. This leads to the second point, which is that there is a difference in verb tense. The Czech sentence *Sára malovala modrou zeď* denotes the *painting* process, but there is no assurance that the *wall* was *painting* entirely. Therefore, this Czech sentence may be translated back to English as follows: *Sára was painting the blue wall*, which suggests that the past continuous tense was used. On the contrary, the example sentence contains the past simple verb *painting*, implying that the *painting* action was completed, and the *wall* is now *blue*. Therefore, this student's translation is not valid and does not correspond to English AP.

Regarding RPs in English and Czech resultatives, the majority of translations indicate that English AP *blue* becomes Czech PP *na modro* while both phrases remain RPs. The vast majority of the translations show this transition from English AP to Czech PP, and it appears to be the most natural translation. Moreover, most of the students found this resultative construction easy to translate because the sentence structure exists in Czech, and they have most likely heard this type of utterance before.

To summarise, the RP remains located at the end of the sentence, but the type of phrase changes from AP to PP. Therefore, English AP (RP) *blue* is not equivalent to Czech AP *modrý*.

### 8.3.3 The gardener watered the flowers flat

**RP = AP**

<b>The gardener watered the flowers flat</b>	<b>flat</b>
-----,	-
-----,	-
Zahradník -----,	-
Zahradník zaléval ploché kytky.	-
Zahradník chce být plný květin.	-
Zahradník polil květiny.	-
Zahradník políval plochu s květinami.	-
Zahradník posekal trávu placatě.	-
Zahradník přelil květiny.	-



Zahradník přelil záhon s květinami.	-
Zahradník rovnoměrně zalil květiny.	-
Zahradník rovnoměrně zalil kytky.	-
Zahradník se stará o placaté květiny.	-
Zahradník zaléval květiny do plocha.	-
Zahradník zaléval květiny v bytě.	-
Zahradník zaléval ploché květiny.	-
Zahradník zaléval záhon.	-
Zahradník zalil kompletně celé květiny.	-
Zahradník zalil květinový plac.	-
Zahradník zalil květinový plac.	-
Zahradník zalil květinový záhon.	-
Zahradník zalil květinový záhon.	-
Zahradník zalil květiny do placata.	-
Zahradník zalil kytky.	-
Zahradník zalil plochu kytek.	-
Zahradník zalil pozemní rostliny.	-
Zahradník zalil uschlé kytky.	-
Zahradník zalil zahrádku.	-
Zahradník zalil zahrádku.	-
Zahradník zalíval všechny květiny.	-
Zahradu zavlažuje vodní postřik.	-

This resultative construction and its accompanying RP posed a translation challenge for students. As shown in the table above, the majority of students have different translations. This difference indicates that the learners were unable to find a Czech equivalent for this construction. No one mentioned the Czech equivalent *placatý* or *plochý* when it came to RP *flat*. Therefore, there is no Czech equivalent to the English AP (RP) *flat*. Furthermore, this English construction implies that the Czech language does not use this sentence structure. It could be due to certain characteristics, such as verb choice. For instance, whereas the phrase *watered flat* appears to be challenging to translate for Czech students, the phrase *painted blue* from the previous example is easily translatable and understood. Although these phrases share features such as verb + adjective, past tense, or transitivity, there are obvious distinctions in translation. This problem could be caused by an arbitrary choice of the verb and its equivalent or non-equivalent in Czech. For some reason, the phrase *painted blue* is more comprehensible than *watered flat*.

The English adjective and RP *flat* were translated into Czech *as placatý*, *do plocha*, or *do placata*. These phrases, however, do not sound naturally. Furthermore, three students were

unable to translate the sentence at all, demonstrating the difficulty of translation. Furthermore, because the word *flat* has multiple meanings, it has caused ambiguity among some students. However, when considering word classes, there are two major meanings. It can be either an adjective or a noun, with completely different meanings. Nonetheless, some students mistook an adjective *flat* for a noun *flat*. The noun *flat* is a synonym for an *apartment*, which does not make sense in the context of the analysed construction. This ambiguity complicated the translation even further. Students' specific examples include: *byt plný květin* or *květiny v bytě*.

There are also mistakes related to the use of the appropriate tense. The Czech verbs translated by students imply that the *watering* process was ongoing and took some time. This signifies using the incorrect tense, which renders the translation invalid. Examples include *zaléval*, *zalíval*, and *políval*. These Czech verbs indicate the past continuous tense. Therefore, if translated back into English, the sentence would be as follows: *The gardener was watering the flowers flat*.

Certain translations are meaningful and satisfactory, but they lack the equivalent. For instance, *zahradník zalil zahrádku*. This sentence makes sense, but *zahrádka*, which is garden, back garden, small garden, or backyard in English, is not mentioned. *Zahradník zalil květinový záhon* is another example. This sentence is correct, but it disregards two important factors. In the first place, *květinový záhon* means "flowerbed" or "bed of flowers" in English, indicating a non-equivalent expression. Second, the Czech translation fails to incorporate the adjective *flat*.

In my opinion, the closest attempt to an accurate translation that includes the RP *flat* is: *Zahradník přelil květiny*. The term *přelil* refers to the act of overwatering something, particularly flowers. The bare form of the verb in the infinitive is *lít* (to water). Thus, the prefix *-pře* denotes that there is too much water to be poured, which may result in *flat flowers*. However, the verb *přelil* (overwater) can also mean that someone poured too much *water* on the *flowers*, causing them to float in the water but not to be *flat*. Therefore, it depends on the context of the utterance. The Czech translations seem to be correct and valid in the context when someone came to the garden and saw the *flowers* wet and *flat* at the same time. On the other hand, if the utterance is made without seeing the garden, it could mean something else. The recipient of the utterance may imagine the *flowers* wet and floating in water, but not *flat*. Although this translation is correct and satisfactory, it is difficult to claim that the sentence is resultative. In addition, the RP placement in the English sentence does not correspond to any Czech RP placement. As consequence, the English RP *flat* is not equivalent to the Czech

*plochý/placatý*. To summarise, this construction appears to be idiomatic, and Czech students have to utilise different words to convey the meaning in Czech.

#### 8.3.4 The bottle broke open

RP = AP

The bottle broke open	open
-----	-
-----	-
-----	-
Flaška má rozbitý vršek.	-
Flaška nešla otevřít.	-
Flaška se rozbila.	-
Flaška se rozbila.	-
Flaška se rozbila.	-
Láhev byla špatně otevřená.	-
Láhev je z venku rozbitá.	-
Láhev měla rozbité otevírání.	-
Láhev praskla.	-
Láhev rozbila otevírání.	-
Láhev se při otevření rozbila.	-
Láhev se při otevření rozbila.	-
Láhev se při otevření rozbila.	-
Láhev se rozbila do otevřena.	-
Láhev se rozbila.	-
Láhev se rozbila.	-
Láhev se rozložila.	-
Láhev se zlomila otevřená.	-
Láhev se zlomila.	-
Láhev zlomil a otevřel.	-
Na láhvi se rozbilo otevírání.	-
Otevírání flašky je rozbité.	-
Rozbil tlačítko a otevřel.	-
Rozbila se a otevřela se.	-
Rozbilo se otevírání flašky.	-
Rozbitá, otevřená láhev.	-
Ta flaška se rozbila celá.	-
Víčko láhve se rozbilo.	-

First and foremost, there are two synonymous words in Czech for bottle: *flaška* and *láhev*. They essentially mean the same thing, but *láhev* is more formal than *flaška*. In everyday

speech, the term *flaška* would be used. *Láhev*, on the other hand, would be used in formal situations and in written texts.

Students found it difficult to translate this construction. There are numerous translations available, many with a distinctive sentence structure. Based on the translations, it is possible to draw the conclusion that this sentence structure is incompatible with Czech sentence structure. To support this claim, three students were not able to translate this sentence at all. They may have been confused by the sentence's unusual structure, or they may have been not acquainted with certain words. In addition, a number of other translations appear and sound unnatural in Czech. Moreover, two translations appear to be equivalent in terms of RP position, but they are not. These sentences are: (1) *Láhev byla špatně otevřená* and (2) *Láhev se zlomila otevřená*. In terms of RP placement, AP *open* appears to be equivalent to Czech AP *otevřená*. There are, however, a few problems that lead to the conclusion that these translations are incorrect. Firstly, the translation of the words preceding *otevřená* in (1) does not correspond to the English counterpart. Second, there is an incorrect translation of *break* in (2), which has multiple meanings. Students' English levels are likely to include two basic definitions of *break*. *Break a leg* or *break a plate*. In the Czech language, the verb *break* is *zlomit* or *rozbít*. In sentence (2), these two meanings have been switched. As a result, the English RP *open*, as well as the entire construction, are not equivalent to Czech.

There is one interesting translation, *láhev se rozbila do otevřena*, which is the most similar to the English sentence in terms of syntax. It specifically replicates the word order. However, it sounds unnatural, and the Czechs would not use it in such a way.

Another thing to note is that this English sentence implies that the *bottle broke* on its own. No one was probably involved in the *bottle breaking*. Consequently, the *bottle* may have broken as a consequence of weather conditions such as heat, cold, or wind. The *bottle*, for example, could have *broken* due to the bubbles inside. On the contrary, the Czech sentence must use the reflexive pronoun *se*, which indicates that the *bottle broke* on its own without the involvement of anyone. The complete phrase, including the reflexive pronoun, is: *se rozbila*.

As previously discussed, English AP *open* is not equivalent to Czech *otevřený*. There are a few interesting translations that might be equivalent to the construction as a whole: (3) *Flaška (láhev) se rozbila*, and (4) *Láhev praskla*. Both sentences (3) and (4) convey a similar meaning. They are grammatical and frequently used among Czech speakers. Sentence (3) implies that the *bottle broke*, but it is not known to what extent. Similarly, sentence (4) suggests that the *bottle* is either *broken* into pieces or has a crack in it. Therefore, in my opinion, both

sentences are equivalent to the English one. The matter of whether two sentences are equivalent is further influenced by context. Because the sentences examined here are taken out of context, the Czech translations may be equivalent in one context but not in another.

There is also something intriguing to consider. What if the sentence was *the bottle broke* without the RP *open*? It might be interesting to consider how students would translate this sentence. It could have been easier for them because the RP *open* seems to confuse them. Moreover, when it comes to this sentence, it is difficult to translate the RP *open* into Czech. The meaning of these two sentences appears to be slightly different in English. (5) *The bottle broke* as compared to (6) *The bottle broke open*. The resultative (6) specifies how the *bottle* looked after being *broken*. Example (5), on the other hand, only states that the *bottle broke* and provides no further information about how the *bottle* looked after it was *broken*. Thus, the *bottle* in (5) might be slightly damaged or cracked. This subtle distinction is difficult to convey in Czech.

### 8.3.5 She ate herself sick

**RP = AP**

<b>She ate herself sick</b>	<b>sick</b>
-----	-
-----	-
-----	-
-----	-
Cítí se nemocná.	-
Cítíla, že je nemocná.	-
Jedla a byla z toho nemocná.	-
Jedla tak moc, že jí z toho bylo blbě.	-
Najedla se, až jí bylo zle.	AP → AdvP RP = RP
Nakazila se.	-
Ona je nemocná.	-
Ona jedla ---- nemocná.	-
Ona jedla prášky na nemoc.	-
Ona jedla.	-
Ona říkala, že je nemocná.	-
Ona se přejedla.	-
Ona se šíří svou nemocí.	-
Ona snědla něco špatného.	-
Onemocněla z jídla.	-
Onemocněla z jídla.	-
Onemocněla. Snědla to a udělalo se jí špatně.	-

Přejedla se (až jí bylo špatně).	-
Přejedla se až onemocněla.	-
Přejedla se, až jí bylo blbě.	AP → AdvP RP = RP
Přejedla se.	-
Snědla něco, co jí udělalo špatně.	AP → AdvP RP = RP
Snědla sebe sama.	-
Snědla svoji nemoc.	-
Snědla svou nemoc.	-
Sžírá se svou nemocí.	-
Zajídala svoji nemoc.	-

As seen in the sentences above, there is no obvious correspondence between the English sentence and its Czech translation. Students used a variety of expressions in an attempt to interpret it as accurately as possible. There are some noticeable mistakes as a result of insufficient knowledge and the overall difficulty of the construction. Because these constructions are rarely used in Czech, these sentences seem unclear or nonsensical. They might be used in a very specific situation and context, such as literary texts, films, or TV series. These are some examples of sentences: *Zajídala svoji nemoc*, *sžírá se svou nemocí*, *snědla svou nemoc*, and *snědla sebe sama*. On the contrary, these Czech translations do not correspond with the English sentence.

This English resultative was difficult to translate. Four students were unable to translate it at all, while one student only translated part of it. This type of English construction is not common in Czech, as proved by the translations above. Students were challenged to come up with unique and creative ways to make the Czech sentence logical. Some students added words to assist them, such as *tak moc*, *že jí*, or *najedla se, až jí*. Some students, on the other hand, omitted words to make it shorter, such as: *přejedla se*.

In terms of RP placement, the RP *sick* is clearly at the end of the sentence. However, RPs at the end of Czech sentences tend to be missing. *Nemocný/nemocná/nemocné* is the Czech equivalent of *sick*. This Czech adjective appears at the end of the six sentences, but it is not valid because the translations seem to be incorrect. Therefore, the sentences as a whole are not resultatives, and the adjectives *nemocná* are not RPs. Consequently, RPs in English sentences do not correspond to RPs in Czech sentences. The RPs are almost certainly non-existent in Czech translations. The incorrect translations are as follows: (1) *Cítí se nemocná*, (2) *Cítila, že je nemocná*, (3) *Jedla a byla z toho nemocná*, (4) *Ona jedla ----- nemocná*, (5) *Ona je nemocná*,

(6) *Ona říkala, že je nemocná.* These sentences appear to be correct at first glance, but they are not in the context of resultatives and their RPs.

Whereas the majority of translations vary in quality and meaning, there are some that seem to be close to the English counterpart. These translations do not include RP explicitly. The RP meaning, however, appears to be hidden within the words themselves. Consequently, the following lines deal with the whole structure. These sentences adhere to the verb tense in relation to the English resultative, and they are meaningful and widely used. The translations are as follows: (7) *Najedla se, až jí bylo zle.* (8) *Přejedla se, až jí bylo blbě.* (9) *Ona snědla něco špatného.* (10) *Onemocněla z jídla.* (11) *Přejedla se.* (12) *Snědla něco, co jí udělalo špatně.* These examples, in my opinion, are synonymous and demonstrate the flexibility of the Czech language, because all of them are correct in their respective contexts. Nevertheless, it is difficult to tell whether the sentences contain RP or if the Czech sentences are merely constructed differently.

## 8.4 Students (RP = PP)

### 8.4.1 Tom broke the sink into pieces

	<b>RP = PP</b>
<b>Tom broke the sink into pieces</b>	<b>into pieces</b>
Tom rozbil dřez na kousky.	PP = PP RP = RP
Tom rozbil sklenici na kousky.	PP = PP RP = RP
Tom rozbil umyvadlo na části.	PP = PP RP = RP
Tom rozbil umyvadlo na kousičky.	PP = PP RP = RP
Tom rozbil umyvadlo na kousky.	PP = PP RP = RP
Tom rozbil umyvadlo na kousky.	PP = PP RP = RP
Tom rozbil umyvadlo na kousky.	PP = PP RP = RP
Tom rozbil umyvadlo na kousky.	PP = PP RP = RP
Tom rozbil umyvadlo na kousky.	PP = PP RP = RP
Tom rozbil umyvadlo na kousky.	PP = PP RP = RP
Tom rozbil umyvadlo na kousky.	PP = PP RP = RP
Tom rozbil umyvadlo na kousky.	PP = PP RP = RP
Tom rozbil umyvadlo na kousky.	PP = PP RP = RP
Tom rozbil umyvadlo na kousky.	PP = PP

	RP = RP
Tom rozbil umyvadlo na kousky.	PP = PP RP = RP
Tom rozbil umyvadlo na kousky.	PP = PP RP = RP
Tom rozbil umyvadlo na kousky.	PP = PP RP = RP
Tom rozbil umyvadlo na kousky.	PP = PP RP = RP
Tom rozbil umyvadlo na kousky.	PP = PP RP = RP
Tom rozbil umyvadlo na kousky.	PP = PP RP = RP
Tom rozbil umyvadlo na kousky.	PP = PP RP = RP
Tom rozbil umyvadlo na kousky.	PP = PP RP = RP
Tom rozbil umyvadlo na kousky.	PP = PP RP = RP
Tom rozbil umyvadlo na kousky.	PP = PP RP = RP
Tom rozbil umyvadlo na kousky.	PP = PP RP = RP
Tom rozbil umyvadlo na kusy.	PP = PP RP = RP
Tom rozbil umyvadlo na kusy.	PP = PP RP = RP
Tom rozbil umyvadlo.	-
Tom rozbil umyvadlo.	-
Tom zlomil umyvadlo na kousky.	-
Tom zlomil umyvadlo na kousky.	-
Tom zlomil umyvadlo na kousky.	-

The sentence seems to be non-idiomatic in both languages. The translation of this resultative signifies that students had no difficulty translating it. However, there are some poor translations in which students interchanged the words *rozbít* and *zlomit*. The sentence with *zlomit* sounds unnatural, and it does not appear to be used frequently in Czech. Furthermore, there is one incorrect translation of *sink* into *sklenice*, and two students might have misunderstood the phrase *into pieces*. Otherwise, there are a few instances of synonym usage that is adequate and thus considered correct. These are the nouns *umyvadlo* and *dřez*, both of which are equivalent to *sink*. Another synonymous expression found in translations is PP *na kousky*, *na kusy*, and *na části*, which all mean the same thing and are equivalent to *into pieces*. In addition, the majority of students were able to use the correct verb tense *rozbil*, indicating the clarity of English resultative and the existence of equivalent in Czech language.



These translations above demonstrate some unity, with the majority of students translating it in the same way. This could be due to the presence of similar sentence structures in Czech. In this case, it seems that the Czech sentence is constructed in the same way as the English sentence. Moreover, the most frequent translation *Tom rozbil umyvadlo na kousky* appears to be Czech resultative construction, which follows the rules of resultative construction. According to the rules, it is implied that the person's action caused something to change its state. In this case, *Tom's* action resulted in the *sink* being *broken into pieces*. *Tom broke* the *sink*, and as a result of his behaviour, the *sink* is now *broken into pieces*. These simple analyses can be applied to the Czech sentence as well. Therefore, this type of construction seems to exist in the Czech language. Furthermore, RP *into pieces* is equivalent to Czech RP *na kousky/na kusy*. Because both RPs are PPs, there is no change in word classes or word order. This assumption seems to be correct because Czech translations are widely used, as students demonstrated. These observations are interesting because the previous constructions where the RP is AP did not have this correspondence between the two languages. In this case, RP is PP, and the two languages share some similar characteristics.

#### 8.4.2 He drank himself to death

	<b>RP = PP</b>
<b>He drank himself to death</b>	<b>to death</b>
-----	-
Může zemřít na otravu.	-
On pil -----.	-
On pil do smrti.	-
On se napil a poté zemřel.	-
On sebe ubil k smrti.	-
On umřel na dehydrataci.	-
On vypil a umřel.	-
On vypil něco špatného.	-
Opil se až do smrti.	-
Opil se až umřel.	-
Opil se do smrti.	-
Opil se do smrti.	-
Opil se do smrti.	-
Opil se k smrti.	-
Opil se k smrti.	-
Opil se k smrti.	-
Opila se k smrti.	-
Udělal ze sebe mrtvého.	-
Uchlatal se.	-
Umřel na přepití.	-

Upil se k smrti.	PP = PP RP = RP
Upil se k smrti.	PP = PP RP = RP
Upil se k smrti.	PP = PP RP = RP
Upil se k smrti.	PP = PP RP = RP
Upil se k smrti.	PP = PP RP = RP
Upil se k smrti.	PP = PP RP = RP
Upil se k smrti.	PP = PP RP = RP
Upil se k smrti.	PP = PP RP = RP
Upil se ke smrti.	PP = PP RP = RP
Vypil svou smrt.	-

This is an idiomatic construction. It is not commonly used in regular conversations. I believe it can be found in works of literature, films, and other specific contexts. The success of the translation is most likely determined by knowledge of the phrase in Czech. It depends on whether or not the students have previously encountered this phrase. There are some creative translations, but they do not seem to be correct. They are either mistakes in specific words or phrases that sound unnatural, and the Czechs would not use them this way. For example, *vypil svou smrt, umřel na přepití, opil se až umřel, or on pil do smrti*. These expressions are clumsy and make no sense. There are more clumsy translations, especially those beginning with the Czech pronoun *on*, which means *he*. This pronoun is optional and sounds natural when omitted. Moreover, several other translations are clumsy but understandable. These are the two translations: *opil se do smrti* and *opil se k smrti*.

On the other hand, two translations appear to be equivalent in terms of the whole construction. They are meaningful, understandable, and used to some extent. Nevertheless, one of them ensures that the RP in the English sentence remains in the same position as it does in the Czech sentence. This criterion is not fulfilled by the second sentence. The first equivalent sentence is: (1) *Upil se k smrti*. This idiomatic expression was translated by eight students and was the most frequently used translation. This translation seems to be equivalent at both the sentence and RP levels. The English RP (PP) *to death* corresponds to the Czech RP (PP) *k smrti*. Both phrases appear to be resultative, and both are prepositional. Furthermore, the PPs are both at the end of the sentence. This illustrates how these types of constructions are used in Czech.

Another possibility is that this equivalent is arbitrary, and that the fact that RPs are both PPs and occupy the last position in the sentence is a coincidence. The concept of arbitrariness is raised here primarily because the construction seems to be idiomatic.

The second equivalent sentence is: (2) *Uchlatal se*. This inventive translation is brilliant because it essentially conveys the same meaning as example (1), but in fewer words. The phrase *uchlatal se* contains many meanings that are hidden within it. Firstly, the person is a man. Secondly, he consumed alcohol. And thirdly, he died as a result of excessive alcohol consumption. In terms of the overall construction, this translation is equivalent. On the other hand, the English RP (PP) *to death* disappears in the Czech sentence.

#### 8.4.3 The tiger bled to death

<b>The tiger bled to death</b>	<b>RP = PP</b>
-----	-
Tygr k smrti vykrvácel.	-
Tygr krvácel a umřel.	-
Tygr krvácel a zemřel.	-
Tygr krvácel až umřel.	-
Tygr krvácel do smrti.	-
Tygr krvácel do smrti.	-
Tygr krvácel do své smrti.	-
Tygr krvácí a na to umřel.	-
Tygr krvácí a umírá.	-
Tygr umřel na vykrvácení.	PP = PP RP ≠ RP
Tygr vykrvácel a zemřel.	-
Tygr vykrvácel a zemřel.	-
Tygr vykrvácel a zemřel.	-
Tygr vykrvácel do smrti.	-
Tygr vykrvácel k smrti.	-
Tygr vykrvácel k smrti.	-
Tygr vykrvácel k smrti.	-
Tygr vykrvácel k smrti.	-
Tygr vykrvácel.	-
Tygr vykrvácel.	-
Tygr vykrvácel.	-
Tygr vykrvácel.	-
Tygr vykrvácel.	-
Tygr vykrvácel.	-
Tygr vykrvácel.	-

Tygr vykřvácel.	-
Tygr zemřel na vykřvácení.	PP = PP RP ≠ RP
Tygr zemřel na vykřvácení.	PP = PP RP ≠ RP
Tygr zemřel vykřvácením.	-
Tygr zemřel, protože krvácel.	-

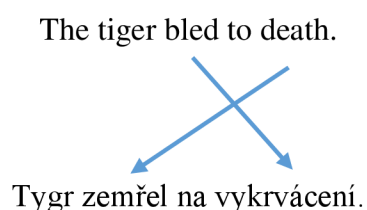
This construction was understood, and students had little difficulty translating it. One student was unable to provide a translation; otherwise, the remaining thirty students translated it in some way. Because a few students used an incorrect tense when translating it, the translations are not equivalent. The use of the word *krvácel* in sentences indicates that the *bleeding* was a longer process that was taking place at the time. To be more specific, the equivalent to *krvácel* is *was bleeding*. Thus, these translations signify the past continuous tense rather than the past simple which make them invalid. In addition, there are two translations that include the word *krváčí*, which means *is bleeding* in English. These translations are incorrect due to the use of the present continuous tense.

In addition to that, a few clumsy translations respect the tense and are thus closer to the English equivalent. For instance, *tygr k smrti vykřvácel* or *tygr vykřvácel do smrti*. These sentences appear to be comprehensible to Czech readers. However, they do not sound natural, and I believe that Czechs would not use this formulation.

On the contrary, some translations appear to be equivalent in terms of the overall meaning of the construction. They consider both the tense and the meaning. In Czech, these sentences could be used interchangeably. The example sentences that follow are more specific: (1) *Tygr umřel na vykřvácení*. (2) *Tygr zemřel na vykřvácení*. (3) *Tygr vykřvácel a zemřel*. (4) *Tygr vykřvácel k smrti*. (5) *Tygr vykřvácel*. (6) *Tygr zemřel vykřvácením*. These translations demonstrate the Czech language's flexibility as well as the numerous ways in which the construction could be translated. In my opinion, all six translations are grammatically correct and can be used in Czech under certain circumstances.

Sentences (3) and (4) appear to be the least natural translations from the above (1-6) because the Czech word *vykřvácel* already carries the meaning of *death*. Therefore, there is no need to repeat this meaning with *a zemřel* or *k smrti*. The prefix in *vykřvácel* is *vy-*. This prefix signals that the person or animal has died due to excessive blood loss. Thus, if *a zemřel* and *k smrti* are omitted, the translation would be *tygr vykřvácel*, which is a satisfactory translation.

On the other hand, the most natural translations seem to be in sentences (1), (2), (5), and (6). Sentences (1) and (2) are essentially identical because they contain synonyms, *umřel* and *zemřel* which convey the same meaning. Both sentences are correctly formed and equivalent. They also share interesting characteristics, such as the same PP placement at the end of the sentence. The English PP placement of *to death* corresponds to the Czech PP placement of *na vykrvácení*. However, each of the PP has a distinct meaning, and there is no RP equivalent. Both sentences are constructed differently, and the word order is swapped. Specifically, the meanings of *bleed* and *death* are switched. This is illustrated in the figure below:



Sentence (6) is also translated well. It specifies how the *tiger died*, which was by excessive loss of *blood*. It is equivalent in terms of the whole construction, but not in terms of RP. And finally, sentence (5) seems to be the most natural translation, as it is simple and incorporates the meaning of the English construction. This sentence is equivalent as a whole, but not in terms of PP placement. In terms of RP in the Czech sentence, it is subject to debate whether the word *vykrvácel* is RP. The hidden meaning of the word *vykrvácel* is “death caused by a significant loss of blood”. Therefore, the tiger died as a result of losing that much blood. The English sentence *the tiger bled to death* conveys the same meaning. Therefore, the Czech verb *vykrvácel* might be regarded RP. This assumption implies that the Czech resultatives may contain RPs in the form of VPs, whereas the English resultatives do not.

#### 8.4.4 She walked herself into exhaustion

<b>She walked herself into exhaustion</b>	<b>RP = PP</b>
-----	into exhaustion
Byla velice vyčerpaná.	-
Byla vyčerpaná z vycházky.	PP = PP RP ≠ RP
Chodila až do vyčerpání.	PP = PP RP = RP
Chodila až do vyčerpání.	PP = PP RP = RP
Chodila do vyčerpání.	PP = PP RP = RP

Chodila dokavad' se neunavila.	-
Chodila k jejímu vyčerpání.	-
Ona byla vyčerpaná během.	-
Ona chodila až do svého vyčerpání.	-
Ona chodila do únavy.	-
Ona se procházela _____.	-
Ona se procházela, dokud nebyla unavená.	-
Ona šla a sebe sama vyčerpala.	-
Ona šla a udělalo se jí špatně.	-
Ona šla až do vyčerpání.	PP = PP RP = RP
Ona šla i přes vyčerpání.	-
Přechodila se k vyčerpání.	PP = PP RP = RP
Šla až do jejího vyčerpání.	-
Šla až do vyčerpání.	PP = PP RP = RP
Šla až do vyčerpání.	PP = PP RP = RP
Šla až se unavila.	-
Šla do vyčerpání.	PP = PP RP = RP
Šla, dokud nebyla unavená.	-
Šla, dokud se neunavila.	-
Uchodila ho do vyčerpání.	-
Uchodila se do vyčerpání.	PP = PP RP = RP
Uchodila se k vyčerpání.	PP = PP RP = RP
Uchodila se k vyčerpání.	PP = PP RP = RP
Uchodila se k vyčerpání.	PP = PP RP = RP
Unavila se.	-

This English construction is not used in the Czech language in the same way. It is difficult to translate, which is apparent in the table above. The vast majority of translations are understandable, but they are clumsy. In my opinion, many of these formulations would not be used by Czechs in either speech or writing. Therefore, it seems that this construction must be translated differently. As illustrated above, there are numerous translations that demonstrate the difficulty.

There are correct and satisfactory translations, but they are not equivalent to English construction. For instance, *byla velice vyčerpaná* or *unavila se*. Both sentences leave out the

information about walking. Besides that, there are some clumsy translations, such as *chodila k jejímu vyčerpání, ona šla a sebe sama vyčerpala* or *ona chodila do únavy*.

Moreover, some translations are debatable in terms of clarity and common usage in Czech language. For instance, there are five translations that begin with the phrase *uchodila se*. These sentences are understandable, but I assume they are only used occasionally. To some extent, some translations appear to be equivalent in terms of meaning. These are: (1) *Byla vyčerpána z vycházky*. (2) *Chodila až do vyčerpání*. (3) *Chodila dokavad' se neunavila*. (4) *Ona se procházela, dokud nebyla unavená*. (5) *Šla, až do (jejího) vyčerpání*. (6) *Šla, dokud se neunavila*. (7) *Uchodila se až do vyčerpání*. These seven translations all have synonymous characteristics and could be used in speech or text. However, it is difficult to determine the frequency of usage. In addition, in these seven synonymous sentences, students used particular phrases to assist them with the translation. These are phrases *až do*, *dokavad'*, and *dokud*. There are also minor differences in intensity between the adjectives *vyčerpáný* and *unavený*. The equivalent of *vyčerpáný* is exhausted, whereas the equivalent of *unavený* is tired. Besides that, the sentences are questionable in terms of tense usage. The verbs *chodila*, *se procházela*, and *šla* seem to have progressive characteristics. The verbs indicate that the action was ongoing for a longer period of time. This is the fundamental feature of the past continuous tense. In contrast, in the English sentence, there is a past simple tense and the verb states that the action of *walking* is finished.

In Czech translations, RP and PP placement are considered only when the construction is equivalent to the English sentence. A few Czech PPs appear at the end of the sentence, as in the English sentence. There are three of them: *z vycházky*, *do vyčerpání*, and *k vyčerpání*. Nonetheless, not all of these three PPs are also RPs. The first PP *z vycházky* is associated with the *walk*, not with the *exhaustion* which is the result. The other two PPs, *do vyčerpání* and *k vyčerpání*, are both RPs. Therefore, only the constructions *uchodila se k vyčerpání* and *uchodila se do vyčerpání* are equivalent in terms of full sentences and RP placement. Both of these constructions respect the past simple tense as the action of walking is completed. Other constructions are also equivalent in terms of full sentence as well as RP, but they do not respect the past simple tense.

#### 8.4.5 She cried herself to sleep

<b>RP = PP</b>	
<b>She cried herself to sleep</b>	<b>to sleep</b>
-----	-

-----	-
Brečela až z toho usla.	-
Brečela tak, že usla.	-
Brečela ze spaní.	-
Brečela ze spaní.	-
Brečela ze spánku.	-
Brečela, až usnula.	-
Brečela, dokud neusla.	-
Brečela, dokud neusla.	-
Brečela, než šla spát.	-
Byla unavená, šla spát.	-
Donutila se jít spát.	-
Než usla, tak brečela.	-
Ona brečela a usnula.	-
Ona brečela do usnutí.	PP = PP RP = RP
Ona brečela, až usnula.	-
Ona brečela, až z toho usnula.	-
Ona brečela, dokud nešla spát.	-
Ona brečí při spaní.	-
Ona_____.	-
Sní ve spaní.	-
Ubrečela se do spánku.	-
Ubrečela se do spánku.	-
Ubrečela se k spánku.	-
Ubrečela se k spánku.	-
Ubrečela se ke spaní.	-
Ubrečela se ke spánku.	-
Ubrečela se ke spánku.	-
Uložila se ke spánku.	-
Vybrečela se do spánku.	-

As can be seen from the table above, there are numerous different translations, indicating the difficulty in expressing the construction in Czech. Some of them appear to be evidently incorrect. They either do not correspond to the meaning or are inconsistent with the verb tense. These sentences include: *Brečela ze spaní*, *byla unavená, šla spát*, and *donutila se jít spát*. On the other hand, *brečela ze spaní* expresses the meaning that *she was sleeping while crying*. She has had a vivid dream, and as a result, she *was crying*. This is not the case in English construction. In addition, many sentences contain the verb *brečela*, which indicates that the action of *crying* was happening for a longer period of time. So, the English equivalent of *brečela*



could be *was crying*. However, the past continuous tense also implies that the expected result of crying, which is to fall asleep, may not have been accomplished. But the Czech phrases *usla* or *dokud neusla* indicate that the outcome of her *crying* was achieved. Thus, she has *fallen asleep* as a result of her excessive *crying*. So, the meaning of completion (result) is carried in the Czech verb *usnout*, which is equivalent to *fall asleep*. On the other hand, the English sentence uses the word *sleep*, which is rather equivalent to *spát*.

As previously mentioned, some Czech translations use the past continuous tense, such as *brečela*, which seems to be roughly equivalent to the English sentence. There are some acceptable translations that appear to be equivalent to the English sentence in terms of overall construction. These include, for example: (1) *Brečela tak, že usla*. (2) *Brečela, dokud neusla*. (3) *Než usla, tak brečela*. (4) *Ona brečela do usnutí*. (5) *Ona brečela, až z toho usla*. To some extent, these sentences are synonymous. There are only a few nuances in the sentence structure where the words are arranged differently within the sentence. Furthermore, these translations show that the Czech students tended to use the past continuous tense, which helped them in their translation. The reason for this could be that the expression *ubřečela se* is not used in Czech, so they used another verb tense to express the *crying*.

At first glance, there seem to be a few translations with equivalent RPs in both languages. Specifically, sentences *ubřečela se do spánku* or *ubřečela se ke spánku*. Nonetheless, these translations sound clumsy, and I believe the Czechs would not use these expressions. Therefore, in the table above, RPs are not considered equivalent.

## 8.5 Summary

### RPs as APs

The first two sentences in the RPs as APs section (1) *The river froze solid* and (2) *Sara painted the wall blue* were easy to comprehend for students. They understood the meaning and were able to construct an equivalent sentence in Czech. Sentence (1) has no RP equivalent, whereas sentence (2) has an RP equivalent. However, RP in sentence (2) changes from AP in English to PP or AdvP in Czech. Particularly AdvP is an intriguing discovery in Czech, as this type of phrase does not appear to be used in English in connection with RPs. Furthermore, these two sentences lack idiomatic features that might have made them easier to translate and comprehend. Especially sentence (2) was one of the easiest to understand and translate.

On the other hand, there were three sentences in the AP section that were more difficult for students to understand and translate. Sentence (3) *The gardener watered the flowers flat*. (4) *The bottle broke open*. (5) *She ate herself sick*. Sentences (3) and (5) appear slightly idiomatic

at first glance, making them considerably more difficult to translate. In addition, each of the three English sentences (3), (4), and (5) has syntactic rules that are uncommon in Czech. In order to complete the translation, additional words or a different word order are required in Czech. None of the RPs in these three sentences are equivalent, indicating their dissimilarity.

### **RPs as PPs**

Regarding RPs as PPs, the first three constructions were easy to understand and translate. These are: (1) *Tom broke the sink into pieces.* (2) *He drank himself to death.* (3) *The tiger bled to death.* Students were successful in identifying a construction-meaning equivalent. Particularly, Sentence (1) appears to be the simplest to comprehend and translate. This is evident from the table, which shows that most students translated it similarly. Furthermore, sentence (1) has RP that is equivalent in both languages. Sentences (1) and (3) may have been successfully translated because they lack idiomatic expressions.

On the other hand, sentences (4) *She walked herself into exhaustion* and (5) *She cried herself to sleep* were more challenging for students. They both contain an intransitive verb and a fake reflexive, which may have contributed to the translation difficulties. When students saw these fake reflexives, they might have been confused. For the sentences to be successfully translated, they had to find alternative words to the fake reflexive.

## **8.6 Discussion**

The research shows that all 7 teachers were able to translate resultatives from English into Czech. However, even the teachers have limited familiarity with the constructions. They were particularly concerned about direct teaching. To effectively teach these constructions and their phrases, they must have a thorough understanding of them. On the other hand, some of the teachers declared an interest in learning these phrases and indicated a desire to do so on their own time. There are benefits for teachers who teach these constructions. Teachers emphasise improved text comprehension, vocabulary enrichment, increased classroom enjoyment, and general knowledge expansion. These benefits seem to encourage teachers to study English resultatives in their spare time.

Most teachers would not directly teach resultatives and their RPs in lower secondary school for a variety of reasons. The main reasons are teachers' lack of familiarity with the constructions, students' lack of knowledge, and the variability of the resultatives themselves. Due to their complexity, teachers believe that these types of phrases are better suited for upper-secondary school.

English resultative constructions work differently than their Czech counterparts. As students' translations demonstrate, Czech equivalents vary greatly. This suggests that one-to-one equivalents are not always possible. The likelihood of RPs being equivalent in both languages is greatest when RPs are PPs. There are 2 RPs out of 10 that have counterparts in both languages. The first is *na kousky*, which translates to *into pieces*, and the second is *k smrti*, which translates to *to death*. Both equivalents are PPs, and it is likely that in Czech, PPs are used more frequently as RPs than APs. There are no Czech equivalents to English APs for RPs. In addition, when English APs as RPs are translated into Czech, the Czechs need assistance with specific expressions for the translation to be successful and meaningful. For instance, they use phrases such as (1) *takovou silou, že*, (2) *takovým způsobem, že*, (3) *tak dlouho, že*, or (4) *protože* to facilitate the translation. This assistance from other expressions also applies to English reflexive pronouns, which seem to be more difficult to construct sentences with and translate into Czech. The presence of reflexive pronouns in 4 sentences shows that students were required to find creative and unusual ways to translate these constructions.

Furthermore, students were able to successfully translate sentences and phrases that have similar structure in Czech and lack idiomatic properties. Therefore, the comprehension of resultative phrases and entire constructions depends on whether the Czech resultative is constructed similarly to the English resultative. On the contrary, there are difficulties in comprehension when the English resultative has a different and unfamiliar structure to the Czechs.

Additionally, Czech RPs have a different form from English RPs. The research suggests that PPs, NPs, and AdvPs may be used in Czech. Particularly PPs seem easily translatable into Czech. In addition, verbs in Czech resultatives contain a prefix that indicates the action's result but remains hidden within the verb itself. For example, the prefixes *-za* and *-vy* are included in verbs such as *zamrzlo* and *vykrvácel*. The first prefix *-za* indicates that the *lake* or *river* is already *solid*, therefore the sentence may end with the word *zamrzlo*. The second prefix *-vy* also indicates the result of the action, suggesting that the *tiger* is already *dead* and that no further words are required to complete the Czech sentence. The crossed-out words in examples (1) and (2) below may be omitted, otherwise the sentence sounds rather pleonastic.

1. The lake froze solid. – Jezero zamrzlo ~~na pevně.~~
2. The tiger bled to death. – Tygr vykrvácel ~~k smrti.~~

As previously stated, certain English RPs have Czech RP equivalents while others do not. So far, no rule has been discovered that explains why one construction and its RP is easier to translate than the others. This inconsistency pertains to RPs, their placement at the end of sentences, and their tendency to be equivalent in both languages. As this study has shown, prior knowledge of the construction and its phrase, as well as the absence of idiomatic expressions and fake reflexives, may be beneficial for comprehension.

In addition to the findings discussed previously, additional research is required in this area to comprehend the relationships between these two languages in terms of resultative constructions and their RPs. Regarding the relationship between the English and Czech languages, very little research has been conducted on this very specific topic. In this narrow field of study, little information has been discussed thus far. Therefore, there is a great potential for further study. The amount of unknown appears to be substantial. However, to discover new findings in this field, a person should be competent. Therefore, in order to comprehend the relationships, it is necessary to be fluent in both English and Czech. This knowledge would enable him or her to delve deeper into the constructions and possibly discover new connections. It is essential to understand the syntactic rules of both languages and be able to deconstruct the constructions. To perform syntactic analyses, I believe the person should have a linguistic background and experience. This knowledge and experience would also make it possible to understand the equivalents in both languages.

## Conclusion

The aim of the thesis was to compare English and Czech resultatives and their resultative phrases. Resultatives were compared based on their structural characteristics, and resultative phrases were compared based on their placement and equivalence. Students translated a selection of resultatives while English teachers shared their perspectives on teaching resultatives.

For this purpose, 7 teachers participated in the research and filled in the questionnaire sheet. They all understood and translated selected resultatives from the sheets. They additionally shared their views on teaching resultatives. On the other hand, 31 students took part in the study. Each student translated 10 selected resultatives, 5 of which included adjective phrases as resultative phrases and 5 of which included prepositional phrases as resultative phrases.

Teachers do not teach resultative phrases directly and would not consider doing so in lower secondary school. Most of them believe that English resultative phrases are inappropriate for lower secondary school students due to their complexity and difficulty. With minor differences in word structure, all 7 teachers were able to translate the resultative sentences from the sheets. 6 out of 7 teachers have encountered resultative sentences and their resultative phrases in previously, but their familiarity with the constructions is limited, and they would like to explore these phrases further in the future.

Teachers might benefit from enhanced text comprehension, vocabulary enrichment, increased classroom enjoyment, and increased knowledge. Challenges include translation issues, insecurity in front of the class, not knowing the phrases themselves, and insufficient student knowledge. These findings suggest that dealing with resultative constructions and their resultative phrases is appropriate and beneficial for older students in upper secondary school.

In addition, 9th grade students demonstrated that the majority of the 10 English resultative constructions and their phrases are understandable to them. They especially translated Czech sentences and phrases lacking idiomatic properties. Thus, understanding resultative phrases and constructions depends on whether Czech and English resultatives are similar. On the other hand, Czechs struggle to comprehend the unfamiliar structure of the English resultative.

Czech and English resultative phrases differ in their construction, with some English resultatives lacking Czech equivalents. Czech PPs are used as RPs more frequently than APs. Czechs require phrases such as (1) *takovou silou, že*, (2) *takovým způsobem, že*, (3) *tak dlouho*,

*že*, and (4) *protože* to make English APs meaningful in Czech. Furthermore, Czech reflexive pronouns are more difficult to translate, requiring students to come up with unique ways to translate these constructions.

Czech RPs come in a variety of forms, including PPs, NPs, and AdvPs. Czech resultatives have a hidden prefix that indicates the result of the action. Some English RPs have Czech RP equivalents, while others do not. There is no rule that explains why one construction and its RP are easy to translate and others do not. This varies for RPs, their placement at the end of sentences, and their tendency to be equivalent in both languages. Furthermore, previous knowledge of the construction and its phrase, as well as the absence of idiomatic expressions and fake reflexives, could facilitate comprehension.

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## Appendices

### Questionnaire sheet – Teachers

#### **Do English teachers in lower secondary school teach resultative phrases?**

1. Which years/grades do you teach?
2. Can you translate these typical examples of resultative sentences? Resultative phrases are *solid*, *into pieces* and *to death*.  
  
“The lake froze solid”  
“Tom broke the sink into pieces”  
“He drank himself to death”
3. Are you familiar with these types of phrases? Have you seen them before?
4. What might be beneficial for students when learning these types of sentences/phrases?
5. What might be challenging for students when learning these types of sentences/phrases?
6. Would you consider teaching these phrases? Why/why not?
7. When would you teach these phrases? In which type of lesson?
8. Can you see some benefits for you when teaching these phrases?
9. Can you see some challenges when teaching these phrases?
10. To what extent are English resultative phrases suited for lower secondary school students?

## Questionnaire sheet – Students

### To what extent are English resultative phrases comprehensible for 9th grade students?

Translate these sentences into Czech

#### RP=AP

1. The river froze solid.
2. Sara painted the wall blue.
3. The gardener watered the flowers flat.
4. The bottle broke open.
5. She ate herself sick.

#### RP=PP

1. Tom broke the sink into pieces.
2. He drank himself to death.
3. The tiger bled to death.
4. She walked herself into exhaustion.
5. She cried herself to sleep.

## Questionnaire sheet examples – Teachers

### Do English teachers in lower secondary school teach resultative phrases?

1. Which years/grades do you teach?

8, 9, BUT I HAVE BEEN TEACHING FROM 2 TO 9. CLASS

2. Can you translate these typical examples of resultative sentences? Resultative phrases are *solid*, *into pieces* and *to death*.

"The lake froze solid" VEZERO ZOCIA ZMEZLO

"Tom broke the sink into pieces" ROZBIL DREZ NA KUSY.

"He drank himself to death" UPIL SE K SMRTI.

3. Are you familiar with these types of phrases? Have you seen them before?

YES, SIMILAR TO CZECH.

4. What might be beneficial for students when learning these types of sentences/phrases?

EXTRA VOCAB, DEVELOPED SENTENCES

5. What might be challenging for students when learning these types of sentences/phrases?

TO UNDERSTAND THE PHRASES AS COMPLEX

6. Would you consider teaching these phrases? Why/why not?

NO PROBLEM, BUT I THINK MOST STUDENTS WILL UNDERSTAND BUT THEY WON'T USE THEM.

7. When would you teach these phrases? In which type of lesson?

9. CLASS EXTRA VOCABULARY

8. Can you see some benefits for you when teaching these phrases?

MORE FUN

9. Can you see some challenges when teaching these phrases?

KNOWLEDGE OF SOME STUDENTS

10. To what extent are English resultative phrases suited for lower secondary school students?

THEY HAVE A LOT TO LEARN, I THINK IT'S BETTER TO TEACH THEM AT 8<sup>TH</sup>.

### Do English teachers in lower secondary school teach resultative phrases?

1. Which years/grades do you teach?

I teach 4<sup>th</sup> and 7<sup>th</sup> grades.

2. Can you translate these typical examples of resultative sentences? Resultative phrases are **solid**, **into pieces** and **to death**.

Yes, I can.

"The lake froze solid"

Jezero zamrzelo.

"Tom broke the sink into pieces"

Tom rozbil umyvadlo na kousky.

"He drank himself to death"

Upil se k smrti.

3. Are you familiar with these types of phrases? Have you seen them before?

No, I'm not. I've never seen them before, I think or I don't remember them.

4. What might be beneficial for students when learning these types of sentences/phrases?

I don't think students of primary school should learn these types of sentences, it's too difficult for them.

5. What might be challenging for students when learning these types of sentences/phrases?

Maybe to understand how to make them.

6. Would you consider teaching these phrases? Why/why not?

Definitely not; pupils don't know basic grammar as present or past tenses. I would teach this later.

7. When would you teach these phrases? In which type of lesson?

8. Can you see some benefits for you when teaching these phrases?

It would be great only for <sup>talented</sup> children who are really interested in English language.

9. Can you see some challenges when teaching these phrases?

No, just asking myself whether they use them or not.

10. To what extent are English resultative phrases suited for lower secondary school students?

As I've written in nr. 4, I think it's quite difficult for them and the question is how often will they use them in future? Are these really so important?

## Do English teachers in lower secondary school teach resultative phrases?

1. Which years/grades do you teach?

*This school year I am teaching only the eighth years.*

2. Can you translate these typical examples of resultative sentences? Resultative phrases are **solid**, **into pieces** and **to death**.

"The lake froze solid"

*Jezero zamrzelo.*

"Tom broke the sink into pieces"

*Tom razbiti/szil dice.*

"He drank himself to death"

*Upil se k smrti.*

3. Are you familiar with these types of phrases? Have you seen them before?

*Honestly, I don't use these phrases in my everyday English, because the level I teach is not such high. I know these phrases mostly from books.*

4. What might be beneficial for students when learning these types of sentences/phrases?

*This particular grammar is not a part of our national curriculum, that's why I don't teach this and I think that the students of primary schools deal with more important grammar issues than this one.*

5. What might be challenging for students when learning these types of sentences/phrases?

*They might have difficulties with the tenses used, irregular verbs and sentence pattern.*

6. Would you consider teaching these phrases? Why/why not?

*I wouldn't consider these at all. For the average students this grammar is not essential.*

7. When would you teach these phrases? In which type of lesson?

*I would probably teach them only more advanced students during lessons aimed on speaking skills.*

8. Can you see some benefits for you when teaching these phrases?

*All useful phrases are good to know, so it might be good to teach them just to more advanced students.*

9. Can you see some challenges when teaching these phrases?

*Well, Teaching is challenging in all the ways you can imagine, so the answer is "yes" of course.*

10. To what extent are English resultative phrases suited for lower secondary school students?

*These phrases are quite difficult for such a young learners. They might be confused when learning them, so I would rather not teach them.*

Introduce →

**Do English teachers in lower secondary school teach resultative phrases?**

1. Which years/grades do you teach?

6th grade

2. Can you translate these typical examples of resultative sentences? Resultative phrases are **solid**, **into pieces** and **to death**.

"The lake froze solid" Jezero zamrzelo  
"Tom broke the sink into pieces" Tom rozbil dřevěnou vana  
"He drank himself to death" Upijel se smrti

3. Are you familiar with these types of phrases? Have you seen them before?

I saw these phrases before, but I didn't know that they are called this way.

4. What might be beneficial for students when learning these types of sentences/phrases?

New vocabulary. To learn and practise part of speech.

5. What might be challenging for students when learning these types of sentences/phrases?

Limited vocabulary of students

6. Would you consider teaching these phrases? Why/why not?

I would maybe mention them, but don't teach them directly.

7. When would you teach these phrases? In which type of lesson?

When discussing topics such as famous people.  
Or as a translation activity.

8. Can you see some benefits for you when teaching these phrases?

I can improve my own vocabulary and learn something new.

9. Can you see some challenges when teaching these phrases?

I don't know them well so I could feel insecure in the lessons

10. To what extent are English resultative phrases suited for lower secondary school students?

It's fine to mention them in 8th and 9th grades. But they are probably more suited for secondary school students.

**Do English teachers in lower secondary school teach resultative phrases?**

1. Which years/grades do you teach?

3rd, 4th, 8th + 9th - conversation in English

2. Can you translate these typical examples of resultative sentences? Resultative phrases are **solid**, **into pieces** and **to death**.

"The lake froze solid" Jezero úplně zamrzlo.

"Tom broke the sink into pieces" Tom rozbil umyvadlo na kousky.

"He drank himself to death" Upil se k smrti.

3. Are you familiar with these types of phrases? Have you seen them before?

I'm familiar with these types of phrases. I have heard them in movies or videos, also at my University.

4. What might be beneficial for students when learning these types of sentences/phrases?

Getting new vocabulary + phrases used in English.

5. What might be challenging for students when learning these types of sentences/phrases?

Not understanding them.

6. Would you consider teaching these phrases? Why/why not?

No, I wouldn't teach them. They are too difficult to translate for little children, even for 8th graders.

7. When would you teach these phrases? In which type of lesson?

I probably wouldn't. Maybe if the book would contain these phrases in the text, I would try to explain them as good as I could.

8. Can you see some benefits for you when teaching these phrases?

Better understanding while reading or watching TV.

9. Can you see some challenges when teaching these phrases?

The translation might not be as accurate. Czech language could have different phrases - differently constructed.

10. To what extent are English resultative phrases suited for lower secondary school students?

I don't think they are suited for lower secondary school students.



## Questionnaire sheet examples – Students

### To what extent are English resultative phrases comprehensible for 9th grade students?

Translate these sentences into Czech

#### RP=AP

1. The river froze solid. Řeka zmrzla celá (Mrduz)
2. Sara painted the wall blue. Sara ~~malovala~~ obarvila stěnu na modro
3. The gardener watered the flowers flat. Zahradník zalil kompletně celé květiny
4. The bottle broke open. Ta láhev se rozbila celá
5. She ate herself sick. Ona se přejedla.

#### RP=PP

1. Tom broke the sink into pieces. Tom rozbil umyvadlo na kusky
2. He drank himself to death. Upil se k smrti
3. The tiger bled to death. Tiger vykrvácel k smrti
4. She walked herself into exhaustion. Šla až do vyčerpání
5. She cried herself to sleep. Břečela tak, že usla.

**To what extent are English resultative phrases comprehensible for  
9th grade students?**

**Translate these sentences into Czech**

**RP=AP**

1. The river froze solid.  
Řeka pevně zamrzla.
2. Sara painted the wall blue.  
Sára namalovala stěnu na modro.
3. The gardener watered the flowers flat.  
Zahradník zalil zahradku
4. The bottle broke open.  
láhev se zlomila
5. She ate herself sick.

**RP=PP**

1. Tom broke the sink into pieces.  
Tom rozbil umyvadlo na kousky.
2. He drank himself to death.  
Upil se k smrti.
3. The tiger bled to death.  
Tygr vykrvácel.
4. She walked herself into exhaustion.  
Uchodila se k vyčerpání.
5. She cried herself to sleep.  
Ubrečela se k spánku.

**To what extent are English resultative phrases comprehensible for  
9th grade students?**

**Translate these sentences into Czech**

**RP=AP**

1. The river froze solid. - řeka tvrdě zamrzla
2. Sara painted the wall blue. - ~~Sara~~ Sara natřela zeď modrou
3. The gardener watered the flowers flat. - Zahradník
4. The bottle broke open. - lahev byla špatně otevřená
5. She ate herself sick. - ~~myla si žejlákem~~ cítí se nemocná

**RP=PP**

1. Tom broke the sink into pieces. - Tom rozbil umyvadlo na kousky
2. He drank himself to death. - upil se k smrti
3. The tiger bled to death. - Tygr vykrvácel k smrti
4. She walked herself into exhaustion. - unavila se
5. She cried herself to sleep. - uložila se (ke spánku)

**To what extent are English resultative phrases comprehensible for  
9th grade students?**

**Translate these sentences into Czech**

**RP=AP**

1. The river froze solid.  
*Řeka pevně zamrzla*
2. Sara painted the wall blue.  
*Sara namalovala stěnu na modro*
3. The gardener watered the flowers flat.  
*Zahradník přelil květiny*
4. The bottle broke open.  
*lahve se zlomila otevřená*
5. She ate herself sick.  
*Jedla a byla z toho nemocná*

**RP=PP**

1. Tom broke the sink into pieces.  
*Tom zlomil umyvadlo na kousky*
2. He drank himself to death.  
*Opil se až umřel*
3. The tiger bled to death.  
~~Tiger vykrvácel~~ *Tiger zemřel protože krvácel*
4. She walked herself into exhaustion.  
*Chodila až do vyčerpání*
5. She cried herself to sleep.  
*Brečela až z toho usla.*

**To what extent are English resultative phrases comprehensible for  
9th grade students?**

**Translate these sentences into Czech**

**RP=AP**

1. The river froze solid.  
Řeka pevně zamrzla.
2. Sara painted the wall blue.  
Sára <sup>vy</sup>malovala zeď modře.
3. The gardener watered the flowers flat.  
Zahradník zalil květiny do placata.
4. The bottle broke open.  
Lahev je z venku rozbítá.
5. She ate herself sick.  
Snědla svou nemoc.

**RP=PP**

1. Tom broke the sink into pieces.  
Tom rozbil umyvadlo na kousky.
2. He drank himself to death.  
Opil se do smrti.
3. The tiger bled to death.  
Týgr krvácel do ~~smrti~~ smrti.
4. She walked herself into exhaustion.  
Chodila do vyčerpání.
5. She cried herself to sleep.  
Brečela <sup>dokud</sup> ~~ne~~ usla.

## **Resumé**

Tato diplomová práce se zabývá problematikou anglických rezultativních konstrukcí a jejich frází vyjadřující následek. Teoretická část shrnuje a objasňuje typy konstrukcí a typy jednotlivých frází. Praktická část je rozdělena na 2 části. První část se zabývá porozuměním a postojem učitelů k výuce rezultativních frází na druhém stupni základní školy. Druhá část je věnována žákům a jejich překladům anglických rezultativních konstrukcí a jejich frází. Žáci přeložili 10 anglických konstrukcí, které byly analyzovány. Následně, český ekvivalent rezultativní fráze byl přiřazen, pokud existuje.

## Annotation

Jméno a příjmení:	Bc. Rostislav Vepřek
Katedra:	Ústav cizích jazyků
Vedoucí práce:	dr hab. Konrad Szcześniak
Rok obhajoby:	2023

Název práce:	Anglické fráze vyjadřující následek a jejich české ekvivalenty
Název v angličtině:	English resultative phrases and their Czech equivalents
Anotace práce:	Tato diplomová práce se zabývá anglickými frázemi vyjadřujícími následek a jejich českými ekvivalenty. Zabývá se postojem učitelů k výuce těchto frází na druhém stupni základní školy a zkoumá porozumění těchto frází u žáků 9. tříd. Teoretická část shrnuje poznatky a objasňuje terminologii ohledně rezultativních konstrukcí a jejich frází, a představuje 2 typy anglických rezultativních frází. Praktická část se zabývá porozuměním a postojem učitelů k výuce těchto frází na druhém stupni základní školy. Dále zkoumá porozumění anglických rezultativních konstrukcí a jejich frází u žáků 9. tříd. 10 rezultativních konstrukcí a jejich frází bylo žáky přeloženo z angličtiny do češtiny. Tyto anglické fráze byly analyzovány a český ekvivalent byl přiřazen, pokud existuje.
Klíčová slova	Rezultativní konstrukce, rezultativní fráze, konstrukce, fráze, věta, angličtina, čeština, učitel, žák.
Anotace v angličtině	This diploma thesis focuses on English resultative phrases and their Czech equivalents. It investigates teachers' attitudes towards teaching these phrases in lower secondary school, as well as 9th grade students' comprehension. The theoretical part summarises previous findings and clarifies the terminology for resultative constructions and phrases, and it presents 2 types of English resultative phrases. The practical part focuses on teachers' understanding and attitudes towards teaching these phrases in lower secondary school. It also investigates 9th grade students' comprehension of English resultative constructions and their phrases. Students translated 10 English resultative constructions and their phrases from English to Czech. These English phrases were examined, and the Czech equivalents, if any, were assigned.
Klíčová slova v angličtině:	Resultative construction, resultative phrase, construction, phrase, sentence, English, Czech, teacher, student, RP, PP, AP.
Přílohy vázané k práci:	
Rozsah práce:	87
Jazyk práce:	Angličtina