

The Pronoun “one” in English and Its Czech Translations

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ABSTRAKT

Tato práce se zaměřuje na anglické zájmeno *'one'* a jeho české překlady. Hlavní důraz je kladen na tři hlavní rozdělení tohoto zájmena, a to numerického, zástupného a generického. Práce je založena na teorii použití zájmena *'one'*, na základě které jsou uvedeny příklady. Některé z příkladů jsou porovnány s českým jazykem za účelem poskytnutí českého překladu. Cílem této práce je popsat jednotlivé funkce zájmena *'one'* v angličtině a následně analyzovat podobnosti a rozdíly v českém jazyce a jeho překladech. Následným cílem je ukázat, že *'one'* není v angličtině jen neurčitým zájmenem a do češtiny se dá přeložit několika způsoby.

Klíčová slova: zájmena, numerické *'one'*, zástupné *'one'*, generické *'one'*, český překlad

ABSTRACT

This thesis focuses on pronoun *one* in English and its Czech translations. The main emphasis is placed on the three main distinctions of the pronoun *one*, namely numerical, substitute and generic *one*. The thesis contains a theoretical background of the usage of pronoun *one* while providing examples. Some of the examples are compared to the Czech language in order to provide Czech translation of *one*. The aim of this thesis is to describe the different functions of pronoun *one* in English and then analyze similarities and differences within the Czech language and its translations. The follow-up aim is, to show that *one* is not always an indefinite pronoun in English and it has various translations in Czech.

Keywords: pronouns, numerical *one*, substitute *one*, generic *one*, Czech translation

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I hereby declare that the print version of my Bachelor's/Master's thesis and the electronic version of my thesis deposited in the IS/STAG system are identical.

CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION	8
1 NUMERICAL <i>ONE</i>	9
1.1 NUMERICAL AND SINGULATIVE <i>ONE</i>	9
1.2 FUSED HEAD NP	10
1.3 QUANTIFIERS	11
2 SUBSTITUTE <i>ONE</i>	12
2.1 THE NOUN HEAD	14
2.2 NOMINAL EXPRESSION	14
2.3 EACH OTHER AND <i>ONE</i> ANOTHER	15
2.4 <i>ONE</i> AND OTHER	18
2.5 <i>ONE OF</i> ... CONSTRUCTION	19
2.5.1 <i>One of who</i> ...singular override	19
2.6 THIS/THAT + PRO-FORM <i>ONE</i>	20
2.6.1 Fused head construction	21
2.6.2 Further use of demonstrative pronouns	21
2.7 OMISSION OF <i>ONE</i>	22
3 GENERIC <i>ONE</i>	24
3.1 COREFERENCE AMONG NPs	25
3.1.1 The bound variable	26
3.1.2 Not referring expressions	27
3.2 REFLEXIVES IN ENGLISH AND CZECH	28
3.2.1 No <i>one</i>	29
4 GENERAL HUMAN AGENT	33
4.1 GENERAL HUMAN AGENT IN ENGLISH	33
4.2 GENERAL HUMAN AGENT IN CZECH	33
4.2.1 Generic <i>He</i>	34
4.2.2 Singular <i>They</i>	34
4.2.3 Generic <i>You</i>	36
4.2.4 Generic <i>one</i>	37
4.2.5 Syntactic Functions	38
5 CZECH TRANSLATION OF <i>ONE</i>	40
CONCLUSION	42
BIBLIOGRAPHY	43
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	45

INTRODUCTION

This thesis focuses on pronoun *one* in English and its Czech translations. The main emphasis is placed on the three main groups of the pronoun *one* which will be discussed in the first three chapters.

The first chapter discusses pronoun *one* labelled as numerical which can be divided into other different types, depending on their usage and meaning. Following chapters deal with the other two types of pronoun *one*, namely substitute and generic, where the substitute *one* is mainly discussed. In such case *one* also works with demonstratives *this* and *that*, it can replace only a *head* noun but also the whole nominal expressions, etc. The third chapter focuses on generic *one* which has the added reflexive *oneself* and genitive *one's* forms distinguishing it from the previous two types. This thesis also contains a chapter about a general human agent, where the short comparison of English and Czech general human agent is presented. Then, it discusses the general human agent while using different personal pronouns, including the pronoun *one*. The last part of the thesis is dedicated to the translations of pronoun *one* into the Czech language.

The aim of this thesis is to describe the different functions of pronoun *one* in English and then analyze similarities and differences within the Czech language and its translations. The follow-up aim is, to show that *one* is not always an indefinite pronoun in English and it has various translations in Czech.

The examples in the bachelor thesis are in numerical order, they are given in italics. Czech translations are given below English examples, and these are followed by English glosses. For the analyzed functions, I used examples from the Czech National Corpus, examples of translation are based on the cited literature and dictionaries, and in several examples where it is mentioned in the text, I adopted examples from the cited literature or I created them by myself. The examples demonstrate, i.e., different parts of speech in which *one* might occur, the relationship among an antecedent and an anaphora or the connection to an indefinite article *a*.

Although the word *one* is considered as an indefinite pronoun, there are some situations in the English language, in which this statement might be doubted. *One* seems to be typically used to avoid repeating a noun and is viewed as gender-neutral. Based on the fact that *one* is a versatile word, it has several different functions, which can conveniently work together.

1 NUMERICAL *ONE*

The cardinal numeral *one* is singular and count. (I would like an/one apple vs. *I would like one oats.) Cardinal numbers apply on a question ‘how many?’ and they define entities based on quantity (Biber et al. 1999, 89). Numerical *one* is unchangeable, constant, but might be used as other cardinals, on the one hand as a determiner, which is obligatory within count nouns, on the other hand as the head of a noun phrase (Quirk et al. 1985, 386).

- | | |
|-----------------------------|---------------------------|
| (1) Determinative function | (2) head function |
| <i>(the) one girl/table</i> | <i>one of the friends</i> |
| <i>a girl/table</i> | |

1.1 Numerical and singulative *one*

Even though determinative *one* fits into the cardinal numeral’s distinction, it has other functions which do not correspond with higher numerals. Therefore, two different uses are made – numerical (one_n) and singulative (one_s) (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 386):

- | | |
|--|---|
| (3) a. <i>They have one_n dog and two cats.</i> | b. <i>He woke up one_s rainy morning.</i> |
| (4) a. <i>At least one_n pear fell.</i> | b. <i>Not one_s pear fell.</i> |
| (5) a. <i>He wants one_n or more presents.</i> | b. <i>For one_s reason or another, they’re late.</i> |
| (6) a. <i>That one_n move saved his life.</i> | b. <i>[no use of one_s as a modifier]</i> |
| (7) a. <i>[no emotive use on one_n]</i> | b. <i>That’s one_s big house.</i> |

Examples (3) to (7) show how numerical and singulative *one* differ in their usage within the frame of cardinal numbers. Despite the fact that Czech doesn’t have these types of distinctions, it might be applied uniformly. Compare (3a) with *They have two dogs* etc., in Czech *Mají dva psy*. On the other hand, (3b) cannot be compared similarly with **He woke up two rainy mornings*, same in Czech **Probudil se dvě deštivá rána*. This aspect arises historically from strengthening the usage of an indefinite article *a* instead of *one*, which causes that one_s behaves in many ways as a stressed counterpart of *a* (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 386). It is also worth mentioning that the connection between an indefinite article *a* and *one* is visible within the numerals, such as one hundred dollars / a hundred dollars, one thousand tones / a thousand tones, one million things/ a million things. In English, the

position of *one/a* is obligatory in contrast to the Czech language, where the numeral *one*, as *jeden*, is usually omitted (Dušková 2012, 139).

In (4a) *one_n* cooperates with modifiers similarly to other cardinals: *at most*, *at least*, etc. These structures are unsuitable for *one_s* which can occur with *not*, as shown in (4b). This *not* is unacceptable with higher cardinals **Not six peaches fell*, but it is respectable while using *a*: *Not one_s/ a peach fell*.

The examples (5a) and (5b) distinguish between the *one_n* and its coordination with *or more* (5a) and corresponding coordination of *one_s* with *another*, as in (5b), which is taken as a matter of a reason, not as the answer to the question how many reasons. *One_n* can be in the position of a modifier right after a determiner, as demonstrated in (6a).

Following already mentioned examples, other cardinals are possible here as well. However, *one_s* is limited only to determiner function and cannot be used as a modifier. In contrast to *one_n* it is able to carry an exaggeration as a sign of strong emotions, as in (7b), which communicates that the house is especially big (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 386). It could be said that the translation of numerical *one* clearly seems to be *jeden* in Czech, while the translation of singulative *one* does not seem to be clear. It could be *jeden [one]*, or *žádný/ ani jeden [none/ not even one]* in comparison with (4b) or even *nějaký [some]* (5b).

1.2 Fused head NP

Huddleston and Pullum say that cardinal numerals might be seen in a simple (8a) or partitive (8b) fused head NP constructions and that *singulative one* is not an exception. Again, it is found in a position where the indefinite article *a* is unable to exist and in the specific types of sentences where its interpretation could be *a person [člověk, někdo]*, as in (8c) (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 387):

- (8) a. *Julia found a mistake in the report, and I found *a/one_s as well. [simple]*
 b. *They bought us three tickets but one of them was to a different show. [partitive]*
 c. *She acts like ones who think about themselves they're the best. [special]*

1.3 Quantifiers

Another subcategory of numerical *one* could be a quantifier. As mentioned above, cardinal numbers define entities based on quantity, which is the overall semantic concept that reunites a major part of indefinites. For this reason, *one* (and also other members of indefinite pronouns, such as *all*, *any*, *each*, *both*, *-one*, *-body*, etc.) is identified as a separate class labelled quantifiers (Delahunty and Garvey 2010, 205). Compare these two sentences:

(9) a. *He has just found a / (one) black pen.*

b. *Melanie is a /*(one) lawyer.*

These examples also demonstrate the situations in which it is possible to replace an indefinite article *a* by *one*, and in which it turns out to be ungrammatical. Sentence (9a) represents an existential quantification that quantitative *a* signifies. In terms of choosing a *singular head* it implies “one”, and there is the common implicature in the (9a) that *he has just found no more than one black pen*. However, the problem with using the indefinite article *a* is that it does not say how much is hidden there, therefore the cardinal *one* is being used instead of *a* when it is necessary to differentiate *one* and *more than one*. The sentence (9b) displays the non-quantitative use of an indefinite article *a* which is shown in predicative complement expressing simple set membership. This means *Melanie* is a part of a group denoted by the noun *lawyer* and this singular NP [*a lawyer*] in the predicative complement role is connected to the singularity of *Melanie* but still cannot be replaced by *one* as it is not quantitative itself (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 372).

This chapter dealt with one of the three main types of pronoun *one*, which is the numerical *one*. It described that numerical *one* functions in many ways as other cardinals and it can have a *determinative* function and *head* function. It also differs from the higher cardinals. Therefore, the *numerical* and *singulative* distinction was used. This chapter also included a comparison to Czech translations of *numerical one* and its other functions, such as *fused head NP* construction or being a quantifier.

2 SUBSTITUTE *ONE*

The substitute pro-form¹ *one* has the same function as a numerical *one* in a sense of replacing a countable noun. According to Dušková (2003, 89), there are three areas where substitute *one* can be applied. First as the substitute pro-form instead of a countable noun, as in (10). Second replacement is connected to the indefinite unspecific determination without pre-modification with the plural form *some*, as in (11). The third example of substitute *one* is related to an adjective pre-modification (12) in which the plural *ones* is necessary (13).

(10) *That issue is one (an issue) of a great difficulty.*

(11) *I see no four-leaf clovers, can you show me one/some?*

(12) *The yellow colour looks better than a blue one.*

(13) *Have you seen her golden rings? She has some very rare ones.*

In the Czech language, there is also a tendency to avoid repeating a noun. Therefore, it would be rare to see sentences where two same nouns are mentioned. The assumption that English *one* is translated into Czech mostly as *nějaký* [*some/one*] or *jeden* [*one*] is supported in previous examples (10,11,12,13).

On the other hand, according to Quirk et al. (1985, 869), *one* as substitute form generates only two substitute pro-forms, namely *some* as the plural of *one*, and *ones* as the plural of the other. Both pro-forms are constantly unstressed, and therefore they derive from numeral *one*. In addition, these two types are limited to substitution for phrases where only count nouns as *heads* occur.

(14) *Can you go to the shop and buy me a few carrots?*

I need one. (a carrot)

I need some. (carrots)

This example is the illustration of the two different types of substitute *one* mentioned above. When answering the question (14) with *I need one*, it basically means that *you need only one carrot* while replying with *I need some*, which is the plural of one, it means *you are asking for more than one carrot*. To make it clear, instead of *I need one* there could be *I need a*

¹ *Pro-form* is a common term for a pronoun that stands for NP's (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 1461)

carrot, and instead of *I need some*, there could be *I need some carrots*. Comparing this situation to Czech, sentences *I need one* and *I need some* would be probably both translated the same *Potřebuji jednu (mrkev)* and *Potřebuji nějaké (mrkve)*.

A statement from Quirk et al. (1985, 872) says that *some* and *ones* are in function of substitutes in phrases where only count noun appear. I may disapprove at this point, as a result of *some* being also applicable to noncount nouns, providing the sentence, which Quirk et al. also have in their book:

(15) *Shall I pass the butter? Or have you got some already?*

In these sentences, it is visible that *some* in the second sentence is a substitute of *butter* from the first sentence, which is obviously a noncount noun.

Even though *one* is considered as a pronoun, it has already been mentioned that it carries more meanings and functions, and another issue arises:

(16) *Do you have any blue pen?*

- a. *I only want to borrow one. [pronoun]*
- b. *I only want to borrow one. [numeral]*

One in these answers could be perceived in two different functions. In (16a) it is viewed as a *pronoun*, where *one* is diminished version of a *pen* and with the combination of the verb *borrow* it implies the contrast that *I actually do not want you to give me one, just lend it*. Whereas, in (16b) *one* implicates for *one pen* (in contrast to two, three, etc.)

(16a) *I only want to borrow one. [pronoun]*

Chci si jen nějakou půjčit.

[(I) want only some borrow.]

(16b) *I only want to borrow one. [numeral]*

Chci si jen jednu půjčit.

[(I) want only one borrow.]

From this point of view, the Czech translations (16a) considering *one* as a pronoun and (16b) considering *one* as *numeral* are applied uniformly as in English. The interpretation of *some pen* and *just one pen* could be found in the Czech language, too.

Based on a finding of Swan (2005, 370), substitute *one* has also plural form – *ones*, which he demonstrates on the sentence *I'd like to try on those shoes. Which ones?* The substitute *ones* replace *shoes* in this sentence. Therefore, *ones* is used for the plural countable noun. Substitute *one* has a tendency, preferably with modification, to be recognized as a colloquial instrument, which is not used in formal speech or professional style (Dušková 2003, 134).

2.1 The noun head

It is said that substitute *one* is usually used instead of repeating a singular countable noun, as in Swan's example (17). In this example, all *one/ones* replace only a single word *knife*. More precisely, this *one* is marked as “pro-noun” (Swan 2005, 369).

(17) *Have you any knives? I need a sharp one. I can get you several very sharp ones, but this is the best (one) I have.*

2.2 Nominal expression

The term *nominal expression* is a kind of a unit that behaves as one constituent for purposes of substitution and ellipsis. As mentioned above, *one* can stand for a single word – the noun head. But it also may take place of a nominal expression² that consists of pre-modification, as well as the head (18), head and post-modification (19) or head that is pre- and post-modified (20) (Quirk et al. 1985, 869):

(18) *If you want to taste [sea food], you may be interested in this one in today's special offer.*

(19) *[The kids who really need to be out working with their hands and learning what fresh food tastes like] are the ones who aren't doing it.*

(20) *I recognised [the old tall man with the scar on his face]. The one that I met five years ago.*

² The term *nominal* means usage of parts of the speech within a sentence. More precisely, the term *nominal* describes word(s) that has the function of a noun (ThoughtCo 2018)

One replacing only *the head noun* is not attended by determiners or modification in (17), as it replaces only the word *knives*, in contrast to *one* as a *pro-form* for nominal expressions in (18, 19,20) which require the determiner or modifier.

As a result, *one* is not typically committed to the determiner or modification in (17). On the other hand, it is obligatory for *one* in a nominal expression to have an overt modifier or determiner (18, 19, 20). In addition, the former *one* can be considered as a merger of the second *one* with an indefinite article in front, *a + one*. This explains why **a one* is not found together (Quirk et al. 1985, 870).

The only case in which this variation might be heard is in a casual speech, to emphasise “a single one”, as in (21), or in a way to amuse somebody, as in (22). Thus, that is considered rather as a nonstandard usage (Quirk et al. 1985, 387).

(21) *I had a lot of [chewing gums], and now I haven't got a one.*

(22) *You are a one!*

2.3 Each other and *one another*

To substitute *one* subcategorization might also belong reciprocal *one another*. Some English grammarians persuade people to make a difference between reciprocal pronouns *each other*, which should be used when referring to two people, and *one another*, which fits for more than two people. The same statement can be also found in the *Comprehensive Grammar* by Quirk et al., they add that there is a stylistic difference – *each other* is usually used in an informal style, while *one another* is more common in a formal context (1985, 364). But in practice, these two phrases are interchangeable. The idea that there is no difference between *each other* and *one another* is supported by Swan (2005, 153).

The Czech translation does not differentiate between these two phrases either. The phrase *each other* has the same translation as *one another*, specifically *navzájem [mutually]*, as can be substantiated from the Czech National Corpus below. In addition to *one another* Thompson and Martinet (1986, 17) talk about a special use of pronoun *one* as an adjective, as in *One kid wanted an airplane, another (kid) thought of a bike.*

Výchozí jazyk: Angličtina → Cílový jazyk: Čeština Omezit na: Kolekce: 6

one another Hledej

Lemmata Víceslovné Regulární A = a

▲ Frekvence ▼	▲ Procenta ▼	▲ Angličtina ▼	▲ Čeština ▼
194	36.1	one another	navzájem
73	13.6	one another	sebe

(Treq ČNK 2015)

Výchozí jazyk: Angličtina → Cílový jazyk: Čeština Omezit na: Kolekce: 6

each other Hledej

Lemmata Víceslovné Regulární A = a

▲ Frekvence ▼	▲ Procenta ▼	▲ Angličtina ▼	▲ Čeština ▼
1506	28.2	each other	navzájem
586	11.0	each other	sebe

(Treq ČNK 2015)

Based on the information from this database, it is obvious that the two mentioned phrases *each other* and *one another* are both translated as *navzájem* [mutually]. However, the phrase *each other* has a higher frequency in actual usage, which is visible in the second picture. The frequency in use of *each other* as *navzájem* is 1506, which represents 28.2 percent per its overall usage, while the frequency of *one another* is 194, which represents 36.1 percent of its overall usage. The frequencies are based on the usage of these two phrases in the literature mostly, documents connected to the legal proceedings and subtitles. Here are some of the examples. The first picture provides examples from Michel Foucault's book *The Order of Things*, the second extract is taken from Jane Austen's *Pride and Prejudice*, Iain M. Banks' *A Song of Stone* and John Banville's *The Sea*.

It becomes a defect only if the models have not been precisely ordered and explicitly articulated in relation to one another .	Foucault-Slova_a_veci	Chyba nastane pouze tehdy , pokud metody nejsou navzájem uspořádány a explicitně artikulovány .
Since man posits himself in the field of positive knowledge only in so far as he speaks , works , and lives , can his history ever be anything but the inextricable nexus of different times , which are foreign to him and heterogeneous in respect of one another ?	Foucault-Slova_a_veci	Protože se člověk dává pozitivnímu vědění jenom potud , pokud mluví , pracuje a žije , bude moci být jeho historie něco jiného než nerozpletné jádro různých časů , jež mu jsou cizí a jež si jsou navzájem cizorodé ?
' Let us try to cling to that respect we have always had for one another .	fowles-franc_milenka	" Snažme se držet té úcty , kterou jsme k sobě vždycky navzájem měli .

They were able to love each other even as well as they intended .	austen-pycha	Dokázaly se mít navzájem tolik rády , jak se o to snažily .
the quickness found in living things which ranks above the rest and makes fire , air , earth and water seem closer to each other than ever they are to it .	banks-pisen_kamene	Řadí se nad ostatní živly a tolik se od nich liší , že díky ní se oheň , vzduch , země a voda zdají k sobě navzájem mnohem blíže .
They did not tell each other what was in the dream .	banville-more	Nepověděli si navzájem , co v tom snu bylo .

Not only Swan refers to the same meaning of *each other* and *one another*, but also Murphy (1994, 164) mentions that it is possible to use *one another* instead of *each other* while providing examples:

(23) *How long have you and Bill known each other/one another?*

(24) *Sue and Ann don't like each other/one another.*

Each other and *one another* do not occur in the position of a subject, normally. Although, this exceptionally happens in very informal speech, in subordinate clauses (25) (Swan 2005, 153):

(25) *They each listened carefully to what the other said.*

In addition, both of these expressions have their possessive forms – *each other's* and *one another's* (Swan 2005, 153). As mentioned above, they are interchangeable:

(26) *They will sit for hours looking into each other's/one another's eyes.*

However, there are some verbs in the English language which work perfectly without these reciprocal pronouns, which are, in these cases, optional, such as *to embrace*, *meet* or *kiss* (Quirk et al. 1985, 364). In the Czech language, in which *obejmout se* [*to embrace*], *potkat se* [*to meet*] or *políbit/ líbat se* [*to kiss*] for instance, are considered as reflexive verbs while using reflexive particle *se/si*. This particle in Czech denotes the intention which these *each other* and *one another* phrases denote in English in this case. Therefore, it is not necessary to add *each other* or *one another* in a Czech sentence. Even though it would not be strictly ungrammatical, but it would sound unnatural:

(27) *Julia and Michael met (each other) in Denver.*

Julie a Michael se (?navzájem) potkali v Denveru.

[*Julia and Michael mutually met in Denver.*]

2.4 *One and other*

One and *other* are much closer to each other than the other pronouns. As this *one* still stands for other words in a sentence, I have decided to place this subchapter under the substitute *one*. Another proof of *one* not being simply indefinite pronoun is that pronouns do not permit modifiers like **some you*, *our one another*. Therefore, *one* and *other* that are commonly labelled as pronouns might be excluded from the traditional category, because they are able to take determiners (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 429):

(28) a. *Which cars do you prefer?*

The ones by Skoda.

b. *Which apples do you want?*

The three others.

Example (28) shows how pro-nominal *one* and *other* differentiate themselves from other pronouns, as *it* or *they*, for instance. Because they inflect for number. Moreover, in the NP structure, they can carry the same scope of dependents as other common nouns (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 430). Comparing the first sentence of the example (28a) to Czech, it could be said that *ones* would not be translated. This phenomenon is based on non-prodrop and pro-drop language structure and the fact that the Czech language is able to work without subject position:

(28) a. *Which cars do you prefer?*

Jaké auta upřednostňuješ?

[Which cars prefer (you)?]

The ones by Skoda.

Ty od Škody.

[Those (ones) from Škoda.]

2.5 *One of ... construction*

A pronoun and a determiner are bound to the indefinites, which fuses their positions in *of*-expressions. The result is either a noun or a personal pronoun that is preceded by a determiner (Greenbaum and Sydney 1990, 125). However, *one of ...* construction is normally followed by a verb in the singular (Swan 2005, 372). In Czech *one of ...* construction, *jeden z [one of]* might observe the same rule connected to the subject-verb agreement.

(29) a. *One of the dogs has run away.*

Jeden z psů utekl pryč.

[One of the dogs (he) ran away]

b. **One of the dogs have run away.*

* Jeden ze psů utekli pryč.

[One of the dogs (they) ran away]

2.5.1 *One of who ...singular override*

There are two structures within the NPs of the form “one of determiner noun relative-clause.” The first one is based on whether the relative clause is a part of the embedded NP (where a noun is a head), as in (30), or it belongs to the second one (with *one* as a fused determiner-head), demonstrated in (31) (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 506):

(30) *The tulip is [one of the flowers you can observe at the beginning of spring].*

(31) [*One of her friends who she firmly believed let her down*].

In (30) the relative clause modifies *flowers*, meaning there is a set or a group of flowers *you can observe at the beginning of spring*, and the *tulip* is just one member of this group. In contrast, (31) cannot be interpreted in the same fashion. The relative clause fits together with the very first NP and not only *friends* as the head. The matter is not of being a set of friends whom she believed in (31) but being just one friend whom she believed. These examples show that a number of verbs would be driven by antecedent, allowing a plural verb in (30) and a singular in (31). Nevertheless, within the singular override there could be found examples that do not respect the rule, as in Huddleston and Pullum's examples (2002, 506):

- (32) a. *He's [one of those people who always want to have the last word].*
 b. *He's [one of those people who always wants to have the last word].*
 c. *He's [one of her colleagues who is always ready to criticise her].*

Examples (32a) and (32c) are established on the ordinary rule described above, but (32b) involves singular override. It can reasonably be attributed to the importance within the whole structure of *one* as in (30), also to the influence of the second type structure (31). However, it cannot be considered as a semantically based override, because semantically the relative clause modifies the word *people* and singular override used here is the most common when the relative clause can be found after *those* or *those + noun*.

2.6 This/that + pro-form *one*

Another case, where the specific use of the substitute *one* is found, is *this/that + one* combination. *This* and *that* standing on their own are often equivalents to NPs where pro-form *one* functions as a *head*. The special case with fused determiner-head *that* will be briefly discussed here.

(33) *[This painting] is better known than [that (one)].*

(34) *[The cake you prepared last year for the party] was kind of tasteless for me but [this (one)] is perfect.*

The fundamental difference between the use of *that* and *one* says *that* contains a definite article, sometimes (as a non-deictic *that*) demands a post head dependent and is capable of a singular non-count antecedent. On the contrary, *one* works easily as a head and as such

incorporates with separate determiner components. *That* in (35) and (36) does not correspond to *one* alone but to *that + one* and *the + one*. Both of them (*one, that*) need a dependent, while *one* is able to appear with pre-head as well as post-head dependents (*the better one, the one from team A*), *that* can stand only in post-head position (e.g. *that which we used to think of last week*) (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 1509).

2.6.1 Fused head construction

Other cases in which *one* is replicable by the other without any change in meaning are mentioned in Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 1512):

- (35) a. *These seats are still available: [Which one(s)] do you want?*
 b. *These seats are still available: [Which] do you want?*
 a. *What seats have you got? I want [the cheapest one(s) available].*
 b. *What seats have you got? I want [the cheapest] available.*

Each pair of sentences (35a) consists of pro-nominal *one* as a *head*, while in (35b) there is *fused head* with a *dependent*, the determiner *which* and the modifier *cheapest*. Each pair uses anaphorical interpretation with *seats* as an antecedent (*which seats* and *the cheapest seats*), where instead of repetition of *seats* the substitution of the pro-form *one* can be used, or it can be omitted. Therefore, the dependent requires *head* function. Furthermore, the contrast between singular and plural is visible while using *one*, but it is not expressed while using the fused-head NP (2002, 1512).

2.6.2 Further use of demonstrative pronouns

One is connected to demonstrative *this* and *that*. In English as well as in Czech demonstrative pronouns refer to the certain person, animal, thing or characteristic (Havránek and Jedlička 2002, 89). Demonstratives can also represent slightly emphatic third-person pronoun while combined with pronoun *one*. It is used to refer to people or things that were already mentioned (Naughton 2005, 87):

- (36) *Take off that coat!*
 Vysleč si ten kabát!

- (37) a. *That one didn't tell us anything.*

Ten nám nic neřekl.

[*That (one) nothing didn't tell.*]

b. **One didn't tell us anything.*

Nic nám neřekl. (ten)

[*nothing us (he) didn't tell.*]

(38) *Take some apples. These ones are really tasty.*

Vezměte si nějaká jablka. Tyhle jsou opravdu chutné.

[*Take some apples. These (ones) are really tasty.*]

These examples show that the combinations of *that one* or *these ones* in English are translated the same in Czech, as a demonstrative pronoun *ten* for singular and *tyhle* for plural. The main difference is based on Czech as a pro-drop language and English as non-pro-drop language. That explains why elliptically omitted *head* noun works in Czech and it is still grammatical and fully understood, if their presence is indicated by one or more agreeing premodifiers. On the other hand, its position is obligatory in English (Veselovská 2014, 10).

This statement is also supported in *Stručná mluvnice česká* [A Brief Grammar of Czech Language] which states that the subject is not usually expressed in Czech if it is obvious from the situation or context, or from the verb form (Dušková 2003, 150). That is the reason why there is no need to put first or nor second personal pronoun, neither third personal pronoun in a position of a subject (Havránek and Jedlička 2002, 155).

2.7 Omission of *one*

Although *one* seems to be a fairly universal tool, there are situations in which it cannot be used. *One* is typically not used while there is an adnominal case or possessive pronouns. It is also not used after numerals or while listing adjectives, as in (39) (Dušková 2003, 134). In addition, *one* is excluded from use after *my* or *your*, for example, or *some*, *several*, or *both*, as in (40) (Swan 2005, 370). In Czech, it works the same. After a possessive or numbers, there is no need to add anything else, not even after *some* [*nějaký*], *several* [*několik*] or *both* [*oba*], as it is perfectly understandable and grammatical.

(39) a. *You can sit at my place or at Paul's. (*at Paul's one)*

Můžeš si sednout na moje místo nebo na Pavlovo. (**na jedno/nějaké Pavlovo*)

b. *One song is not enough, there will be at least three needed. (*at least three ones)*

Jedna skladba nestačí, budou potřeba alespoň tři. (**alespoň tři jedny*)

(40) a. *Take your drink and pass me mine. (*pass me mine one)*

Vezmi si svůj nápoj a podej mi můj. (**podej mi můj jeden*)

b. *I like the blue and the pink bracelet. I'll take both. (*both ones)*

Líbí se mi ten modrý i ten růžový náramek. Vezmu si oba. (**oba jedny*)

This chapter describes another main type of pronoun *one* that is called substitute *one*. The substitute *one* is used to avoid repeating a noun as well as the numerical *one*, but it has plural form *ones*. Not only can it stand for a singular word, but also for a whole nominal expression that might be both, pre- and post-modified. It is also connected to the reciprocal *one another*, which does not occur in a position of a subject. As well as *other*, *one* is not strictly pronoun, which is demonstrated in this chapter. It also appears in *one of* construction, where the idea of *one* translated into Czech as *jeden* is supported. Moreover, the chapter concentrates on *one* and its relationship to demonstrative pronouns *this* and *that*. Last part of this chapter shows situations in which *one* cannot be used, mainly with possessive pronouns or *some*.

3 GENERIC ONE

Another category distinguishable in the usage of pronoun *one* is the generic *one*. The typical pattern of this function is its occurrence primarily in the singular and with personal gender. The main difference from the previously mentioned distinctions in the first and second chapter is that it has genitive form *one's* as well as the reflexive form *oneself*. The meaning of *generic one* is usually corresponding with “people in general”, while there is a specific reference to the speaker (Quirk 1985, 387), as in:

(41) *I like when my friends ask me for advice. It makes **one** feel needy.*

Biber et al. also state that generic *one* is used for “people in general”, providing example (1999, 354):

(42) ***One** doesn't raise taxes with enthusiasm, but the alternative is public sector borrowing going through the roof.*

Based on corpus research of Biber et al. it can be claimed that the usage of generic *one* is not as usual as the one with substitute *one*. Also, the generic *one* is connected to the written form, primarily in fiction or academic prose. The table shows its occurrence per million words, where each ● stands for 50 and ⊙ means less than 25 (1999, 354):

	CONVERSATION	FICTION	NEWS	ACAD
Substitute one				
This one	●●●●●●●	●	⊙	⊙
That one	●●●●●●●●●●●●●●	●	⊙	⊙
The (other) one	●●●●●●●●	●●	●	●
The (other) ones	●●	⊙	⊙	⊙
Generic one	⊙	●●●●●●●	●●	●●●●●●●●●●

(Biber et al. distribution of pronoun *one* 1999, 354)

When focusing on the generic *one* it clearly strays from the overall distribution of pronouns. Its perception as an impersonal option for a personal pronoun used for people, in general, could be a possible reason why generic *one* is mostly applied in fiction and academic prose. This observation is a result of generalizations which was obligatory in academic works in the time of preoccupation when authors had to deal with an impersonal, objective style (1999, 355).

As stated above, the generic *one* has a genitive and reflexive form. From this point of view, it can be considered as a personal pronoun, and not only an indefinite pronoun, because the reflexive form cannot be seen outside the personal pronouns class (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 426).

3.1 Coreference among NPs

In connection with the generic *one*, there could be also mentioned the coreference between an anaphora and an antecedent. Even though the generic *one* carries certain personal gender, it cannot be used in the same way as typical personal pronouns. The easiest and most common relation between NPs that are anaphorically associated is the one of coreference, as in Huddleston and Pullum's examples (2002, 1458):

- (43) a. *The drummer* was late because he had overslept.
 b. One was late because one had overslept.

The sentence (43a) demonstrates coreferential relation among *he* and *the drummer*, in which *he* is the anaphor and *the drummer* is the antecedent. *He* is understood to assign to the same person as *the drummer*. This coreference might be observed even while using *one* (43b). To compare (43b) within the Czech translation, it supports the idea that is *one* in this sentence would be translated as *jeden [one]*, *člověk [a person, a man]*, or even *někdo [somebody]*, might be possible in here.

- (43) b. One was late because one had overslept.
 Jeden (člověk, někdo) přišel pozdě, protože zaspal.
 [*One (person, somebody) came late, because (one, he) overslept.*]

- *(44) *The drummer* was late because one had overslept again.

*(45) *A politician shouldn't take oneself too seriously.*

On the other hand, *one* deviates from third person personal pronouns in a sense that it cannot be an anaphor to another NP, as shown in (44, 45). Furthermore, mainly in American English, *one* works in the position of an antecedent for a personal pronoun anaphor (2002, 427):

(46) a. *What is one to do when he is treated like this?*

b. *One should do their best to ensure that such disputes are resolved amicably.*

These two sentences are evidence of *one* operating in a position of an antecedent for a personal pronoun anaphor and of a gender-neutral function of *one*, as it works with *he* or *they*. However, it is not the most significant feature which distinguishes it from third person singular pronoun. Most native speakers evaluate *one* as a good choice for non-referential use (while talking about people in general without necessarily including an individual) (2002, 427).

Following the earlier examples, generic *one* is viewed as too formal and is in many cases replaced colloquially by *you*, as in *You/One should believe in yourself/oneself*. In American English, there was preferred *he/his/himself* in common usage, as Quirk et al. book from 1985 describes. This is demonstrated in the following example (Quirk et al. 1985, 388):

(47) *One must be careful about one's investments. <BrE>*

One must be careful about his investments. <AmE>

Considering the sexual bias of a nowadays society, AmE starts to adopt the BrE patterns. On the other hand, in both AmE and BrE, it is rare for the generic *one* to occur in natural informal use (Quirk et al. 1985, 388).

3.1.1 The bound variable

In the English language, there can be found anaphorically linked NPs, which are not coreferential. This means that one of them is not a referring expression. Usually, an anaphor and/or its antecedent do not fulfil this condition. In that case, the bound variable interpretation is used (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 1458):

(48) *No one put their hands up.*

In this example neither *their* nor *no one* carries reference. Therefore, their anaphoric relation is best defined in terms of a bound variable, carrying the meaning approximately as *There is no person x such that x put x's hand up.*

3.1.2 Not referring expressions

Moving further into a not referring expressions, Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 1459) mention in their book that in many situations there are anaphors which are not considered a noun phrase.

(49) *He wanted a yellow car, but he got a black one.*

Chtěl žluté auto, ale dostal černé.

[*(He) wanted yellow car but (he) got black (one).*]

It is detectable from the example (49) that there is not an anaphoric relation between the NPs *a yellow car* and *a black one*. The relation is between the nouns *car* and *one*, therefore these examples cannot be considered as the referring expressions. It is clear that the antecedent, as well as anaphor, have an identical denotation, but they do not have an identical reference. Moreover, there is no relation of coreference between NPs within anaphorically associated expressions as their heads, especially *a yellow car* and *a black one*. In contrast to example (49) there might be coreference among one NP involved in the antecedent and one denoted by the anaphor (2002, 1459):

(50) *There is only one postcard from the trip here, where is the other one?*

In the example (50) it is possible to exchange the anaphor *one* for *a postcard from the trip* and it is still understood that it refers to the same *trip* as in the first clause. It is worth mentioning that it is not a universal rule and that there might be even another case:

(51) *She has got lots of postcards from trips, why does she want to buy another one?*

Example (51) provides evidence that neither antecedent *lots of postcards from trips* nor anaphor *one* show explicitly whether each of postcards are of one/ more than one *trip*. The word *trips*, in this case, do not belong to any concrete *trips*. Therefore, *why does she want to buy another one* is not considered as a question of whether she wants to buy another *postcard* of the same *trip* (2002, 1459).

3.2 Reflexives in English and Czech

As the term *reflexive* denotes, these types of pronouns reflect a different nominal part within the clause or sentence. Mostly, it is a subject which is coreference to reflexives. When talking about a reflexive form of *one* which is *oneself*, basically it appears in the function of a noun phrase in the clause or phrase structure. It works in the position of an object, complement, or a prepositional complement. However, it needs to be coreferential to the subject, but reflexive pronoun itself is not able to function in the position of a subject. Reflexive pronoun occurs in what Quirk et al. call “-object territory-“ (Quirk et al. 1985, 356).

Reflexives in English correspond with Czech reflexive participle *se/si* and pronominal forms *sebe/sobě* which are equivalents for *oneself*. English reflexive pronouns are always in the position of an object, which is coreferential with the subject. Therefore, the use of the reflexive pronoun is obligatory in English. In case of using a personal pronoun, it means including another person, another referent. It needs to be said that these examples are barely or not used in English, and are used for demonstration (Dušková 2003, 109), compare:

(52) *One believes in oneself.* *One believes one.*
 Jeden si věří. Jeden jednomu věří.

English reflexive pronouns are usually found with verbs that cannot function without object, which is therefore necessary, as for example *betray sb/oneself* [*prozradit někoho/porzradit se*], *defend somebody/defend oneself* [*bránit někoho/bránit se*], *protect somebody/protect oneself* [*chránit někoho/chránit se*], etc. (Dušková 2003, 109).

Dušková also talks about exceptions that are connected to the coreference with a reflexive pronoun. In cases where there are prepositional phrases in the function of a proverbial determination, there is no need to use a reflexive pronoun. Dušková provides the following examples (53). Contrary to the Czech language, it is obvious that Czech even in

terms of proverbial determination sticks to its English reflexive form *oneself* as [*sebe, sobě*] in different cases (2003, 109):

(53) a. *Shut the door after you.*

Zavřete za sebou dveře.

[*(You) shut behind yourself the door.*]

b. *I haven't enough money with me.*

Nemám u sebe dost peněz.

[*(I) haven't by myself enough money.*]

c. *We'll take you with us.*

Vezmeme vás s sebou.

[*(We)'ll take you with ourselves.*]

In the following examples, I would like to demonstrate that *oneself* in all three sentences has the same meaning and form in English, whereas their usage in the Czech language has a different translation in cases of *oneself*, which are *sám* and *sebe* [*by oneself*] and particle *si*. Example (54) is also another case of *one* being translated into Czech as *jeden* or *někdo*, as a person.

(54) a. *Should one help oneself?*

Měl by si jeden pomoci sám?

b. *Did one hurt oneself?*

Ublížil si někdo?

c. *One bought the house for oneself.*

Jeden si pro sebe koupil dům.

3.2.1 No one

The English language disposes of negative quantifiers such as *no* and *none* [*žádný*], neither [*žádný ze dvou*], or pronominal compounds such as *no one*, *nobody* [*nikdo*] and *nothing* [*nic*]. Using these ones in English means the verb stays positive because there is just one negation in English within the sentence. On the other hand, the Czech language requires a negative match called negative concord principle, compare (Dušková 2003, 129):

(55) *I believe in no miracles.*

Nevěřím v žádné zázraky.

[*(I) don't believe in no miracles.*]

This pattern works the same with *no one*, which Swan (2002, 354) compares with *nobody*, as having the same meaning. In Czech, *no one* could be translated as [*nikdo/žádný*].

(56) a. *No one (nobody) tells me the truth.*

Nikdo mi neříká pravdu.

[*No one me don't tell truth.*]

b. *I asked several times, but no one answered me.*

Několikrát jsem se zeptala, ale nikdo mi neodpověděl.

[*Several times I asked, but no one me didn't answer.*]

Swan (2002, 354) also mentions that expression *no one* cannot appear with the construction *of*. On the other hand, he suggests the version *not one (of)* can and it is considered more emphatic alternative than just simply using *none*. Then, the meaning would change from *nobody* or *no one* as [*nikdo/žádný*] to *not a single one* which corresponds with Czech translation [*ani jeden/žádný*]:

(57) a. **I asked several times, but no one of my friends answered me.*

Několikrát jsem se zeptala, ale nikdo/žádný z mých přátel mi neodpověděl.

[*Several times I asked, but no one of my friends me did not answer.*]

b. *I asked several times, but not one of my friends answered me.*

Několikrát jsem se zeptala, ale žádný z mých kamarádů mi neodpověděl.

[*Several times I asked, but not one of my friends me did not answer.*]

Example (57a) displays what was previously mentioned. English grammar does not allow to use *no one of ...* construction, but instead there might be used *not one of*, as in (57b). Moreover, these examples show that the Czech language is capable of working with both of these structures as both of them are grammatically correct in Czech.

Chapter three deals with the last of the three main types, namely the generic *one*, which has, in addition, genitive form *one's* and reflexive form *oneself*, therefore it stands out of the

typical indefinite pronoun class. It functions in a coreferential but also non-coreferential NPs. Because it has a certain personal gender it could appear in a position of an antecedent for a personal pronoun anaphor, mainly in AmE. However, generic *one* is not as usual as a substitute form of *one* in natural informal use and can be found mostly, in academic writing.

To sum up these three main chapters, based on previously described situations in which *one* might appear, it is now supportable that *one* can be an indefinite pronoun mostly, as well as personal, reflexive, and reciprocal pronoun, depending on the context. In terms of substitute *one* it works also as a noun or even as an adjective. Below I provide the frequency in use of *one* in American English based on the Contemporary American English Corpus:

ON WORD OR SELECT WORDS + [CONTEXT] [HELP...]

CONTEXT	ALL FORMS (SAMPLE): 100 200 500	FREQ
ONE		515241

SEE CONTEXT: CLICK ON WORD OR SELECT WORDS + [CONTEXT] [HELP...]

<input type="checkbox"/>	CONTEXT	ALL FORMS (SAMPLE): 100 200 500	FREQ
1	<input type="checkbox"/>	ONE	495418

ON WORD OR SELECT WORDS + [CONTEXT] [HELP...]

<input type="checkbox"/>	CONTEXT	ALL FORMS (SAMPLE): 100 200 500	FREQ
<input type="checkbox"/>		ONE	19821

ON WORD OR SELECT WORDS + [CONTEXT] [HELP...]

CONTEXT	ALL FORMS (SAMPLE): 100 200 500	FREQ
ONE		19790

of Contemporary American English

SEARCH FREQUENCY CONTEXT

CLICK ON WORD OR SELECT WORDS + [CONTEXT] [HELP...]

<input type="checkbox"/>	CONTEXT	ALL FORMS (SAMPLE): 100 200 500	FREQ
<input type="checkbox"/>		ONE	111

(COCA 2017)

The first table shows how *one* as a pronoun is used in American English. The frequency of 515 241 represents all pronouns in AmE. The second table shows the frequency of an indefinite pronoun *one* in AmE which is a little bit lower. The third table displays the use of *one* in terms of the personal pronoun and the fourth table focuses on the reflexive form of pronoun *one*. The last table considers *one* as a noun. Even if the frequency is not comparable to the other ones it shows that *one* as a noun is also possible.

4 GENERAL HUMAN AGENT

In terms of *one*, there could be also mentioned a general human agent. As described in the previous chapter, *one* has a personal gender that could be possibly used for *people* in general. Because sentences comprising *one* in a position of an agent has a completely universal intention and can cover every human being - *One always wakes up*, for instance (Dušková 2003, 49). Nevertheless, *one* seems to be used rarely. It is rather noticeable in the written register. Therefore, other pronouns are used for a general human agent.

4.1 General human agent in English

Generally used pronoun that stands for a general human agent in German (*man*) or French (*on*) is not visible in English. All the language means that match these pronouns have primarily different functions, therefore, their usage in a position of general human agent differs semantically and syntactically (Dušková 2003, 395). In terms of English language there can be found three different types of gender – masculine *he* for male human, feminine *she* for female human and neuter *it* for the rest which is not, therefore, general (Biber et al. 1999, 311).

Old English system of grammar would demand *he* or *him* when talking about a general human agent. Nowadays, the issue of neutral sexual gender has arisen and *he* or *him* is being replaced by other choices. In American English, an alternative, the non-referring pronoun *they* or *them* is used (Givón 1993, 228). In a professional style, there is often used a pronoun *we* that refers to a general human agent. On the other hand, in a colloquial style, there is typically used the second person *you* which is more common than *one* (Dušková 2003, 395).

4.2 General human agent in Czech

There are many ways how to express general human agent in English as well as in Czech. The use of explicit or implicit means depends on the functional style (Dušková 2003, 395). The word *člověk* (singular)/*lidé* (plural) which stands for *people* in general in Czech could have a similar meaning as English word *you*, as in following Dušková's example (58). But similarly, to English, there is not the concrete term which would express general human agent. There could be used other means for a general human agent, as *people*, *a man*, *a fellow*, *a guy*, *a person*, etc. which all syntactically correspond to Czech word *lidé* [*people*]. Moreover, *generic one* could be used for term *lidé* and it would have the same function in Czech. The Czech word *člověk/lidé* [*human/humans*] includes the speaker as the English

one does. The problem with a generic *one* and its translation to Czech is that it does not correspond entirely because it refers to a higher intellectual conversation in English, which could not be said about Czech *člověk/lidé*, as it is typical for colloquial style (Dušková 2003, 396).

(58) *Člověk nikdy neví.*

You never know.

[*A human never knows.*]

4.2.1 Generic *He*

Curme (1947, 221) talks about the masculine pronoun *he* and its possessive form *his* as about the means that are in sentences regardless of sex and where the antecedent carries a general indefinite meaning. Consequently, there are cases in which an indefinite subject is followed by a masculine reference. But the reference is not about including only men, but women as well, therefore it works perfectly for a general human agent with the addition of sex-neutral pronoun.

(59) *Everyone felt there was something wrong about it, but he rather let it go.*

The example (59) provides masculine pronoun *he* that refers to the subject which is the indefinite pronoun *everyone*. In this case, both of these pronouns refer to every person regardless of gender. This statement is supported by Quirk et al. (1985, 770) which say that it is more preferable in formal usage to operate with the pronoun *he* if there is a sentence with undefined or unknown gender, as in (60):

(60) *Everyone believes he is right.*

These examples (59, 60) are rather old fashioned, as they were taken from the books from 1947 and 1985 and they are here just for demonstration. People could suggest that *he* in these examples (59, 60) refers to another person, which would be more common these days.

4.2.2 Singular *They*

Quirk et al. claim that the singular pronoun *they* is usually used as a third person singular pronoun regardless of gender in informal English (1985, 770). Huddleston and Pullum also confirm that singular *they* is used in informal conversation. They add that singular pronoun

they with a singular antecedent became used in the Middle English period. Moreover, it is more acceptable in other styles as well, because of the decline in the use of sex-neutral general *he* (2002, 493).

- (61) a. *Everyone believes they are right.*
 b. *Has anybody brought their camera?*
 c. *No one could have blamed themselves for that.*

Quirk et al. illustrate this rule on examples stated above where the third person pronoun *they* (61a), possessive *their* (61b) and reflexive *themselves* (61c) are coreferential with the indefinite pronouns *everyone*, *anybody* and *no one* (1985, 770). It is also worth mentioning that the sentence (61a) is, therefore, the counterpart to sentence (60).

- (62) a. *Not everybody uses their indicator. They don't use their indicators anymore.*

This example (62) taken from Biber et al. demonstrates the suggestion of using *they* instead of *he* or *she* to meet today's society needs and gender-neutral criteria. This combination of an indefinite pronoun with singular *they* and its reflexive and possessive forms seems to be the best alternative. While avoiding the specification of gender, the structure of a sentence does not request any changes (1999, 316).

As *they* represents a third person pronoun, it neither includes a reference to the speaker nor to the addressee. Accordingly, it has the tendency to represent the enigmatic forces which there are to control the life of people or citizens. These are some kinds of authorities, media, or government. The awareness of *they* and *them* in sentences of these types is viewed as an expression of personal responsibility rejection, as in the following example taken from et al. (Quirk 1985, 354). In addition, it could be demonstrated that Czech *oni [they]* works the same in terms of authorities, media, or government.

- (63) *I see they are raising the bus fares again. Whatever will they be doing next?*
 Vidím, že znovu zvyšují jízdné. Co udělají příště?
 [(I)see that again (they) are rising fares. What are (they) doing next?]

Referring back to the (60) and (61a), these examples these sentences basically mean the same in English but has two different ways of expressing. While comparing it to the Czech language, it is much easier, as Czech does not require the pronominal subject position and it is usually omitted in the Czech language. Therefore, *everyone* as *[všichni]* or *[každý]* is enough for a general human agent. It is all based on verb endings in Czech:

(60) *Everyone believes he is right.*

(61a) *Everyone believes they are right.*

Both in Czech: Každý věří, že má pravdu.

4.2.3 Generic *You*

According to Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 1467), *you* can be used in its secondary function as a general human agent. It is considered to be a less formal alternative of *one*. In contrast to singular, *you* and its primary purpose, this type of *you* does not refer to a particular individual, the addressee. It is applied for people in general.

(64) a. *You can get fined for parking on the footpath.*

b. *Smith's a really great speaker, whether you agree with him or not.*

c. *You have to avoid that sort of thing when you're eight months pregnant.*

d. *You couldn't hear yourself talk, it was so noisy.*

Huddleston and Pullum's examples (64) listed above show certain kind of ambiguity whether *you* is referential or not. Talking about referential *you* in (64b) there is this intention that *you* as a person/spectator have not agreed with *Smith's* great performance before. In such a case, *I* do not take *your* disagreement (of a spectator) into his consideration and still think *Smith* is a great speaker. On the other hand, talking about *you* as a non-referential in this case (64b) *I* claim that one does not have to assent with him to understand that *he* (*Smith*) is a great speaker. In (64d) the non-referential *you* is used to demonstrate some specific event from the past which can be understood as applying to the event in the present time (2002, 1467).

The referential *you* and non-referential *you* are connected in a sense that what might be applied to people in general, might be applied for one person individually. Example (64a) means if *one* (as people in general) can be fined for parking, a person (as an individual) can

be fined for parking as well. It is also crucial to mention that sentences of general statement involving non-referential *you* do not necessarily have to refer to the addressee, as in (58c). Even though one would assume a woman is an addressee, a man could be perfectly acceptable as the addressee as well (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 1468). These examples were used to demonstrate and partly mentioned the ambiguity with pronoun *you*. Even though the topic is much more complex, it is not in the scope of this bachelor thesis.

As already stated above, *you* is considered to be an informal equivalent of *one*. But the problem with generic *you* is that it still contains something referring to the meaning of the second person. It can evoke an impression that the speaker is engaging in the hearer's experience in general, or certain situation, as in (65). Contrary, there might be a case in which the reference is connected to the speaker's life or experience and not to the hearer's (60). In that situation, the reference may remain in general while the speaker applies it to refer to himself/herself personally.

(65) *Such a movie, makes you feel fall asleep, doesn't it?*

(66) *It was good times. You could sleep till' the noon, went for a walk...*

However, *you* is not the best option for people in general. According to Biber et al. (1999, 330) in present-day English, it is hard to recognize whether the second person pronoun *you* stands for an individual or for a group of people.

4.2.4 Generic *one*

As previously mentioned at the beginning of the third chapter, generic *one* distinguishes itself from another two functions by the existence of its possessive and reflexive forms (*one's*, *oneself*) (Quirk et al. 1985, 357). Based on the statement that generic *one* is fully capable of replacing *you* and *we*, it makes it (*one*) naturally an ideal candidate for people in general. Its reference includes a speaker and an addressee simultaneously. Despite this, it is rarely used. The tendency for using *one* is in formal discourse while using passive voice (Dušková 2003, 395). While using *we*, *you* or *they* for people in general, the pronoun *they* sticks to their basic meaning partially, but generic *one* does not carry such a personal implication (Biber et al. 1999, 331).

(67) *One could set oneself to endure forty-eight hours of almost anything, she told herself. (FICT)*

Bieber et al. example (67) (1999, 354) shows that *one* and its reflexive form *oneself* are coreferential here and none of them report any signs of a specific gender. Therefore, it would again be the best option for the gender-neutral human agent in general. However, it was mentioned previously and demonstrated on examples *(44) *The drummer was late because one had overslept again.* *(45) *A politician shouldn't take oneself too seriously* that pronoun *one* unlike other pronouns of the third person cannot be used as an anaphor to another NP (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 427). The ungrammaticality, therefore, puts *one* in these situations aside. Supporting the idea that *one* does not suit as a general human agent, Crystal (2003, 314) claims that using *one* does not sound natural because it is considered as a rather formal option.

In contrast to English, the Czech language also disposes of third person masculine for a general human agent. English does not have anything similar. These are usually labelled as idioms or proverbs, as in these examples taken from Duškova's book (Dušková 2003, 397):

- (62) a. *Sejde z očí, sejde z mysli.*
Out of sight, out of mind.
 b. *Umí to, jako když bičem mrská.*
He has it at his finger's tips.
 c. *Co by pět napočítal.*
Before one can say Jack Robinson.

4.2.5 Syntactic Functions

Except for English *they* all means for a general human agent could appear also in a position of an object or other syntactical functions within the sentence. Swan (2002, 372) provides an example that focuses on the main part of this thesis, which is *one*, comparing it to *you* which could be used basically in the same way:

- (63) *He talks to one like a teacher.*
 Mluví s jedním jako učitel.
 [(He) Talks with one as teacher.]

This chapter compares the usage of *one* with some of the other personal pronouns that work in the function of a general human agent in English. The chapter discusses differences and same signs that generic *one* has with other personal pronouns in terms of a general human agent. It was also mentioned that *one* is not very often used, and in the colloquial language, there is a preference for *you*. One of the reasons is its ungrammatical feature that does not allow *one* to be an anaphor to another NP, unlike other third personal pronouns. The usage of *one* (and other pronouns) as a general human agent was also compared to Czech, where one of its translations, namely *člověk* or *jeden* was used.

5 CZECH TRANSLATION OF *ONE*

The last chapter takes into consideration all possible translations that might be observed in this bachelor thesis in the previous chapters. It was demonstrated that *one* can be translated mostly as *jeden*, *někdo*, *nějaký* or *člověk/lidé*. It always depends on a context, but the main point here is to show that *one* in the English language has many interpretations but still, it holds its form *one*. While translating *one* into the Czech language there are different words needed. In addition, I provide information that concentrates on Czech translation of English *one*, based on different types of dictionaries.

Looking for the Czech translations of *one*, I used several sources in order to produce evidence of the claim that *one* has several translations in Czech. For example, a small English – Czech and Czech – English dictionary from FIN publishing supports the different translation of *one*, showing it could be translated as *jeden* [*one*], *někdo* [*someone*], or *navzájem* [*mutually*] in combination with *another* (FIN Publishing, 2015).

The most common and well-known online dictionary Lingua.cz also displays these kinds of translations, pointing out that *one* could be in a function of a numeral as *jeden*, a pronoun where can be found translations as *jeden* [*one*], *nějaký* [*some*], *člověk/lidé* [*a person/people*], or even *ten* [*that one*].

The Czech National Corpus proves this point as well. Pronoun *one* is translated in Czech mostly as *jeden* [*one*], but also as *člověk* [*human*], *jediný* [*only one*], *některý* [*some*], *ten* [*that one*], etc.

The screenshot shows the Lingua.cz search interface. At the top, there are dropdown menus for 'Výchozí jazyk' (English) and 'Cílový jazyk' (Czech), with a yellow arrow pointing from English to Czech. To the right is a 'Omezit na' dropdown set to 'Kolekce: 6'. Below these is a search bar containing 'one' and a yellow 'Hledej' button. At the bottom of the interface are four checkboxes: 'Lemmata' (checked), 'Víceslovné', 'Regulární', and 'A = a'.

▲ Frekvence ▼	▲ Procenta ▼	▲ Angličtina ▼	▲ Čeština ▼
69646	72.1	one	jeden
2847	2.9	one	jediný
1841	1.9	one	on
1499	1.6	one	nikdo
1436	1.5	one	člověk
1416	1.5	one	některý

(Treq ČNK 2015)

The last chapter concentrates on the second objective of this bachelor thesis which is mapping the Czech translations of pronoun *one*. As already mentioned and displayed on several examples throughout the whole bachelor thesis pronoun *one* translated into the Czech language is expressed by many other words, therefore translation of *one* as *jeden* primarily, does not reflect all the possible translations this word carries when it comes to the Czech translation.

CONCLUSION

The aim of this thesis was to describe the different functions of pronoun *one* in English and then analyse similarities and differences within the Czech language and its translations. Moreover, to show that *one* is not always an indefinite pronoun in English and it has various translations in Czech. As the first three chapters demonstrate, there are three main groups of a pronoun *one* – numerical, substitute and generic.

In this thesis I have described that numerical *one* functions in many ways as other cardinals and it is also able to function as a determiner or a head noun. It also might be observed in a simple or partitive fused head NP construction. Moreover, numerical *one* acts like a stressed counterpart to an indefinite article *a*, because historically *a* derives from *one*. It also differs from the higher cardinals, as the singulative *one* does not. Therefore, the numerical and singulative distinction is used. The numerical *one* acts more as an indefinite article *a*, whereas singulative seems to be more as fixed phrases or idioms. This chapter also includes a comparison to Czech translations of numerical *one* and provides its most typical translation *jeden*. Substitute *one*, on the other hand, has its plural form *ones*. Not only can it stand for a singular word, but also for a whole nominal expression that might be both, pre- and post-modified. As well as *other*, *one* is not strictly pronoun, which is demonstrated in this chapter, providing several examples. It also appears in *one of* construction, where the idea of *one* translated into Czech as *jeden* is supported. Moreover, the chapter concentrates on *one* and its relationship to demonstrative pronouns *this* and *that* mostly used in a common conversation. Last part of this chapter focuses on *one* and situations in which it cannot be used, mainly with possessive pronouns or *some*. Generic *one* has its genitive form *one's* and reflexive form *oneself*, therefore it cannot be classified as a typical indefinite pronoun. Based on its unspecific gender it works in a position of an antecedent for a personal pronoun anaphor but still is not used in a natural informal use. It was also mentioned that *one* is not very often used, and in the colloquial language, there is a preference for *you*.

The examples in the thesis based on the cited literature as well as The Contemporary American English Corpus research have shown that *one* does not always operate in a position of an indefinite pronoun, but *one* might be labelled as a personal, reflexive, and reciprocal pronoun, a noun or even an adjective, which has supported the aim of the thesis. Throughout the whole thesis there are used examples that shows similarities or differences of the Czech and English grammar, when it comes to *one*. As a general human agent, *one* was translated into the Czech namely as *člověk* or *jeden*, in other cases even as *nějaký* or *někdo*.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

one _s	Singulative one
one _n	Numerical one
AmE	American English
BrE	British English