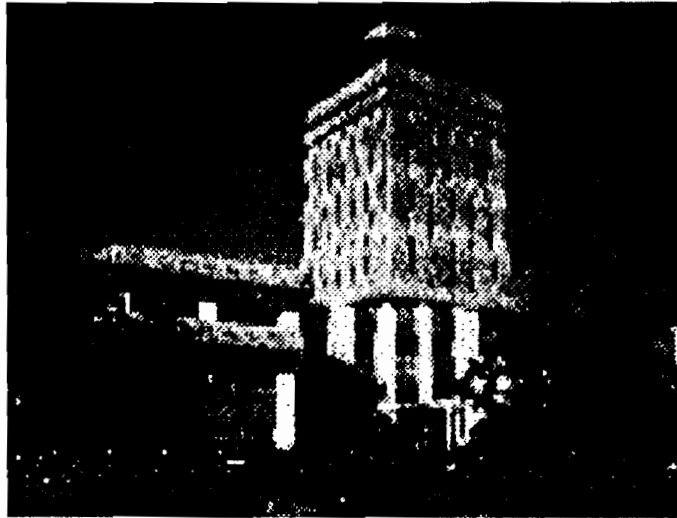


**UNIVERSITE GASTON BERGER DE SAINT-LOUIS  
U.F.R. DE LETTRES ET SCIENCES HUMAINES  
SECTION D'ANGLAIS**



**ANALYSIS OF EACH AND EVERY : AN  
OPERATIONAL APPROACH OF GRAMMAR**

**Mémoire de Maîtrise**

*Présenté par*  
**Mr. OUMAR FALL**

Sous la direction de :  
**Mr. Amadou Moustapha DIOP**  
Maître- Assistant  
**U.C.A.D.**

**Année académique : 1997/1998**

---

## DEDICATIONS

---

I dedicate this work to my family, especially to my mother, my sister Angelique FALL whose physical handicap has prevented from pursuing her studies further.

I also dedicate this work to my friends Ousmane Dieng, Mayoro Wathie, Oumar Diallo, Cheikh Tidiane Sarr, Mor Bâ, Lamine Dieng, Mamadou Diène, Idrissa Ndiaye, Fama Diop, Bassirou Seck, Amadou Diouf, Amadou Sarr.

To all those I forgot, please fill in your names (...).

---

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

---

I owe a particular debt of gratitude to Dr Amadou Moustapha DIOP. His considerable investment of time, energy and documentation made this work possible. The debt I owe to him is more than I can easily acknowledge.

I am also grateful to all my teachers of the English department in the University of Gaston Berger.

Special thanks to Dr Mansour Niang for his advice and encouragements, to Mr Aboubakry BA without whose computer expertise I could never have finished this work.

Any remaining defects are, therefore, my responsibility alone.

## TABLE TO CONTENTS

<b>INTRODUCTION</b>	<b>7</b>
<b><u>PART ONE : Each/Every within quantifiers : general presentation</u></b>	<b>9</b>
<b>Chapter I. Operational grammar: Rationale/Methodology</b>	<b>9</b>
A. Rationale.	9
B. Methodology.	11
1. The theories of object and observation.	11
2. System of representations.	16
2.1. Level I: mental representation.	16
2.2. Level II: linguistic representation.	17
2.3. Level III: metalinguistic representation.	17
<b>Chapter II. Each/Every: quantifiers.</b>	<b>19</b>
A. General presentation of quantifiers.	19
B. Grammatical category of quantifiers.	22
C. Specificity of "Each" and "Every".	28
1. Etymology.	28
2. Central value.	29
<b><u>PART TWO: The Underlying Enunciative Operations With Each/Every.</u></b>	<b>30</b>
<b>Chapter I. The operation of location.</b>	<b>32</b>
1. Location in relation to a specific situation.	33

2. Location in relation to the class of situations.	36
3. Interdependence between the nominal determination and the verbal determination.	37
<b>Chapter II. The operation of scanning.</b>	<b>39</b>
1. Scanning over a class of occurrences.	39
a. "Each" rejects addition.	40
b. "Every" implies addition.	40
2. Scanning over the situation of validations.	45
<b><u>PART THREE. : Contrast and functioning</u></b>	<b>47</b>
<b>Chapter I. Contrast with other noun markers that display an operation of scanning.</b>	<b>48</b>
A. Any, All: traces of an operation of scanning.	48
B. $\emptyset$ , A, THE: traces of a process of scanning.	50
1. The article $\emptyset$ : scanning with addition.	50
2. The article A: a granular scanning.	51
3. The article THE: a smooth scanning.	52
<b>Chapter II. Functioning of Each and Every.</b>	<b>55</b>
1. Each+N / Every+N.	55
1.1. Distributivity.	56
1.2. General assessment.	57
1.3. Differences among the elements of a set.	58

1.4. Some words release the use of 'each' and others the use of 'every'.	58
1.5. Expression of time.	59
2. Each $\phi$ , each one, every one.	60
2.1. Each other / one another.	61
2.2. Each and its positions.	62
2.3. Every and its composants.	63
<b>CONCLUSION.</b>	<b>64</b>

## METALINGUISTIC REPRESENTATIONS

SIGNS	MEANINGS
P	Occurrence
Qnt	Quantity
Qlt	Quality
(Qnt)Qlt	Quantity is preponderant
Qnt(Qlt)	Quality is preponderant
(Qnt)(Qlt)	Quantity/Quality equiponderant
S0	Enouncer
S0'	co-Enouncer
S1	Speaker
S2	Grammatical Subject
Sit0	Situation of Enunciation
Sit1	Situation of speech
Sit2	Situation of reference
T0	Moment of Enunciation
T1	Moment of utterance
T2	Moment of process

## INTRODUCTION

The operational approach of grammar is a discipline which studies the utterances of languages. Utterances are the products of an unconscious activity, the result of an internal work which necessarily precedes the oral or written exteriorisations. Those invisible or internal functionings which are at the origin of material traces are referred to as **operations** in a metalinguistic point of view.

Once we are aware that the linear forms of utterances are the products of profound operations, so we have to admit that there are morphemes (words, affixes, etc.) which have the task of signalling those operations. The latter constitute the internal grammars which are at the origin of the productions of an infinite number of utterances. Is it not necessary then for the linguist or grammarian to detect and reveal those hidden mechanisms since he has nothing at his disposal but the end products?

In the English language the words '**each**' and '**every**' are parts of those morphemes; that is they are known as traces of operations or as markers of operations.

In the following pages, we shall describe and represent the phenomena, through **metalinguistic** devices in order to reveal the operations the two markers are traces.

**BOUSCAREN (1987)** wonderfully writes:

Analyser une forme grammaticale (un marqueur)  
c'est circonscrire le sens qu'elle a dans un contexte  
donné, puis rapporter ce sens à l'opération énonciative  
sous-jacente à ce marqueur (p.7)



---

**PART ONE**

---

**EACH AND EVERY WITHIN QUANTIFIERS : GENERAL  
PRESENTATION**

## CHAPTER I. OPERATIONAL GRAMMAR: RATIONALE AND METHODOLOGY.

Our intention in this chapter is to start with a few basic definitions as well as a description of a methodology in order to set a scene where there will not be any misunderstanding or confusion from the reader.

### A. Rationale.

Our analysis fits in with contemporary linguistic research. It deals with the theory of **Enunciation** which is getting nowadays a central place in modern linguistics.

The theories of some philosophers and the publications of the linguists **Gustave GILLAUME (1883-1960)** and **Emile BENVENISTE (1902-1976)** were at the origin of the theory of enunciation which has been resumed and developed by **Antoine CULIOLI (1924)** and his followers.

CULIOLI's publications (articles mainly as shown in the bibliography) present two common characteristics, which illustrate the author's process: they grant the theoretical and epistemological reflexions a large place; they aim at elaborating a model of language (activity) considered in its whole, while giving examples of analysis of specific phenomena. We cannot give a complete and exhaustive presentation of all CULIOLI's theories (it is unfeasible and too premature) but we shall attempt on the other hand to highlight the main ideas of the author's process.

One of the fundamental characteristics of CULIOLI's Theories of Enunciative Operations is an evident willing to define exactly what must be the objective as well as the process in all linguistic research. He clearly delimits his field of study, considering that linguistics has for object **language activity apprehended through the diversity of natural languages** and revealing in this case his own definition of linguistics:

I shall define linguistics as the science whose goal is to apprehend language through the diversity of natural languages (...). Language which is meaningful representational activity, is only accessible through text sequences, that is through patterns of markers which are themselves traces of underlying operations. The goal is not to construct a universal grammar, but to re-construct, by a theoretical and formal process, the primitive notions, elementary operations, rules and schemata which generate grammatical categories and patterns specific to each language. In short the goal is to find invariants which found and regulate language activity in all its richness and complexity. (CULIOLI 1968b, p.106)

The above definition is of a great importance. The linguist has in fact to study the functioning of language as a **"meaningful activity of representation"**, that is as an **"activity of linguistic forms production and recognition"** (ordering of patterns with a melodic contour and a contextual environment), or, more simply of texts (oral or written). Language activity must not then be defined as a simple stool of communication, but rather as an activity in its whole which consists, for any speaker, of producing, constructing **'linguistic'** forms; and for any listener, of recognizing, of interpreting those forms.

To study that language activity the linguist only has forms at his disposal which are the end products. He can then apprehend language only through the diversity of oral or written texts and, more exactly, **'only through the diversity of natural languages'**. That last remark reveals that it would be illegal to content oneself with only one single language to be observed and to consider it as a representative of all other existing languages.

Language is in fact an activity of the human race in its whole. This shows that the different natural languages in the world share a certain number of common and stable properties. These common and stable properties or characteristics, i.e. these **invariants** which we find in whatever languages, are the points the linguist must assign himself to detect and reveal. In that perspective the combinations of grammatical and lexical morphemes which give texts, will be treated as orderings of markers, i.e. the representatives, the **'visible'** traces of the **operations** underlying language activity.

## **B. Methodology.**

### **1. The theories of object and observation.**

The double necessity of a theory of object and observation happens to be summarized in the definition of **language apprehended through the diversity of natural languages**.

The object is described in a dialectical relation between language ; that is a double meaningful activity of production and recognition by some subjects: **"a universal activity of producing and interpreting texts"** (CULIOLI, 1973, p.83) and the languages (systems which have their specific rules of organization

and whose traces are empirically noticeable under the forms of attested productions).

CULIOLI's perspective aims at establishing a link on the one hand between language (activity) and the extra-linguistics and on the other hand between linguistics and the other disciplines which have for object the relation between the subjects and the real (psychology, psychoanalysis, the theories of ideologies etc.).

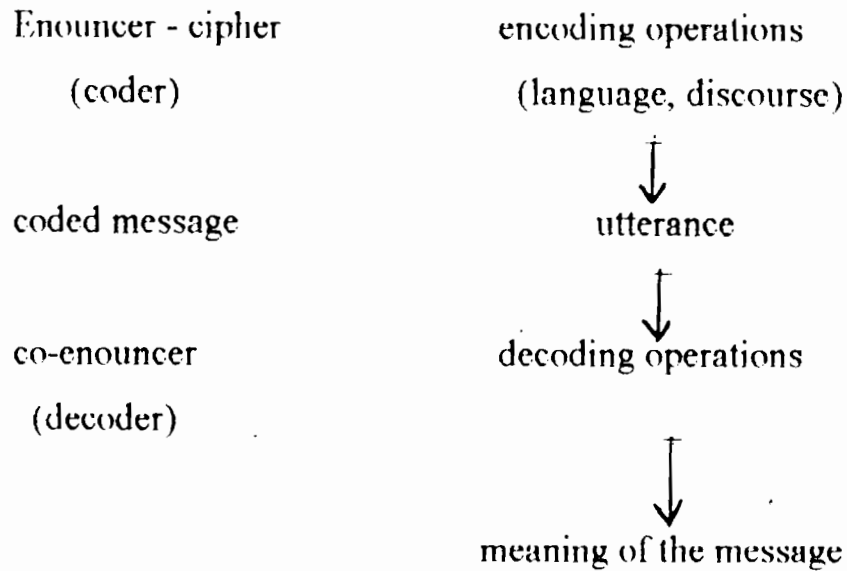
Let us now come to what extent CULIOLI's propositions deal with Enunciation.

The double activity of production/recognition sets two functions of transmitter and receiver, which is complicated by the fact that any transmitter is simultaneously his receiver and vice versa. CULIOLI prefers then to designate them under the term of 'Enouncers': "the two Enouncers are the primitive terms without which there would not be any enunciation" (CULIOLI, 1973, p.88). The dialogue constitutes then the fundamental dimension in communication. The two Enouncers not only print their marks in the utterances (traces like the marks of modality, tense, aspect etc.) but must be integrated as theoretical concepts because they are situated at the crossing of the linguistics and the extra-linguistics. They are not physical bodies identifiable to given individuals situated in the real world; they are the **constructed images** (by the enunciation itself) of the extra-linguistics: any "**person who speaks**" constructs a system of referential values, locates his utterances in relation to a **stable enunciative origin**. This enunciative origin is the organizing centre of the enunciative

'event' (E) located relative to an enunciative space (sit) which has for coordinates S and T (Enouncer and 'moment' of enunciation).

Enunciation can be then defined, from what precedes, as a series of operations of progressive determinations through which are produced (or recognized) utterances. More precisely, the utterances do have **referential values** through **systems of locations** in relation to the fixing points which constitute the situations of enunciation (the Enouncers, the moment of enunciation... ).

We have already mentioned that the dialogue constitutes the fundamental dimension in communication. Let us now summarize through it what the functions of the two Enouncers can be within an operational approach of grammar.



The Enouncer is the one who makes his choice in selecting what he needs in the resources of his language in order to '**construct**' a discourse intended to a co-Enouncer (S0') who, in turns, deciphers the message. The message refers to a referent. It requires a certain relationship between the two protagonists and also a code which is common to them. Each of them plays a role, puts down a trace or prints the message.

Now let us deal a bit with CULIOLI's theory of observation. The central problem in linguistics consists of elaborating a theory capable of revealing very clear issues for as CULIOLI asserts:

les langues sont à la fois variées, et chacune singulière, mais que toutes supportent la généralisation grammaticale (et la traduction), preuve qu'elles ont, sous-jacentes, des schémas et des opérations universelles (CULIOLI, 1973, p.87).

This problem establishes a dialectical link between observation and theorization. CULIOLI insists upon the necessity of describing several languages (as many as possible). However languages cannot be apprehended without a minimum of hypotheses and theoretical concepts. Observation becomes then an experimentation, which allows to test the hypotheses and refine the theorization. Shortly, the theory of **observables** determines the types of data which will be submitted to analysis, or manipulations, through **metalinguistic** devices:

My objective has been to start from scratch, that is, gather locally comparable observations using a theory of observations, then construct a formal representation by means of a system of metalinguistic representations<sup>1</sup> (CULIOLI, p. 178).

Metalinguistics is used in the sense of describing an object of study. In this case the object of study is itself language and the language which studies language is known as a **meta-language**. Any grammatical study of a given language needs then a meta-language in order to reveal the inner functioning of that language: it is an indispensable stool of analysis for the study of the grammars of languages. This is the reason why within operational grammar, it constitutes a part and partial of the key concepts.

<sup>1</sup> - Pour une linguistique de l'énonciation, opération et représentation.



## 2. System of representations

Explaining operational grammar requires a theoretical construction, and more precisely, the construction of a system of metalinguistic representation, or, in other words, a system dealing with language and allowing to represent and analyze the linguistic phenomena. We find in CULLIOLJ's process three different levels.

### 2.1. Level I (language activity)

It is the level of **mental representations**, of recognition (or knowledge) in a large sense (notions, experiences, images about the world, relationships with one's background... ). Level I will escape us because, as we know, utterances display shapes that derive from complex forms and we have no access to the process that originate the forms on which the shapes are based.

### 2.2. Level II (languages)

It is the level of oral or written texts, that of **linguistic representations**, or, if we prefer, that of the orderings or markers, which are the perceivable **traces** of the representations and the operations of level I.

If level I is an inaccessible processing activity, then the patterns of markers are level II. So we can conclude that level II **observables** are the representatives of level I **process**. It is worth noting that at this level we can have one marker  $\longleftrightarrow$  several values (for instance, **may**  $\longleftrightarrow$  permission,

contingency) or several markers  $\langle \longleftrightarrow \rangle$  one value (**may, perhaps, maybe, it is possible that...**  $\langle \longleftrightarrow \rangle$  contingency). To put it differently we cannot always have one marker  $\langle \longleftrightarrow \rangle$  one value.

### **2.3. Level III (meta-language)**

It is that of the construction of a system of **metalinguistic representation** (terminologies, categories, operations, etc), construction by the means of permanent comings and goings between observation and theorization.

The terms of that meta-language must be clearly defined whether they are terminologies borrowed from traditional grammar or not. They must also be **as reduced as possible** and their applications will not be limited to either one language or to one single problem. In one word they must support **generalisation**.

At level III metalinguistic, operations are constructed which will result in formal sequences, equivalent to level II observables (we then have representatives of representatives). It is then clear that CULIOLI sets his sights not on abstract characterization of language, but on a **simulation** of language activity. The idea here is to **simulate**, by means of the relation which will be established between level III and level II, the one which exists between level II and level I.

Finally we are led to conclude that though we cannot grasp the processes of level I, a successful link however between level II traces and level III metalinguistic may provide useful clues about the link between level I processes and level II markers.

Let us quote CULIOLI again:

Lentement nous passons d'une linguistique des états à une linguistique des opérations. Peu à peu, nous entrevoyons que le langage est une incessante mise en relation (prédication, énonciation), grâce à quoi des énonciateurs, en tissant un jeu structuré de références, produisent un surplus d'énoncés et repèrent une pluralité de significations. (CULIOLI, 1973, p.87)

## CHAPTER II. EACH / EVERY: QUANTIFIERS.

**Each** and **every** are designated under the term of '**quantifiers**' (in French '**quantifieurs**' or '**quantificateurs**'). In **A Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonology**, **David CRISTAL** writes about quantifiers:

In some models of grammatical description, quantifiers refer to a class of items expressing contrasts in quantity occurring with restricted distribution in the noun phrase. (p.286)

In an operational approach of grammar, **Henri ADAMCZEWSKI**, in **Les clés de la grammaire anglaise** asserts about quantifiers:

Ce sont les opérateurs qui quantifient, c'est à dire qui précisent N du point de vue quantitatif (en gros, sous l'angle du tout ou de la partie). (p.119)

**Each** and **Every** are therefore operators of a quantitative determination of N; the operation consisting in delimitting or limiting the extensional notion of N with an additional quantitative meaning. There are however other items expressing quantity.

### **A. General presentation of quantifiers**

Quantifiers appear in various scales of amount or degree according to their meaning as shown in the text on the next page.

No quantity		COUNT	UNCOUNT
		no	no
Indefinite quantity	Great quantity	a lot of lots of plenty of many, more, most several (+ a large number of many, etc.)	a lot of lots of plenty of much, more, most (+ a great deal of, a considerable amount of, etc.)
	sufficient quantity	enough	enough
	little quantity	some a few	some a little
	insufficient quantity	few (fewer, fewest)	little (less, least)
totality		all, every, each	all
Duality		both, either, neither	/
precise quantity		numerals	/

The figure represents roughly the different scales of quantity or degree denoted by quantifiers. It must be remarked however that the list of the quantifiers we have given here is far from being exhaustive.

The other point one can raise concerns the degree of **definiteness** of quantifiers. In fact quantifiers can be divided into two categories mainly: the first one expresses an indefinite quantity. As for the second category, the quantity is exact (especially with cardinal numbers) and definite (especially with quantifiers of totality and that of duality).

The last point from the text deals with the combination of quantifiers with nouns. In fact when someone combines quantifiers with N, he gets elements which are either compatible or not. So some quantifiers go with some nominal categories and not with others. But some can go with all categories.

We have two categories of nouns. The first one has the property of being countable or **discontinuous**. In this category we can individuate the occurrence and count them. We find in it substantives like pig (a pig, two pigs, three pigs, etc.), pen, car, house, book, etc.

As far as the other nominal category is concerned, it has the characteristics of being uncountable or **continuous**. In this category we have two sub-categories: the **compact N** and the **dense N**.

Within the compact N we cannot distinguish the occurrences since they do not appear as discrete units, nor can we talk of 'a portion of'. In this category then belong substantives like bigamy (a\* bigamy, \*bigamies, a\* piece of bigamy), bitterness, chemistry, chauvinism, etc.

As for the sub-category 'dense N', it presents substantives like milk, bread, dust, grass, advice, etc. Here also no form of individuation can be held; hence some similarities with the compact N. However we can talk here of 'a portion of' (a pint of milk, a loaf of bread, a blade of grass, a spark of dust, a piece of advice, etc.).

So far we have been dealing with a general presentation of quantifiers. Now come and see to which syntactic category quantifiers belong.

### **B. Grammatical category of quantifiers.**

In dealing with the grammatical category of quantifiers let us adopt a functional approach of grammar, using the notion of 'function' to describe syntactic categories. So we join **Michael A. K. HALLIDAY** whose writings have been a practical inspiration to many teachers<sup>2</sup> and learners. This type of grammar is functional in that each linguistic element is seen not in isolation but in relation to others since it has the potential to realise different functions.

---

<sup>2</sup> - cf. Angela DOWNING and Philip LOCK (1992).

Quantifiers are elements of the nominal group (NG). How does a nominal group look like? When we name an 'entity' we usually add some information about it, which shows how we 'experience' or perceive it. It is important to remember that language is not reality itself, but only the way we see reality, the way we experience it.

In expressing this 'experimental' information about an entity or a 'referent' some of it is placed before the noun and some after it as we can see in the groups contained in the example text:

Pre-head	Head	Post-head
the interesting grammar	book	from Canada
a history	book	-
popular	books	on psychology
an	island	surrounded by a lagoon
its	vitality	

- The head element is the central element of a NG structure which refers to a substantive entity. In an operational approach of grammar, it refers to N, the center of an operation of determination.

- The pre-head elements include first the **determining element** and then the **modifying element**. The former is the first element of a N phrase which relates the head noun to the situation in which it exists. In operational grammar this element is called the **determiner**.

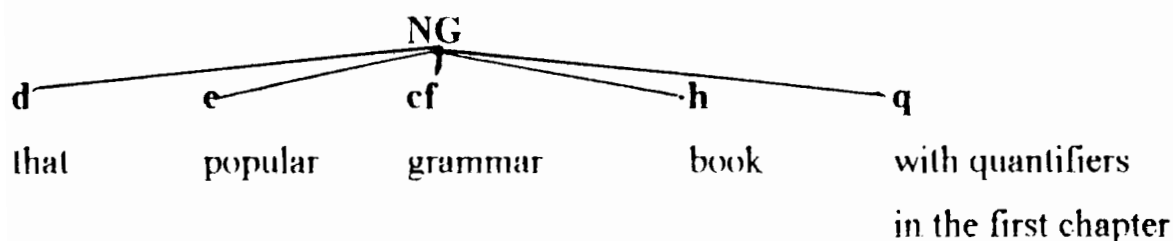


The modifying element describes the inherent, permanent qualities of the entity itself- E.g **popular books**. The element is designated under the term of **modifier**. Modifiers are units that are dependent on the head element. They may include an **epithet** or a **classifier** or both - E.g the **interesting grammar book**. The epithet describes objectively or subjectively the qualities of an entity; the classifier indicates a sub-class of the entity.

- The post-head element refers to the experimental items which are placed after the head noun and which, like the pre-head items, help to define and identify the referent of the head noun still further.

In English this is typically arrived at by adding information of a temporary, extrinsic kind, in contrast to the modifying pre-head elements which describe its inherent, relatively permanent attributes. Such items are known as **qualifiers** as in the following diagram.

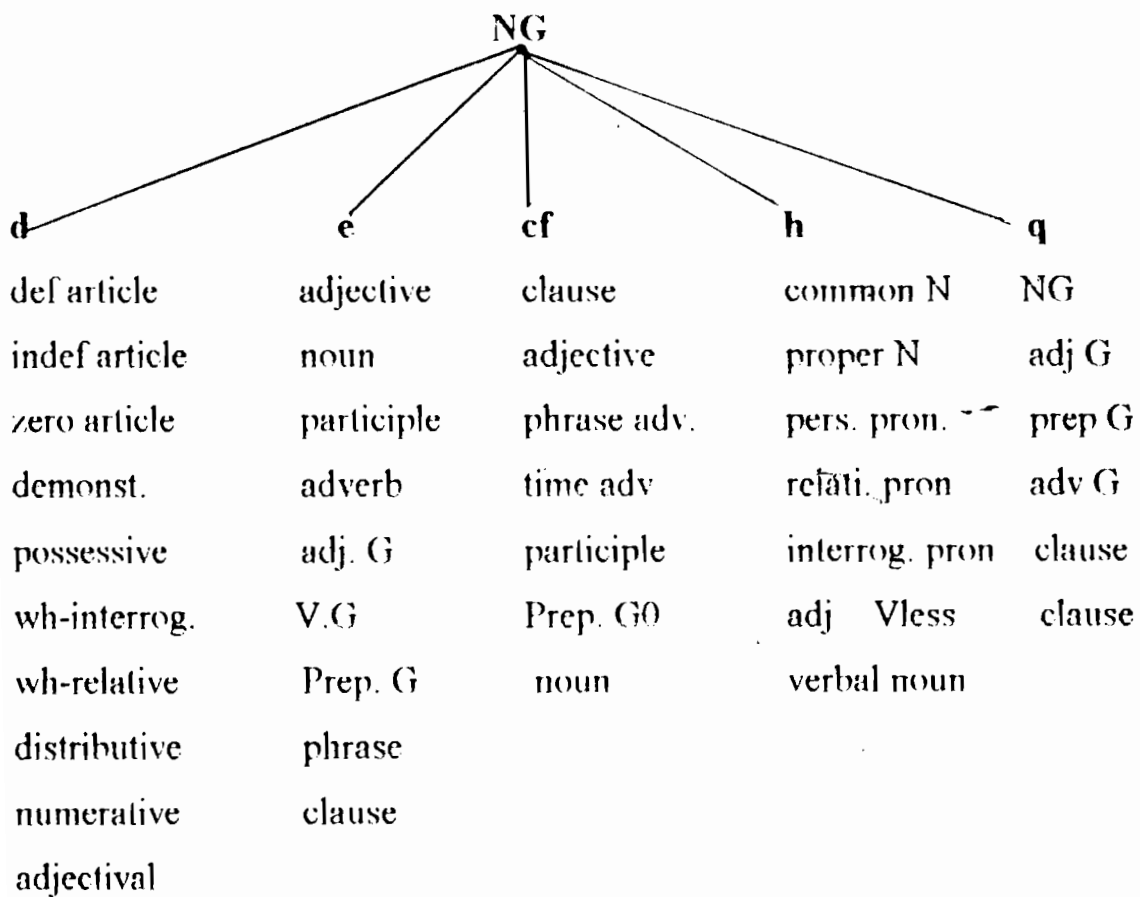
- |                        |                      |
|------------------------|----------------------|
| <b>d</b> = determiner  | <b>h</b> = head      |
| <b>e</b> = epithet     | <b>q</b> = qualifier |
| <b>cf</b> = classifier |                      |



Qualifiers are potentially, and in practice nearly always are, much longer than the pre-head elements, because the kind of information they add are usually more extensive, and are realised not by individual words, but by embedded groups and clauses which may have other groups and clauses

embedded with them. Qualifiers express three broad types of experimental information and entity: nominal, circumstantial and attributive when they are realised by clauses; they may also be characterized as "situational".

To summarize this functional approach of grammar about the nominal group we can have:



In traditional grammar N designates a word which refers to people or object.

In structural grammar the definition of N is similar to that we have in distributional grammar where N is defined in relation to its place in the linear

form, for instance the syntactic category which follows that of the determiners, or which comes after an adjective (**the big three**).

In an operational grammar N is defined as being the center where operations of determination are held. So here it embodies a lexical notion (the mental representations in Level I are metalinguistically referred to the terms of notions). About the term, CULIOLI gives the following definition:

a complex bundle of structured physico-cultural properties and should not be equated with lexical labels or actual items. Notions are representations and should be treated as such: they epitomize properties (the term is used in a very extensive and loose way) derived from interaction between persons and persons, persons and objects, biological constraints, technical activity. (CULIOLI, 1991, p.69).

The substantives pig, child, student, girl are for instance lexical notions. To exemplify the quotation above let us deal a bit with them.

Physically the notion /pig/ has for properties: mammal, omnivore, four-footed, pink colour, etc. As for the cultural properties we can have: domestic, dirty, voracious, fleshy, etc.

With the notion /student/ we have physically: human being, male or female, two-footed, speaker, thinker, etc.; Culturally: young, learner, etc.

Note that a notion does not constitute a stable and an invariable representation. So it can vary from an individual to another; but also from culture to culture. For instance in some cultures the notion /pig/ can have

"marketable" as one of its cultural properties; but in an islamic culture where it is forbidden to eat porc. it cannot.

So a notion is defined **qualitatively**, i.e. is unfragmented, and consequently it is regarded as something compact and indivisible, having only a pure qualitative value.

Notions being unfragmented, are therefore apprehended and established through **occurrences**. In fact notions such as /child/, /student/, /girl/ etc. being mental representations are not accessible to us and are apprehended through words and more precisely only through occurrences.

Finally we remark that when someone wants to get the notion "quantifiable" and "fragmentable", he must combine it with a class of occurrences; a class being composed of discrete and separate elements (the occurrences).

Let us quote again CULIOLI:

It should be described obviously that notions have a status of predicable entities and could be described as unfragmented solid wholes; but they are apprehended through occurrences, i.e. distinguished through separate events, broken down into units (actually localized in the physical world, or imaginary) with variable properties. (p. 70).

After having dealt with a general presentation of quantifiers, now let us look at how different are **each** and **every** within their category.

### C. Specificity of Each and Every.

**Each** and **every** are quantifiers of totality like **all**, **both**, etc. They imply a distribution of the predicate or object parallel with the distribution of the subject (or conversely). One may ask however why **each** and **every** within **distributives**, require only a singular form while they seem to deal with plurality. About that question an etymological study of 'each' and 'every' can first provide us with a little explanation.

#### 1. Etymology.

**Every** derived from the combination of two morphemes in Old English [æfre + æle] which later became through centuries [ever ech] and finally [ever + y]. Consequently "every" expressed the sense of 'ever + **each**' and was recognized as a compound of 'each'.

As for **each** its early use corresponded closely to its modern usage; the only difference being that it has always been possible to use 'each' when only two elements are referred to.

The two words were at first often used somewhat indiscriminately, but their functions were gradually differentiated. In modern usage 'each' directs attention to the individuals composing a set, 'every' chiefly to the totality. The morpheme 'ever' which is an element of 'every' is an operator which denotes a constant reiteration, a continuous recurrence.

**c. Central value.**

**Each** and **every** are traces of an individuating operation known as the operation of **scanning**. Both words indicate the quantity or the number which is equivalent to the cardinal of a set or a group after scanning. In other terms, the number of the occurrences passed in review are equivalent to the total number of the class of occurrences situationally or contextually located.

Consider the following utterances:

- 1. The portner knows each student in the college by name.**
- 2. Every house was damaged after the storm.**

In (1) 'each' indicates that the enouncer has passed in review all the occurrences with the property /**student**/ and the number of occurrences passed in review is equivalent to the total class of occurrences situationally located by the enouncer.

In (2) 'every' indicates the same operation too: the number of the occurrences run over by the enouncer is equivalent to the total number of the located occurrences.

---

**PART TWO**

---

**THE UNDERLYING ENUNCIATIVE OPERATIONS WITH**  
**EACH/EVERY**

In this section we will deal with the two enunciative operations which **each** and **every** are traces. Remember that the term 'operations' in the theory of enunciation denotes an underlying activity for the production of an utterance, by its author. This hidden and invisible activity which is at the origin of material traces like **each** and **every**, we shall try, as we have already mentioned, to describe and represent through metalinguistic devices in order to simulate the type of reasoning as well as the representational and referential process that associate forms to shape and vice versa.



## CHAPTER I. THE OPERATION OF LOCATION.

All the operations that contribute to the construction of an utterance turn on a central operation: the operation of location (in French l'opération de repérage).

The concept of location is essential when we are dealing with the general operation of determination. It is linked to the idea of locating one term relative to another.

To say that X is located relative to Y means that X is situated with reference to Y, whether that latter, which is thus a **locator** (in French **le repère**) is itself located by another location, or whether it is an origin.

There is nothing to prevent a term from being located relative to itself, or a term which was the locator in one relationship from then becoming the **locatum** (in French **le repéré**) in a reciprocal relationship of location. The basic idea is that an object only requires a form and a value by means of a dynamic scheme of location.

**X E Y** (read X is located relative to Y)

The operation of location can have three main forms:

**identification, differentiation, rupture.**

The identification is typically marked by the operator **BE**:

- **This chair is my roommate's.**

'is' is an explicit trace of an operation of location with a form of identification, between '**this chair**' (locatum) and '**my roommate's**' (locator).

The differentiation (or localisation) is materialised by the operator **HAVE**. This form will be interpreted under the form of **localisation**.

- **My roommate has a chair.**

'has' marks that my roommate serves as a locator for the locatum **chair**.

As for the form of rupture, it does not have a characteristic marker like **BE** or **HAVE**, but it appears, like the two other forms, with different areas of the utterance in diverse fields such as determination, tense, aspect, modality, etc.

X w Y (X is not located relative to Y in a given situation)

Within the operation of location, we have however two modes of locating:

1° location in relation to a specific situation;

2° location in relation to the class of situations.

### 1. Location in relation to a specific situation.

Consider the following utterances:

A. **Each theory is open to objection.**

B. **Every schoolboy knows the partner.**

In (A) "theory" is located situationally, meaning it relates to an enumeration of known theories by the enouncers to his co-enouncer(s).

In (B) "schoolboy" is located situationally too. The utterances (A) and (B) imply that the occurrences are provided with specific situational properties, and they are then apprehended as representing particular occurrences of the notions /theory/ and /schoolgirl/.

The location is carried out in relation to **particular situations**: we are dealing in fact with specific event validated in specific situations too, and the utterances are taken charge by given enouncers, in given moments of enunciation.

Every lexis is located relative to a complex system having a situation - origin locator (**Sit0**), a locator of the event of speech (**Sit1**) and a locator of the event which is referred to (**Sit2**).

Each locator has two parameters (**S** for the enouncer, the speaker; **T** for the (spatio) temporal locator of the origin of the enunciation, for the location of the act of speech, and that for the event which is referred to).

The formula of the situational location is then:

$$\mathcal{L} \underline{E} \text{ Sit2}(S2, T2) \underline{E} \text{ Sit1}(S1, T1) \underline{E} \text{ Sit0}(S0, T0)$$

Sit2 marks the index of event, which gives us the spatio-temporal of the event to which the utterance refers.

Sit1 marks the moment of speech which provides the coordonates (S1, T1) of the act of speech, and which serves as a locator of the index of the event (Sit2  $\underline{E}$  Sit1).

Sit0 marks the situation of enunciation which is provided with the enunciative coordonates (S0, T0) and which functions as an absolute origin-locator in relation to which are localised at the same time sit1 and Sit2 (Sit2  $\underline{E}$  Sit1  $\underline{E}$  Sito).

As far as the parameter S is concerned, you will note that:

- the identification of S2, the grammatical subject and S1 the speaker, gives I for instance (X=Y):

**I saw that each schoolboy had his own desk.**

- the differentiation of S2 and S1 gives you for instance:

**You know each student by name. (X different from Y)**

- the rupture between S2 and S1 gives he, she, it, etc. (X W Y).

You will probably note that the theory of enunciation marks a net distinction between the situation of enunciation (Sit0) and the situation of the moment of speech (Sit1). CULIOLI does not take the coordinates of the first type of locator, S0, enunciator, and T0, moment and place of enunciation (which relates directly to the taking charge of the utterance), for the coordinates of the second type of locator, S1, the speaker, and T1, moment and place of speech, which only concerns the production of the oral or written message. Indeed, in many cases, these two situations will be identical. So the distinction between S0/T0 and S1/T1 will not occur:

- **I have got much work to do.** (assertion)

- **I don't feel much like eating.** (negation)

The speaker S1 takes charge of the utterances, guarantees their validity.

In other cases however the distinction between the two locators S0/T0 and S1/T1 is obvious:

- **Have you ever seen an elephant?** (interrogation)

- **All elephants are animals, aren't they Mum?**

There is a differentiation of the speaker and the enunciator, since it is up to the co-enunciator (S0') to validate the relation, to take charge the utterances.

So far we have been dealing with the situational location. Now let us come to the other mode of location.

## **2. Location in relation to the class of the situations.**

Consider the following utterances:

- **Every dog barks.**
- **Every human being needs love.**
- **Every theory is open to objection.**

In these utterances S0 refers to all "theories", "dogs", "human beings" that exist. The location is not situational but a contextual one. The validation of the S2 and the predicates can occur at any context. The utterances do not refer to specific events, but on the contrary to what has often been called "general truth". Thus, they are not only formed as being "true", validated in a given situation but in any situation.

Consequently they can be validated by any enunciator in any situation of enunciation. Such utterances suppose a location in relation to all the possible and imaginable situations, i.e more technically, in relation to **the class of situations**. We note also in this mode of location that the occurrences of the notions /dog/, /theory/ are not specific occurrences, but any occurrence. In fact they function as "samples" and are not thus qualitatively distinguishable from

the other occurrences of their respective classes. They are then representatives of their classes and, beyond, of their notions.

Let us recall briefly now that the two different modes of location can be explained by other factors: the aspectuo-temporal markers on the English verb.

### **3. Interdependence between the nominal determination and the verbal determination.**

The aspectual and the temporal markers on the verb are factors that determine the mode of location in a given utterance. These two types of markers will combine each other in order to present the different forms of the verbal system in English. It is indeed unfeasible to study here in detail the whole system. We will limit ourself just to the analysis of some elements of the aspectuo-temporal forms which seem to be so revealing as far as our topic is concerned.

The temporal markers ( $\emptyset$ , -s, -ed) have for function to localise spatio-temporally the event in relation to the situational origin (Sit0).

.  $\emptyset$ , -S (or the markers of the "present tense") indicate that the utterance is validated in Sit0, and also that the event to which it refers occurs in the same period of that of Sit0.

- The portner knew each shoolboy by name.
- Every shoolboy knew the portner in this college.

. **-ed** (or the marker of the "past tense") indicates that the utterance is not validated in Sit0, and also that the event is in rupture with the situation-origin, either because it is made as belonging in the past (The portner knew each schoolboy by name), or it is constructed as being **fictive** (If the portner knew each schoolboy by names... ).

The aspectual markers (**be+ING, have+en and  $\emptyset$** , i.e the absence of marker) indicate the point of view of the enouncer on the considered utterance. They refer in fact to the representation by the enouncer of the process. To put it differently, they refer to the aspect under which the enouncer views the process itself.

- **If you buy a LIP, you're buying more than a watch.**
- **Every child has been fed with maternal milk.**

The aspectual markers concern essentially the relation between the enouncer and the utterance (i.e the implication of the enouncer in relation to what he utters), and, the mode of construction of the process (mainly accomplished or unaccomplished).

## CHAPTER II. THE OPERATION OF SCANNING

Scanning (from the verb **scan** which is a bit synonymous with the verb survey) is an operation of determination. It deals with the notion as well as with the predicative relation. The latter can be considered as a complex notion. We can then talk of scanning in the determination of nouns as well as in the modes of location (location in relation to a situation which is specific and location in relation to the class of the situations). The operation of scanning is an abstract operation which can be characterized like a journey from one element to another, without being willing or able to pick out one (or more) distinguished value.

The operation of scanning which is first used by CULIOLI in his "**Théorie des opérations énonciatives**" under the term **parcours** (in French) is carried out of a class of elements (or out of a class of situations or out of a class of occurrences of the notion *p*): there won't be a first or a last element since it is an **open whole**.

### 1. Scanning over a class of occurrences.

**Each** and **every** are traces of an individuating operation through the operation of scanning. Both indicate the quantity or the number which is equivalent to the cardinal of a set or a group after scanning. In other terms the number of the occurrences passed in review are equivalent to the total number of



the class situationally located. However it is observed that the mode of scanning with "each" and that with "every" are not similar at all.

a. **"Each" rejects addition.**

With the operator "each" the enouncer refers to the occurrences of a notion individually. In the following utterance.

**The teacher said hello to each student.**

If in the classroom there were twenty students for instance, the teacher would have then pronounced the word "hello" twenty times. So with "each" the emphasis is laid on the individuals and the indication of the journey from one element to another.

As for **every**, it deals with the same operation, but here the concept of addition is present near the concept of scanning.

b. **"Every" implies addition.**

With the operator "Every" the enouncer does not stick on a single occurrence to the detriment of the other occurrences. So with "every" the running individually over the class of occurrences of a notion is soon followed by a process of addition. So "every" appears as an operator of **scanning with addition.**

The concept of "**notion**" appears as a central concept in the analysis of utterances.

A notion is not **given** forever: it is **constructed**, organized by the enouncers from a structured set of physico-cultural properties. The notion is then a **cognitive and linguistic representation**.

Any notion has a predicative characteristics and is defined in **intension**. This means that one cannot distinguish occurrences at this level, i.e we are dealing with the **compact**, the **indivisible** and only the properties (qualitative) are taken into account.

All notions are also to undergo a series of operations of determination (qualification / quantification) so that to be related to other notions and then to form **predicative relations** which, in turn undergo some operations of determination, especially that of **location** in relation to the situation of enunciation.

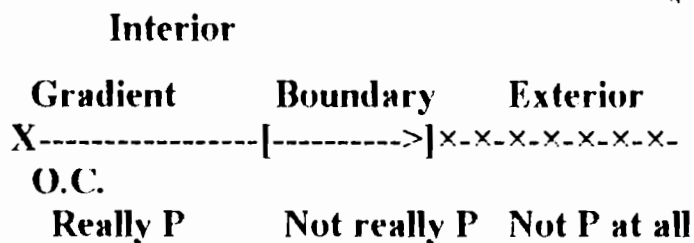
When determining the notion, it undergoes different operations; the first one is the construction of a **notional domain**. To define a **notional domain** means to envisage a **class of occurrences** of the notion (then to render it quantifiable) and, from a qualitative point of view to construct a **topological space** which will allow to distinguish what belongs to the domain (**the Interior**), what has really the properties of the notion (**the Centre**), what has not got at all the required properties (**the Boundary**) and finally what is else (**the Exterior**).

From all this, it follows that the occurrences are distributed in a domain with a topology, based on identification and differentiation. The result is a four-zone domain (Center, Interior, Boundary, Exterior).

The topological space of a notion is represented (P,p') (P being the physico-cultural properties of the notion and P' the linguistic complementary of P).

To represent a notion we have: X(), () indicating the predicative characteristics ("to put in relation with") of X.

To represent a notional domain we have:



O.C - Organizing Center (An occurrence which has the total characteristic properties of the notion.).

The notional domain can be provided with a **gradient** which, when moving away from the organizing center it will give us occurrences having less and less its characteristic properties.

The Interior of a domain is **open**. It is symbolized by -----[  
 From the predicative notion /Q to be a pig/ we are in the interior whenever we recognize that p1, p2 of P have the physico-cultural properties which render the

occurrences indivisible and identifiable from one to the other. Here we can talk of a **class**, i.e an open set, without a last occurrence.

When situated in the Exterior of the domain, we have occurrences which have nothing to do with the property /() to be a pig/. Here the set is open and it refers to another topological space (/() to be a cat/ for instance).

As for the Boundary of the domain, it gathers the occurrences that belong neither to the Interior nor to the Exterior, but to the ones that will be defined in relation to the Interior (not really P) or in relation to the Exterior (not P at all).

**Remark:** The set Boundary plus Exterior form what is called the **Complementary** of the Interior. It is defined like the Interior in relation to the Organizing Center. It is represented by [-----].

When summarizing what precedes let us quote CULIOLI:

When you construct abstract individual occurrences you do three things simultaneously: (1) you construct abstract individual occurrences, (2) you construct an organizing center, with respect to which any occurrence of the notion is defined, (3) hence, the construction of a gradient (the notional domain is then represented as a bassin of attraction; the absolute value is central, and the relative value of P decreases as you move away from the center. (Culioli, 1991, p85).

Now we are aware that the construction of the notional domain is the first condition within the dynamic chain of the operations of determination.

## NOTE:

1. In mathematics, to define a class in **intension** is to give the communal properties of all the elements of the class; to define it in **extension** is to enumerate the elements.

2. **Topology** is the branch of geometry that studies the qualitative properties and the relative positions of geometrical elements, independently to their forms.

In an operation of determination, the operation of scanning calls for quantification and qualification in so far as the occurrences are apprehended one by one (quantification) without one being able to pick out one or more distinguished values of the occurrences.

Scanning is an operation by which the occurrences of a class are passed in review for a quantitative and a qualitative determination. So one can metalinguistically represent it as follows:

**(Qnt)(Qlt)** (read quantity, quality equiponderant);

When you consider for instance the following utterance:

- **Every school girl wore the same uniform.**

there is not any distinction between the occurrences having the property **/school girl/** as far as the validation of the predicate **/wore the same uniform/** is concerned. So here the occurrences are passed in review one by one (quantification) and it is not possible to single out one (or more) that does not validate the predicative relation (qualification).

We note that from what has preceded concerning the operation of scanning, it goes without saying that scanning cannot be carried out of N having not the property of being **discontinuous**.

So far we have dealt with scanning over the class of occurrences of the notion. Now let us see how scanning is held in the class of situations.

## **2. Scanning over the situation of validations.**

Consider the following utterances:

- **Every theory is open to objection.**
- **Every growing child needs love.**
- **Each human being has his own perception of life.**

In the utterances above the enouncers (S0) refer to **/all theories/, /all growing children/, /all human beings/**. The validation of the relations between the grammatical subjects (S2) and the predicates **"is open to objection", "needs love" and "has his own perception of life"** can occur in any context according to S0. There is no distinction between the situation of enunciation (Sit0) and the situation of the validation of the events (Sit2) because of the predicative relations which can be validated in any situation.

These utterances do not refer to any specific event but to what is generally known as a "general truth". They require a location in relation to all possible and imaginary situations, i.e in relation to all the class of situations.

Note finally that in these "generic" utterances (there is a sense of iteration, habit, property) the operation of scanning over the situations and that over the notional domains often go together.

To sum up we keep in mind from the operation of scanning its ambivalent characteristics which is chronologically ordered in two steps:

- as a journey from one element to another, it implies a prior quantification (the occurrences P1, P2, etc; of the notion)
- but as a refusal to pick out or to isolate one particular occurrence, it leads to the acknowledgement of a similar property between all the occurrences and becomes then a qualitative operation.

---

## PART THREE

---

### CONTRAST AND FUNCTIONING



## CHAPTER I. CONTRAST WITH OTHER NOUN MARKERS THAT DISPLAY AN OPERATION OF SCANNING.

In this section we will try to demonstrate how incidental is our analysis of 'Each' and 'Every' to some determiners. In other words, do our operators share the same enunciative operation with some determiners, i.e the operation of scanning?

From our investigation it is found that **each** and **every** are not the only determiners marking a scanning operation among the other markers of determination. In these latter there are some which are traces of a scanning operation too: the quantifiers such as **any** and **all** are linguistic traces of a scanning process; the articles  $\emptyset$ , **A**, **THE** can mark an operation of scanning too.

### A. Any, All: traces of an operation of scanning.

Since scanning consists, as we have already shown, in running over the whole domain of a notion, without being willing or able to pick out one (or more) distinguished value, it must be noticed that from the following utterances **any** marks that the classes of the P are passed in review and each one is apt to validate the predicative relations.

- **Any dog eats far more meat than a human being.**

"Any dog" refers to any P with the property of /dog/. Also the predicate "eats far more meat than a human being" is common to any P of the notional domain.

- **Any doctor can tell you how long hours he works.**

The enouncer says that the predicate "tell you how long hours he works" is inherent to any P of the class.

- **Any good teacher studies his subject carefully.**

With this utterance also SO runs over the homogenous domain of the abstract occurrences with the notion /good teacher/ and each P is apt to validate th relation. Thus, the occurrences are kept qualitatively indiscernible.

As for "all", it indicates first a quantitative determination. It deals also with totality, i.e the quantity is equal to the cardinal of the whole class. However, with N having the property of being discontinuous, "all" marks an operation of scanning as shown in the following utterances:

- **All dogs eat more meat than human beings.**
- **All doctors can tell you how long hours they work.**
- **All good teachers study their subjects carefully.**
- **All the schoolboys know the date 1066.**

"All" appears then as a trace of an operation of scanning with addition. So "all" rejects individuation. In this case we can conclude that "every" and "all" deal roughly with the same operation of scanning. Their only differences lay on the fact that with "every" there is a journey from one element to another whereas

with "all" the elements are taken as a whole. So with "all" the occurrences can be presented as follows:  $(P1+P2+P3+P4+....+Pn)$ ;

with "every" we have:  $(P1)+(P2)+(P3)+(P4)+....+(Pn)$ ;

and for "each" we have:  $(P1),(P2),(P3),(P4),....,(Pn)$ .

### **B. A, Ø, THE : traces of a scanning process.**

The articles Ø, A, THE can have a generic value. So in this case, they refer to all the occurrences of a given class.

#### **1. Article Ø: scanning with addition.**

- Ø Dogs are invaluable help for man.

[dog1 + dog2 + dog3 + dog4 + .... + dogn]

Here S0 is not dealing with situated occurrences, but is ranging over abstract interchangeable representations. No reference is made to the different kinds of dogs. So "Ø dogs" refer to the class of occurrences associated with the notion /dog/.

- Ø Dolphins can sometimes prove as intelligent as man.

- Ø Hounds are wild animals.

- Ø Horses have been domesticated for thousands of years.

- Ø Nouns are the largest class of words.

In the utterances above S0 deals with the notions /dolphin/, /hound/, /horse/, and /noun/. So their classes of species are referred to.

We can notice finally that the article  $\emptyset$  with a generic value marks an operation of individuation followed by an addition. So like "every" and "all" it displays an operation of scanning with addition.

## **2. The article A: a granular scanning.**

The article A supposes a scanning process too as shown in the following utterance:

**- A dog is an invaluable help for man.**

[dog1 or dog2 or dog3 or dogn]

In this utterance an occurrence of /dog/ is representative of all the occurrences of the class. In other words, we can say that any occurrence of the class refers to the whole class. So any P is indiscernible as far as the validation of the predicate "invaluable help for man" is concerned.

**- A blackbird is a common, fairly small European bird.**

[blackbird1 or blackbird2 or blackbird3 or blackbirdn]

**- A pig is a four-footed animal.**

[pig1 or pig2 or pig3 or pig4 or pign]

From the utterances above we can notice that A is an operator of scanning, hence (Qnt)(Qlt); but here individuation is particularly retained. Thus we have with it a granular scanning operation (in French parcours rugueux) : an

occurrence of /blackbird/, of /dog/, of /pig/ is qualitatively indiscernible from any other P of the same class as far as their respective predicates are concerned.

**NOTE:**

The utmost operation which the article A marks is known as the operation of **Extraction** (in French extraction). It consists in singling out an occurrence, that is, isolating it and drawing its spatio-temporal boundaries (in other words, locating it with reference to a situational system. This amounts to ascribing an existential status, real or imaginary, to a situated occurrence of a notion.

Extraction brings into discursive existence an individuated occurrence that has no other distinguishing feature than the fact that it has been singled out. Extraction emphasizes Qnt, since it highlights the fact that what was just any occurrence of an abstract class becomes a separate occurrence with situational properties.

- **There was a super market in front of his house.**

An occurrence of the notion /super market/ has been singled out, hence (Qnt)Qlt (quantity preponderant).

**3. The article THE: a smooth scanning.**

"The" is a trace of another mode of a scanning process called a **smooth scanning** (in French *parcour lisse*) which merges the occurrences, then constructing an ideal occurrence, namely the abstract type (not a visible

exemplar, or a sample). So there is a sense of smoothing, since, being all identified with the ideal occurrence, the different occurrences of the class appear no longer in their singularity.

- **The spider never settles on chestnut wood.**
- **The horse has been domesticated for thousands of years.**
- **The dog is a faithful friend.**

"Spider", "horse" and "dog" are then the abstract ideal occurrences and any occurrence of their respective classes is identified with them.

We must note that in a smooth scanning there is less individuation; only the ideal occurrence (the sample) is dealt with as being a representative of the whole class.

**NOTE:**

The utmost operation which the article THE marks is known as the operation of **Pinpointing or Re-identification** (in French **fléchage**). Given an extracted occurrence of a notion, let us posit another occurrence of the notion : there are two possible cases: either the second occurrence refers to a different occurrence (the two occurrences are separate), or the second occurrence is identified with the former one. Pinpointing marks existential stability, while it explicitly indicates that the second occurrence has the property of being identical with the extracted occurrences: an example:

- **I had a horse as strong as his and he'd whip the horse from behind and send it charging through the trees.**

To conclude, let us quote Eric GILBERT, when he deals with the three different modes of the operation of scanning:

Ces trois formes de parcours ne présentent bien entendu pas les mêmes propriétés. Sans entrer dans le détail, nous nous contenterons de signaler que parcours avec totalisation et parcours lisse témoignent d'une certaine parenté, et peuvent, en ce sens, tous les deux être opposés au parcours rugueux. En effet lissage et totalisation annihilent, chacun à sa manière et contrairement au parcours rugueux, toute forme d'individuation<sup>3</sup>.

<sup>3</sup> - cf Les théories de la grammaire anglaise en France, P.91

## CHAPTER II. FUNCTIONING.

In this chapter we will study the functioning of **each** and **every**. A contrastive analysis will also be held between our two operators.

### 1. Each+N / Every+N

**Each** and **every** are determiners. They appear before a noun to which they relate. As such they are **adjectives** and are often translated into French with the word "chaque", which is sometimes so misleading. In fact the French translation "chaque" does not reveal at all the scanning process with individuation and with addition which **each** and **every** mark respectively.

- **Each room in the hotel has its own bathroom.**

(Dans l'hotel chaque chambre a sa propre salle de bain.)

- **Every school girl wore the same uniform.**

(Chaque écolière portait la même uniforme.)

- **Every year we go back to the village where we have been married.**

(Chaque année nous retournons dans le village où nous nous somme mariés.)

- **Bach had twenty children. Each child played a different instrument.**

(Bach avait vingt enfants. Chaque enfant jouait d'un instrument différent.)



The French translation of **each** and **every** does not therefore take into account the nuances the two operators embody. So here English seems to be more accurate than French.

The other important point is that, **each** and **every**, as operators of an operation of scanning, it goes without saying that they are followed by N having the property of being discontinuous.

### 1.1. Distributivity.

Before N "each" appears in distributivity.

- **Each child was given a candle.**

(The number of children was equivalent to the number of candles.) The distribution of the subject (S2) is parallel with the distribution of object (or conversely).

- **\*Every child was given a candle.** (there was only one candle in this case). With "every" the predicate is common to all the occurrences whereas "each" sticks on individuals like in the following utterances:

- **Each boy was given three cakes.**

- **At the end of Tom's birthday party, a present was given to each child.**

- **Each applicant has five choices.**

- **Maria saw that each woman got her four slices**

## **1.2. General assessment**

Adverbs such as **almost**, **nearly**, etc which imply a general assessment cannot go together with "each".

- **Almost every chair is broken in the classroom.**
- **\*Almost each chair is broken in the classroom.**

Since "every" implies an addition, the adverb "almost" can go together with it, simply because the enouncer draws a conclusion after scanning. As far as "each" is concerned, the emphasis is laid on the elements individually. The adverb "almost" will appear as being inaccurate with it.

- **Almost every seat in the theatre was taken.**
- **\*Almost each seat in the theatre was taken.**
- **Nearly every house in the theatre was damaged after the recent storm.**
- **\*Nearly each house in the village...**
- **He drank a bottle of whisky everyday** (a bottle per day: general assessment, conclusion after scanning).
- **Each day he drank a bottle of whisky** (a day ==> a bottle: we count the passing days).
- **Each day was different** (Chaque jour était différent.)
- **Every day was different** (même propriété de différer).
- **Every day was the same** (Tous les jours se ressemblaient.).

### **1.3. Differences among the elements of a set.**

If there are differences among the elements of a group, "each" is used, because "every" implies a general assessment, a general statement about the elements. So "each" indicates what differentiates an element from another.

- Each girl wore a different skirt.
- \*Every girl wore a different skirt.
- \*Each child wore the same uniform.
- Every child wore the same uniform.

With the adjective "different" there cannot be a general statement. As for the adjective "same", it implies conformity.

### **1.4. Some words release the use of "Each" and others the use of "Every".**

- They rehearse every morning.
- Each room in the hotel has its own bathroom.
- There was a reason for each worker to abandon.
- Almost every seat in the theatre was taken.
- Each girl wore a different skirt.
- One will probably die each day (probability cannot go together with general assessment).

From what precedes one can note that with "each" there is more precision than with "every". This has led many to think that where there are only two

elements "each" is used whereas when there are more than two, it is "every" which is used.

- He came in London twice and visited me each time.
- Having read the speech the queen returns to Buckingham Palace. Each House of Parliament then gets down to the first important business of the newly opened session.
- Each parent looks after the child in turn.
- \*Every of his parents looks after him.

### 1.5. Expresion of time.

"Every", followed by various time expressions, shows how often things happen.

- I go to the theatre every three weeks (general assessment, conclusion).
- His blood should be checked every three months.
- We only eat meat every other day (on monday, wednesday, friday,... or on tuesday, thursday, saturday, monday)
- Take this medicine every other day.

#### NOTE:

Every other day (tous les deux jours) [evri ... 'dei]

Every other days (tous les autres jours) [evri '... deiz]

Everyday (adjective) E.g. Everyday clothes (habits de tous les jours)

## **2. Each Ø, each one, every one.**

**Each** and **every** can sometimes appear without N which is their target. In this case they stand for **pronouns**. However "every" does not itself act as pronoun. So it must be followed by **one** (and put a stress on **one**) because of its characteristics which are already mentioned. As for "each" which is the trace of an individuating operation, it may not be followed by **one**.

- **The king divided his land especially between his three sons. So when he died, they each owned a third of his kingdom.**
- **The male shelduck fight fiercely, each one trying to seize the other's long neck in its beak.**
- **Our cat has four kittens, every one of them was white** (general assessment, conclusion).
- **I bought a bag full of oranges and every one of them was bad** (general assessment).
- **We invited twenty friends and every one of them came** (conclusion or general assessment).
- **They were every one banned.**
- **\*Every was rebuilt.**

### **NOTE:**

"Every one" refers most of the time to things whereas "everyone" refers only to human beings.

- **Somebody left, in fact everyone did.**

## **2.1. Each other / One another.**

Each other and one another are very often designated in many grammar books under the term of "reciprocal pronouns". It is usually argued that "each other" is preferred when two elements are involved as in the following utterances:

- **Smith and Mary love each other.**
- **Sam and Paul are kicking the ball each other.**
- **Terry and Mary were jealous of each other.**
- **My brother and I borrow each other's ties.**
- **Moon and Smith envied each other's fortunes.**

and "one another" when more than two elements are involved:

- **Mr Smith's five daughters look like one another.**
- **The four partners trusted one another.**
- **The five children threw themselves into one another's arms.**

However in some cases "one another" is used, questioning thus the rule:

- **I was sure that she wanted to defy me in my gambler's self-confidence, just as I defied her [...] by my indifference. We were still trying to disturb one another.**

What we can note after all is that "each" gives a greater sense of precision, especially when the number is limited. So it is the case here with duality.

### **3.2.1. Each and its positions.**

"Each" is much more movable within the predicative relation than "every". Consequently it is either a pronoun or an adjective, whereas "every" is always an adjective.

#### **A. Grammatical subject + each.**

When "each" refers to the plural grammatical subject it can come (never every) after the subject, or after an auxiliary verb.

- **We each have our own idea about the crisis.**
- **The watches are each worth 100 F.**
- **They each have an American car.**

#### **B. Object + each.**

Sometimes "each" follows not the subject but the object.

- **We had a couple of mouthfuls each, and then confessed we preferred coca-cola.**

### **C. Indirect object + each.**

When "each" refers to an indirect object it can follow it (them each, us each,...). But if the direct object is a definite number or amount, "each" can come after the direct object.

- **He gives us two books each.**
- **He gave us books each.**
- **They gave them each a present.**

### **3.2.2. Every and its composants.**

"Every", since it marks general assessment through a scanning operation with addition, has another pronoun form such as **everybody**, **evryone** which have personal references and also **everywhere** and **everything** with a non personal reference. Such combinations can be explained through the characteristics of every: indication of what is common to the elements of a group.

- **Everybody knows the portner in this college.**

In this utterance the predicate "knows the portner in this college" is common to the subject "evrybody" in other terms any element of the group will validate the relation.



## CONCLUSION

We retain, from what precedes, that "each" and "every" are markers of the noun group.

They relate the noun : they are determiners. They delimit it with an additional quantitative meaning : they are quantifiers.

Within quantifiers of totality, they are specifically the only ones which are followed by singular nouns.

In the theory of enunciation, the main enunciative operation which they mark is the operation of scanning. However they are far from being **synonymous** or **interchangeable**. There is a difference of nuances from the enouncer as far as their respective meanings are concerned.

With the marker "each" we have an operation of scanning with **individuation**.

- They asked **each** prisoner if **he** wanted to go home.

(P1), (P2), (P3), (P4), (Pn)

As for "every", this marker operates a process of scanning with **addition**.

- They asked **every** prisoner if **they** wanted to go home.

(P1) + (P2) + (P3) + (P4) + (Pn)

We must keep in mind that the operation of scanning calls for a quantitative as well as for a qualitative determination :

- as a journey from an element to another, it implies a prior quantification (the occurrences P1, P2, P3, etc of the notion)

- but as a refusal to pick out or to isolate one particular occurrence, it leads to the acknowledgement of a similar property between all the occurrences and becomes then a qualitative operation.

"Each" emphasizes the differences whereas "every" operates a general assessment from the elements of a set.

- As the years passed Richard Moore became fearful of writing to his old friend more than once a year as **each** letter elicited an ever larger cheque (the cheques are of different amount).

- **Each** room had a washbasin though not **every** washbasin had a plug or **every** plug a chain. (general assessment).

- **Every** few minutes I checked my watch. **Each** time a woman with blond hair entered the lounge, my heart leaped. (There are different women).

On the whole, what is called "enunciation" covers a very large field of facts and concerns. We remark on the one hand that the relevance of enunciation has a long history (it was dealt during antiquity, in the works of rhetoric and in the logico-grammatical thoughts), and, on the other hand that the contemporary enunciative movements are divided mainly into two large branches : those who study, from a **grammatical** point of view, the diverse enunciative categories of languages (tenses, aspect, modality, etc...) and those who direct their attention, from a **pragmatic** point of view, on the "acts of language", the "conversational mechanisms", the "presuppositions" etc...

## BIBLIOGRAPHIY

- 1 - Adamczewski, H.(1990) Grammaire Linguistique de l'anglais, Armand Colin
- 2 - Adamczewski, H., Gabilan, J.P.(1992) Les clés de la grammaire anglaise, Armand Colin.
- 3 - Alexander, L.G.(1994) Advanced Grammar, Longman.
- 4 - Benveniste. E. (1966) Problèmes de linguistique générale, tome 1 Gallimard.
- 5 - Benveniste, E.(1970) Problèmes de linguistique générale, tome 2 Gallimard.
- 6 - Bloomfield, L. (1935) Language, London : Allen and Unwin.
- 7 - Bouscaren, J.(1991) Linguistique anglaise. Initiation à une grammaire de l'énonciation, Gap : Ophrys.
- 8 - Bouscaren, J., Chuquet, J., Danon - Boileau, L.(1992) Introduction to a linguistic Grammar of English : an uttered - centered approach, translated and adapted by Flintham, Rand., Bouscaren, J., Gap : Ophrys.
- 9 - Bouscaren, J. & alii (1982, 1984, 1989, 1991) Cahiers de recherche en grammaire anglaise, tome I, II, Gap : Ophrys.
- 10 - Chalker, S.A (1990) English Grammar word by word, Nelson.
- 11 - Chalker S.A (1992) A student's English Grammar work-book, Longman.
- 12 - Colins Cobuild, English Grammar (1990), London.
- 13 - Cotte, P. & alii (1973) Les théories de la grammaire anglaise en France, Hachette.
- 14 - Culioli, A., (1967) "La communication verbale", in Encyclopédie des Sciences de l'homme, tome 4, (éd. Grange Batelière)

15 - Culioli, A., (1968a) "A propos du genre en anglais contemporain", in *Les Langues modernes*, n°3, 1968, pp.38-46.

16 - Culioli, A., (1968b) "La formalisation en linguistique", in *Les Cahiers pour l'Analyse* n°9, 1968 (Le Seuil), pp.106-117.

17 - Culioli, A., (1975) "A propos d'opérations intervenant dans le traitement formel des langues naturelles" in *Mathématiques et Sciences Humaines*, n°34 (Gauthier - Villars), pp.7-15.

18 - Culioli, A., (1974) "A propos des énoncés exclamatifs" in *Langue française* n°22, pp.6-15.

19 - Culioli, A., (1973) " Sur quelques contradictions en Linguistique" in *Communication* n°20 (Le Seuil, pp.83-91.

20 - Culioli, A., (1991) Pour une linguistique de l'énonciation, opérations et représentations, tome1, II, Gap : Ophrys.

21 - Downing, A., Lock, P. (1992) A University Course in English Grammar, Prentice Hall(U.K).

22 - Fuchs, C., (1972) "Théorie de l'énonciation et problèmes de prédication" in *les Langues modernes*, pp.121-125.

23 - Fuchs, C., Leonard, A.M.(1979) Vers une théorie des aspects, Paris : Mouton.

24 - Fuchs, C. Le Goffic, P.(1985) Initiation aux problèmes de linguistiques contemporaines, Paris : Hachette.

25 - Greenbaum, S., (1991) An Introduction to English Grammar, Longman.

26 - Groussier, M. L., & alii(1973) Grammaire anglaise, thèmes construits : Hachette.

27 - Guillaume, G. (1956) Leçons de linguistique, les presses de l'université Laval, Québec, Klincksieck, Paris(1974)

- 28 - Halliday, M., Hassan, R.(1976) Cohesion in English, Longman.
- 29 - Halliday, M.,(1985) An Introduction to functional Grammar, Baltimore : Arnold.
- 30 - Jakobson, R.,(1963) Essais de linguistique générale, (éd. de Minuit).
- 31 - Leech, G. (1989) An A-Z of English Grammar an Usage, London : Edward Arnold.
- 32 - Martinet, A., (1980) Eléments de linguistique générale, Armand Colin.
- 33 - Saussure, F., Course in general linguistics, Translated and annotated by Roy Harris (1993) : Duckworth.

\* Most of the utterances for illustrations in this work come from the books mentioned above ; but some are from oral sources and have been submitted to the comments of native speakers.