

## LOOSE APPPOSITION IN JOURNALISTIC STYLE

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*This paper first defines the notion of apposition and then applies it to the genre of journalistic style. The aim is to analyze appositive structures—their formal, syntactic, semantic and pragmatic characteristics—in terms of how they contribute to the genre selected.*

*The analysis of the data shows that the construction known as loose or non-restrictive apposition is not a fixed type of construction but that it can occur between different categories holding semantic relations other than co-reference. And, most importantly, the data appears to show that the use of appositions has certain features which seem to be genre-specific.*

### I. Introducción

A review of the literature on apposition reveals that, although grammarians accept the existence of a structure known as apposition, there is no general consensus about what it actually is. The notion of apposition raises many questions, such as:

- Is apposition a category or a relation? If a relation, is it co-ordination, subordination or a different type of relationship?
- Is there such a distinction as “close” or “restrictive” vs. “loose” or “non-restrictive” apposition?
- What syntactic structures does apposition comprise?
- does apposition include only the semantic relation of co-reference?

Many grammarians, such as B. Roberts, E. Kotkova, R. Quirk et al. or Ch.F. Meyer, agree that apposition is a relation and not a category.<sup>1</sup> They also coincide in considering apposition a syntactical relation formally akin to co-ordination. B. Roberts explains in detail the similarities and differences between apposition and both co-ordination and subordination.<sup>2</sup> On the one hand, apposition is formally similar to co-ordination because the appositive units are on the same level; on the other hand, it differs

1.- Burton-Roberts, N., “Nominal apposition”, *American Speech*, 28, pp. 389-419, 1953; Kotkova, E., “Apposition as a pragmatic phenomenon in a functional description”, *UEA Papers in Linguistics*, University of East Anglia, Norwich, 1985; Quirk, R. et al. *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language*, (London: Longman, 1985), pp. 1300-21; Meyer, C.F., “Apposition in English”, *Journal of English Linguistics*, 20, 1987, pp. 101-21.

2.- Burton-Roberts, op. cit. pp. 405ff.

from co-ordination because, unlike co-ordinated units, appositives are co-referential. The difference with respect to subordination lies in the fact that appositives do not display a head-modifier relationship but are syntactically equivalent.

The difficulty of assigning apposition to either co-ordination or subordination is partly due to the classification of apposition into two types: **close** or restrictive and **loose** or non-restrictive.<sup>3</sup> As C.F. Hockett and P.H. Matthews have pointed out, structures of loose apposition resemble subordination more, whereas structures of close apposition are more like co-ordination.<sup>4</sup>

Sopher was the first to define apposition as a relation with specific formal, syntactical and notional properties.<sup>5</sup> Later, Sopher's notion of apposition was expanded, among others, by Quirk et al. and Meyer.<sup>6</sup> They distinguish between degrees of apposition and include within apposition members appearing in unjuxtaposed position. However, the main novelty of both Quirk et al.'s and Meyer's theories is the expansion of semantic relations and, as a consequence, of apposition markers. In Quirk et al.'s view, apposition comprises not only co-reference but also synonymy and attribution. To these Meyer would also add the relation of hyponymy. Apart from the semantic expansion, Meyer also stands out for the pragmatic constraint in terms of which he defines apposition; that is, the second member of the apposition has to supply new information about the first member.<sup>7</sup>

For the purpose of the present study, apposition will be considered a special type of grammatical relationship - different from both co-ordination and subordination. Two members, (M1-M2) are in apposition when they fulfil the following features:

### 1) Formal Features

a) Punctuation. - M2 is separated from M1 and bounded by pauses, which in written discourse are represented by commas or other punctuation marks (dashes, brackets). When the appositive relation occurs at the end of the clause, M2 is bounded by one of the before-mentioned markers and a fullstop.

b) Position. - M2 must be placed alongside M1, or must at least potentially be able to appear formally juxtaposed to it.<sup>8</sup> Sentence adjuncts, though appearing alongside the word to which they relate, will be considered as placed outside the clause structure and NOT forming apposition.

### 2) Syntactic Features

3.- For definitions, see Quirk et al., op. cit., pp. 1303-4.

4.- Hockett, C.F. "Attribution and apposition", *American Speech*, 30, pp. 92-102, 1955; Matthews, P.H., *Syntax*, (Cambridge: C.U.P., 1987).

5.- Sopher, H. "Apposition", *English Studies*, 52, 1971, pp. 401-412, pp. 403ff.

6.- Quirk et al. op. cit; Meyer, C.F. op. cit; Meyer, C.F. "Restrictive Apposition: an indeterminate category", *English Studies*, 70, 1989, pp. 147-66.

7.- Meyer 1987, op. cit. pp. 111ff.

8.- Meyer, 1987, op. cit.

a) Syntactic form.- M1 and M2 may belong either to the same or to different form classes.

b) Syntactic function.- M1 and M2 constitute a single syntactic function.

c) Syntactic equivalence.- M2 may substitute M1 without altering the syntactic structure of the clause.

### 3) Semantic Features

a) Semantic relation.- The members in apposition may be co-referential, speaker co-referential, synonymous or hyponymous. Co-referential members have the same extralinguistic referent. In order to identify them from a strictly grammatical point of view, two tests can be applied. First, they cannot usually be linked by a co-ordinating conjunction; and second, they can be linked by an apposition marker.

Apposition may also occur between members that are not strictly co-referential but **speaker co-referential**. For pragmatic reasons, appositive members not referring to the same extralinguistic entity can be considered co-referential as long as the speaker or writer considers them to be so. One type of speaker co-reference is what Quirk et al. and Meyer call **attribution**, though only those cases in which M2 is indefinite.<sup>9</sup>

As far as synonymy is concerned, it is worth pointing out that it is possible for strict synonymous elements also to be co-referential. In this paper, however, whenever this is the case the type of semantic relationship will still be considered synonymous following Meyer's *Apposition in Contemporary English*.

b) Notional equivalence.- M1 and M2 are notionally equivalent when ANY of the following three conditions is satisfied:

- M1 and M2 are interchangeable;
- M2 may replace M1;
- M2 may be introduced by an apposition marker.

### 4) Pragmatic Features

M2 provides new information about M1, thus contributing to the flow of discourse. The piece of information provided may be more, less or equally specific as that supplied by M1.

It is worth emphasizing that apposition only refers to non-restrictive or loose apposition. Also, that, unlike B. Roberts, only the surface structure will be taken into account when applying the criteria.<sup>10</sup>

9.- Quirk et al. op. cit.; Meyer 1987, op. cit.

10.- Burton-Roberts, op. cit.

The aim of the present study is to analyze examples of apposition as they occur in the genre of journalistic style.<sup>11</sup> The focus will be on the behaviour of appositive structures, i.e., their formal, syntactic, semantic and pragmatic features, in terms of how they contribute to the genre selected.

This paper analyzes not only simple and complex appositions but also **apposition-like constructions**; that is, constructions which are NOT appositions because they do not fulfil the syntactic criteria, but are capable of being classified into the semantic structure proposed in Meyer because they satisfy the semantic and pragmatic conditions required.<sup>12</sup>

## II. Analysis of Data

Out of the totality of examples examined<sup>13</sup>, 185 fulfilled the requisites proposed in section I for a construction to be considered apposition. Out of them, 164 are simple appositions and 21 are complex. The following sections up until II.3. deal only with simple appositions.

### II.1. Syntactic structure

#### a) Syntactic form

Table 1 shows the frequency of occurrence of the different syntactic forms that could be found in the corpus.

TABLE 1: SYNTACTIC FORM<sup>14</sup>

Form	NP+NP	NP+CL	NP+PP	N+N	PossDet (pr) + PossDet (NP)	PP+PP	PP+CL	Adv+ PP	CL+ PP	CL+CL
No	155	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
%	94.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6

As table 1 shows, 94% of the examples are nominal appositions formed by two noun phrases. The structure NP+NP can, therefore, confidently be considered the 'unmarked' case.

11.- The data were taken from the weekly magazine *Time International*, vol. 139, no. 8, February 24, 1992.

12.- Meyer, C.F., *Apposition in Contemporary English*, (Cambridge: C.U.P., 1992).

13.- The total number of examples examined were 220.

14.- NP=Noun Phrase; CL=Clause; PP=Prepositional Phrase; N=Noun; Adv.=Adverb; PossDet (Pr)=Possessive Determiner constituted by a pronoun; PossDet (NP)=Possessive Determiner constituted by a Noun Phrase.

**NP+NP:** (1) "... Olivier de Bernon, 34, is reviving [A MUCH MORE FRAGILE ELEMENT OF CAMBODIAN LIFE], [THE NATION'S WRITTEN CULTURE]." (p. 9)

With a different structure only 9 appositions were found. Although only a few, these examples corroborate the view of those grammarians that argue that apposition does not only occur between NPs but also between categories of different form classes. The combination of categories is the following:

**NP+PP:** (2) "... because he was not [“THE GREATEST”], [LIKE MUHAMMAD ALI], but the baddest." (p. 27)

**NP+CL:** (3) "... the author asked [A FAIRLY SERIOUS QUESTION]: [IS IT WISE TO LET COMMERCIAL TECHNICIANS MEDDLE WITH GENETIC ENGINEERING?] (p. 50)

**N+N:** (4) "There's never the guarantee that somebody in the [MICHIGAN CITY], [INDIANA], prison who's in on four 99-year terms..." (p. 27)

**PossDet(Pr)+PossDet(NP):** (5) "Casey and I dropped into [HIS] [[LAGHI'S]] residence early mornings..." (p. 19)

**PP+PP:** (6) "... it will open its first restaurant [IN CZECHOSLOVAKIA] next month, [IN PRAGUE]." (p. 28)

**PP+CL:** (7) "[IN THE SUMMER OF 1984], [WHEN THE SANCTIONS AGAINST POLAND SEEMED TO BE HURTING ORDINARY FOLKS AND NOT THE COMMUNISTS], Laghi traveled to Santa Barbara..." (p. 20)

**Adv+PP:** (8) "That wouldn't happen [HERE]-not [IN INDIANAPOLIS]..." (p. 27)

**CL+NP:** (9) "The Administration focused on denying the U.S.S.R. [WHAT IT HAD HOPED WOULD BE ITS PRINCIPAL SOURCE OF HARD CURRENCY IN THE 21ST CENTURY]: [PROFITS FROM A TRANSCONTINENTAL PIPELINE TO SUPPLY NATURAL GAS TO WESTERN EUROPE]". (p. 16)

**CL+CL:** (10) "...Dow Corning spent much of the past year [HUNKERED DOWN IN A DEFENSIVE CROUCH]- [STALLING INVESTIGATORS, SITTING ON EVIDENCE AND MINIMIZING THE COMPLAINTS]". (p. 48)

The example proposed for the structure NP+PP needs some comment. The particle 'like' may be read as a preposition or as an apposition marker, in which case the structure would be nominal. The decision to opt for the first reading (as a preposition) was influenced by semantic and pragmatic constraints.

#### b) Syntactic function

TABLE 2: SYNTACTIC FUNCTION<sup>15</sup>

Function	S	D.O.	Prep.C	S.Comp	Adj.Pl	Adj.Tm	Dtive	H.Nom	Premod	Obl.Adj
No	71	16	63	7	2	1	1	1	1	1
%	43.2	9.7	38.4	4.2	1.2	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6

Since 155 appositions are of the structure NP+NP, it is not surprising that the most frequent function is the one typically associated with NPs, namely, Subject (71 examples). What does surprise, however, is the relatively low number of occurrences of the D.O. function (16), which is by far exceeded by the function of Prepositional Complement within a PP (63).

A more precise information about the distribution of form and function is provided in table 3.

TABLE 3

	S	D.O.	Prep.C	S.Comp	Adj.Pl	Adj.Tm	Dtive	H.Nom	Premod	Obl.Adj
NP+NP	71	14	62	6				1		
NP+CL		1								
NP+PP				1						
N+N									1	
PossDet(Pr)+ PossDet (NP)							1			
PP+PP					1					
PP+CL						1				
Adv.+PP					1					
CL+NP		1								
CL+CL			1							

15.- S=Subject; D.O.=Direct Object; PREP.C=Prepositional Complement; S.COMP=Subject Complement; AD.T.PL=Adjunct of Place; ADJ.TM=Adjunct of Time; DTIVE=Determinative;

The functions of Subject, D.O., Prep.C and Subj.Comp. are held almost exclusively by the structure NP+NP. Egs.:

**Subject:** (11) “[LEDGERWOOD AND CORNELL’S DIRECTOR OF PRESERVATION], [JOHN DEAN], salvaged and microfilmed thousands of manuscripts...” (p. 9)

**D.O.:** (12) “...translating [STACKS OF DECAYING PALM-LEAF MANUSCRIPTS], [THE DELICATE REPOSITORIES OF MOST OF CAMBODIA’S THEOLOGY].” (p. 9)

**Prep.C.:** (13) “De Bernon was the first member of [L’ECOLE FRANCAISE D’EXTREME-ORIENT], [THE FRENCH GOVERNMENT’S RESEARCH INSTITUTION DEALING WITH SOUTHEAST ASIA], to return to Cambodia.” (p. 9)

**Subj.Comp.:** (14) “But the principal emissary between Washington and Rome remained [WALTERS], [A FORMER DEPUTY DIRECTOR OF THE CIA WHO WORKED EASILY WITH CASEY].” (p. 17)

The table shows that apposition not only occurs at the level of the basic constituents of a clause (NP, PP, AdvP) but also at a lower level, that is, within these constituents. So, it is possible to find appositions in the function of Determinative, Pre-modifier and in the function of Head of a Nominal, all within NPs. Eg.:

**Head of Nom:** (15) “Nor of the Russian, also injured on Meribel’s [ROC DE FER]- [IRON ROCK]- run.” (p. 36)

The functions of Adjunct of Place and Time are occupied, as expected, by PPs in both members or at least in the first member of the apposition.

## II.2. *Formal structure*

### a) Punctuation

The corpus analyzed corroborated that in an overwhelming number of cases (71’9%) appositive members are separated by commas. Although commas may appear in any type of apposition there are certain contexts in which preference is shown for other markers. Thus, colons (7’9%) always occur at the end of the clause and tend to appear in appositions where the second member identifies the first.

Eg. (16) “According to aides who shared their leaders’ view of the world, Reagan and John Paul II refused to accept [A FUNDAMENTAL POLITICAL FACT OF

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H.NOM=Head of Nominal; PREMOD=Premodifier; OBL.ADJ=Obligatory Adjunct.  
The functions are used with the meaning given in Quirk et al. op. cit.

THEIR LIFETIMES]: [THE DIVISION OF EUROPE AS MANDATED AT YALTA AND THE COMMUNIST DOMINANCE OF EASTERN EUROPE].” (p. 15)

Dashes (14'6%) delimit appositions in medial position of the clause. Unlike colons, dashes appear in appositions where the second member either identifies, names, exemplifies or reformulates what has been stated in the first member.

Eg. (17) “Cash transfers to [THE E.C.'S SO-CALLED POOR FOUR] - [SPAIN, PORTUGAL, GREECE AND IRELAND] - are also expected to provoke budget controversy.” (p. 11)

There are still other markers being used but to a lesser degree, like brackets, square brackets and even full-stops.

#### b) Position

A second formal requisite posed by certain grammarians is juxtaposition, probably following the Latin term **appositio**, which means ‘to put alongside’. But as Quirk et al. and Meyer argue, appositive members may be split by elements of the clause.<sup>16</sup> Out of the 164 simple appositions found in the corpus, only 3 are unjuxtaposed.

Eg. (18) “It wasn’t noticed, because [OTHER STORIES] were more controversial and were perking at the moment - [NICARAGUA AND SALVADOR].” (p. 19)

Eg. (19) “I wrote [A LETTER OF RECOMMENDATION] for one of them to his Mississippi draught board, [A LETTER WHICH I AM MORE PROUD OF THAN ANYTHING ELSE I WROTE AT OXFORD LAST YEAR].” (p. 24)

Eg. (20) “On a smaller scale, McDonald’s has announced that it will open its first restaurant [IN CZECHOSLOVAKIA] next month, [IN PRAGUE].” (p. 28)

A possible reason for the split construction in egs.18 and 20 might be the principle of end-focus by which the journalist tries to draw the reader’s attention towards a particular piece of information. In eg. 18 the writer succeeds in obtaining an effect of ‘suspense’ by means of the use of the indefinite article “other”; the effect is short since the same article cataphorically leads the reader towards the end of the clause where s/ he can satisfy his/her curiosity.

In eg. 19 the reason appears to be of another type. Although one cannot discard the possibility that Bill Clinton might have had the intention of focusing on the second member of the apposition when he uttered this clause, I would argue, however, that the reason for this split construction lies in Quirk et al.’s principle of end-weight.<sup>17</sup> The second member of the apposition being relatively long, it would render an unbalanced clause if the members were juxtaposed. Besides, as it is spoken speech, a juxtaposed construction of this length would be cumbersome to utter.

16.- Quirk et al., op. cit, p. 1302; Meyer, 1992, op. cit., pp. 37ff.

17.- Quirk et al. op. cit.



Moving now to the position of the juxtaposed appositions, it is worth pointing out that 56% of the constructions with the function of Compl.Prep. appear in final position. The figure does not appear to corroborate Meyer's argument that this function especially promotes end-weight since nearly half of the total examples with this function appear in another position.<sup>18</sup>

Out of the 16 examples of apposition with function of D.O., 9 occur at the end and the rest in medial position. Again, the figure does not reveal very much about the tendency of appositions with this function to appear in a particular position.

Contrary to what might have been expected, not all appositions functioning as Subject in the corpus occur in initial position. 42% of all appositions with this function appear in medial or final position, out of which 26% correspond to the pattern D.O.+says/explains/acknowledges...+S

Eg: (21) “‘Ratification is not a foregone conclusion,’ cautions [PAUL HORNE], [THE PARIS-BASED CHIEF INTERNATIONAL ECONOMIST OF SMITH BARNEY].” (p. 11)

This order is commonly used in the journalistic genre when the writer adopts direct speech. Anticipation of the D.O. is a means of focusing the reader's attention on a specific subject matter, and this is most effectively achieved by transcribing the real utterance produced by a well-known person.

### II.3. *Complex appositions*

Apart from the 164 examples of simple apposition, the corpus also contains 21 cases of complex apposition. These constructions are formed by at least three appositionive members which in the majority of cases (13) are of the category NP; 7 combine at least one NP with another category—CL, PP, NOM, AdjP—and only one apposition contains no NP. The appositionive members are distributed in four different ways:

1) the three members constitute one single node **unstructured** apposition);<sup>19</sup>

Eg. (22) “[NOW], [IN THE DEAD OF WINTER], [WHEN THIS COUNTRY IS TURNING A COLD SHOWER ON THE GRIMY, CORROSIVE RESIDUE OF 75 YEARS OF COMMUNISM], it is also being asked...” (p. 12)

2) the three members constitute two nodes, of which the first is a cluster formed by the first two members (Ibid.) **structured** apposition with **forward recursion**);

Eg. (23) “The place of honor is reserved for [(ABRIL'S CROWN JEWEL),(VEJA)], [THE WEEKLY NEWSMAGAZINE THAT IS THE MOST INFLUENTIAL PUBLICATION IN BRAZIL].” (p. 49)

3) the three members constitute two nodes, of which the second is a cluster formed by the last two members (ibid.) **structured** apposition with **backward recursion**);

18.- Meyer, 1992, p. 36.

19.- Koktova, op. cit.

Eg. (24) "...the instrument passed into Spanish hands. And its passionate nature emerged with [A SPANISH STYLE OF PLAYING], [(THE "RASGUEADO"), (A RHYTHMIC AND SIMULTANEOUS BEATING OF ALL THE STRINGS)]". (p. 7)

and, 4) the complex construction is formed by more than three members that combine in different ways. Egs.:

**NP+[NP(NP+NP)]:** (25) "[CLINTON], [A RHODAS SCHOLAR FROM (HOTSPRINGS), (ARKANSAS)], fed..." (p. 22)

**NP+[(NP1+NP)NP1]:** (26) "The half a dozen start-up sports this year include [TWO ,DEBUTING AS MEDAL EVENTS]: [(FREE-STYLE SKIING OVER BUMPS), or ("MOGULS"), AND SHORT-TRACK SPEED SKATING]." (p. 44)

**NP+[(NP+NP)+(NP+NP)]:** (27) "She blithely uses material in her act from the life she shares with [HER DAUGHTERS], [(TEENAGE ERICA)((SAMANTHA MATHIS)) AND (10-YEAR-OLD OPAL) ((GABY HOFFMANN))]." (p. 51)

It is worth mentioning that the clusters of members within structured appositions may, in certain cases, be open to criticism due to the possibility of grouping them in a different way, as happens in eg. 23. Grouping in this case was influenced by intuition or similarity with other constructions; compare the cluster in eg. 23 with the following close apposition, of which there are plenty in journalistic style:

Eg. "...Abril's crown jewel Veja,..."

As far as the syntactic function, punctuation and position are concerned, complex appositions do not display substantial differences compared with simple appositions.

#### II.4. *Semantic structure*

This section analyzes the semantic structure (semantic class and semantic relation) not only of the simple and complex appositions found in the corpus but also of 35 apposition-like constructions. Frequency of occurrence of both classes and relations will be provided separately for simple appositions, complex appositions and apposition-like constructions.

##### a) Semantic classes

Following the classification proposed by Quirk et al., simple appositions are distributed as table 4 shows.<sup>20</sup> It is important to remind the reader that, unlike in Quirk

20.- Quirk et al. op. cit.

et al., the class of characterization does only include second members introduced by an indefinite article.

TABLE 4: SEMANTIC CLASSES OF SIMPLE APPOSITIONS

CLASS	No	%
Apellation	23	14.02
Characterization	35	21.3
Designation	36	21.9
Exemplification	10	6.09
identification	22	13.4
Reformulation	29	17.6
Characterization + Designation	3	1.8
Designation + Characterization	1	0.6
Exemplification or Identification?	5	3.04

Characterization and designation are the classes most frequently occurring, followed by reformulation, appellation and identification. Egs.:

**CHARACTERIZATION:** (28) “...paintings from [THE VULCANOSCHOOL (1880-90)], [A GROUP OF PAINTERS INSPIRED BY THE ISLANDS’ STARK BLACK LANDSCAPES].” (p. 3)

**DESIGNATION:** (29) “De Bernon was the first member of [L’ECOLE FRANCAISE D’EXTREME-ORIENT], [THE FRENCH GOVERNMENT’S RESEARCH INSTITUTION DEALING WITH SOUTHEAST ASIA], to return to Cambodia.” (p. 9)

Characterization and designation appear combined in 4 cases in which the second member of the apposition is a coordination of elements. Egs.:

**CHARACTERIZATION+DESIGNATION:** (30) “[KAVNER], [A WOODY ALLEN FAVORITE AND THE VOICE OF TV CARTOON CHARACTER MARGE SIMPSON], has...” (p. 51)

**DESIGNATION+CHARACTERIZATION:** (31) “‘...,’ recalls [DR. BONNIE RAMSEY], [BRIANNA’S PHYSICIAN AND AN EXPERT IN LUNG DISEASE].” (p. 46)

**APPELLATION:** (32) “[LEDGERWOOD AND CORNELL’S DIRECTOR OF PRESERVATION], [JOHN DEAN], salvaged and microfilmed...” (p. 9)

**IDENTIFICATION:** (33) “...de Bernon, 34, is reviving [A MUCH MORE FRAGILE ELEMENT OF CAMBODIAN LIFE], [THE NATION’S WRITTEN CULTURE].” (p. 9)

**EXEMPLIFICATION:** (34) “Open as far as [HUMANITARIAN AID]— [FOOD, MONEY, MEDICINE, DOCTORS’ CONSULTATIONS HELD IN CHURCHES, FOR INSTANCE]— and secret as far as...” (p. 16)

There are 5 examples which are on the borderline between exemplification and identification because they contain no apposition marker clarifying to which class they belong.

Eg.: (35) “[SOME REFORM MEASURES] —[CURRENCY DEVALUATION, PRICE LIBERALIZATION]— must be done overnight...” (p. 29)

In this example, ‘currency devaluation’ and ‘price liberalization’ may be read either as two of the measures needed (exemplification) or as the only two measures that the writer is thinking of (identification). Notice the difference of this open sequence of juxtaposed elements in the second member of the apposition with eg. 18 above where the coordinator ‘and’ closes the sequence and transforms it into identification.

## REFORMULATION

The following techniques are used to reformulate the content meaning of the first member of the apposition:

### a) Translation

- from L2 into L1: see eg. (15) above

- into an acronym: (36) “...by [] agents and representatives of the [AMERICAN FEDERATION OF LABOR AND CONGRESS OF INDUSTRIAL ORGANIZATIONS] ([AFL-CIO]) and Europe and labor movements.” (p. 14)

- of an acronym: (37) “[AID] [[THE AGENCY FOR INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT]] sent various people...” (p. 21)

- by means of paraphrase: (38) “Brianna was suffering from [CYSTIC FIBROSIS], [THE MOST COMMON INHERITED DISORDER AMONG WHITES AND A DISEASE THAT AFFLICTS, FOR EXAMPLE, 25,000 AMERICANS, KILLING MORE THAN 500 17 EVERY YEAR].” (p. 46)

**b) Emphasis** (through repetition of initial elements): (39) “Often he was [THE ONE CASEY OR CLERK WENT TO], [THE ONE WHO REALLY UNDERSTOOD THE SITUATION].” (p. 21)

c) **Additional Information about Place:** (40) “On a smaller scale, McDonald’s has announced that it will open its first restaurant [IN CZECHOSLOVAKIA] next month, [IN PRAGUE].” (p. 28)

d) **Metaphor:** (41) “Time in that sense is [THE REFEREE AT EVERY OLYMPIC EVENT], [THE GHOST IN THE MACHINE],...” (p. 30)

f) **Revision:** (42) “The athletes carry [ALARM CLOCKS] — or [TIME BOMBS] in their heads...” (p. 30)

Table 5 shows that apposition-like constructions in the corpus do not belong to the classes appellation and designation, which are considered to be the prototypical classes of apposition.

TABLE 5: SEMANTIC CLASSES OF APPPOSITION-LIKE CONSTRUCTIONS

CLASS	No.
Characterization	13
Identification	16
Particularization	1
Reformulation	5

**CHARACTERIZATION:** (43) “Said [SIR ALASTAIR MORTON], [EUROTUNNEL CHIEF EXECUTIVE]: IThere is blame enough to...” (p. 13)

**IDENTIFICATION:** (44) “...Reagan and John Paul II discussed [SOMETHING ELSE THEY HAD IN COMMON]: [BOTH HAD SURVIVED ASSASSINATION ATTEMPTS ONLY SIX WEEKS APART IN 1981, AND BOTH BELIEVED GOD HAD SAVED THEM FOR A SPECIAL MISSION].” (p. 16)

**PARTICULARIZATION:** (45) “The primary purposes of NSDD 32 were to destabilize the Polish government through covert operations involving propaganda and organizational aid to Solidarity; [THE PROMOTION OF HUMAN RIGHTS], particularly [THOSE RELATED TO THE RIGHT OF WORSHIP AND THE CATHOLIC CHURCH];” (p. 18)

**REFORMULATION:** (46) “[‘AN ENLIGHTENED AND BALANCED CHAMPIONSHIP OF BOTH RUSSIAN AND UKRANIAN INTERESTSI, HE SAYS, ‘ISTHE ONLY WEAPON AGAINSTZHIRINOVSKY ANDTHE EXTREME

NATIONALISTS.’] Translation: [IF YELTSIN YIELDS TOO MUCH, TOO FAST TO KIEV, HE WILL BE SWEEPED AWAY BY A COALITION OF DEMAGOGUES BENT ON EXPLOITING THE HARDSHIPS OF THE CITIZENRY, DIE-HARD BELIEVERS IN THE OLD REGIME AND THE OLD UNION, AND CONSERVATIVES IN THE MILITARY].” (p. 12)

As far as the semantic classes of complex appositions are concerned, the predominant patterns are those in which the first node is appellation (eg. 47) or characterization (eg. 48) combined with another class.

Eg. (47) “[THE KEY ADMINISTRATION PLAYERS] were all devout Roman Catholics [CIA CHIEF WILLIAM CASEY, ALLEN, CLARK, HAIG, WALTERS AND (WILLIAM WILSON), (REAGAN’S FIRST AMBASSADOR TO THE VATICAN)].” (p. 17)

Eg. (48) “[CLINTON], [A RHODAS SCHOLAR FROM (HOTSPRINGS], (ARKANSAS)], fed sixpence and schillings...” (p. 22)

#### b) Semantic relations

The classification into semantic relations follows Meyer (1992). Nevertheless, it is important to repeat that the relation of attribution is called **Speaker Co-reference** when the second member of the apposition is indefinite.

TABLE 6: SEMANTIC RELATIONS OF SIMPLE APPPOSITIONS

RELATION	No.	%
Co-reference	65	39.6
Speaker Co-reference	51	31.09
Absolute Synonymy	6	3.6
Speaker Synonymy	18	10.9
Part-Whole Reference	13	7.9
Speaker Co-reference or Part-Whole Reference?	5	3.04
Speaker Co-reference + Co-reference	3	1.8
Co-reference + Speaker Co-reference	1	0.6
Syntagmatic Hyponymy	1	0.6
Non-Syntagmatic Hyponymy	1	0.6

The relation of **co-reference** and of **speaker co-reference** are the most frequently occurring. Co-reference roughly corresponds to the semantic classes of appellation (eg. 32 above) and designation (eg. 29 above), whereas speaker co-reference corresponds to characterization (eg. 28 above) and to appositions belonging mainly to identification (eg. 33 above).

**Absolute synonymy** tends to be equated with the class of reformulation, more specifically, with translation from and into an acronym and translation by means of paraphrase.

**Speaker synonymy** corresponds to reformulation of the type:

Eg. (49) "[IN THE SUMMER OF 1984], [WHEN THE SANCTIONS AGAINST POLAND SEEMED TO BE HURTING ORDINARY POLES AND NOT THE COMMUNISTS], Laghi ..." (p. 20)

**Part-whole reference** corresponds both to exemplification and to reformulation referring to place, like in eg. 50, where "Michigan City" is a part of the State of "Indiana".

Eg. (50) "There's never the guarantee that somebody in the [MICHIGAN CITY], [INDIANA], prison..." (p. 27)

**Speaker co-reference or part-whole reference?** This controversy parallels the controversy mentioned above about the borderline cases between the semantic classes of identification and exemplification. If the appositions are interpreted as identification the equivalent semantic relation is speaker co-reference; if as exemplification, then the relation is part-whole reference.

**Speaker co-reference + co-reference.** This double semantic relation occurs when the second member of the apposition is a co-ordination of an indefinite element plus a definite one (eg. 30 above). The reverse case is **co-reference + speaker co-reference** (eg. 31 above).

TABLE 7: SEMANTIC RELATIONS OF APPPOSITION-LIKE CONSTRUCTIONS

RELATION	No
Absolute Synonymy	1
Attribution	12
Cataphoric Reference	4
Part-Whole Reference	2
Speaker Co-reference	1
Speaker Synonymy	15

Apposition-like constructions, as table 7 shows, are semantically related in 6 ways, of which **speaker synonymy** and **attribution** constitute 73% of the total relations. The only relation not present in the corpus of simple appositions, but present in these constructions, is **cataphoric reference**. This relation is characterized by the first member of the apposition being an NP that refers forward to the clause constituting the second member from which it is separated by a colon.

Eg. (51) "Garrison seems certain of [ONE THING]: [HE'LL GO TO JAIL.]" (p. 27)

With regard to the relations of complex appositions, as can be deduced from the semantic classes mentioned above, the relations most frequently occurring are the patterns formed by **co-reference** or **speaker co-reference** in the first node.

## II.5. *Pragmatic structure*

Appositions become a useful tool in journalistic style for the provision of additional information for readers. Since the genre of journalistic style, and therefore the subgenre of newsmagazines, is aimed at readers of different levels of cultural knowledge, the journalist has to allow for the fact that the amount of shared knowledge is also different. Therefore, in order to supply the knowledge needed to follow the flow of written discourse, the journalist includes information in the second member of the apposition which may be more, less or equally specific as that provided in the first member.

Out of the 164 simple appositions found in the corpus, 61 (37%) are more specific, 78 (47%) less specific and 25 (15%) equally specific. Whereas more specific information is mainly provided by means of the use of appellations, exemplifications and identifications, less specific information is contained in the semantic classes of designation and characterization. Finally, equally specific information corresponds roughly to the class of reformulation.

Since individuals are the main focus of the reports, it is not surprising that characterization, designation, identification and appellation are the most frequently occurring semantic classes. Characterization and designation are used almost exclusively to provide the position or title of the personality focused on. Appellation and identification are the opposite techniques; they are used to name or identify the person that holds the title or position appearing in the first member of the apposition. Compared with characterizations and designations, the relatively low frequency of appellations and identifications may be due to the tendency in journalistic style to use close appositions for naming relations, which reduce the length of the clause and thus contribute to a main feature of journalistic discourse, namely, simplicity. Examples similar to the following are very numerous in the newsmagazine analyzed.

Eg. (52) "But BRITISH FOREIGN SECRETARY DOUGLAS HURD dismissed the entire new E.C. financial plan..." (p. 10)

Equally specific members in apposition, which mainly comprise reformulations of the type of translation, only constitute 15% of the total. This low percentage is, I would



argue, indicative of another feature of journalistic style, namely, the tendency to avoid repetitive and, therefore, superfluous information, which ultimately leads to a universal principle of language: economy.

In apposition-like constructions the percentages of frequency of more and less specific information are reversed, 52% and 35%, respectively. This is due to the higher amount of appositions of the class identification and lesser of the type characterization. Again, second members providing equally specific information constitute a low amount.

Finally, in complex appositions the structure of information combines two or three semantic classes (mainly appellation and characterization), thus providing at one time a richer amount of information. Complex appositions further contribute to concentrate information in the smallest amount of space instead of resorting to subordinate clauses.

## VI. Conclusion

The present paper first defined the notion of apposition and then applied it to the genre of newsmagazines. The examples of apposition found were analyzed in terms of their contribution to the genre selected.

The analysis corroborated that the construction known as loose or non-restrictive apposition is primarily a nominal construction functioning as Subject, D.O. or Prep.C. Also, that the appositive members are mainly bound by commas and juxtaposed. Contrary to Meyer's findings,<sup>21</sup> our data appears to show that neither the function of Prep.C. nor that of D.O. promote location of apposition at the end of a clause.

Despite the tendency towards a fixed type of construction, the data shows that apposition can also occur between different categories, in unjuxtaposed position, functioning at levels within phrases and bounded by markers other than commas.

With regard to the semantic structure of apposition, it could be demonstrated that the relation is not only one of co-reference. Apart from synonymy and hyponymy, apposition also includes the relation of speaker co-reference. Apposition being primarily a pragmatic phenomenon, the attitude of the writer towards the discourse is what determines whether a relation is or not co-referential. Therefore, co-reference cannot be considered a strictly objective extralinguistic relation.

The use of appositions, as the data seems to show, has certain features which seem to be genre-specific. Thus, due to the pragmatics of journalistic written discourse, the classes of apposition most frequently used are those related to the identity and characterization of individuals. The use of these types is goal-oriented since the journalist tries to attract a wide range of readers, and in order to reach this goal it is necessary to supply additional information for audiences of a low amount of shared knowledge. One way of attracting attention is by means of focalising direct speech, which leads to an uncommon location of appositions in Subject position at the end of clauses.

21.- Meyer, 1992, op. cit.

Finally, the tendency in journalistic style of supplying the greatest amount of information in the least amount of space is reflected in the use of complex appositions, which in one single construction concentrate pieces of information of different types.

Though very limited, the results obtained suggest that the use of apposition may be a tool for reaching goals in different genres. Therefore, a contrastive study of genres would not only throw light on the general features of apposition but also on its contribution to a specific genre.