



**The Syntax of Apposition
in English and Arabic**

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Abstract:

Appositive constructions in English and Arabic have not received much attention in the previous studies; even those which deal with apposition reveal a number of disagreements about how apposition should be defined. The main objective of this paper is to define apposition, and investigate and contrast the syntactic features of apposition in English and Arabic in terms of syntactic classes, syntactic functions, occurrence restrictions, syntactic features, and interference between apposition and other constructions. The syntactic differences and similarities of apposition between the two languages are also characterized. It has been observed that despite English and Arabic are genetically-unrelated languages, each with its own syntax, they exhibit a great deal of similarities; however, one-to-one correspondence does not exist between them.

Keywords: Apposition, appositives, syntax, English and Arabic appositives

ملخص:

إن الدراسات السابقة لم تعير انتباهاً كبيراً لتراكيب البديل سواء في الإنجليزية أو العربية، وحتى تلك الدراسات التي تناولت البديل أظهرت العديد من الخلافات بشأن ماهية البديل. ولهذا تهدف هذه الدراسة إلى تعريف البديل وإجراء تحليل تقابلي للسمات النحوية الخاصة به في كلتا اللغتين من حيث الصنوف النحوية والخصائص النحوية والقيود التي تحدد حدوثه والوظائف النحوية وأخيراً التداخل الذي قد ينشأ بين تراكيب البديل وتراكيب أخرى. كما تهدف الدراسة أيضاً إلى إبراز أوجه التشابه والاختلاف بين اللغتين من حيث السمات النحوية. وقد لوحظ أنه بالرغم من الاختلاف الجذري بين اللغتين، حيث أن لكل لغة سماتها النحوية الخاصة بها، إلا أن هناك عدد من نقاط التشابه بينهم، ولكن لا وجود للتطابق الكلي بينهم.

1- Definition of Apposition in English and Arabic

The term ‘apposition’ is mainly “derived from the Latin *appositus*, put to; the noun in apposition is put to the other” (Butler, 1909, p. 210). Apposition is defined in English grammar by a number of scholars in different ways. Crystal (2008), for example, defines apposition as “a traditional term retained in some models of GRMMATICAL description for a sequence of units which are constituents at the same grammatical LEVEL, and which have an identity or similarity of REFERENCE” (p. 31). Meyer (1992) explains apposition as follows:

Apposition is a grammatical relation (like complementation and modification) realized by constructions having particular syntactic, semantic and pragmatic characteristics... Thus, syntactically, apposition is most frequently a relation between two juxtaposed noun phrases having a syntactic function (such as a direct object) promoting end-weight. Semantically, it is typically a relation between two referentially related units, the second of which adds specificity to the interpretation of the first (p. i).

Similarly, Arab grammarians use the term? *al-badal* ‘substitution’ to describe the process of adding one grammatical unit to another in an appositive construction. Concerning terminology, different words are used to translate the term? *al-badal*, among which are substitution, permutation, replacement, equivalent, recompense, and apposition (Wehr, 1994). The last translation will be adopted in the study. The first unit in appositive constructions is named? *al-mubdal minhu* ‘the

substituted-from item’, and the second unit is called? *al-badal* ‘the substituting item’. Alhawary (2016, p. 161) calls the former ‘the first noun’ and the latter ‘the second noun’. The researcher will stick to the English terms and call? *al-mubdal minhu* ‘the head phrase’ and? *al-badal* ‘the appositive phrase’ or ‘appositive’ for short.

Depending on Ibn Malik’s one-thousand-line poem, Arab grammarians define apposition as one of ‘*at-tawaabi*’ ‘the followers’, namely adjective, apposition, emphasis and conjunction, which agree with their preceding units in terms of case, number, gender and determination. Accordingly, an appositive is a *taabi*’ ‘depending item’ meant by speech, which is referred to in the first unit without any particle inserted between them (Hasan, 1991, p. 664).

Among those who investigated apposition in English is Meyer (1992). In his study, he gives a detailed analysis of the characteristics of apposition in contemporary English in terms of syntax, semantics, and pragmatics. The book is based on three computer corpora containing samples of English used in a variety of different contexts. He refers to the insufficiency of previous works and dealt with apposition as a grammatical relation like complementation and modification. In Arabic, Abed (2006) deals with appositive constructions in the Holy Quran and tries to find any similarities between the semantic, syntactic, and pragmatic features of apposition in English and Arabic. The researcher collects about 720 verses containing appositive constructions. He finds that there are ten different syntactic combinations between the two units of apposition, among which are clausal-nominal

apposition, phrasal apposition, nominal apposition, and adverbial-nominal apposition; and three semantic relations between them: whole-for-whole apposition, part-for-whole apposition and apposition of inclusion. Concerning pragmatics of apposition, he concludes 11 pragmatic functions, such as generalization, specification, glorification, and equality between knowledge and ignorance.

2- Objectives and Questions of the Study

The main objective of the study is to present an analysis of the syntactic features of apposition in English and Arabic and to characterize the main similarities and differences between the two languages with respect to apposition. Specifically, the study will answer the following main questions:

- 1- What are the syntactic features of apposition in English and Arabic?
- 2- What are the main similarities and differences between English and Arabic regarding the phenomenon of apposition?

3- Methodology and Data Collection

This study is based on a contrastive analysis to convey certain syntactic features regarding appositives in both English and Arabic. Crystal (2008, p. 112) says that this comparison “is carried on in certain areas of applied linguistics, such as foreign-language teaching and translation.” By and large, contrastive analysis is concerned with the comparison of two or more

languages in an attempt to determine the differences and similarities between them. Such Studies, depending on contrastive analysis, have an important role in communicating different cultures in a productive way. Therefore, using contrastive analysis in the present study is significant since it points out the main syntactic similarities and differences between English and Arabic with regard to apposition.

Concerning data collection, this study adopts the sentence level of analysis. The resources which are depended on throughout the process of data collection are English grammar books, Arabic grammar books, journal articles and dissertations, and informants and experts in each of the two languages.

4. Syntax of Apposition in English and Arabic

4.1 Syntactic Classes

Appositive constructions are realized by a variety of syntactic classes, i.e. the two units of apposition can belong to the same or to different syntactic forms. According to Meyer (1992), appositive constructions consist of two units that have four general syntactic classes: two noun phrases, a noun phrase followed by a clause or a sentence, two units of the same class other than noun phrases, and two units of different form classes, as shown in the following examples, respectively.

(1) a. *Jane, my friend, got married last week.*

b. *The news that he was resigning his job proved to be incorrect.* (Leech & Svartvic, 2013, p. 250)

- c. It seems that John and Steve confronted *a great dilemma: they had to choose between travelling abroad and submitting themselves to the police.*
- d. I'd do it under *normal, peacetime*, conditions. (Burton-Roberts, 1994, p.184)
- e. You can find it *somewhere, in your bag or locker.*

Just like their English equivalents, appositive constructions in Arabic are realized by a variety of syntactic classes, i.e. the two units of apposition belong to the same or to different syntactic forms. According to Al-Hashimy (1932), Hasan (1991), Yabisty (1992), Al-Khabbas (1995), and Al-Othymin (2013), among others, appositive constructions consist of two units that have three general syntactic classes: two noun phrases, two units of the same class other than noun phrases, and two units of different classes, as shown in the following examples, respectively.

(2) a. naam-a ?axii ?aHmad-u Sleep-Perf.3ms brother-
Nom.my-Gen. Ahmad-Nom. My brother Ahmed slept.

b.? in *tu-Sall-i tasjud* lillaah-i ya-rHamu-ka (Hasan, 1991, p. 685)

If Imp-pray-2ms kneel to-God-Gen. Imp-have mercy on-2ms-Acc.

If you pray, i.e. kneel to God, He will have mercy on you.

c. *qul laa? ilaah-a? illa llaah-u* (Al-Hashimy, 1932, p. 293)
say no God-Acc. except Allah-Nom. *kalimat-a l-? ixlaaS-i*
word-Acc. the-Purity-Gen.

Say there is no God but Allah, namely the word of the purity.

The appositive construction in the example (2a) consists of two noun phrases (*?axii* and *?aHmad-u*), in (2b) consists of two verb phrases (*tu-Sall-i* and *tasjud*), while in (2c) consists of a clause (*laa ?ilaah-a ?illa llaah-u*) followed by a noun phrase (*kalimat-a l-?ixlaaS-i*).

4.2 Syntactic Functions

English appositives have the same functions played by the head phrases, forming a functional unit. According to Posse (1994), appositive units may fulfill nominal or non-nominal functions (p.174).

4.2.1 Nominal Functions

As long as apposition is a syntactic relation in which at least one constituent is often a noun phrase, it can be seen that most appositions have nominal functions associated with noun phrases, i.e. subject (existential, non-existential), object (direct, indirect, prepositional), and complement (subject, object) (Meyer, 1992. P.35). Consider the functions of the appositives in the following examples, respectively:

- (3) a. There is *a tall man*, probably *her father*, waiting for her in
b. *A neighbor, Jane David*, is on the telephone.
- (4) a. Mary visited several *cities*, *e.g. Rome and New York*.
b. You can show *your friend, Jane*, my mobile.
c. Mary was thanked by *Henry, her leader*.
- (5) a. She is *Mary, my friend*.
b. The group named John the *boss, the smart boss*.

An appositive in Arabic is generally defined as a syntactic identity known as *al-badal* without reference to the syntactic function associated with it. However, as long as each of the two units can be deleted without affecting the acceptability of the sentence, and both refer to the same entity but in different ways, it is acceptable to say that appositives may serve the same functions played by the head phrases, especially the head phrases and the appositives are constituents of one construction; hence, they form a functional unit. Following Meyer's classification (1992) of the appositives in English, the appositive constructions in Arabic have either nominal or non-nominal functions.

In nominal functions, the appositive constructions have many functions associated with noun phrases. Hence, if the head phrase is omitted, an appositive can function as, for example, *al-faa'il* 'the subject', *al-maf'uul-u bihi* 'the object', *al-mubtada'* 'the subject of a nominal sentence', *al-xabar* 'the predicate', al-

muDaaf-u? ilayh ‘the annexed noun’, and *naa? ib-u l-faa’il* ‘the subject of the passive’, as shown in the following examples, respectively.

(6) a. waSal-a *s-sayyid-u* *?ahmad-u*
arrive. Perf-3ms the-Mister-Nom. Ahmad-nom.

Mister Ahmad has arrived.

b. kallam-tu *Sadiiqii* *'aliyy-an*
call. Perf-1ms-Nom. friend-Acc.my-Gen. Ali- Acc.

I called my friend Ali.

c. *? axuu-k-a? ahmad-u* THakiyy-unBrother-Nom.your-Gen. Ahmad-Nom. Intelligent-Nom.

Your brother Ahmad is intelligent.

d. haaTh-a *Sadiiq-ii? ahmad-u* this-Nom. friend-Nom.my-Gen. Ahmad-Nom.

This is my friend Ahmad.

e. *'adl-u* *l-xaliifat-i* *'umar-a* *mudhish-un*
Justice-Nom. Caliph-Gen. Omar-Gen. Amazing Nom.
Caliph Omar’s justice is amazing.

f. qutil-a *l-qaat id-u* *fahd-un*
was killed-3ms the-Leader-Nom. Fahd-Nom.

The leader, Fahd, was killed.

4.2.2 Non-nominal Functions

Meyer (1992) refers to two non-nominal functions of appositions, namely adverbial, as in (7a); and verb, as in (7b). According to his corpora, he says that “the functions of adverbial and verb are rare, largely because the forms which typically realize these functions – verbs, adverbs and prepositional phrases – are not forms that frequently occur in appositions” (p. 36). For more illustration, consider the following examples:

(7) a. I will meet you *here, in the Princess’s Hotel*.

b. They *ran, sprinted,* up the hill.
(Burton-Roberts, 1994, p. 184)

In Arabic, the appositive construction has a function associated with non-nominal phrases. Verb phrases don’t serve nominal functions, so it can be seen that the appositive may be functioning as a verb. Consider the following examples:

(8) a.? u-riid-u? an? a-*shrab-a?* a-? *akul-a* (Al-Khabbas, 1995, p. 24)

Imp-want-1ms-Ind. to Imp-drink-1ms Imp-eat1ms

I want to drink, (no, I mean) to eat. b.? in *ji? tan-ii ta-zurn-ii?* a-krimu-k-a

if come to-me-Acc. Imp-visit-me.Acc. Imp-be generous-2ms-Acc.

If you come to visit me, I will be generous with you.

4.3 Occurrence Restrictions

4.3.1 Verb Restrictions

4.3.1.1 First-Unit Verb Agreement

It is known that the verb agrees with its subject in respect of number and person. Consequently, in appositive constructions, the head phrase is that which is in agreement with the verb. Loock and O'Connor (2013) illustrate that “the hierarchical relationship between the two units is further demonstrated by the fact that only U1 [Unit one] belongs to the main predication and triggers agreement with the verb” (p. 6). Thus, only the head phrase is perceived as the subject of the verb, not the appositive, as shown in the following example:

- (9) a. *Lands, brains, wealth, technology-* (in other words) *everything we need-* are/*is plentiful in our country.
- b. *Everything we need* – (in other words) *lands, brains, wealth, technology* is/*are plentiful in our country. (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1304)

Concerning person, Curme (1947) asserts that “when two or more subjects of different persons are in apposition, the verb agrees with the first of them, since it is felt as containing the leading idea” (p. 119). Consider the following example, which is provided by him:

(10) *I, your master*, command you.

In Arabic, the principle of agreement of the head phrase with the verb is similar to that in English, but here the agreement is in gender only. Consider the following example:

(11) a. *ittasax-a* *l-walad-u* *malaabisu-h-u*

Intrans.became dirty-3ms the-Boy-Nom. clothes-Nom.his-Gen.

The boy's clothes became dirty.

b. **ittasax-at* *l-walad-u* *malaabisu-h-u*

Intrans.got dirty-3fp the-Boy-Nom. clothes-Nom-his-Gen.

The boy's clothes became dirty.

(12) a. *ittasax-at* *l-fataat-u* *fustian-u-h-a*

Intrans.became dirty-3fs the-Girl-Nom. Dress-Nom-Her-Gen.

The girl's dress became dirty.

b. **ittasax-a* *l-fataat-u* *fustian-u-h-a*

Intrans.got dirty-3ms the-Girl-Nom. Dress-Nom-Her- Gen.

The girl's dress became dirty.

As mentioned before, appositive phrases, unlike subjects, are redundant, i.e. their deletion doesn't affect the structure of

sentences. Careful examination of the constructions given in (11a-12a) reveals that if the head phrase is masculine, the base form of the verb occurs; on the contrary, if the subject is feminine, the pronominal suffix ‘-t’ is attached to the verb as a marker of the feminine gender.

4.3.1.2 Stative vs. Dynamic Verbs

English verbs can be stative or dynamic. Stative verbs describe a condition or state attributed to the subject, whereas dynamic verbs describe an event or action carried out by the subject (Parrott, 2000, p. 108). It has been noted that the sentences that contain appositive constructions in which the main terms are indefinite, and contain a stative verb, unlike dynamic verb, create unacceptable sentences. This can be shown in the following examples:

(13) a. *A neighbor, Mr. John, called today.* (dynamic verb)

b. *A neighbor, Mr. John, bought a car.* (dynamic verb)

(14) a. **A neighbor, Mr. John, has black eyes.* (stative verb)

b. **A neighbor, Mr. John, owns a car.* (stative verb)

Based on the above examples, Burton-Roberts (1975) concludes that “it is a condition of well-formed sentences that they must contain a term that has implication of specific/definite reference that will locate in time and place the phenomenon the sentence describes. (Failing this, the statement must be generic: A king has a crown.)” (p. 412). In the same line of thought, he

adds that “when all the other terms are indefinite, the verb must be dynamic” (p. 412). This means that if the sentence contains a stative verb, at least one of the other units must have a specific or definite reference. Consider the following examples for more elaboration:

(15) a. *A neighbor, Mr. John, has such black eyes.*

b. *A neighbor, Mr. John, owns that car.*

c. *Mr. John, a neighbor, has black eyes.*

d. *Mr. John, a neighbor, owns a car.*

Arabic, on the other hand, shows a considerable deal of similarity to English with respect to stative and dynamic verbs. This can be shown in the following examples:

(16) a. ? ishtar-a *Sadiiq-un?* aHmad-u manzil-an (dynamic Verb)

buy. Perf-3ms Friend-Nom. Ahmad-Nom. house-Acc.

A friend, Ahmad, bought a house.

b. *yamtalik-u rajul-un ?aHmad-u manzil-an (stative Verb)

Imp-own-3ms Man-Nom. Ahmad-Nom. house-Acc.

*A man, Ahmad, owns a house.

For sentences to be well-formed, the verb must be a dynamic, as in (16a), or a stative verb provided that at least one of the main items is definite, as in the following examples:

(17) a. yamtalik-u ?ar-rajul-u ?*aHmad-u* manzil-an

Imp-own-3ms the-Man-Nom. Ahmad-Nom. house-Acc.

The man, *Ahmad*, owns a house.

b. yamtalik-u *rajul-un?* *aHmad-u* haaTH-a l-manzil-a

Imp-own-3ms Man-Nom. Ahmad-Nom. this-Acc.

the- house-Acc. *A man*, *Ahmad*, owns this house.

4.3.2 Juxtaposition Restrictions

Generally speaking, in appositive constructions, both head phrases and appositives tend to be juxtaposed. Some grammarians, such as Curme (1947), Fries (1952), and Francis (1958), claim that the elements to be in apposition must be juxtaposed. According to their claim, a sentence such as (18) is not considered apposition.

(18) We met *John* yesterday, *a leader*.

Contrary to this claim, Meyer (1992;1987) and Quirk et al. (1985) take a less conservative approach and impose a syntactic constraint. They remark that the elements can be in apposition even if they are not juxtaposed, but they must be able to be juxtaposed without affecting the acceptability of the sentence. Thus, (18) is considered appositive because its head phrase and appositive are able to be juxtaposed without the resultant sentence becoming ill-formed, as in the following:

(19) We met *John, a leader*, yesterday.

In Arabic, the head phrase and the appositive can appear juxtaposed, as in (20a); or un-juxtaposed, as in (20b), respectively. However, it can be noticed that the appositive constituents that are juxtaposed are more common than those which appear un-juxtaposed.

(20) a. hannaʔan-i *jaar-ii xaalid-un* congratulated-me-Acc.
neighbor-Nom.my-Gen.

Khalid- Nom .by najaaH-ii on success-Gen.my-Gen.

My neighbor Khalid congratulated me on my success.

b. qum-i *l-layla-a* ʔilla qaliil-an *niSfa-h-u* ʔawi
stand the-night-Acc. Except little-Acc.
half-Acc.its- Gen. or nquS min-h-u qaliila-an
(Quran73:2-3) subtract from-It-Gen.

little-Acc. Stand (to pray) all night, except a little, half of it or a little less than that.

All the translations of the Quranic verses are taken from Al-Hilali and Khan (1996).

4.3.3 Substitution Restrictions

According to Kubo (2009, p. 30), the reverse order of the head phrase and the appositive is possible in non-restrictive apposition, but is usually impossible in restrictive apposition, as shown in the following examples:

(21) a. *My friend, Jane*, will visit me tomorrow.

b. *Jane, my friend*, will visit me tomorrow.

(22) a. *My friend Jane* will visit me tomorrow.

b.**Jane my friend* will visit me tomorrow.

The reverse order of the head phrase and the appositive in Arabic is impossible because it leads to creating other constructions rather than appositive ones. Consider the following examples for more elaboration:

(23) a. waSal-a t-taaqir-u 'aliyy-un

arrive. Perf-3ms the-Merchant-Nom. Ali-Nom.

The merchant Ali has arrived.

b. waSal-a 'aliyy-un t-taaqir-u

arrive. Perf-3ms Ali-Nom. the-Merchant-Nom.

Ali, the merchant, has arrived.

(24) a. ? akal-tu l-ka'kat-a niSfa-h-a

eat. Perf-1ms the-cake-Acc. half-Acc-its-Gen.

I ate half the cake.

b. ? akal-tu niSf-a l-ka'kat-i

eat. Perf-1ms half-Acc. the-Cake-Gen.

I ate a half of the cake.

(25) a. ? adhash-a-ni 'amr-un ismu-hu

astonish. Perf-me.Acc. Amr-Nom. Name-Nom-his-Gen.

Amr's name astonished me.

b. ? adhash-a-ni ism-u 'amr-in

astonish. Perf-me.Acc. name-Nom. Amr-Gen.

Amr's name astonished me.

On the basis of the examples presented above, it is clear that the reverse order of the elements in whole-for-whole apposition in (23a) forms an adjectival construction (i.e. 23b), while the reverse order in part-for-whole apposition and apposition of inclusion in (24a) and (25a) forms *?iDaafah* constructions 'annexation' (i.e. 24b-25b). The only type of apposition that is compatible with the reverse order of the elements is *badal mubaayin* 'differential apposition' as follows:

(26) a. marar-tu bi-rajul-in imra? at-in

Pass.Perf-1ms by-Man-Gen. Woman-Gen.

I passed by a man, (I meant to say) a woman.

b. marar-tu bi-imra? at-in rajul-in

pass. Perf-1ms by-Woman-Gen. Man-Gen.

I passed by a woman, (I meant to say) a man.

Thus, based on the above example, the construction is still appositive, but the meaning differs in both sentences. In (26a), *imra? at-in* ‘a woman’ is meant by speech, whereas in (26b) *rajul-in* ‘a man’ is the word that is meant by speech.

4.3.4 Omission Restrictions

According to Karnowski (2000), appositive phrases “are not necessary to the grammar of the sentence. In other words, a sentence will still be intact and make perfect sense if an appositive or appositive phrase is removed” (p. 54). Consider the following example:

- (27) a. *Some green olives, my favourite appetizer,* were served to me before lunch.
- b. *Some green olives* were served to me before lunch.

In the same way, appositive phrases in Arabic are considered *faDlah* (i.e. non-basic); hence, they can be omitted without affecting the acceptability of sentences, as in:

- (28) a.? aHbab-tu l-wardat-a lawna-h-a
Like.Perf-1ms the-flower-Acc. colour-Acc.its. Gen.
I liked the color of the flower.
- b.? aHbab-tu l-wardat-a
like. Perf-1ms the-flower-Acc.
I liked the flower.

However, in both languages, there are some cases in which appositives cannot be omitted, as in (29) and (30). Each language has its own cases, so one-to-one correspondence with respect to this point in the two languages does not exist.

(29) a. Mr. John made a large table.

b. * Mr. made a large table.

(30) a. qaabal-tu faaTimat-a fataat-an jamiilat-an
meet. Perf-1s Fatima-Acc. girl-Acc. beautiful-Acc.

I met Fatima, a beautiful girl.

b. * qaabal-tu faaTimat-a jamiilat-an
meet. Perf-1s Fatima-Acc. beautiful-Acc.

*I met Fatima, a beautiful.

4.4 Syntactic Features

4.4.1 Accumulation of Apposition

According to Quirk et al. (1985), there are appositive constructions in which two or more noun phrases function as one appositive, as in the following examples, which are taken from them (p. 1306):

(31) a. She had *a splendid vacation: A Mediterranean cruise and a trip to the Bahamas.*

b. We have *everything we need: land, brains, wealth, (and) technology.*

In (31a) and (31b), the appositive is a series of two or more juxtaposed units.

There is yet another possible feature of apposition, i.e. double or triple apposition (Meyer, 1992, p. 37). Consider the following examples:

(32) a. They returned to *their birthplace, their place of residence, the country of which they were citizens.*
(Quirk et al, 1985, p. 1306)

b. And there were *two other guests* for lunch: *Junita Carberry, June's fifteen year old step daughter, and her governor, Isabel Rutt.*
(Penas, 1994, p.88)

Example (32a) illustrates double apposition in which the head phrase is in apposition to two appositives that are also in apposition. Example (32b) illustrates triple apposition in which the head phrase '*two other guests*' is in apposition to all that follows it in the sentence, but within the appositive there are further two appositions: '*Junita Carberry*' to what follows it, and '*her governor*' to what follows it.

Unlike English, it is not allowed in Arabic for two or more coordinated noun phrases to function as one appositive; instead, the first unit is appositive and the second is? *ism-un ma'Tuuf* 'adjoined noun'; as in (33).

(33) ra? ay-tu l-? axawayn-i? aHmad-u wa 'aliyy-un see.
Perf-1ms the-brother-two-Acc. Ahmad-Acc. and Ali-Acc.

I saw the two brothers: Ahmad and Ali.

However, Arabic allows for the accumulation of appositions in the same sentence. Consider the following examples:

(34) a. ?istad'-aa *nadiim-a-h-u* TH-THariif-a summon.Perf-
3ms dinking companion- Acc.his-Gen. the-witty-Acc.
sh-shaa'r-a? *aba* *nawwaas* the-poet-Acc.
Abu-Nawas-Acc.

He summoned his witty drinking companion, the poet Abu Nawas. (Badawi, Carter, & Gully, 2004, p. 125)

b. ta-qaabal-a *S-Sadiiqaan-i* *s-sayyid-u?* *aHmad-u*
wa Recip.met.Perf-3ms the-Friends-Nom. Mr-Nom.
Ahmad-Nom. and

s-sayyid-u *'umar-u*

Mr-Nom. Omar-Nom.

The two friends, Mr. Ahmad and Mr. Omar, met each other.

Example (34a) illustrates double apposition in which the head phrase *nadiima-hu* 'his drinking companion' is in apposition to two items that are also in apposition. Example (34b) illustrates triple apposition in which the head phrase *S-Sadiiqaan-i* 'the two friends' is in apposition to what follows it. In addition, the proper nouns in the following phrases: *s-sayyid-u?* *aHmad-u* 'Mr. Ahmad' and *s-sayyid-u 'umar-u* 'Mr. Omar' are in opposition to the titles that precede them.

4.4.2 Apposition with Appositive Markers

There are numerous expressions that can be inserted between the head phrases and appositives. Burton-Roberts (1994) says, “ A good idea of the general character and rhetorical functions of apposition can be got from the expressions which may occur between, or following, the elements and which serve as explicit markers of apposition” (p. 184). Downing and Locke (2006) add that “instead of relying on an implicit semantic connection between the units in apposition, the type of connection can be made explicit by the use of connectives that provide cohesive, not structural linking” (p.282). According to Quirk et al. (1985, p. 1307), some of these markers can precede or (less commonly) follow the appositive. These include: *that is*, *that is to say*, *for example*, *for instance*, *in particular*, *in other words*.

- (35) a. *Dicken’s most productive period, that is (to say) the 1840s*, was a time when public demand for fiction was growing at a tremendous rate.
- b. *Dicken’s most productive period, the 1840s, that is (to say)*, was a time when public demand for fiction was growing at a *tremendous rate*. (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1307)

They add that there are other appositive markers which can only precede the appositive: *namely*, *and*, *or*, *or rather*, *or better*, *as follows*, *including*, *such as*, *of*, *i.e.*, *e.g.*, while the appositive marker *included* can only follow the appositive (p.1307).

Consider the following examples:

- (36) a. *A lot of people, including my brother, don't like swimming in winter.*
- b. *A lot of people, my brother included, don't like swimming in winter.*

By contrast, appositive constructions in Arabic are incompatible with the notion of inserting any markers or particles between the head phrase and the appositive.

4.4.3 Apposition with Speaker-Oriented Adverbs

Generally, speaker-oriented adverbs, such as *probably* and *allegedly*, are used to express the speaker's attitude towards what he is saying based on his/her belief or evidence (E.Kiss, 2009, p. 120). Sometimes the appositive relations are made explicit by speaker-oriented adverbs. According to Griffiths (2014) "appositions can host speaker-oriented adverbs" (p.3), as shown in the following examples:

- (37) a. *A masked man, probably John, sang a beautiful song at the party.*
- b. *As we know he calls someone, allegedly his father, I suppose, twice aday. (Ott, 2016, p. 19)*

Arabic appositive constructions; by contrast, do not allow any adverbs to be inserted between the head phrase and the appositive.

4.4.4 Repetition

In some cases, the head phrase is repeated to be a part of the appositive phrase. Consider the examples below:

(38) a. I need to buy *a car, a car similar to yours*.

b. There had been *tension* in the plane during the silent descent, *atension similar to the onenow*. (Meyer, 1992, p.72)

Arabic, on the other hand, allows this repetition in whole-for-whole apposition. However, Arab grammarians maintain a condition for this, namely the appositive phrase provides more clarification than the head phrase (Al-Ashmoni, 1955, p. 441 & Hasan, 1991, p. 666), as shown in the following examples:

(39) a. shaahad-na *j-junuud-a* fariHat-an *j-junuud-a*

see. Perf-1mp the-soldiers-Acc. delighted-Acc. the-
soldiers Acc. allat-ii intaSar-at 'ala?
a'daa? i-h-a (Hasan, 1991,676)

who-Acc. triumph. Perf-3mp over Enemies-Gen-
their-Gen.

We saw the soldiers delighted, i.e. the soldiers who triumphed over their enemies.

b. wa-? inna-k-a latahd-ii? ilaa *SiraaT-in* and-verity-
2ms- Acc. indeed-guide to Path-Gen.
mustaqiim-i *SiraaT-i* l-laah-i (Quran 42:52-53)
Straight-Gen. Path-Gen. Allah-Gen.

And Verily, you (O Muhammad) are indeed guiding (mankind) to a straight path (i.e. Allah's Religion of Islamic Monotheism), the path of Allah.

4.4.5 Case and Agreement

English phrases do not carry any case markers. By contrast, Arab grammarians say that there must be an agreement between appositives and their preceding nouns in case (nominative, accusative, or genitive) (See Hasan, 1991; Al-Khabbas, 1995; Dakor, 1998; Alhawary, 2016; among others).

(40) a. *My sister Jane* has cleaned my room.

b. *saafar-a l-muhandis-u? aHmad-u?*

ila landan travel. Perf-3ms the-Engineer-Nom. Ahmad-Nom. to London Gen.

Engineer Ahmad travelled to London.

c. *ra? ay-tu l-muhandis-a? aHmad-a fii landan see. Perf-1s the-engineer-Acc. Ahmad-Acc. in London-Gen.*

I saw engineer Ahmad in London.

d. *saafar-tu ma'a l-muhandis-i? aHmad-a? ila landan travel. Perf-1s with the-Engineer-Gen. Ahmad-Gen. to London-Gen.*

I travelled with engineer Ahmad to London.

4.5 Interference between Apposition and Other Constructions

Sometimes the similarity between apposition and other constructions exhibits some confusion. According to Quirk et al. (1985), in some constructions, intonation in speech or punctuation in writing may resolve the confusion. Consider the following examples for more elaboration:

(41) a. They sent Jane a waitress from the hotel.

b. They sent *Jane, a waitress* from the hotel. (Quirk et al., 1985, p.1306)

In (41a), the pair of nouns is functioning as indirect object and direct object, whereas in (41b) they functioning as direct object because the two nouns are in apposition.

Other confusion may appear between relative *that*-clauses and appositive *that*-clauses. Both of them appear perfectly similar, introduced by *that* which is preceded by an abstract factive noun phrase (Aldwayan, 2012, p. 96). Consider the following examples:

(42) a. *The news that he was resigning his job* proved to be incorrect.

b. *The news that was spreading* proved to be incorrect.
(Leech& Svartvic, 2013, p.250)

Such sentences are grammatically distinct, since *that*-clause in (42a) is functioning as an appositive clause. The complementizer *that* has no function in its own clause, so the embedded clause is complete without *that* and can stand alone as

a complete sentence ‘He was resigning his job’. However, that-clause in (42b) is functioning as a relative clause. The relative *that* has the function of subject in its own clause, so the embedded clause cannot stand alone ‘*was spreading’. Another distinction used to differentiate between them is the possibility of substituting the relative pronoun *which* for *that* in relative clauses, as in the following:

- (43) a. **The news which he was resigning his job* proved to be incorrect.
b. *The news which was spreading* proved to be incorrect.

Coordinative and appositive constructions may appear ambiguous (Burton-Roberts, 1994, p.186), as in the following example:

- (44) *Jane, the new friend, and Mary* are waiting for me now.

In (44), *the new friend* can be either addition in a three-way co-ordination or an appositive of *Jane* in a binary co-ordination. This depends on the meaning intended by the speaker.

Arabic, on the other hand, shows how the similarity in form between apposition and other constructions may lead to some confusion (Sallal, 2018, para.12). This can be illustrated in the following examples which are taken from him:

- (45) a. ? uHibb-u miSr-a manaaxa-h-a
Imp-like-1s.Ind. Egypt-Acc. climate-Acc.its-Gen.
I like the climate of Egypt.

b. ? uHibb-u fii miSr-a manaaxa-h-a
Imp-like-1s.Ind. in Egypt-Gen. climate-Acc.its-Gen.
I like the climate of Egypt.

It seems that the two constructions (45a-b) are similar, and to differentiate between them, the word *manaax* 'climate' should be omitted in both, and the construction in which the omission of the word doesn't affect the acceptability of the sentence is appositive. Thus, the word *manaax* 'climate' in (45a) is an appositive phrase, while in (45b) it is considered a direct object.

(46) a. ? inna? alxaliifa-ta 'umar-u surely the-Caliph-Acc.
Omar-Nom. Surely, the Caliph is Omar.

b. waSala? alxaliifa-tu 'umar-u
arrive. Perf-3ms the-Caliph-Acc. Omar-Nom.
The Caliph Omar has arrived.

It is clear that not all proper nouns which come after titles are considered appositives, *umar-u* 'Omar' in (46a) is '*xabar? inna*' a predicate of a functional particle, whereas in (46b) the proper noun is an appositive.

(47) a. haaTH-a r-rajul-u muxliS-un
this-Nom. the-Man-Nom. Sincere-Nom.

This man is sincere.

b. al-'adaalat-u maTluubat-un wa-ya'lam-u haaTH-a the-
Justice-Nom. is Required-Nom. and-Imp-know-3p-Ind.

this-Acc. j-jamii'-u the-all-Nom.

Justice is required, and everyone knows this.

Thus, based on the above examples it seems that not all definite nouns which come after demonstrative pronouns are considered appositives. In (47a), *r-rajul-u* 'the man' is an appositive phrase, while *j-jamii'-u* 'everyone' in (47b) is *faa'l* 'subject'.

(48) a. THa *l-xuluq-u* *maHbuub-un* this-Nom.
Manner-Nom. Lovable-Nom.

This manner is lovable.

b. THu *l-xuluq-i* *maHbuub-un* Owner-Nom. Manner-Gen.
Lovable-Nom.

The owner of manners is lovable.

In (48a), *THa* 'this' is a demonstrative pronoun and what comes after it is an appositive phrase, while *THu* 'owner' in (48b) is *ism-un mina l-?asmaa?i s-sittat-i* 'a noun of the six nouns' and what comes after it is considered *muDaaf-un ?ilayh-i* 'an annexed noun'.

It can be seen that the notion of the interference between apposition and other constrictions exist in English and Arabic, but each language with its own different constructions. Thus, one-to-one correspondence between the two languages does not exist.

6- Summery and Conclusion

The current study identifies apposition, and investigates and contrasts the syntactic features of apposition in English and Arabic in terms of syntactic classes, syntactic functions, occurrence restrictions, syntactic features, and interference between apposition and other constructions. In addition, the main differences and similarities between the two languages are characterized. The findings of this paper show that English and Arabic appositions have something in common. Here is a summary of the main conclusions:

In English and Arabic, appositive constructions consist of two units which can be noun phrases, two units of the same class other than noun phrases, and two units of different word classes. Another similarity in this regard is that appositive constructions with noun phrases are more common in both languages than those which contain other word classes than noun phrases.

Concerning syntactic functions, appositives in English have the same functions played by the head phrases. These functions can be nominal, i.e. associated with noun phrases, such as subject, object, and complement, or non-nominal, such as adverbials or verbs. On the other hand, appositives in Arabic are not referred to as being carry the same functions played by the head phrases even though if the head phrase is omitted, the appositive can replace it and carry the same function. Accordingly, appositives have functions related to noun phrases, such as? *al-faa'il* 'the subject', *al-maf'uul-u bihi* 'the object', *al-*

mubtada? ‘the subject of a nominal sentence’, *al-xabar* ‘the predicate’, *al-muDaaf-u? ilayh* ‘the annexed noun’, and *naa? ib-u l-faa’il* ‘the subject of the passive’. They can also serve non-nominal functions, such as verbs. However, one-to-one correspondence between the English and Arabic functions does not exist.

Concerning occurrence restrictions, both languages exhibit the same behavior regarding first-unit verb agreement. However, the agreement in English must be in number and person, whereas in Arabic it must be in gender. It is noticed that, in both languages, if the main terms in a sentence are indefinite, the verb must be dynamic. In terms of juxtaposition, appositive constituents in both languages can appear juxtaposed or unjuxtaposed. But, in English, they are subject to certain restrictions.

By Applying head phrase-appositive inversion in English, most of the resulting constructions are still appositive. By contrast, Arabic does not seem to allow for the reverse order of the head phrase and the appositive in whole-for-whole apposition, part-for-whole apposition and apposition of inclusion since the resulting constructions are not appositive. The only type which is compatible with this reverse order is *badal mubaayin* ‘differential apposition’.

With regard to the omission of the appositives, English and Arabic consider appositives non-basic elements in sentences and hence their omission does not affect the grammaticality of

sentences. However, there are, in both languages, some cases in which appositives cannot be omitted. Each language has its own cases, so one-to-one correspondence with respect to this point in the two languages does not exist.

In Arabic, there must be a personal pronoun suffix attached to the appositive phrase in part-for-whole apposition and apposition of inclusion. This pronoun suffix refers back to the head phrase and agrees in number and gender with it. This restriction does not exist in English.

Concerning syntactic features, English considers two or more coordinated phrases one appositive, but Arabic considers the first unit appositive and what follows it *?asmaa?-un ma'Tuufah* 'adjoined nouns'. As illustrated by the English and Arabic examples, the two languages exhibit the same feature with respect to accumulation of appositions in the same sentence.

English, unlike Arabic, allows for inserting appositive markers or speaker-oriented adverbs between the head phrase and the appositive. In Arabic, there must be an agreement between the head phrase and appositive in case (nominative, accusative, and genitive). By contrast, English phrases do not carry any case markers. Both English and Arabic allow for repeating the lexeme of the head phrase to be a part of the appositive phrase which provides more clarification.

List of Abbreviations

1mp	First Person Masculine Plural
1ms	First Person Masculine Singular
1s	First person Singular
2ms	Second Person Masculine Singular
3fp	Third Person Feminine Plural
3fs	Third Person Feminine Singular
3mp	Third Person Masculine Plural
3ms	Third Person Masculine Singular
3p	Third Person Plural
Acc.	Accusative Case
Gen.	Genitive Case
Imp.	Imperfective
Ind.	Indicative
Intrans.	Intransitive
Nom.	Nominative Case
Perf.	Perfective
Recip.	Reciprocal Form

List of Phonemic Symbols used to represent the Arabic Data

/ʔ/ Voiceless glottal stop	[ء]	/ʕ/ Voiced pharyngeal fricative	[ع]
/b/ Voiced bilabial stop	[ب]	/ɣ/ Voiced uvular fricative	[غ]
/t/ Voiceless alveo-dental stop	[ت]	/f/ Voiceless labio-dental fricative	[ف]
/θ/ Voiceless dental fricative	[ث]	/q/ Voiceless uvular stop	[ق]
/j/ Voiced alveo-palatal affricate	[ج]	/k/ Voiceless velar stop	[ك]
/ħ/ Voiceless pharyngeal fricative	[ح]	/l/ Voiced alveolar lateral	[ل]
/x/ Voiceless uvular fricative	[خ]	/m/ Voiced bilabial nasal	[م]
/d/ Voiced alveo-dental stop	[د]	/n/ Voiced alveolar nasal	[ن]
/ṯH/ Voiced dental fricative	[ذ]	/h/ Voiceless glottal fricative	[ه]
/r/ Voiced alveolar flap/trill (when geminated)	[ر]	/w/ Voiced bilabial round glide	[و]
/z/ Voiced alveolar fricative	[ز]	/y/ Voiced palatal glide	[ي]
/s/ Voiceless dento-alveolar fricative	[س]	/i/ High short front vowel	[ِ]
/sh/ Voiceless alveo-palatal fricative	[ش]	/a/ Low short front vowel	[َ]
/S/ Voiceless alveolar emphatic fricative	[ص]	/u/ High back rounded short vowel	[ُ]
/D/ Voiced dento-alveolar emphatic stop	[ض]	/ii/ High long front vowel	ي
/T/ Voiceless alveo-dental emphatic stop	[ط]	/aa/ Low long front vowel	ا
/ṯH/ Voiced dental emphatic fricative	[ظ]	/uu/ High back rounded long vowel	و

Note:

Consonant gemination and vowel lengthening are represented by doubling the respective consonant or vowel.

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