

## **An Analysis of Presupposition Triggers in English Journalistic Texts**

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### **Abstract**

The notion of presupposition and its triggers have been studied by many scholars, linguists and philosophers, but as far as the researcher knows, the investigation of presupposition triggers in journalistic texts has not been explored yet. Therefore, the present research tries to identify the main presupposition triggers used in English journalistic texts. It is hypothesized that there are many presupposition triggers in English journalistic texts. The steps to be followed in this study are exploring the concept of presupposition, investigating the semantic and pragmatic presupposition, and identifying the presupposition triggers used in the English journalistic texts according to a model proposed by the researcher based on Karttunen (n.d.), cited in Levinson 1983:181-184, and Yule 1996: 28.

The study is designed to the presupposition triggers of six randomly selected English journalistic texts. These texts have been sampled from six different national and regional English newspapers representing a range of political and regional differences. The national newspapers include The Independent, The Guardian, and the Daily Mirror. The regional newspapers include Liverpool Echo, The Belfast Telegraph, and The Northern Echo. According to (Biber, et al, 1999:31), these newspapers represent different readership levels. The samples are arbitrarily selected from different issues published in 2009. The study is of importance to linguists, journalists, translators, teachers and students of linguistics and education.

The analysis of the data has shown that English journalistic texts rely heavily on existential presuppositions (definite descriptions) whose ratio has constituted 57.7% of the studied sample. As to the lexical triggers, they have constituted 19.7% of the studied sample. The conventional items, iteratives, change of state verbs and factive items have recorded a frequency of occurrence 8, 7, 7 and 4 respectively, while no instances of other lexical triggers, like implicative verbs, verbs of judging and counterfactual verbs, have been recorded. Finally, the ratio of structural presupposition triggers has been 22.7% of the studied sample. Adverbial clauses have recurred 17 times and therefore ranking first among the other structural triggers. The category of non-restrictive clauses has occupied the second position registering five occurrences in the studied sample, whereas comparative expressions have scored three occurrences. Cleft constructions and counterfactual conditionals have both recorded two occurrences. Finally, wh-questions scored one occurrence.

### **1. The concept of presupposition**

The concept "presupposition" was raised by the eminent German logician Frege in 1892. Presupposition refers to the implicit information of proposition embedded in a sentence or utterance. Scholars in both philosophical and linguistic domains show peculiar interest in presupposition owing to its role in construction of meanings. Particularly in linguistics, semantics and pragmatics attach mutual importance to its research.

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The notion of presupposition has received much attention from semanticists, including Kempson (1975), Wilson (1975), Gazdar (1979), Oh and Dinneen (1979), and McCawley (1981) among others, who define it as a logical concept bound up with truth-conditional semantics. Truth-conditional semantics is an approach which studies the propositional meaning of sentences and the logical conditions for establishing their truth or falsity, (Finch, 2000: 184). Thus, Greenfield (1976, cited in Waterson and Snow, 1978: 444) defines semantic presupposition as "... a relation between sentences.... One sentence presupposes another just in case the truth of the second sentence is a necessary condition for the truth or falsity of the first." Viewing presupposition as a truth relation, Saeed (1997: 95) sets up a truth table as shown in table (1):

Table (1): Truth Table of Presupposition  
(Adapted from Saeed, 1997: 95)

P	q
T	T
F	T
T or F	T
T v F	F

He (ibid) suggests that presupposition can be tested through applying the above-mentioned table on both sentences (the presupposing sentence p and the presupposed sentence, q) as in the example below:

- *John's brother has just come back from Nigeria. (p)*
- *John has a brother. (q)*

He also tests presupposition success by negating the presupposing sentence, i.e. presupposition survives under negation as in:

- *John's brother hasn't just come back from Nigeria*  
still presupposes:
- *John has a brother*

Thus, semanticists describe this semantic truth relationship as a logical relation attributed to propositions which are the basic units of semantics. Keenan (1971, cited in Fillmore and Langendoen, 1971: 45) describes the notion of semantic presupposition as "a sentence S logically presupposes a sentence S<sup>1</sup> and just in case S logically implies S<sup>1</sup> and the negation of S, ~S also logically implies S<sup>1</sup>", i.e., the truth of that sentence is a necessary condition for the truth or falsity of it.

Pragmatists, on the other hand, argue that in addition to literal meaning, the sentence or utterance conveys a host of indirect information that can be pragmatically inferred. Presuppositions are one part of that information. Stalnaker (1974) has introduced the term 'pragmatic presupposition' in an influential early article where he establishes the fact that in order to correctly interpret an utterance, with respect to its truth and falsity, a context is needed, e.g., (cited in Mey, 1993: 202)

(1) *The cat is on the mat.*

This utterance, regardless of whether it is true or false (whether or not there is a certain cat on a certain mat), presupposes that there is some cat and some mat, the addresser is referring to. The context, in which the sentence is uttered, might be the pragmatic presupposition that the addresser is complaining about the cat's dirtying that mat.

Keenan (1971) (cited in Akmajian, et al, 1995: 384) states:

Many sentences require that certain culturally defined conditions or contexts be satisfied in order for an utterance of a sentence to be understood... these conditions are naturally called presuppositions of the utterance.... An utterance of a sentence pragmatically presupposes that its context is appropriate.

Furthermore, Stalnaker (1973:447) introduces the notion of speaker presupposition in the familiar terms of background information:

A person's presuppositions are the propositions whose truth he takes for granted . . . in a conversation . . . They are the background assumptions that may be used without being spoken.

Stalnaker (ibid: 451) then offers a natural extension of this definition of speaker presupposition to the notion of sentence presupposition.

A sentence has a presupposition just in case the use of that sentence would for some reason normally be inappropriate unless the speaker presupposed a particular proposition. In such a case . . . a sentence requires a presupposition. This notion of presupposition requirement will be the explication of the linguists' notion of presupposition.

Stalnaker means that there is an important interaction between sentence presupposition and speaker presupposition in order for that sentence to be interpreted as appropriate. For example, the sentence *I have to pick up my sister at the airport* presupposes that the addresser has a sister. This sentence will be interpreted as inappropriate unless the addresser who utters this sentence presupposes that he has a sister or disposes himself to act as if he has a sister. Hence, in such a case, a sentence requires presupposition, and the appropriateness of that sentence is determined only by the internal state of the speaker.

Hence, presupposition is the result of speaker presupposition and sentence presupposition, i.e. the correlation between the speaker presupposition and the sentence presupposition leads to presupposition success as illustrated in figure (1):

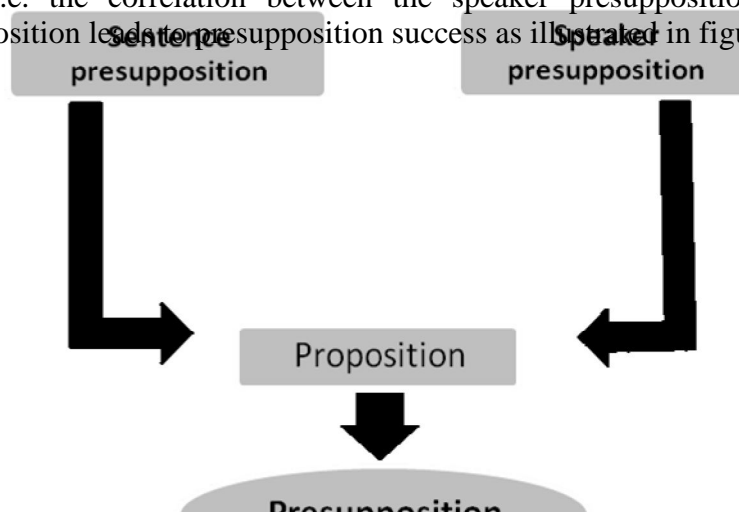


Figure (1)The interaction between the speaker presupposition and the sentence presupposition

Levinson (1983: 217) states that the difficulty of pragmatic presupposition arises from the fact that it is a quite varied, and actually a heterogeneous collection of quite distinct and different phenomena. Since pragmatic presuppositions vary according to the context and the beliefs of the interlocutors, they cannot be defined by reference to the sentence alone. Thus, the notion of background or shared knowledge constitutes part of that difficulty. Yule (1996: 25) defines pragmatic presupposition as "something the speaker assumes to be the case prior to making an utterance". Consider Yule's (ibid) example:

**(2) *Mary's brother bought three horses.***

In producing this utterance, the addresser is normally expected to have the presuppositions that a person called Mary exists and that she has a brother. The addresser may also hold the more specific presuppositions that Mary has only one brother and he has a lot of money. All of these presuppositions are the addresser's and all of them can be wrong. This concept of presupposition concerns knowledge which an addresser does not assert but presupposes as part of the background of a sentence, knowledge presumed to be already known to the addressee.

Jackendoff (1972, cited in Akmajian, et al, 1995: 384) proposes the presupposition of a sentence to denote "the information in the sentence that is assumed by the speaker to be shared by him and the hearer". The following examples illustrate the notion:

- (3) a. *Betty remembered to take her medicine.***
- b. *Betty did not remember to take her medicine.***
- c. *Betty was supposed to take her medicine.***

Sentence (3a) and (3b) are said to presuppose (3c) in that the condition mentioned in (3c) must be shared information between the addresser and addressee. So, what an addresser assumes is true or is known by the addressee can be described as presupposition Yule (1996: 132). Allerton (1979: 266) adds that an addresser depends, in carrying the addressee with him, on the common beliefs and knowledge he shares with the addressee, which allow him to leave certain unsaid things that have been said, or at least hinted at, earlier. For him, shared knowledge includes knowledge of the language, knowledge of a particular fact, i.e., knowledge of the world.

Glucksberg and Danks (1975: 115) observe that knowledge of the world is required to help interlocutors comprehend and interpret what they hear. Yet, Brown and Yule (1983: 233) add that this general knowledge about the world underpins interlocutors' interpretation not only of discourse but of virtually every aspect of their

experience. It is formed of various factors including linguistic knowledge, value judgments, sociocultural, political and religious beliefs, age, sex, etc. It presents each person accumulated experience which determines his/her comprehension of things, classification of objects in the world, use of language, and forming associations. Thus, what interlocutors judge as appropriate talk reflects what they know about the world. Hence, to say a sentence is meaningful is to say that it is consistent with interlocutors' presupposed knowledge of the world, (Tyler, 1978: 33).

Moreover, Caffi (1993, cited in Mey, 1993: 203) argues that "pragmatic presuppositions not only concern knowledge, whether true or false; they concern expectations, desires, interests, claims, attitudes towards the world, fears, etc" which are supposed to be shared between the addresser and addressee.

Thus, for the success of any communication there must exist shared knowledge, and the ability to make judgments about the capacities, and needs of interlocutors in different social situations. Therefore, the success of a presupposition depends on the addressor's assumptions, shared knowledge between interlocutors and their

knowledge of world as illustrated in figure (2)

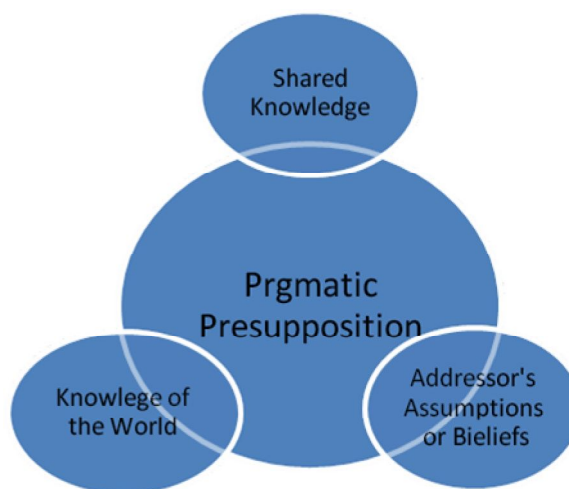


Figure (2) the components of pragmatic presupposition

After exploring the semantic and pragmatic concept of presupposition, presuppositions are "the result of complex interactions between semantics and pragmatics" (Levinson, 1983:225) as shown in figure (3).

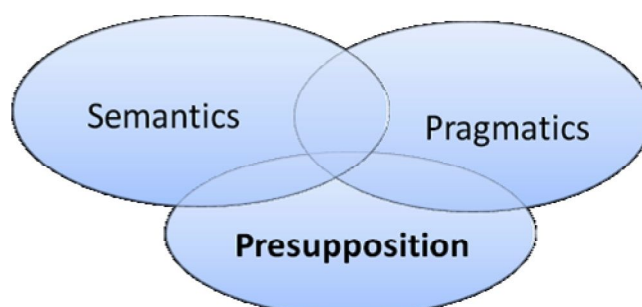


Figure (3) The concept of presupposition as the result of the interaction between semantics and pragmatics

## 2. Types of presupposition triggers

Stalnaker (1974: 200) relates the theory of presupposition to linguistic facts and items. He states:

It is true that the linguistic facts to be explained by a theory of presupposition are for the most part relations between linguistic items, or between a linguistic expression and a proposition.

Similarly, Levinson (1983: 168) confirms this view by stating that presupposition refers to those inferences or assumptions which seem to be built into linguistic expressions and can be isolated by linguistic tests. According to this definition, presupposition relates linguistic structure to extra-linguistic context in terms of the inferences which can be made about this context from the linguistic structure itself.

Presupposition has been associated with the use of a large number of words, phrases, and structures. These linguistic constructions have been isolated by linguists as sources of presuppositions known as presupposition or lexical triggers. In other words, the term 'triggers' refers to those "presupposition-generating linguistic items", (ibid: 179), i.e., a presupposition trigger is a construction or item that signals the existence of presupposition.

Karttunen (as cited in Levinson, 1983: 181) has collected thirty-one kinds of such triggers, whereas Keenan (cited in Fillmore and Langendoen, 1971: 46-7) has proposed only nine kinds of these triggers under the title of "logical presuppositions". On the other hand, Hickey et al (1993: 82) propose a list of fourteen kinds of presupposition- generating linguistic items. However, Yule (1996: 28) classifies them into six types of presupposition: (1) existential; (2) lexical; (3) structural; (4) factive; (5) non-factive; and (6) counter-factual, which form the core of the phenomenon.

Based on Karttunen, (cited in Levinson 1983:181-184), and Yule (1996: 28), the triggers, adopted in this study, are classified into three major types: existential (definite descriptions); lexical (implicative and factive verbs, change of state verbs and verbs of judging, counter factual verbs, conventional items and iteratives); and structural (cleft constructions, Wh-questions, adverbial and comparative constructions, and counter factual conditionals, and non-restrictive clauses)

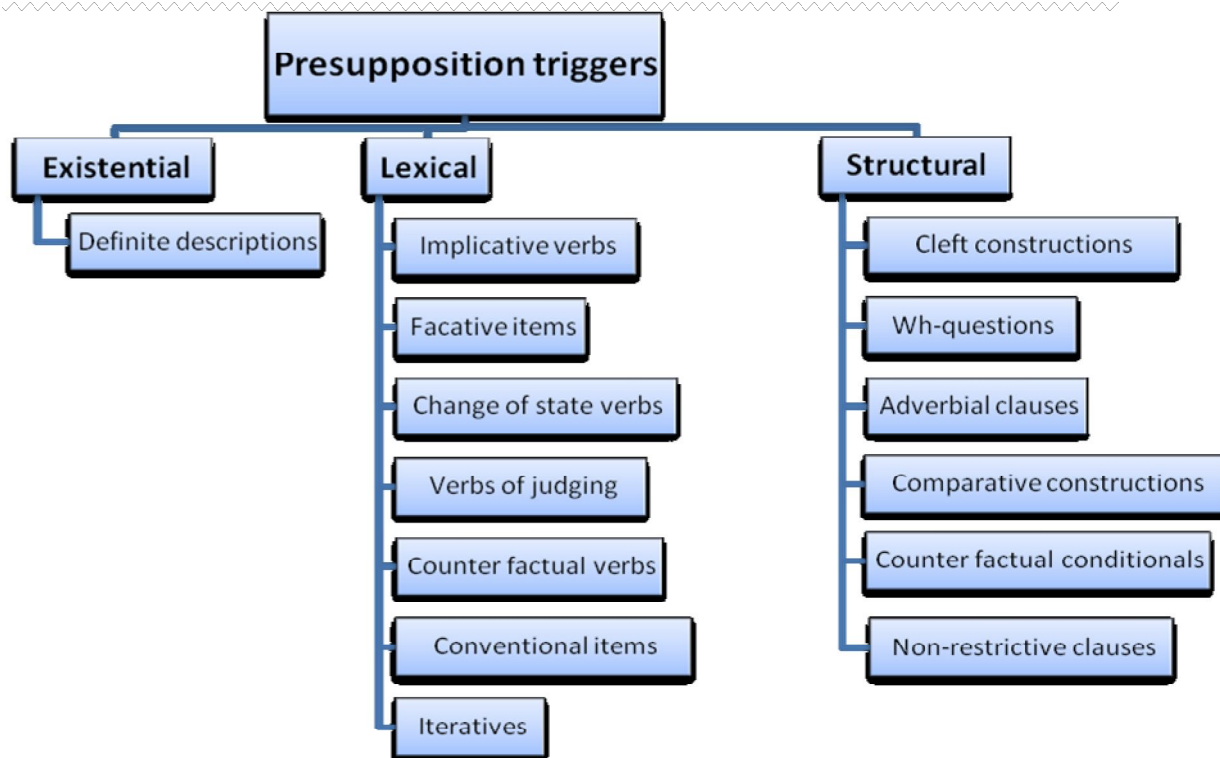


Figure (4) The proposed model for the analysis of presupposition triggers of the selected texts

(based on Karttunen, cited in Levinson 1983:181-184, and Yule 1996: 28)

### 2.1 Existential

Seuren (1994, cited in Lamarque, 1997: 359) states that existential presuppositions are the main starting point for presupposition theory in philosophy. Most obviously, the possessive constructions in English give rise to a presupposition of existence; moreover the existential presupposition is not only assumed to be present in possessive constructions but also more generally in any name or definite noun phrase, i.e. definite description, in which the addresser is assumed to be committed to the existence of the entities named. Consider Yule's example (1996: 20):

- (4) a. *Mary's dog is cute.*
- b. *There exists someone called Mary*
- c. *Mary has a dog.*

Sentence (4a) presupposes (4b) and (4c); that there exists someone called Mary and she has a dog.

This means that all 'definite names' presuppose the existence of their referents. However, non-definite names do not trigger a presupposition since they lack reference.

### 2.2 Lexical presupposition triggers

Certain types of verbs or lexical items trigger a presupposition as illustrated in the items below.

#### 2.2.1 Implicative verbs

Yule (1996: 28) explains lexical presupposition by stating that in saying someone managed to do something; the verb 'managed' carries asserted and presupposed meaning. The asserted meaning is that the person succeeded in doing something. Therefore, in saying someone did not manage to do something, the asserted meaning is that the person did not succeed, whereas the presupposed meaning (non-asserted) is that the person tried to do that something. So, 'managed' is conventionally interpreted as asserting 'succeeded' and presupposing 'tried'. Levinson, (1983: 181) labels this type of verbs as 'implicative verbs' providing the following examples:

- (5) a. *John managed to open the door.*  
b. *John tried to open the door.*  
a. *John forgot to lock the door.*  
b. *John ought to have locked or intended to lock the door.*

Other examples involve the following lexical items: '*happened to*' presupposes '*didn't plan or intend to*'; '*avoided*' presupposes '*was expected to or ought to*', etc.

### 2.2.2 Factive items

Crystal (1997: 147) argues that the term 'factive' is used in the classification of verbs, referring to a verb which takes a complement clause, and where the addresser presupposes the truth of the proposition expressed through the clause. Thus, they are called 'factive' because they presuppose the truth of their complement clause, e.g.:

- (6) a. *She didn't realize he was ill.*  
b. *He was ill.*  
(7) a. *We regret telling him.*  
b. *We told him.*

Examples in (6) and (7) illustrate that the presupposed information following the verbs 'realize' and 'regret' is treated as a fact and is described as factive presupposition. Other examples of this set of verbs include: know; appreciate; saw; forced to; agree; make sense; amuse; bear in mind; etc.

Factive predicators may involve other classes than verbs, i.e., adjectives and noun constructions. Yule (1996:27) proposes the following examples:

- (8) a. *I wasn't aware that she was married.*  
b. *She was married.*  
(9) a. *It is odd that he left early.*  
b. *He left early.*

Other examples include be significant that; be surprising that; be tragic that; etc.

Leech (1974: 304) classifies factive presupposition into two types: 'pure factives' and 'conditional factives'. The former are predicates, such as, *realize; regret*, etc., which are mainly associated with that-clause. The latter, are predicates such as *cause; become; have to; force; see; hear*; etc., mainly associated with infinitive constructions and nominalizations, e.g.:

- **Pure factives**  
(10) a. *I am sorry that he lost his job.*  
b. *He lost his job.*



(11) a. *The politicians appreciate that the result of the election will depend on the war.*

b. *The result of the election will depend on the war.*

- **Conditional factives**

(12) a. *He forced me to attend the meeting.*

b. *I attended the meeting*

(13) a. *I saw aunt Agnes down three whiskies.*

b. *Aunt Agnes downed three whiskies.*

### 2.2.3 Change of state verbs

Change of state verbs which are also called 'aspectual verbs' is another type of lexical presupposition. Saeed (1997: 99) states that these verbs have a kind of switch presupposition that the new state is both described and is presupposed not to have held prior to the change as shown in Saeed's following instances:

(14) a. *Judy started smoking cigars.*

b. *Judy used not to smoke cigars.*

(15) a. *Michelle stopped seeing werewolves.*

b. *Michelle used to see werewolves.*

Some further examples are: *begin; continue; finish; take; leave; enter; come; go; arrive;* etc.

### 2.2.4 Verbs of judging

Unlike other presupposition triggers, the implication in such presuppositions is not attributed to the speaker so much as to the subject of the verb of judging (Levinson, 1983: 182), e.g.:

(16) a. *Agatha accused/didn't accuse Ian of plagiarism*

b. *(Agatha thinks) plagiarism is bad.*

(17) a. *Ian criticized/didn't criticize Agatha for running away.*

b. *(Ian thinks) Agatha ran away.*

### 2.2.5 Counter-factual verbs

Counter-factual constructions presuppose the falsity of the proposition expressed in the complement clause. Therefore, what is presupposed is the opposite of what is true, or contrary to facts, (Crystal 1997: 147).

McCawley (1976: 400) states that it was suggested by Karttunen (1970) and Lakoff (1971) that the verb 'pretend' carries a counter-factive presupposition. Thus, the addresser of a sentence such as (18a) is committed to the assumption that the complement of 'pretend' is false, i.e., that (18b) is true.

(18) a. *Max is pretending that he is sick.*

b. *Max is not sick.*

McCawley (ibid) adds that there is a distinction between factive and counter-factive presuppositions in that factive presuppositions have the property of transitivity while counter-factive presuppositions do not, e.g. the sentence (19 a) presupposes (19b) since it contains the factive verb realize, and (19b) presupposes (19c) as shown below:

- (19) *a. Max regretted that he realized that he was sick.*  
*b. Max realized that he was sick.*  
*c. Max was sick.*

By that, factive presuppositions hold the property of transitivity. The sentence (20a) does not presuppose (20b) nor (20c), but presupposes (20d), and hence transitivity does not hold for counter-factive presuppositions.

- (20) *a. Max pretended that he realized that he was sick.*  
*b. Max realized that he was sick.*  
*c. Max was sick.*  
*d. Max was not sick.*

### 2.2.6 Conventional items

After viewing presupposition as a necessary precondition for a sentence to be either true or false, semanticists define this semantic concept as conventional. Levinson (1983: 206) points out that presuppositions of sentences can be seen as part of the conventional meaning of expressions, that is, tied to lexical items. Palmer (1981:170) confirms this point of view by stating that presupposition is associated with specific features of certain lexical items. Thus, the sentence *I cleaned the room* involves the presupposition that *The room was dirty* due to the verb 'clean', and the sentence *I killed the bird* involves the presupposition that *The bird was alive* due to the verb 'kill'.

The notion of conventionality is not restricted to verbs only, i.e. other lexical items can have presupposed conventional meaning. Some nouns carry such a conventional meaning. Consider the following example:

- (21) *a. John is a bachelor.*  
*b. John is unmarried.*

The meaning of 'bachelor' includes the information that John is an unmarried adult male.

### 2.2.7 Iteratives

Another type of lexical presupposition is 'iterative' or 'categorical' presupposition. Iterative is a term used to "refer to an event which takes place repeatedly" (Crystal: 1997: 206). Levinson (1983: 182) states that iterative presupposition is associated with certain words, such as, another and again, e.g.:

- (22) *a. Bill drank another cup of tea.*  
*b. Bill had drunk at least one.*  
(23) *a. The flying saucer came/didn't come again.*  
*b. The flying saucer came before.*

This type also involves the following words: anymore; returned; another time; to come back, restore, repeal, etc. The occurrence of such words or expressions triggers a presupposition. Thus, in the case of lexical presupposition, the addresser's use of particular expressions is taken to presuppose another unstated concept.

## 2.3 Structural Presupposition triggers

Structural presuppositions form a type when certain sentence structures conventionally and regularly, presuppose that part of the structure is already assumed to be true. Addressers can use such structures to treat information as presupposed (i.e., assumed to be true), and, hence, to be accepted as true by the addressee.

### 2.3.1 Cleft constructions

Biber et al (1999:155) states that a clause can be "divided into two parts, each with its own verb". He adds that clefting is used to bring particular elements into focus. He classifies cleft constructions into two major types:

#### 2.3.1.1 It-clefts

The it-cleft construction consists of the pronoun *it* followed by a form of the verb *be* and by "the specially focused element, which may be of the following types: a noun phrase, a prepositional phrase, and adverb phrase, or an adverbial clause [and finally by] a relative-like dependent clause introduced by *that*, *who*, *which*, or *zero*" (Biber et al:959) e.g.:

(24) a. *It was his voice that held me.*

Hence, sentence (24a) exhibits the it-cleft<sup>1</sup> construction and the expression 'his voice' is the specially focused element which is of the type noun phrase. The occurrence of such constructions triggers a presupposition. Thus sentence (24b) presupposes the following:

(24) b. *Something held me.*

#### 2.3.1.2 Wh-clefts

The wh-cleft construction consists of a clause introduced by a wh-word, usually *what*, a form of verb *to be*, and the especially focused element: a noun phrase, an infinitive clause, or a finite nominal clause (Biber et al, 1999:959), e.g.:

(25) a. *What I really need is another credit card.*

Sentence (25a) exhibits the wh-cleft<sup>2</sup> construction and it presupposes (25b):

(25) b. *I need something.*

Levinson (1983:181-2) argues that both constructions, i.e., the it-cleft and the wh-cleft constructions share approximately the same presuppositions.

### 2.3.2 Wh-questions

The wh-question constructions in English, as shown in (16) are conventionally interpreted with the presupposition that the information after the wh-form is already known to be true, e.g.:

(26) a. *When did he leave?*

b. *He left.*

(27) a. *Where did you buy the bike?*

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<sup>1</sup> Levinson (1983:182) labels this structure 'cleft construction'

<sup>2</sup> Levinson (1983:182) labels this structure 'pseudo-cleft construction'

*b. You bought the bike.*

The type of presupposition illustrated in (26, 27) (as cited in Yule 1996: 29) can lead addressers to believe that the information presented is necessarily true, rather than just the presupposition of the person asking the question. Therefore, in asking "*Who has taken my umbrella?*" The addresser is said to be presupposing or taking it for granted that somebody has taken his umbrella. Clearly it would be anomalous for an addresser to say "*I know that he had taken my umbrella, but who has taken it?*"

### 2.3.3 Adverbial clauses

Adverbial clauses are used as adverbials in the main clause. Those clauses trigger presupposition. Therefore, sentence (28a) presupposes sentence (28b). These clauses have some freedom of positioning, i.e., they are commonly placed either in initial or final position (Biber et al, 1999:194), e.g.:

- (28) *a. She wrote the book when she lived in Boston.*  
*b. She lived in Boston.*

### 2.3.4 Comparative constructions

Karttunen (cited in Levinson, 1983:183) argues that the use of comparisons and contrasts triggers presupposition. Thus, the comparative constructions (Adjective-er + than) and (As + adjective + as) signal the occurrence of a presupposition as illustrated in the following examples (cited in Levinson, 1983:183):

- **Adjective-er + than...**  
(29) *a. Carol is /isn't a better linguist than Barbara.*  
*b. Barbara is a linguist.*
- **As + adjective + as ....**  
(30) *a. Jimmy is/isn't as unpredictably gauche as Billy.*  
*b. Billy is unpredictably gauche.*

### 2.3.5 Counter factual conditionals

A conditional structure of the type shown in (28) below, generally, presupposes that the information in the if-clause is not true at the time of utterance, (Yule, 1996: 29).

- (31) *a. If you were my friend, you would have helped me.*  
*b. You are not my friend.*  
(32) *a. If Hannibal had only twelve more elephants, the Romance languages would not exist this day.*  
*b. Hannibal didn't have twelve more elephants.* (cited in Levinson, 1983:184)

### 2.3.6 Non-restrictive clauses

Levinson (1983:183-4) argues that although there are two major kinds of relative clauses, restrictive and non-restrictive clauses, in English, only non-restrictive clauses trigger a presupposition. He justifies his viewpoint by stating that in the case of non-restrictive clauses the additional parenthetical information "is not affected by the negation of the main verb outside the relative clause and thus gives rise to presupposition", non-restrictive clauses survive under negation test, e.g.:

(33) a. *The Proto-Harrappans, who flourished 2800-2650 B.C., were/were not great temple builders.*

b. *The Proto-Harrappans flourished 2800-2650 B.C.*

**3. The analysis of the text according to the proposed model**

The triggers of presupposition are underlined and then analyzed in a table below each text.

**National Newspapers**

**Text (1)**

*Source: 'The Independent' Newspaper, published on Thursday, August 27<sup>th</sup> 2009*

**Obama** leads the tributes: **'He** touched so many lives' By Stephen Foley in New York

Edward Kennedy's 15-month battle against brain cancer gave his supporters a chance denied to them when his brothers John and Robert were assassinated: "the blessing of time to say thank you and goodbye".

These were the words of Barack Obama, who broke from his Martha's Vineyard holiday to pay tribute to a man he called "one of the greatest senators of our time, and one of the most accomplished Americans ever to serve our democracy". The president led an outpouring of praise for the last of the Kennedy brothers, whose longevity, heft and personal popularity in the Senate allowed him to build a legacy of legislative achievement in pursuit of liberal causes.

But the death of the "Lion of the Senate" – late on Tuesday at his home in Hyannis Port, Massachusetts, at the age of 77 – leaves others to pursue the goal of his political life. Achieving universal healthcare coverage in the US now appears at once desperately close and horribly precarious.

Presupposition	Form of trigger	Type of trigger	Trigger
There is a man called Obama who is the president of the United States	Definite description	Existential	<u>Obama</u>
The addresser refers to Edward Kennedy	Definite description	Existential	<u>he</u>
There is a man called Edward Kennedy who suffered from brain cancer	Definite description	Existential	<u>Edward Kennedy's 15-month battle against brain cancer</u>
Edward Kennedy's brothers were assassinated	Adverbial clause	Structural	<u>when his brothers John and Robert were assassinated</u>
Obama was on holiday	Non-restrictive clause	Structural	<u>who broke from his Martha's Vineyard holiday....</u>
There is a president. The addresser refers to Obama, the president of the USA	Definite description	Existential	<u>The president</u>

The death of a Senator. The addresser refers to Edward Kennedy	Definite description	Existential	<u>the death of the "Lion of the Senate"</u>
Other politicians are left to pursue Edward Kennedy's goals after his death	Change of state verbs	Lexical	<u>leaves</u> others to pursue the goal of his political life

**Text (2)**

*Source: 'The Guardian' Newspaper, published on 27<sup>th</sup> August 2009*

**Girl who went missing 18 years ago found in California**

Authorities say Jaycee Lee, a young woman who was abducted from her home in California as an 11-year-old girl in 1991, was tonight on her way to be reunited with her family after turning up in the San Francisco bay area. Tonight, 18 years after Jaycee Lee Dugard was taken by a man and woman outside her home in South Lake Tahoe, California, police said they could confirm the identity of Dugard after she walked into a police station. Carl Probyn, Jaycee's stepfather, said his wife and daughter were flying to northern California to meet Dugard, now 29.

Presupposition	Form of trigger	Type of trigger	Trigger
There are authorities in the town. The journalist is referring to state officials.	Definite description	Existential	<u>Authorities</u>
There is a woman called Jaycee Lee	Definite description	Existential	<u>Jaycee Lee</u>
She, referring to Jaycee Lee, was abducted from her home	Non-restrictive clause	Structural	<u>a young woman who was abducted from her home in California as an 11-year-old girl in 1991</u>
The family was united before	Iterative	Lexical	<u>reunited</u>
She appeared in the San Francisco bay area.	Adverbial clause	Structural	<u>after turning up in the San Francisco bay area.</u>
Jaycee Lee Dugard was taken by a man and woman outside her home in South Lake Tahoe	Adverbial clause	Structural	<u>after Jaycee Lee Dugard was taken by a man and woman outside her home in South Lake Tahoe</u>
The addresser (the journalist) is referring to the police	Definite description	Existential	<u>they</u>
She, Jaycee Lee, walked into a police station	Adverbial clause	Structural	<u>after she walked into a police station</u>
There is a man called Carl Probyn and who is the stepfather of Jaycee	Definite description	Existential	<u>Carl Probyn, Jaycee's stepfather</u>
He (Carl Probyn) is married and he is a father	Conventional item	Lexical	<u>his wife and daughter</u>

There are two women: Probyn's wife and daughter	Definite description	Existential	<u>his wife and daughter</u>
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Probyn told the Sacramento Bee today that his wife, Terry, spoke with Dugard on the telephone last night. The stepfather said his daughter, Shayna, called yesterday afternoon and said: "Mom has something to say to you. Are you sitting down?" His wife told him: "They found Jaycee. She is alive." The couple are said to have spent the next ten minutes crying as they discussed the reappearance of Dugard. Probyn said he had lost hope that they would ever see his stepdaughter alive.

Presupposition	Form of trigger	Type of trigger	Trigger
There is a man called Probyn and who is Jaycee's stepfather	Definite description	Existential	<u>Probyn</u>
He (Carl Probyn) is married to Terry	Conventional item	Lexical	<u>his wife Terry</u>
There is a woman called Terry who is Probyn's wife	Definite description	Existential	<u>his wife Terry</u>
The addresser is referring to Carl Probyn	Definite description	Existential	<u>The stepfather</u>
There exists a woman whose name is Shayana and who is Carl Probyn's daughter	Definite description	Existential	<u>his daughter, Shayna</u>
He (Carl Probyn) is married and has a daughter whose name is Shayana.	Conventional item	Lexical	<u>his daughter, Shayna</u>
The addresser (Shayna) is addressing her mom	Definite description	Existential	<u>Mom</u>
The addresser (Shayana) is referring to state officials	Definite description	Existential	<u>They</u>
Jaycee had been lost and they found her	Change of state verb	Lexical	<u>They found Jaycee</u>
The addresser (Shayana) is referring to her half sister Jaycee.	Definite description	Existential	<u>She</u>
She is not dead	Conventional item	Lexical	<u>She is alive</u>
There is a couple. The addresser refers to Jaycee's mother and step father	Definite description	Existential	<u>The couple</u> <u>they</u>
Dugard disappeared 18 years ago. She appeared again	Iterative	Lexical	<u>they discussed the</u> <u>reappearance</u> of Dugard

At the time, Dugard's disappearance prompted a massive search, nationwide publicity and one of the largest police investigations in the region. She was on her way to school when authorities said she was pulled into a stranger's car just a block away from her South Lake Tahoe home. Probyn said he heard her scream and saw a man and a woman drive his stepdaughter away in a grey car.

Police and FBI agents combed the area and offered a massive reward, all for naught. They fielded tips in the case for years but the trail remained cold until now.

Presupposition	Form of trigger	Type of trigger	Trigger
Dugard disappeared	Definite description	Existential	<u>Dugard's disappearance</u>
The addresser (the h\journalist) refers to Jaycee.	Definite description	Existential	<u>She</u>
Jaycee was pulled into a stranger's car just a block away from her South Lake Tahoe home	Adverbial clause	Structural	<u>when authorities said she was pulled into a stranger's car just a block away from her South Lake Tahoe home</u>
The addresser (the journalist) is referring to Probyn, Jaycee's stepfather	Definite description	Existential	<u>he</u>
There were a man and a woman who kidnapped his stepdaughter (Jaycee) in a grey car.	Factive verb	lexical	<u>saw a man and a woman drive his stepdaughter away in a grey car</u>
There were police officers and FBI agents	Definite description	Existential	<u>Police and FBI agents</u>
The addresser (the journalist) is referring to police officers and FBI agents	Definite description	Existential	<u>They</u>
There is a trial by the police and the FBI agents to catch the kidnappers.	Definite description	Existential	<u>the trail</u>

**Text (3)**

*Source: 'Daily Mirror' Newspaper, published on Friday 28<sup>th</sup> August 2009 By Mark Jefferies*

**Kerry Katona arrested on suspicion of assault after allegedly beating her accountant over the head**

Bankrupt Kerry, 28, is said to have showered blows on David McHugh and damaged office equipment. A source said: “She struck out at McHugh and battered him. It wasn’t pretty. She seemed out of control.”

Kerry, whose husband Mark Croft has been blamed for squandering her millions, allegedly yelled at convicted fraudster McHugh: “You’re the f\*\*\*\*\*g reason I’ve got no money! It’s not Mark, it’s you!”

Presupposition	Form of trigger	Type of trigger	Trigger
There is a woman called Kerry Katona and who is a well known TV star.	Definite description	Existential	<u>Kerry Katona</u>
Katona was free before	Change of state verb	Lexical	<u>arrested</u>



She (katona) beat her accountant over the head.	Adverbial clause	Structural	<u>after allegedly beating her accountant over the head</u>
The addresser refers to Kerry Katona.	Definite description	Existential	<u>She</u>
Katona's husband Mark Croft has been blamed for squandering her millions.	Non-restrictive clause	Structural	<u>whose husband Mark Croft has been blamed for squandering her millions</u>
The addresser (Katona) is addressing her accountant McHugh.	Definite description	Existential	<u>You</u>
The addresser (Kerry Katona) is blaming her accountant David McHugh for squandering her millions	It-cleft construction	Structural	<u>it's you</u>

She is said to have blown her top in McHugh's office near her home in Warrington, Cheshire, after realising just how dire her financial situation is.

The source added: "It seemed like the penny finally dropped for Kerry and she saw for the first time the mess she was actually in. "A colleague of David's called the police and Kerry was taken away." Kerry was last night in a police cell awaiting questioning after she was arrested on suspicion of assault, criminal damage and a public order offence.

The arrest comes less than two weeks after Kerry was pictured in a Sunday newspaper snorting cocaine. Earlier this week she accepted a police caution for drug possession.

Presupposition	Form of trigger	Type of trigger	Trigger
The addresser refers to Kerry Katona	Definite description	Existential	<u>She</u>
She realized that her financial situation is dire.	Adverbial clause	Structural	<u>after realising just how dire her financial situation is</u>
The is a source of information.	Definite description	Existential	<u>The source</u>
She (katona) was in a mess.	Factive verb	lexical	<u>saw</u> for the first time the mess <u>she</u> was actually in
David has a colleague	Definite description	Existential	<u>A colleague of David's</u>
Kerry was arrested and taken away by the police	Change of state verb	lexical	<u>Kerry</u> was <u>taken</u> away
Kerry Katona was arrested on suspicion of assault, criminal damage and a public order offence	Adverbial clause	Structural	<u>after she was arrested on suspicion of assault, criminal damage and a public order offence</u>
There was an arrest.	Definite description	Existential	<u>The arrest</u>
Not more than two weeks	Comparative construction	Structural	The arrest comes <u>less than two weeks</u>

Kerry was pictured in a Sunday newspaper snorting cocaine	Adverbial clause	Structural	<u>after Kerry was pictured in a Sunday newspaper snorting cocaine</u>
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The mum of four lost her £250,000-a-year job as the face of frozen food giant Iceland over the scandal. It was her last big contract. Police are expected to make a decision on whether to charge Kerry later today. McHugh, who was jailed for deception in 2004, is a close friend of Croft's. He also acts as Kerry's legal adviser. In March she hired new financial advisers to sort out her affairs after announcing she was splitting from Croft. But just a few days later she was back with her husband – and continued to use McHugh's services.

The Mirror told last week how former Atomic Kitten Kerry has been funding her cocaine habit by siphoning cash from the £2,100-a-month former husband Brian McFadden pays her for their daughters Molly, seven, and Lilly Sue, six. A friend said she had been dipping into the child maintenance to fund the drugs she craves because all her other spare cash goes to pay off creditors.

Presupposition	Form of trigger	Type of trigger	Trigger
The addresser (the journalist) refers to Kerry Katona who is a mother of four children	Definite description	Existential	<u>The mum of four</u>
There are police officers.	Definite description	Existential	<u>Police</u>
There exists a man called McHugh	Definite description	Existential	<u>McHugh, He</u>
McHugh was jailed for deception in 2004	Non-restrictive clause	Structural	<u>who was jailed for deception in 2004</u>
Kerry Katona was splitting from Croft (her husband).	Adverbial clause	Structural	<u>after announcing she was splitting from Croft.</u>
Kerry Katona returned to her husband after announcing she was splitting from him.	Iterative	Lexical	She was <u>back</u> with her husband
She had stopped using McHugh's services before.	Change of state verb	Lexical	She <u>continued</u> to use McHugh's services
There exists a newspaper called 'The Mirror'	Definite description	Existential	<u>The Mirror</u>
Kitten Kerry has been funding her cocaine habit	Adverbial clause	Structural	<u>how former Atomic Kitten Kerry has been funding her cocaine habit</u>
Kerry Katona was married before to a man called Brian McFadden	Iterative	Lexical	<u>former husband Brian McFadden</u>

The payments from the former Westlife star are protected from her bankruptcy order. She was declared bankrupt last August after failing to pay an outstanding £82,000 tax bill. At the height of her fame Kerry earned more than £1million a year from TV adverts, sponsorship, a magazine column and deals on ghost-written books.

Presupposition	Form of trigger	Type of trigger	Trigger
There are payments of money.	Definite description	Existential	<u>The payments</u>
Kerry Katona is no longer a star	Iterative	Lexical	<u>former Westlife star</u>
Kerry Katona was rich before	Change of state	Lexical	<u>She was declared bankrupt</u>
She( Kerry Katona) failed to pay an outstanding £82,000 tax bill	Adverbial clause	Structural	<u>after failing to pay an outstanding £82,000 tax bill</u>
She earned £1million a year	Comparative construction	Structural	<u>Kerry earned more than £1million a year</u>

### Regional Newspapers

#### Text (4)

*Source: 'Liverpool Echo' newspaper, published on 5<sup>th</sup> September 2009*

#### Dozens of pupils sent home from Liverpool school for wearing the wrong shoes

DOZENS of children were sent home from a Liverpool school this week for wearing the wrong shoes. Teachers at Fazakerley high met about 60 pupils at the school gates and told them to return home to change into plain unbranded shoes. The school policy only allows plain black footwear. The school today said the agreement was reached with the backing of parents, pupils and governors. But single mum Joanne Kaye said she was furious her two sons were sent home to Norris Green after turning up for school wearing black trainers with a silver Nike tick logo. She claimed the 12-year-old and 15-year-old boys had to sit on the doorstep for hours in the rain until their nan returned home to let them in.

Presupposition	Form of trigger	Type of trigger	Trigger
There are teachers at Fazakerley.	Definite description	Existential	<u>Teachers at Fazakerley</u>
There exist a school and it has its own policy	Definite description	Existential	<u>The school policy</u>
There is an agreement.	Definite description	Existential	<u>the agreement</u>
An Unmarried woman	Conventional item	Lexical	<u>single mum Joanne Kaye</u>
There exists an unmarried mother called Joanne Kaye	Definite description	Existential	<u>single mum Joanne Kaye</u>
The addresser (the journalist) refers to Joanne Kaye; the mother.	Definite description	Existential	<u>She</u>

The pupils turned up for school wearing black trainers with a silver Nike tick logo	Adverbial clause	Structural	<u>after turning up for school wearing black trainers with a silver Nike tick logo</u>
the 12-year-old and 15-year-old boys had to sit on the doorstep for hours in the rain	Factive	Lexical	She <u>claimed</u> the 12-year-old and 15-year-old boys had to sit on the doorstep for hours in the rain
There are two boys whose ages are 12 and 15 respectively.	Definite description	Existential	<u>the 12-year-old and 15-year-old boys</u>
Their nan returned home to let them in.	Adverbial clause	Structural	<u>until their nan returned home to let them in.</u>
The nan had been at their home before	Iterative	Lexical	until their nan <u>returned</u> home to let them in

Ms Kaye said: “They could not even get into the school grounds. They were just sent home. Why couldn’t the school have just phoned me?  
 “They did not have a key and had to sit in the pouring rain.  
 “I am fuming because I have not got enough money to buy them both a new pair of shoes, so I have had to keep them off school.  
 “I thought these shoes were hard-wearing and suitable despite the small tick.  
 “I can understand if they were luminous or green but the school should be concentrating on the truants.”

Presupposition	Form of trigger	Type of trigger	Trigger
There exists a woman called Ms Kaye.	Definite description	Existential	<u>Ms Kaye</u>
The addresser (the mother) refers to her sons.	Definite description	Existential	<u>They</u>
The school didn't phone her.	Wh-question	Structural	<u>Why couldn't the school have just phoned me?</u>
The addresser (the mother Joanne Kaye) refers to herself.	Definite description	Existential	<u>I</u>
The shoes were not luminous or green.	Counterfactual conditional	Structural	<u>if they were luminous or green</u>
There exists a school.	Definite description	Existential	<u>the school</u>

**Text (5)**

**Source: 'The Belfast Telegraph' Newspaper, published on Friday, 4<sup>th</sup> September 2009**

**Nato airstrike kills 90 including 40 civilians in Afghanistan**

A police official in northern Afghanistan said a Nato airstrike on two hijacked fuel tankers killed 90 people, including 40 civilians. Police and government officials in Kunduz Province say the blast occurred after the Taliban hijacked two trucks delivering fuel to Nato forces.

Presupposition	Form of trigger	Type of trigger	Trigger
There exists an organization called 'North Atlantic Treaty Organization'. The addresser presupposes that the addressee knows this organization; shared knowledge or knowledge of the world.	Definite description	Existential	<u>Nato</u>
90 people are dead	Conventional item	Lexical	<u>Kills 90 including 40 civilians in Afghanistan</u>
The organization launched an air strike	Definite description	Existential	<u>Nato airstrike</u>
90 people are dead	Conventional item	Lexical	<u>killed 90 people</u>
The addresser refers to the police and government officials	Definite description	Existential	<u>Police and government officials</u>
There was a blast	Definite description	Existential	<u>the blast</u>
The Taliban hijacked two trucks delivering fuel to Nato forces	Adverbial clause	Structural	<u>after the Taliban hijacked two trucks delivering fuel to Nato forces</u>

Chief of Police Gulam Mohyuddin said the trucks were hit by a Nato airstrike late last night. Mr. Mohyuddin said the Taliban were distributing the fuel to area villagers when the airstrike occurred. He said that 90 people were killed, including 50 Taliban and 40 civilians.

Presupposition	Form of trigger	Type of trigger	Trigger
There exists a man called Gulam Mohyuddin who is Chief of Police	Definite description	Existential	<u>Chief of Police Gulam Mohyuddin</u>
There were two trucks	Definite description	Existential	<u>the trucks</u>
The trucks were safe before	Change of state verbs	Lexical	<u>hit</u>
There exists a man called Mohyuddin The addresser (the journalist) refers to the chief of police	Definite description	Existential	<u>Mr. Mohyuddin</u>
There exists a group of people called Taliban	Definite description	Existential	<u>the Taliban</u>
The airstrike occurred	Adverbial clause	Structural	<u>when the airstrike occurred</u>
The addresser (the journalist) refers to Chief of Police Gulam	Definite description	Existential	<u>He</u>

Mohyuddin			
90 people are dead.	Conventional item	Lexical	90 people were <u>killed</u>

Nato confirmed that there was an airstrike in Kunduz Province overnight but gave no details.

Nato's chief said civilians may have been among the casualties in the pre-dawn attack in northern Afghanistan. But Anders Fogh Rasmussen said today that Nato remained committed to protecting the Afghan people and to reducing to the lowest possible the number of civilian deaths by allied troops.

"Certainly a number of Taliban were killed and there is also a possibility of civilian casualties as well," the Nato Secretary General told reporters about today's attack.

An Afghan police officer said some 40 civilians were among the dead. Mr. Rasmussen said overall this year, the number of civilian casualties caused by Nato troops have dropped by 95%.

Presupposition	Form of trigger	Type of trigger	Trigger
There was an airstrike in Kunduz Province overnight.	Factive verb	Lexical	<u>Nato confirmed</u> that there was an airstrike in Kunduz Province overnight
There exists a chief of NATO	Definite description	Existential	<u>Nato's chief</u>
There are civilians	Definite description	Existential	<u>civilians</u> may have been among the casualties
There exists a man called Anders Fogh Rasmussen	Definite description	Existential	<u>Anders Fogh Rasmussen</u>
There is a Secretary General in the NATO	Definite description	Existential	<u>the Nato Secretary General</u>
There were 40 civilians	Definite description	Existential	<u>some 40 civilians</u> were among the dead
40 civilians are not alive	Conventional item	Lexical	some 40 civilians were among the <u>dead</u>
There exists a man called Anders Fogh Rasmussen	Definite description	Existential	<u>Mr. Rasmussen</u>
There is a number of civilian casualties	Definite description	Existential	<u>the number of civilian casualties</u>

**Text (6)**

*Source: 'The Northern Echo' Newspaper, published on Saturday 5th September 2009*

**Afghan events 'moving against us'**

Britain needs to ask if the war in Afghanistan is still winnable, Liberal Democrat peer Paddy Ashdown said. He condemned Gordon Brown's speech defending the campaign as lacking in "passion and charisma" and said the Prime Minister had failed to clarify confusion over the UK's objectives in the country. Lord Ashdown, who served as UN High Representative for Bosnia and Herzegovina until 2006, was put

forward as the international community's envoy in Afghanistan in 2008 but was blocked by the Afghan government. He told Radio 4's Today programme: "We have made catastrophic errors."

Presupposition	Form of trigger	Type of trigger	Trigger
The addresser refers to the events happening in Afghanistan	Definite description	Existential	<u>Afghan events</u>
The addresser refers to the United Kingdom	Definite description	Existential	<u>Britain</u>
There exists a politician called Paddy Ashdown who is	Definite description	Existential	<u>Liberal Democrat peer Paddy Ashdown</u>
The addresser (the journalist) refers to Paddy Ashdown	Definite description	Existential	<u>He</u>
There exists a prime minister of Britain. The addresser refers to Gordon Brown	Definite description	Existential	<u>the Prime Minister</u>
There exists a man called Lord Ashdown	Definite description	Existential	<u>Lord Ashdown</u>
The addresser (the journalist) refers to Lord Ashdown who served as UN High Representative for Bosnia and Herzegovina until 2006	Non-restrictive clause	Structural	<u>who served as UN High Representative for Bosnia and Herzegovina until 2006</u>
The addresser (Lord Ashdown) is speaking on behalf of the British people	Definite description	Existential	<u>We</u> have made catastrophic errors

"Events are still moving against us in Afghanistan and we have lost a great amount of time in turning things around." He said that the UK should not be asking whether our forces should be fighting the war instead, he said: "We should be asking ourselves a much more brutal question.

"Can we win it from where we are now?"

But he added: "It is too early to do that now, I want to see the results of these elections first."

He said that it would be unhelpful if the international community passed judgment on the polls before Afghan authorities had completed their investigations. The former Liberal Democrat leader also criticised Mr. Brown's leadership on the issue.

Presupposition	Form of trigger	Type of trigger	Trigger
There are events happening in Afghanistan	Definite description	Existential	<u>Events</u> are still moving against us in Afghanistan
The addresser refers to the United Kingdom	Definite description	Existential	<u>the UK</u>
We are asking ourselves a brutal question	Comparative construction	Structural	We should be asking ourselves a <u>much more brutal</u> question

The British policy and people are at this point now	Adverbial clause	Structural	<u>where we are now</u>
The addresser (the journalist) refers to Lord Ashdown	Definite description	Existential	<u>he</u>
It is early to answer that question whether we can win the war in Afghanistan or not.	Cleft construction	Structural	<u>It is too early to do that now</u>
The international community did not pass judgment on the polls	Counterfactual conditional	Structural	<u>if the international community passed judgment on the polls</u>
The addresser (the journalist) refers to Lord Ashdown. There exists a man called Lord Ashdown	Definite description	Existential	<u>The former Liberal Democrat leader</u>
The addresser (the journalist) refers to Lord Ashdown who was the leader of the liberal democratic before.	iterative	Lexical	The <u>former</u> Liberal Democrat leader

After analyzing the randomly selected national and regional English journalistic texts, it has been found that the existential, lexical and structural triggers constitute 57.6%, 19.7% and 22.7% respectively of the total triggers as illustrated in figure (5). Table (2) summarizes the frequency of occurrences of the presupposition triggers detected in the six randomly selected English journalistic texts.

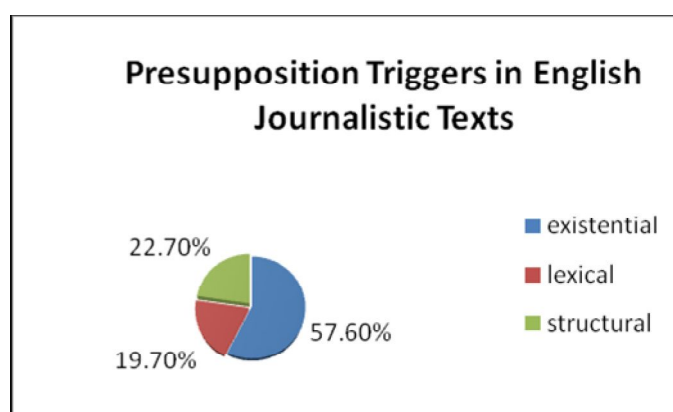


Figure (5) Presupposition triggers in the randomly selected English journalistic texts.

Table (2) The frequency of occurrences of presupposition triggers in the randomly selected English journalistic texts.

Frequency of occurrence	Presupposition triggers
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76	Definite descriptions	<b>Existential</b>
<b>76</b>	<b>Total</b>	
0	Implicative verbs	<b>Lexical</b>
4	Factive items	
7	Change of state verbs	
0	Verbs of judging	
0	Counter factual verbs	
8	Conventional items	
7	Iteratives	
<b>26</b>	<b>Total</b>	
2	Cleft constructions	<b>Structural</b>
1	Wh-questions	
17	Adverbial clauses	
3	Comparative expressions	
2	Counter factual conditionals	
5	Non-restrictive clauses	
<b>30</b>	<b>Total</b>	

As to the forms of these triggers, as illustrated in table (2) and figure (6) below, definite descriptions has ranked first scoring seventy-six occurrences, followed by adverbial clauses that registered seventeen occurrences, and the third rank has been occupied by conventional items that have recurred eight times in the studied sample . The fourth rank has been shared equally by change of state verbs and iteratives, followed by non-restrictive clauses that have recorded five occurrences. Factive items have scored four occurrences and thus ranking sixth among the other triggers. The analysis also has shown that some presupposition triggers are rarely used in English journalist texts; comparative expressions have scored three occurrences, cleft constructions and counter factual conditionals have scored two occurrences and wh-

questions have only scored one occurrence. Finally, no instances of implicative verbs or verbs of judging or counter factual verbs have been recorded.

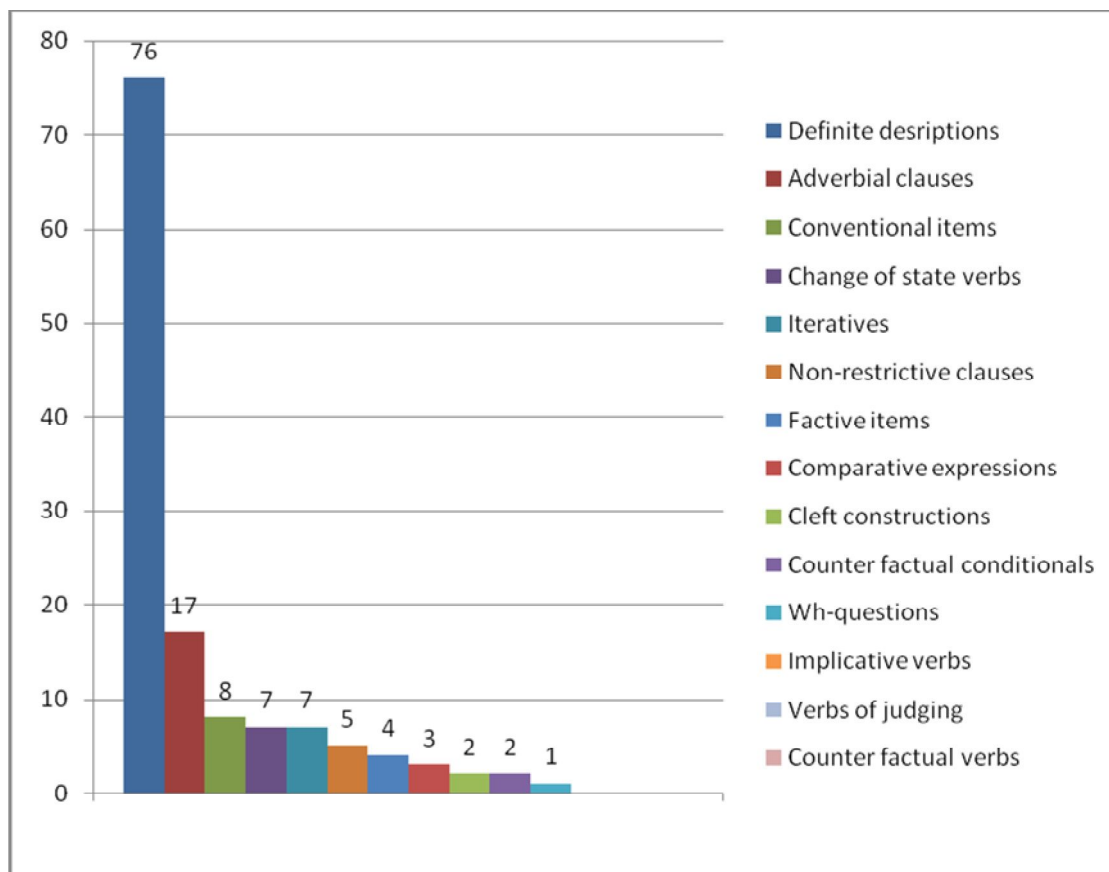


Figure (6) Presupposition triggers in English journalistic texts according to frequency of occurrence

### Conclusion

In its attempt to identify the presupposition triggers used in English journalistic texts, this research has defined and identified the semantic and pragmatic presupposition triggers used in English journalist texts.

After analyzing six English journalist texts that have been randomly selected from national and regional English newspapers, it has been shown that English journalistic texts rely heavily on existential presuppositions whose ratio has constituted 57.7% of the studied sample. Existential or definite descriptions have recurred 76 times and, therefore, they have ranked first among the other presupposition triggers in the studied sample.

As to the lexical triggers, they have constituted 19.7% of the studied sample. The conventional items, iteratives, change of state verbs and factive items have recorded a frequency of occurrence 8, 7, 7 and 4 respectively, while no instances of other lexical triggers, like implicative verbs, verbs of judging and counter factual verbs, have been recorded.

Finally, the ratio of structural presupposition triggers has been 22.7% of the studied sample. Adverbial clauses have recurred 17 times and therefore ranking first among the other structural triggers. The category of non-restrictive clauses has occupied the second position registering five occurrences in the studied sample, whereas comparative expressions have scored three occurrences. Cleft constructions and counterfactual conditionals have both recorded two occurrences. Finally, wh-questions scored one occurrence.

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## تحليل لمطلقات الافتراض المسبق في نصوص صحفية انكليزية

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### الخلاصة

دُرست فكرة الافتراض المسبق و مطلقاته من قبل العديد من الباحثين وعلماء اللغة والفلسفة ، ولكن على حد علم الباحث ، فان البحث في مطلقات الافتراض المسبق في النصوص الصحفية لم يُبحث بعد. لذا ، يحاول البحث الحالي تحديد أهم مطلقات الافتراض المسبق الرئيسية المستعملة في النصوص الصحفية الانكليزية. حيث يفترض البحث وجود العديد من مطلقات الافتراض المسبق في النصوص الصحفية الانكليزية. إن الخطوات المتبعة في هذه الدراسة تتضمن التعرف على مفهوم الافتراض المسبق ، و بحث مفهومي الافتراض المسبق الدلالي و التداولي و تحديد مطلقات الافتراض المسبق المستعملة في النصوص الصحفية الانكليزية وفقا لنموذج اقترحه الباحث استنادا على Karttunen ، الذي ورد ذكره في Levinson 1983:181-184 ، و Yule 1996: 28.

ويهدف هذا البحث إلى التعرف على مطلقات الافتراض المسبق في ست نصوص صحفية انكليزية أختيرت عشوائيا. أخذت هذه النصوص من ست صحف إنجليزية مختلفة ، وطنية ومحلية ، و التي تمثل مجموعة من الاختلافات السياسية والمحلية. وتشمل الصحف الوطنية صحيفة الاندبندنت 'The Independent' ، والجارديان 'The Guardian' ، وصحيفة الديلي ميرور 'The Daily Mirror'. اما الصحف المحلية فقد اشتملت على صحيفة ليفربول ايكو 'Liverpool Echo' ، وبلفاست تلغراف 'The Belfast Telegraph' ، والنورثرن ايكو 'The Northern Echo'. و وفقا لـ (Biber, et al, 1999:31) ، فان هذه الصحف تمثل مستويات مختلفة من القراء. وأختيرت العينات التي تم انتقاؤها عشوائيا من مختلف القضايا التي نُشرت في عام ٢٠٠٩. تعد هذه الدراسة ذات أهمية للمختصين في علم اللغة والصحفيين والمترجمين والمدرسين وطلاب اللسانيات والتربية.

أظهر تحليل البيانات أن النصوص الصحفية الانكليزية تعتمد اعتمادا كبيرا على مطلقات الافتراض المسبق الوجودية (أوصاف محددة) (definite descriptions) و التي شكلت نسبة ٥٧.٧ ٪ من العينة التي شملتها الدراسة. أما فيما يتعلق بالمطلقات المعجمية، فقد شكلت ١٩.٧ ٪ من العينة التي شملتها الدراسة. حيث سجلت المفردات التقليدية (conventional items) ، و التكرارية (iteratives) ، و افعال تغير الحال (change of state verbs) ، و مفردات اليقين (factive items) تواتر وقوع ٨ و ٧ و ٧ و ٤ على التوالي ، بينما لم تُسجل حالات وقوع مطلقات افتراض معجمية أخرى مثل أفعال التضمين (implicative verbs) ، أو أفعال الحكم (verbs of judging)، والأفعال التي تدل على عدم تحقق حدوث الفعل الذي يليها (counter factual verbs) . وأخيرا، شكلت نسبة مطلقات الافتراض المسبق التركيبية ٢٢.٧ ٪ من العينة التي شملتها الدراسة. تكررت العبارات الظرفية (adverbial clauses) ١٧ مرة، وبالتالي احتلت المرتبة الأولى من بين غيرها من المطلقات التركيبية. و احتلت العبارات الغير تقييدية (non-restrictive clauses) المركز الثاني حيث تكررت خمس مرات في العينة المدروسة ، في حين سجلت عبارات التفضيل (comparative expressions) ثلاث تكرارات. أما التراكيب التوكيدية (cleft constructions) و الجمل الشرطية التي امتنع فيها فعل جواب الشرط لامتناع فعل الشرط (counter factual conditionals) فقد سجلت حالتها وقوع على حد سواء. وأخيرا، سجلت الجمل الاستفهامية (wh-questions) حالة وقوع واحدة.