



مجلة كلية التربية للعلوم الإنسانية

مجلة علمية فصلية محكمة تصدرها كلية التربية للعلوم الإنسانية جامعة ذي قار

المجلد الثالث عشر العدد الأول 2023

ISSN:2707-5672

هيئة التحرير			
أ.د انعام قاسم خفيف		ا.م.د احمد عبد الكاظم لجلاج	
رئيس هيئة التحرير		مدير التحرير	
ت	الاسم	الجامعة	الاختصاص
1	أ.د. سعد علي زاير	جامعة بغداد	طرائق تدريس
2	أ.د. مصطفى لطيف عارف	جامعة ذي قار	اللغة العربية
3	أ.د. حيدر حسن اليعقوبي	جامعة كربلاء	علم النفس
4	أ.د. عماد ابراهيم داود	جامعة ذي قار	اللغة الانكليزية
5	أ.د. صلاح الدين احمد	جامعة عمان	علم النفس
6	أ.د. حسام الدين جاد الرب احمد	جامعة اسيوط	الجغرافية
7	أ.د. عثمان برهومي	جامعة صفاقس/تونس	التاريخ
8	أ.م.د. حيدر عبد الجليل عبد الحسين	جامعة ذي قار	التاريخ
9	أ.د. فاضل عبد الزهرة مزعل	جامعة البصرة	ارشاد تربوي
10	أ.م. انتصار سكر خيون	جامعة ذي قار	الجغرافية
الاشراف اللغوي			
م.د اسعد رزاق يوسف		اللغة العربية	
م.د حسن كاظم حسن		اللغة الانجليزية	
ادارة النظام الالكتروني: م.م محمد كاظم			
الاخراج الفني: م. علي سلمان الشويلي			

المحتويات

ت	اسم الباحث و عنوان البحث	رقم الصفحة
1	مكانة التكريم للإنسان ما بين الرؤية الإلهية و استباحة التطرف البشري (التلاعب برمزية الجهاد انموذجا) أ.م.د.علي رحيم أبو الهيل الجابري	1-22
2	اتجاهات طلبية قسم العلوم التربوية والنفسية جامعة ذي قار نحو مادة الاحصاء الوصفي م . م علي ريسان سنيم العمري	23-47
3	مظاهر الاتساق والانسجام في ميمية الفرزدق في مدح الإمام زين العابدين (ع) أ.م. د. رحيق صالح فنجان	48-67
4	الاتساق الصوتي في أشعار أنصار الإمام الحسين عليهم السلام وأراجيزهم دراسة في ضوء علم لسانيات النص م . د . محمد شمخي جبر	68-86
5	العلاقات الصينية – العراقية 1949 – 1967 أ. د. أزهار عبد الرحمن عبد الكريم اللفته	87-115
6	سمتي التفاؤل – التشاؤم لدى طلبة الجامعة زهراء عبد الكريم عيسى أ.د. عبد الباري مايح ماضي	116-137
7	قصيدة الأفعال الانجازية غير المباشرة في القصائد المهودية عند الشعراء العرب أ.د. قصي ابراهيم نعمة الحصونة مرتضى مطشر صبري	138-165
8	موقف الحكومة البريطانية من التطورات السياسية في البرتغال في اعقاب ثورة نيسان 1974 – نيسان 1975 م.د. حيدر جواد كاظم المكصوصي	166-202
9	الفضح والستر في القرآن الكريم ورود شعلان فجر	203-244
10	الأثر الفكري لحركة الزندقة في المجتمع العباسي أ.م.د. مرتضى جليل جعيلان	245-263
11	تطور مفهوم الحظ لدى الاطفال للأعمار (8, 10, 12) سنوات محمد حسين فرحان ا.م. د. غادة علي هادي	264-282

283-298	وسائل الغزو الثقافي وأهدافها (العولمة انموذجا) أ . م . د خضير جاسم حالوب كرار جبار حسين	12
299-323	الاستقرار النفسي لدى المرشدين التربويين انعام قاسم خفيف الصريفي امجد راضي بري الخفاجي	13
324-339	روث نوري شاويس سيرته الذاتية وتكوينه الاجتماعي والعلمي (1947-1976) سلام حميد عليعل عبد الرسول شهيد عجمي	14
340-360	التفكير الحاذق لدى طلبة الدراسات العليا ميس هادي حسن كنعان م.د. عبد الخالق خضير عليوي	15
361-384	الاتحاد الأفريقي نشأته – أعضائه – دوره الاقليمي فاضل عبد علي حسن	16
385-413	مدى رضا طلاب ذوي الاعاقة عن جودة الخدمات في الجامعات السعودية وسبل تطويرها من وجهة نظرهم فاتن عبد الهادي الزايدي	17
414-447	حركة المختار بن ابي عبيد الثقفي في كتابات المستشرقين الالمان (فلهوزن وبروكلمان إنموذجا) ا.م.د. مروان عطيه مايح	18
448-467	المضامين الثقافية ودورها في تشكيل القصيدة عند الشاعر أجود مجبل	19
468-483	الشخصية في كتاب الاكتفاء في أخبار الخلفاء لأبي مروان التوزري أ.د. رائد حميد مجيد البطاط نوره عاصي مجيد	20
484-507	المدلولات العلائقية الزمانية في الخطاب القرآني من خلال المنظور المعرفي أ.د. سعاد كريم خشيف م. م. صفية موسى عبود	21
508-527	مبادرة جورج شولتز لتسوية الصراع العربي (الاسرائيلي) عام 1988 ا.د. عباس حسين الجابري ناصر ثجيل منصور	22
528-553	التجسيم في النص القرآني دراسة تداولية في ضوء الأفعال الكلامية م.م. هدى صبيح محمد م.رشا قاسم فياض	23
554-585	دور العولمة المعلوماتية في تطوير المناهج الدراسية في مرحلة التعليم الثانوي الاستاذ المساعد الدكتور علي عباس علي اليوسفي	24

586-605	الأسلوب التعليمي وأثره في فهم النص النحوي الأستاذ الدكتور رياض يونس السواد المدرس المساعد إيهاب حسين علي ناصر	25
606-635	أثر المختبر الافتراضي في التحصيل و التفكير الابداعي والسعة العقلية لدى طلاب الخامس العلمي / الاحيائي في الفيزياء أ.م.د. سعد قدوري حدود الخفاجي	26
636-657	دول الميكرو - ستيت في قارة أوروبا " نظرة جغرافية سياسية م. د. عمار شريف كاظم جلود العظماوي	27
658-685	الشفقة بالذات لدى موظفي جامعة سومر أ.م.د. عبد العباس غضيب الشاطي الاء علاء ياسين	28
686-705	مؤتمر منتوار والموقف الدولي منه عام 1940 ا.م.د. زمن حسن كريدي ازهر رحيم اوعيد	29
706-734	جمعية الصداقة اللبنانية-السوفيتية ودورها بين البلدين 1960-1975 م. د. محمد جابر عناد العبودي	30
735-767	جهود السلام اليابانية لحل القضية الفيتنامية 1964 - 1968 ا.م.د. حيدر عبد العالي	31
768-803	A Linguistic Analysis of Presupposition Triggers In American Presidential Debates	32

A Linguistic Analysis of Presupposition Triggers In American Presidential Debates

Asst. Prof. Mohammed Kadhim Ali

College of Education for Humanities/ University of Thi Qar, ThiQar, Iraq.

dr.mohammed.academic2021@utq.edu.iq

Marwa Khashan Ebadi

College of Education for Humanities/ University of Thi Qar, ThiQar, Iraq.

wertiinfuophgbm@gmail.com

Keywords: Presupposition, presupposition triggers, American presidential debates 2020

Abstract

Presupposition is a prior assumption that is known by both the speaker (or writer) and the hearer (or reader). In its use, it is attached to particular words and structures that act as indicators to its existence in the utterance. The current study is a linguistic study of presuppositions in the American presidential debates 2020 in particular. It aims at implementing an analysis of presuppositions in those debates. Generally speaking, the implementation aims at identifying the dominant types of presuppositions and how presidential candidates employ such types of presuppositions to achieve the remarkable results on which they depend in their interactions with their supporters. The implementation also aims at explaining the presuppositional meanings of such types of presuppositions which are found in those debates.

To carry out such general aims, five hypotheses are proposed:

1. In the selected American presidential debate 2020, existential presupposition usually records the first rank among the types of presupposition.
2. Factive verbs are the most dominant type of lexical presupposition triggers used by the presidential candidates.
3. Presidential candidates tend to use change-of-state verbs among the other types of lexical presupposition triggers when they speak about fateful issues that are needed to be tackled with all power and solidity.
4. Presidential candidates tend to use (Wh-questions) among the other types of questions involved under the category of structural

presupposition triggers when a candidate insists on tackling an issue while another candidate opposes or refuses the ways of tackling that issue.

5. Counter-factual presuppositions play an essential role in capturing the hearers' attention and interests by the presidential candidates.

The linguistic analysis of the selected debate has been verified the validity of the five hypotheses above. In addition, it has yielded the following general conclusions:

1. Presuppositions are strongly presented and expressive in the speech of American presidential candidates. They constitute a plentiful part of this part of speech due to the fact that presuppositions are valuable tools which speakers use to guide the recipient of an utterance, discourse or text towards its intended meaning.
2. A new type of questions is detected in this study, and added to the types of questions subcategory which are in turn involved under the category of structural presupposition. This new type of questions is called rhetorical questions.
3. The study shows the applicability and workability of the developed model for analysing presupposition triggers in the selected American presidential debate 2020.

تحليل لغوي لمشغلات الافتراض المسبق في المناقشات الرئاسية الأمريكية

محمد كاظم علي

كلية التربية للعلوم الإنسانية- جامعة ذي قار - ذي قار- العراق.
dr.mohammed.academic2021@utq.edu.iq

مروة خشان عبادي

كلية التربية للعلوم الإنسانية -جامعة ذي قار - ذي قار -العراق.
vertiinfuophgm@gmail.com

الكلمات المفتاحية: الافتراضات المسبقة ، محفزات الافتراضات ، المناظرات الرئاسية الأمريكية 2020

الملخص :

ان الافتراض هو الاعتقاد المسبق المعروف من قبل كل من المتحدث (او الكاتب) والمخاطب (او القارئ) وهو يرتبط بكلمات معينة وتراكيب والتي تعمل كمؤشرات على وجوده في النطق او التعبير .

الدراسة الحالية هي دراسة لغوية عن الافتراض المسبق في احدى المناظرات الرئاسية الأمريكية لعام 2020 . وهذه الدراسة تهدف الى تحليل الاستعمال النوعي للافتراض المسبق في هذه المناظرة . وبشكل عام فإن هذا التحليل يهدف الى تشخيص أكثر الأنواع السائدة من محفزات الافتراض المسبق وكيف يوظفها المرشحون للرئاسة الأمريكية للحصول على النتائج المبهرة من خلال تواصلهم مع داعميهم من الجمهور كما يهدف التحليل الى شرح وتفسير المعنى المفترض لهذه الأنواع من المحفزات والتي وجدت في هذه المناظرة . وبخصوص عينة البحث فقد ضمت الدراسة المناظرة الرئاسية الأمريكية التاسعة للحزب الديمقراطي والتي جرت في 19 شباط 2020 في مدينة لاس فيغاس ، ولاية نيفادا . وقد استند التحقيق اللغوي بخصوص الافتراضات المسبقة الى نموذج تحليلي اعده الباحث للأيفاء بمتطلبات هذه الدراسة . وقد استند هذا النموذج بدوره على نموذجين لغويين معروفين هما نموذج ستيفن ليفنسون (1983) ونموذج جورج يول (1996) . وقد استنتجت الدراسة الحالية ان الافتراضات المسبقة موجودة ومعبرة بقوة في كلام المرشحين وتشكل جزءا وافرا من هذا الكلام نظرا لحقيقة الأمر بأن الافتراضات المسبقة ادوات ثمينه تستخدم في الكلام لتوجيه المستمعين لأي تعبير او خطاب او نص تجاه المعنى المقصود . اظهرت الدراسة مدى عملية وقابلية النموذج المستخدم للتطبيق واستخدامه في التحليل وفي الختام فقد اشارت الدراسة الى اهمية الافتراض المسبق في التواصل اليومي والمؤسسات التربوية من خلال استعراض تطبيقاتها التربوية وتقديم بعض المقترحات لأغراض البحث الإضافي على اساس النتائج التي توصلت اليها الدراسة .

Chapter One: Introduction

1.1 Aims of the Study

In an attempt to find out answers to the questions above, this study aims at:

1. Demonstrating how the linguistic analysis of presuppositions triggers in American Presidential Debates 2020 can be instructive in shedding light on the linguistic behaviour of both presidential candidates and their hearers.
2. Identifying the types of presuppositions triggers which are found in Ninth Democratic Primary Debate, February 19, 2020.
3. Explaining the presuppositional meaning of each trigger found in this debate.
4. Pinpointing out the most dominant type of presuppositions triggers used in this debate.
5. Finding out the most frequently exploited types of presupposition triggers by graphs.

1.2 Hypotheses of the Study

In order to achieve the aims above, it is hypothesized that:

1. In the selected American Presidential Debates 2020, existential presupposition usually records the first rank among the other types of presupposition.
2. Factive verbs are the most dominant type of lexical presupposition triggers used by the presidential candidates.
3. Presidential candidates tend to use change-of-state verbs among the other types of lexical presupposition triggers when they speak about fateful issues that are needed to be tackled with all power and solidity.
4. Presidential candidates tend to use (Wh-questions) among the other types of questions involved under the category of structural presupposition triggers when a candidate insists on tackling an issue while another candidate opposes or refuses the ways of tackling that issue.
5. Counter-factual presuppositions play an essential role in capturing the hearers' attention and interests by the presidential candidates.

Chapter Two: Presupposition:

2.1 Theoretical Background

Presupposition can be informally defined "as a piece of information or a proposition whose truth is taken for granted in the utterance of a sentence

(Huang, 2014: 85). He (Ibid) adds that the main function of presupposition is to act as a precondition of some sort for the appropriate use of that sentence. This background assumption will remain in force when the sentence that contains it, is negated.

2.2 Types of Presupposition

2.2.1 Pragmatic Presuppositions

Many scholars started to study presupposition as a kind of pragmatic implication according to particular properties of presuppositions.

Many linguists have given their own definitions about presupposition and how to treat it as a semantic phenomenon. These definitions are different from one linguist to another. Stalnaker (1973: 200) points out that "A proposition B is a pragmatic presupposition of a speaker in a given context just in case the speaker assumes or believes that B, assumes or believes that his audience recognizes that he is making these assumptions or has these beliefs".

Akmajian et al (2001: 400-2) identify three types of phenomena that go under the label of pragmatic presupposition. They are:

1. It is a kind of speaker's assumptions (beliefs) about the speech context.
2. Pragmatic presupposition of a sentence is a set of conditions that have to be satisfied in order for the intended speech act to be appropriate in the circumstances, or to be felicitous.
3. Pragmatic presupposition is a shared background information between the speaker and the hearer.

These three types are going to be explained, discussed and clarified in more details below:

2.2.2 Semantic Presupposition

Levinson (1983: 199) points out that there are two main classes of semantic theories available to linguists at the present time. The first class is called the **truth-conditional** class of theories. This theory is very important. It alone makes clear predictions about what cannot be captured in semantics. The second theory is that which assumes that all semantic relations are definable in terms of **translations of sentences** into atomic concepts or semantic features.

Levinson (ibid: 157) illustrates that the simple view of semantic presupposition would be based on the following definition:

"A sentence (A) semantically presupposes another sentence (B) if:

- (a) In all situations where A is true, B is true.
- (b) In all situations where A is false, B is false".

He (ibid: 174) clarifies the notion of semantic entailment as follows:

"A semantically entails B (written $A \parallel -B$) if every situation that makes A true, makes B true (or: in all worlds in which A is true, B is true)".

He (ibid: 175) assumes a definition of negation by stating that "Where a sentence is neither true nor false, its negation is also neither true nor false". This definition can be illustrated by the following symbols:

"A sentence (A) semantically presupposes a sentence (B) if:

- (a) $A \parallel -B$
- (b) $\sim A \parallel -B$.

Negation is a useful way to draw a distinction between presupposition and entailment as in the following examples:

(1) John managed to stop in time.

From this example, we can infer:

- (2) John stopped in time.
- (3) John tried to stop in time.
- (4) John did not manage to stop in time.

Let us now turn to the attempts to incorporate presupposition within a semantic theory based on atomic concepts or semantic primes or features. The properties of such semantic theories are much less well defined than logical models, and to a certain extent this makes them more adaptable to handling new kinds of supposed semantic relations.

However, it is not difficult to show that any such attempt could be misplaced. For the aim of such theories is to tease apart our knowledge of the semantics of our language from our knowledge of the world, and to isolate the relatively small set of atomic concepts required for the description of the semantics alone. Semantics on this view is concerned with the context-independent, stable meanings of words and clauses, leaving to pragmatics those inferences that are special to certain context. To end up: semantic theories of presupposition are not viable for the simple reason that semantics is concerned with the specification of invariant stable meanings

that can be associated with expressions. Presuppositions are not invariant and they are stable, and they do not belong in any orderly semantics (Levinson, *ibid*: 203-4).

2.2 Presupposition Triggers

Presupposition has been associated with the use of a number of linguistic units such as words, phrases, and structures. These linguistic units have been used by many linguists as a source of presupposition known as presupposition triggers or lexical triggers. In other words, these presupposition triggers refer to what are called by Stalnaker (1973: 179) "presupposition-generating linguistic items", i.e. a presupposition trigger is a construction on item that indicates the existence of presupposition.

Yule (1996: 27-30) indicates that "in the analysis of how speaker's assumptions are typically expressed, presupposition has been associated with the use of a large number of words, phrases, and structures".

Yule considers these linguistic forms as indicators of **potential presupposition**, which can only become actual presupposition in the contexts with speakers. Basing on such indicators, Yule classifies presupposition triggers into the following types:

1. Existential Presupposition:

The existential presupposition is not only assumed to be presented in possessive constructions (for example, "your car" >> "you have a car"), but more generally in any definite noun phrase. By using any of the expressions like (the king of Sweden, the cat, the girl next door, the counting crows), the speaker is assumed to be committed to the existence of the entities named. Existential presupposition is "an assumption that someone or something, defined by use of a noun phrase, does exist" (*ibid*: 199).

2. Factive Presupposition:

A number of verbs such as (know, realize, regret, etc.) as well as phrases involving (be) with (aware, odd, glad, etc.) have factive presupposition, in the presupposed information followed by such verbs can be treated as a factive presupposition.

3. Lexical Presupposition:

There are a number of forms which may be best treated as the source of lexical presupposition. Generally speaking, in lexical presupposition, the use of one form with its asserted meaning is conventionally interpreted with the presupposition that another (non-asserted) meaning is understood. Each time you say that someone "managed" to do something, the asserted meaning is that the person succeeded in some way. When you say that someone "didn't manage", the asserted meaning is that the person didn't succeed. In both cases, however, there is a presupposition (non-asserted) that the person "tried" to do that something. So, "managed" is conventionally interpreted as **asserting** "succeeded" as **presupposing** "tried".

4. Structural Presupposition:

In this case, certain sentence structures have been analyzed as conventionally and regularly presupposing that part of the structure is already assumed to be true. We might say that speakers can use such structures to treat information as presupposed (i.e. assumed to be true) and hence to be accepted as true by the listener. For example, the **WH- question** construction in English as shown in the following examples, is conventionally interpreted with the presupposition that the information after the **WH-question** (i.e. "when" and "where") is already known to be the case:

(5) When did he leave? (>> he left)

(6) Where did you buy the bike? (>> you bought a bike)

5. Non-Factive Presupposition:

A non-Factive presupposition is one that is assumed not to be true. Verbs like (**dream, imagine, and pretend**) are used with the presupposition that what follows is not true.

(7) I dreamed that I was rich. (>> I wasn't rich)

(8) We imagined we were in London. (>> we were not in London)

(9) He pretends to be ill. (>> He is not ill)

6. Counter-factual Presupposition:

Counter-factual Presupposition is one that what is presupposed is not only non-true, but is the opposite of what is true or "contrary to fact". A

conditional structure is generally called a counter-factual, presupposes that the information in the "**if-clause**" is not true at the time of speaking.

- (10) If you were my friend, you would have helped me. (>> you are not my friend)

Counter-factual presupposition can be defined as "the assumption that certain information is the opposite of true" (ibid: 128).

Levinson (1983: 181-4) lists the following selection of presupposition triggers which he quotes from Karttuen (n.d.). Each trigger is going to be explained with ample examples in the below:

1. Definite Descriptions:

Definite descriptions (at least) in English are phrases formed with the definite article and a nominal restriction, for example, the green book, the book, the book you had with you yesterday, the book on the table; or with a possessive plus a nominal restriction, for example, Bill's mother, my book, his English book. This is a syntactic definition as it is mentioned in (Allott, 2010: 54) while the correct semantic characterization of definite descriptions is controversial. Bertrand Russell proposed the following theory of the meaning of singular definite descriptions "A sentence of the form "The F is G" means there is at least one 'F' and at most one 'F' and that 'F' is 'G'.

2. Factive Verbs:

A term used in the classification of verbs, referring to a verb taken a compliment clause, and where the speaker presupposes the truth of the proposition expressed in that clause. Factive verbs as **know, learn, regret, discover, hear, understand, notice, resent, accept, appreciate, tolerate, remember, and realize**, among others are called "factives" because they presuppose the truth of their compliment clause (Crystal, 2008: 184).

Levinson (1983: 181) provides the following examples about this types of triggers:

- (11) Martha regrets/ doesn't regret eating John's cake. (>> Martha ate John's cake)
- (12) John realized/ didn't realize that he was in debt. (>> John was in debt).

Factive verbs may include other classes than verbs, i.e., adjectives and noun constructions as it is mentioned in Yule (1996: 27-8) and the following examples are provided by Yule to fit the goal of explanation.

- (13) I wasn't aware that she was married. (>> she was married)

Levinson (ibid) provides other factive predicates such as: **be sorry that; be proud that; be in different that; be glad that; be sad that;**

Leech (1974: 304) classifies factive verbs into two types:

1. Pure Factives

2. Conditional Factives

Pure factives are predicates, such as: **realize; regret; etc.**, which are mainly associated with "that-clause" as it is in the following example:

- (14) I am sorry that he lost his job. (>> he lost his job)

3. 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) calls this type of verbs as "**implicative verbs**" and provides the following example:

- (15) John managed / did not manage to open the door. (>>John tried to open the door)

4. Change of state verbs:

Change of state verbs which are also called "**aspectual verbs**" is another type of presupposition triggers. Saeed (1977: 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 of their verbs in the meaning. This group of verbs involves the following verbs: **start; finish; cease; enter; come; go; arrive; leave; carry on;** and others.

5. **Interatives:** Crystal (2008: 257) defines interative as a term used to "refer

to an event which takes place repeatedly". Levinson (ibid: 182) states that interactive presupposition is associated with certain words, such as: "**another**" and "**again**".

This type of triggers involves the following words: **Anymore; returned; another time; to come back; restore; repeat; renew; review; etc.**

6. Verbs of Judging:

Levinson (ibid) states that this kind of implication is, arguably, not really presuppositional at all; for, unlike other presuppositions, the implications are not attributed to the speaker, so much as to the subject of the verb of judging.

- (16) Agatha accused/ didn't accuse Ian of plagiarism. (>>
"Agatha thinks" plagiarism is bad)

7. Temporal Clauses:

Temporal Clauses can be defined as "**subordinate clauses**" starting with lexical items such as (**before, after, during, whenever, as, while, etc..**) or when they have a semantic function of temporality, they can be used to trigger presupposition.

8. Cleft sentences:

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

8.1 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 relative-like dependent clause introduced by that, who, which, or zero**" (Biber et al, ibid: 959).

8.2 Wh-clefts:

The wh-cleft construction consists of a clause introduced by a wh-word, usually what followed by a form of the verb (be) and "the specially focused element, which may be of the following types: **a noun phrase, an infinitive clause, or a finite nominal clause** (Biber et al, ibid).

Levinson (ibid) calls "wh-cleft" construction as **pseudo-cleft** construction and argues that both constructions, i.e., the "It-cleft" and the "Wh-cleft" constructions share approximately the same presupposition.

9. Implicit clefts with stressed constituents:

Levinson (ibid: 183) states that the particular presuppositions which seem to arise from the two cleft constructions seem also to be triggered simply by heavy stress on a constituent, as shown in the following examples where upper-case characters indicate contrastive stress:

- (17) Linguistics was/ wasn't invented by **CHOMSKY**!
(>>someone invented linguistics)
(Cf. It was/ wasn't Chomsky that invented linguistics).

10. Comparisons and Contrasts:

Comparisons and contrasts may be marked by stress (or by other prosodic means), by particles like **too, back, in return, or by comparative constructions** (Levinson: ibid).

Marianne called Adolph a male chauvinist, and then HE insulted HER. (>>For Marianne to call Adolph a male chauvinist would be to insult him)

- (18) Adolph called Marianne a Valkyrie, and she complimented him back/ in return / too. (>>to call someone (or at least Marianne) a Valkyrie is to compliment them)

The comparative constructions take the form of (**Adjective (er) + than..** and (**As + Adjective + as**) as illustrated in the following examples:

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

11. Non-Restrictive Relative Clauses

Levinson (ibid:183-4) argues that although there are two main kinds of relative clauses, **restrictive and non-restrictive clauses** in English, only non-restrictive clauses trigger presupposition. He justifies his view point 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 the presuppositions:

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

12.Counter-factual conditionals:

A counter-factual presupposition trigger is one that what is presupposed is not only non-true, but is the opposite of what is true or "contrary to fact". A conditional structure is generally called a counter-factual conditional, presupposes that the information in the "**if-clause**" is not true at the time of speaking (Yule, 1996: 29).

Levinson (ibid) provides the following examples:

- (22) If Hannibal had only had twelve more elephants, the Romance languages would /would not this day exist.
(>>Hannibal didn't have twelve more elephants)

13.Questions:

Levinson (ibid:184) points out that questions will generally share the presuppositions of their assertive counterparts. It is necessary to distinguish different types of questions:

Yes/No questions will generally have various presuppositions, as in (66). These are the only kinds of presuppositions of questions that are invariant under negation.

Alternative questions, as in (67), presuppose the disjunction of their answers, but in this case non-vacuously.

WH-questions introduce the presuppositions obtained by replacing the WH-word by appropriate existentially quantified variable, e.g. **who** by **where** by somewhere, **how** by **somehow**, etc., as in (68). These presuppositions are not invariant to negation.

- (23) Is there a professor of linguistics at MIT?
(>>either there is a professor of linguistics at MIT or there is not)

2.3 How to test Presuppositions

Yule (1985: 117-8) points out that "one of the tests used to check for the presupposition underlying sentences involves negating a sentence with a particular presupposition and checking if the presupposition remains true. Whether you say "**my car is a wreck**" or the negative version "**my car is not a wreck**", the underlying presupposition (**I have a car**) remains true despite the fact that the two sentences have opposite meanings. This is called "**constancy under negations**" test for identifying a presupposition.

If someone says "**I used regret marrying him, but I don't regret marrying him now**", the presupposition (**I married him**) remained constant even though the verb "**regret**" changes from affirmative to negative".

Levinson (1983: 168) says that "The technical sense of presupposition is restricted to certain pragmatic inferences or assumptions that seen at least to be built into linguistic expressions and which can be isolated using specific linguistic tests especially traditionally **constancy under negation**".

Keenan (1971: 45) (cited in Brown and Yule, 1983: 29) describes the notion of logical presupposition in the following ways:

A sentence S logically presupposes a sentence S' just in case S logically implies S' and the negation of S also logically implies S'.

For example:

- (24) a. My uncle is coming home from Canada.
b. My uncle is not coming home from Canada.
c. I have an uncle.

Following Keenan's definition, we can say that (69 a) logically presupposes (69 c) because of **constancy under negation**.

In opposite with Keenan: Brown and Yule (1983: 30) argue that "it seems rather unnecessary to introduce the negative sentence (69 b) into consideration of the relationship between (69 a) and (69 c). Though it may not be common knowledge that the speaker has an uncle, this is what Grice (1981: 190) calls **noncontroversial information**. Moreover, since the speaker chose to say "**my uncle**" rather than "**I have an uncle and he.....**", we must assume he did not feel the need to assert the information. What he appears to be asserting is that this person is "**coming home from Canada**". Given this assertion, the idea that we should consider **the denial of this**

assertion in order to find out whether there is a presupposition in what the speaker has not asserted seems particularly counterintuitive".

In the same case, Palmer (1981: 167-8) states that there is, however, one serious problem with the negation test "It is possible to negate the sentence in order to deny the presupposition. Although "**John wasn't worried by his wife's infidelity**" is usually taken to presuppose that his wife was unfaithful, as shown by the extended sentence "**John wasn't married by his wife's infidelity, because she had not in fact been unfaithful**".

Chapter Three: Methodology

3.1 The Model of Analysis

Levinson (1983) and Yule (1996), whose taxonomy of presuppositions will be used as the model of analysis in this study, give an overall account of this pragmatic phenomenon. According to Yule (1996:27) in the analysis of how speaker's assumptions are typically expressed, presupposition has been associated with the use of a large number of words, phrase, and structures. Presuppositions can be classified according to the linguistic level on which they operate.

Levinson (1983: 174), following Strawson (1952), completes the list of existential presuppositions by adding the presuppositions of **singular terms** such as **proper nouns** and **popular names of people and places**.

The division of the category of **existential presuppositions** that will be adopted in the analysis of the data will be describes in this diagram:

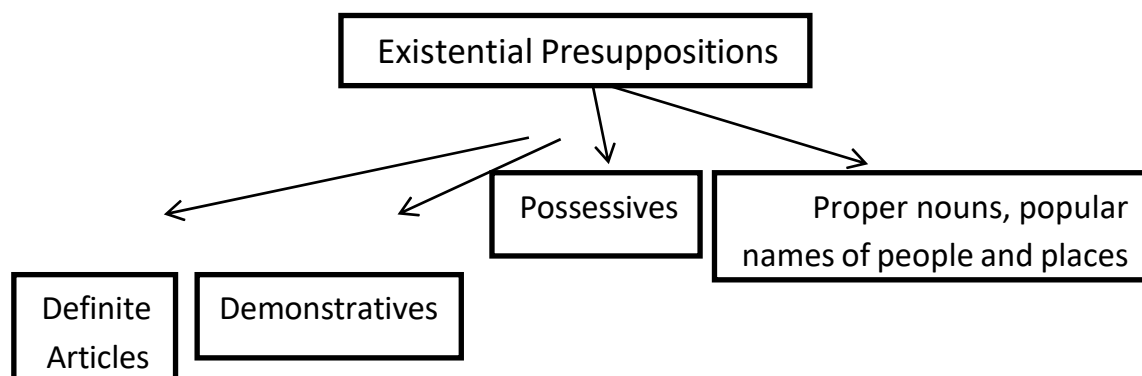


Figure (1): Divisions of Existential Presupposition

The second category in Yule's taxonomy is **Lexical Presupposition**. This category is named so because

the presuppositions triggered by its members come from the inherited content of these members even if they are uttered in isolation, i.e., without being part of the clause. In this study, the category of **lexical presupposition** will be described in the following diagram:

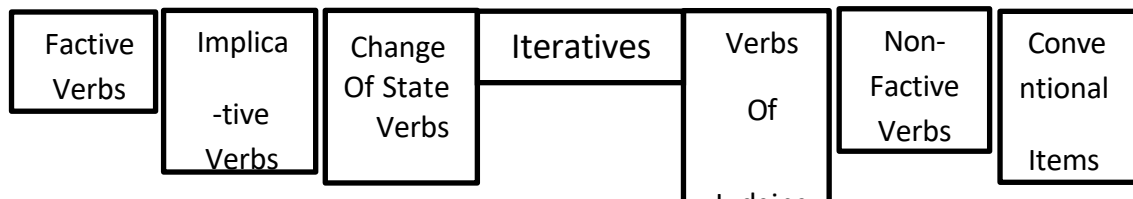


Figure (2): Divisions of Lexical Presupposition

The third and finally category of presuppositions which is identified in Yule's model is **structural presupposition**. This category operates on the clause level. In this study, the category of **structural presupposition** will be described in the following diagram:

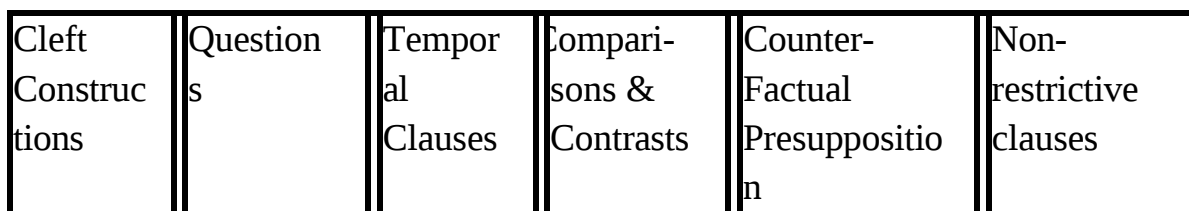
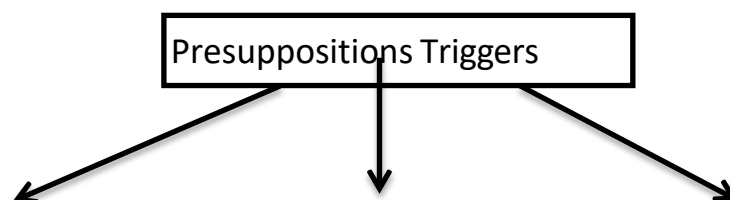


Figure (3): Divisions of Structural Presupposition

The comprehensive diagram of all the types of presupposition triggers which form the eclectic model formulated in this study is given below:



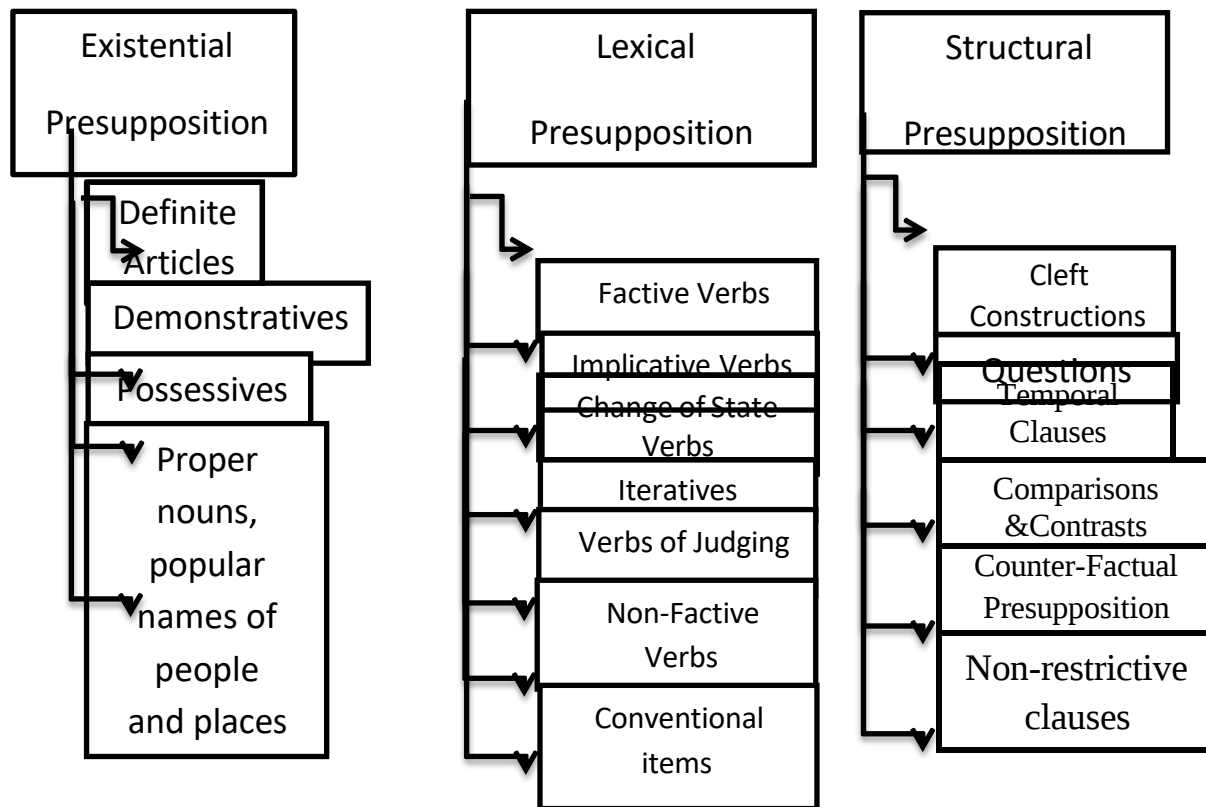


Figure (4): Major and Minor Types of Divisions of Presupposition In the study: The Eclectic Model (Adapted from Levinson (1983) and Yule (1996))

Chapter Four: Data Analysis and Findings

4.1 Data Analysis

4.1.1 Existential presupposition

Existential sentences derive their presuppositions from the grammatical structure of the noun phrase. The noun phrase has to be referential (i.e. has a specific reference to a specific entity) when it is said to have a presuppositional interpretation (topic). Rinehart (1982: 11) claims that a noun phrase can be interpreted as a topic only if it is referential and that existential presuppositions or referentiality can be taken into account as a topic condition for a noun phrase.

4.1.1.1 The Definite Article

The use of the definite article, as a subcategory of existential presuppositions, takes into account the existence of the following entities:

Senator Sanders:

"We're going to need **the largest voter turnout** in the history of the United States".

The utterance of this data was produced by Bernie Sanders to respond to a question that was asked by the moderator of the debate about how to defeat Donald Trump since Mayor Bloomberg argues that he will win the elections in November.

From this sample, we can notice the use of the definite article in some words such as **the largest voter, the history, the United States**. The use of the definite article presupposes that such entities as "largest voter "turnout" "history" and "United States" do exist. In the sample above, it is clear that existential presuppositions help the audience to understand that in order to defeat Donald Trump, the matter requires the citizens of the United States to go to the ball of boxes and give their votes in order to choose the right president who is suitable to the history of the United States as a great and strong country in the world.

4.1.1.2 Demonstratives

The use of the definite article is not the only linguistic makes which triggers existential presuppositions. The use of demonstratives such as 'this', 'that' and 'those' also motivates this type of presuppositions. In the samples under analysis, demonstratives are manifested, among others, in the following examples:

Mayor Bloomberg

"I am spending **that money** to get rid of Donald Trump, the worst president we have ever had"

In this sample, Bloomberg uses the demonstrative noun phrase "**that money**" to presuppose the existence of the specific money he had as a rich businessman.

The uses the demonstrative noun phrase here helps the hearers to understand and convince that Bloomberg spends his money on his campaigns so as to defeat Donald Trump who considers him as the worst president America has ever had.

4.1.1.3 Possessives

The third subcategory of existential presupposition is **possessive noun phrases**. Their occurrence is manifested in the data under analysis:

Senator Warren:

"That's when I met Mr. Estrada, one of **your neighbors**".

In this sample, Senator Warren uses the possessive noun phrase "**your neighbours**" to presuppose the existence of the entity she refers to, namely **Mr. Estrada**, who is one of the debate moderator's neighbours.

4.1.1.4 Proper Nouns and Popular Names of People and Places

The fourth and final subcategory of existential presupposition is **proper nouns and popular names of people and places**. Their occurrence is observed in the data under analysis:

Senator Sanders:

"In order to beat **Donald Trump**, we're going to need the largest voter turnout in the history of the **United States**".

Senator Sanders In the sample above uses the proper noun "**Donald Trump**" to presuppose the existence of such a person who is the former president of the United States, besides Senator Sanders uses a name of place "**United States**" to presuppose the information that such a place does exist in the real world, namely in North America and it consists of 50 states.

4.1.2 Lexical Presupposition

According to Yule (1996) and Levinson (1983), lexical presupposition include: factive verbs, non-factive verbs, implicatives verbs, change of state verbs, iteratives, verbs of judging, and conventional items. However, all these types of triggers have scored in the data under analysis in varying proportions depending on the topics discussed in the debate.

4.1.2.1 Factive Verbs

The use of factive verbs is not the only by which lexical presupposition can be triggered, but this subcategory has an important value among the other triggers of lexical presupposition since the use of verbs such as: **know, regret, realize, hear, see, etc.**, always presupposes that the information following these verbs is treated as a fact.

Senator Klobuchar:

"You **know**, I have been told as a woman, I have been told many times to wait my turn and to step up".

Senator Klobuchar in this sample uses the factive verb "**know**" to answer the question which is asked by the moderator of the debate about the way of the path to the White House and she comments on this question by stating that she has been told to wait her turn to speak in the debate, so, Klobuchar uses the verb **know** to presuppose the information that what follows the verb can be taken as a fact.

4.1.2.2 Non-Factive Verbs

As for non-factive verbs, no classical members such as: **pretend, imagine, dream**, which are used in Yule (1996), are used in the data. However, there are also many verbs that can be considered as non-factive verbs such as:

wish, think, suggest, hypothesize, suspect, doubt, expect, claim, etc. Few verbs such as "wish" and "think" as non-factive verbs have been noticed in this study.

Mayor Bloomberg:

"I **wish** it were that simple".

In this sample, Mayor Bloomberg interrupts the moderator of the debate when he says to the Mayor that he is going to ask a question about something else, Mayor Bloomberg interrupts him with the above utterance in which Mayor Bloomberg uses the non-factive verb "**wish**" to presuppose the information that what follows the verb is not true at the time of speaking. Bloomberg uses this verb to give a hint that the question will be difficult or not suitable to answer.

4.1.2.3 Implicative Verbs

This category can also be used to trigger lexical presupposition. This subcategory involves verbs such as "**manage**", "**forget**", "**avoid**" and "**happen**". Few occurrences of these verbs have been scored in the data of analysis so as to the kind of topics that were discussed in the debate under analysis.

Vice President Biden:

"Well, the fact... the fact of the matter is, he has not **managed** his city very, very well when he was there".

In this sample, Joe Biden uses the implicative verb "**manage**" to presuppose the information that Mayor Bloomberg did not succeed in the administering New York City in a suitable way, this is the asserting meaning of the verb while the presupposed meaning is that Mayor Bloomberg tried to administer New York City in a suitable way.

4.1.2.4 Change of State Verbs

Change of state verbs are another subcategory by which lexical presupposition can be triggered. State verbs such as: **start, finish, cease, take, enter, come, go, arrive, leave, carry on, continue, begin, and others** are used as presuppositional triggers. The following change of state verbs have been found in the data.

Senator Warren:

"I think we should **stop** all new drilling and mining on public lands and all offshore drilling".

In this sample, Senator Warren uses the verb "**stop**" to suggest the information that the process of drilling and mining on public lands began

from a long time ago and she intends to use such a verb to arouse the feelings that such a process should be stopped at present.

4.1.2.5 Verbs of Judging

Verbs of judging are another subcategory by which lexical presupposition can be triggered. This subcategory has an important feature that is, the implication in such presupposition triggers is not attributed to the speaker of the utterance so much as to the subject of the verb of judging. Verbs of judging involve verbs such as: **accuse, criticize, praise, scold, confess, apologize, blame, credit, justify, and excuse**. For occurrences of some verbs of this set have been noticed in the data.

Mayor Bloomberg:

"None of them **accuse** me of doing anything, other than maybe they didn't like a joke I told".

In this sample, Mayor Bloomberg uses the verb "**accuse**" to presuppose the information that the employers in his company and foundation did not think that he is very biased to women as the candidates in the debate claim.

Bloomberg goes on to clarify that matter is making agreements with women (employers) in the company according to the kind of jobs they do and on the basis of this, he paid to them their salaries so, there is no relation between this procedure and what the other candidates called "gender discrimination".

4.1.2.6 Iteratives

Iteratives are another subcategory that can be used to trigger lexical presupposition. Iterative items supply more than other types of lexical presupposition triggers. "**Again**" and "**another**" are the most regular members of this subcategory. What is also noteworthy about iteratives presuppositions is the distinct role of the bound morpheme "**re-**" in making such type of presuppositions in verbs such as: **renew**, **review**, **return**, **restore**, **redouble**, **etc.** Iterative items are illustrated in the following examples:

Senator Warren:

"I spent the next years making sure that would never happen **again**".

In this sample, Senator Warren uses the iterative item "**again**" when she talks about the problem of housing in the United States and how the property tax companies put high prices on housing insurance and oblige people to pay. Senator Warren also mentions the case of a person whose house has been confiscated by those companies. Accordingly, Elizabeth Warren uses the iterative item **again** to presuppose the information that the problem of confiscating people houses happens before and is repeated for the second time at the time of utterance.

4.1.2.7 Conventional Items

The seventh and final subcategory of lexical presupposition is conventional items. What is more important about this subcategory is that there are no fixed verbs or adverbs or other lexical items by which the presupposition can be triggered, otherwise the presupposition can be triggered according to the context in which some expressions take place and the meaning of presupposition can be seen as part of the conventional meaning of those expressions. Few occurrences of those conventional items have been noticed in the data.

Senator Sanders:

"That should not be the case when we got a half a million people
sleeping out on the street".

Senator Sanders in this sample uses the expressions "**sleeping out the street**" to presuppose the information that those people do not have

accommodations so as to the unfair division of wealth and income among people.

4.1.3 Structural Presuppositions

4.1.3.1 Cleft-constructions

4.1.3.1.1 It-clefts

It-cleft construction is basically realized by the pronoun "it" followed by a form of the verb "be" and by "the specially focused element". The specially focused element can take the following forms: **a noun phrase, a prepositional phrase, an adverbial phrase** and finally by a relative-like dependent clause introduced by **who, which, that, or zero**. Such type of cleft-constructions is illustrated in the following examples:

Senator Warren:

"**It is** time to have **a president who will** be on the side of working families and be willing to get out there and fight for them".

In this sample, Senator Warren uses the "it-clef" construction to presuppose the information that any president of the United States while this did not take care of working families or devote his life to help and serve them. The focused element in this utterance is "**a president**" which is around it, this utterance is uttered by the senator.

4.1.3.1.2 Wh-clefts

The Wh-cleft construction is basically realized by a **wh-word**, usually **what** followed by a form of the verb "be", and by the especially focused element. This especially focused element can take the following forms: **a noun phrase, an infinitive clause, or a finite nominal clause**. Such type of cleft-constructions is observed in the following examples:

Senator Sanders:

"**What we are** trying finally to do is to give **a voice** to people who after 45 years of work are not making a nickel more than they did 45 years ago".

In this sample, Senator Sanders uses the "wh-clef" construction to presuppose the information that he is very interested in doing everything that will keep decent life for retired people in the United States. The focused element here is "**a voice**" and it is used by Senator Sanders to convince the hearers to believe his speech.

4.1.3.2 Questions

4.1.3.2.1 Yes/No Questions

Yes/ no questions are sometimes called **closed questions** because there are only two possible answers: **yes** or **no**. Such type of questions is usually forming by one of these verbs: **Be, Do, Have, or a modal verbs**. It is unacceptable to ask a yes/no question without the use of one of these

verbs. Few occurrences of these have been observed in in the data under analysis as they are illustrated in the following examples:

Senator Sanders: "Can I finish?"

In this sample, Senator Sanders uses the modal verb "**can**" when he speaks about his plan to improve the policy of the medical care but suddenly interrupts by Pete Buttigieg. Sanders uses the modal verb "**can**" here to presuppose the information that if there is a chance to end his speech or not and to inform Buttigieg that his interruption is a kind of rudeness.

4.1.3.2.2 Wh-questions

The Wh-question constructions are usually interrupted with the presupposition that the information after the wh-form is already known to be true at the time of utterance. **Wh-questions** are available and recurrent in the debate under analysis. Consider the following examples:

Senator Sanders:

"**Where** is your home?"

In this sample, Bernie Sanders uses the wh-question "**where**" when he asks Mayor Bloomberg such a question which presupposes the information that Mayor Bloomberg has a home.

4.1.3.2.3 Rhetorical Questions

Rhetorical questions (henceforth **RQs**) are examples of utterances whose form do not match their function. They have the structure of a question but the force of an assertion. **Cummings (2010: 206)** states that **RQs** are old as language itself, therefore, there has been ample agreement and disagreement over exactly what they are or what they mean exactly.

Senator Sanders:

"**Do you think** I would support or anybody who supports me would be attacking union leaders?"

In the sample above, Sanders the above which seems to be a usual question that is needed to be answered, but context and speaker's intention are important to understand the reason beyond the saying such a question. Sanders uses this question which is called rhetorical question to presuppose the information that there is no expected answer to it even from the ordinary people. Bernie Sanders will not even think to attack union leaders.

4.1.3.3 Temporal Clauses

Temporal clauses are introduced by temporal conjunctions like 'before', 'after', 'during', 'when', 'while', 'as soon as', 'once', 'until', etc. The following examples are expressive in this respect:
Vice president Biden:

"The fact of the matter is, he has not managed his city very, very well **when** he was there".

In this example, Joe Biden uses the temporal clause "**when**" when he talks about Mayor Bloomberg when he was the mayor of New York City and according to Biden, Mayor Bloomberg did not succeed in administering New York in a perfect way. So, the use of the temporal clause here is to presuppose the information that what is signaled by it is assumed to be taken for granted.

4.1.3.4 Comparisons and Contrasts

The use of comparisons and contrasts is basically is basically intended to trigger presupposition. Few occurrences of comparisons and contrasts were detected in the data under analysis:

Senator Klobuchar:

"I think we need something **different than** Donald Trump".

In this sample, Senator Klobuchar uses the comparative construction "**different than**" to presuppose the information that the United States needs a president different from Trump in his decisions, plans, wisdom, etc., and she uses the comparative construction here to remind the audience that Donald Trump is the worst president that America has ever had so as to make the right choice in the next elections.

4.1.3.5 Counter-factual Presupposition

Counter-factual presupposition is basically realized by **if-clauses**. A conditional structure is generally called counter-factual presupposition and presupposed that the information in the **if-clause** is not true at the time of speaking. Such type of clauses is noticed in the following examples:

Mayor Bloomberg:

"**If I can get that done**, it will be great contribution to America and to my kids".

Mayor Bloomberg in this sample uses the conditional structure **if-clauses** to presuppose the information that what is mentioned in "if- clause",

is opposite to the fact. Bloomberg uses this structure to clarify that his chance to win the race to the White House is very little due to the existence of the other powerful candidates".

4.1.3.6 Non-Restrictive Clauses

In English grammar, there are two main kinds of relative clauses, **restrictive and non-restrictive clauses**. Only non-restrictive clauses can be used to trigger presupposition because the additional parenthetical information is not affected by the negation of the main verb outside the relative clause and this case gives rise to the trigger presupposition. What is also noteworthy about non-restrictive clauses is that they survive under negation test. Few occurrences of non-restrictive clauses have been observed in the data under analysis:

Senator Warren:

"I'd like to talk about who we're running against, **a billionaire who calls women "fat boards"**, I'm not talking about Donald Trump. I'm taking about Mayor Bloomberg".

In this sample, Senator Warren uses the non-restrictive clause "**who calls women "fat boards"**" to presuppose the information that Mayor Bloomberg calls women "fat boards". She uses such an additional information in order to arouse the feelings of the audience and women's rights organizations to deal with such a case.

4.2 Data Findings

After the process of data analysis, a statistical account of the main and minor types of presuppositions is made in order to obtain data results or findings. The account involves the number of occurrences and relative frequency of each main type with respect to the other main types.

4.2.1 Existential Presuppositions

Through the analysis of the data in this chapter, it is made clear that the number of occurrences of existential presuppositions is 753, which constitutes %69.33 of the total number of all types of presuppositions in the samples under analysis. By this percentage, existential presupposition is the most frequent type of presuppositions and is recognizable in America Presidential Debates 2020. The high frequency of existential presuppositions is due to the fact that presidential candidates use the linguistic properties of nonphrases to be clear with their supporters. The components of existential presuppositions was progressive from proper nouns and popular names of persons and places to define article and

possessives making the presuppositions of demonstratives the most frequent type of existential presuppositions.

The wide range of definiteness application with which demonstratives are characterized makes their rate the first among the other definite descriptions. Demonstratives are flexible linguistic determiners or pronouns that point to a particular noun or to the noun they replace. The number of occurrences of demonstratives is 300, which makes up %39.84 in relation to the other types of existential presupposition.

The second position is held by possessives with 203 occurrences, representing %26.95 of the total number of existential presupposition. The third position is held by the definite article with 175, representing %23.24 of the total number of existential presupposition.

As for proper nouns and popular names of persons and places, they have the frequency of 75, which constitutes %9.96 of existential presupposition. The high frequency of demonstratives, compared with possessives, proper nouns and popular names of persons and places, and the definite article, due to the fact that demonstratives are considered as an alternative of the definite article.

It is mentioned above that existential presuppositions have the highest frequency in relation to the other main types of presuppositions (i.e. Lexical and structural) in the data under analysis. This indicates that American presidential candidates search for definiteness and decisiveness. For presidential candidates, the use they make out of existential presupposition is doubled. They pin-point and confirm a referent, on the one hand, and, on the other, express a definite fact about the existence of this referent. For example:

Vice President Biden:

"I was listed as **the poorest man in Congress**".

In this sample, the presuppositions "**the poorest**" and "**Congress**" are unchangeable and, simultaneously; there is a powerful evidence that associated with the existence of such entities. "**The poorest**" here refers to Joe Biden himself and thus presupposes that such a person does exist in the real world while "**Congress**" is a name of place that refers to the bicameral legislature of the federal government of the United States. It consists of two chambers: The House of Representatives and the Senate, and thus presupposes the information that such a place does not exist.

Table (1): Number of Occurrences and Relative Frequency of the Types of Existential Presupposition

Existential Presuppositions	Number of Occurrences	Relative Frequency
Demonstratives	300	%39.84
Possessives	203	%26.94
Definite Article	175	%23.24
Proper nouns, popular of persons and places	75	%9.96
Total	753	%100

4.2.2 Lexical Presuppositions

Lexical presupposition triggers are the most adduced type of presuppositions which drew the attention of semanticists and pragmaticians. Lexical presupposition seems to be matched to popular words or aspects of surface structure in general (Levinson, 1983: 179).

Lexical presuppositions have been ranked the second position among the main types of presuppositions in the data under analysis. It has the frequency of 183 out of 1086 instances of all the types of presuppositions registered in the data. This makes up %16.85 of the main types of presuppositions. It may be that American presidential candidates through their interaction with their supporters seek facts as a means of conviction and impact on the hearers. It is made clear in this chapter that lexical presuppositions are associated, in a way or another, with declaring facts.

Within the domain of lexical presuppositions, the use of **factive verbs** is brought forward. It ranks the first position among the minor types of lexical presuppositions with 91 occurrences, which makes up %49.72 of the total number of lexical presuppositions.

The second position in the statistical hierarchy of lexical presuppositions is taken by **change of state verbs**. Presuppositions of change of state verbs have 39 occurrences, which represent %21.31 of the total number of lexical presuppositions.

The third position is held by **iteratives** with 20 occurrences, representing %10.92 of the total number of lexical presuppositions.

The fourth position is ranked by **implicative verbs** with 19 occurrences, representing %10.82 of the total number of lexical presuppositions.

As for **non-factive verbs**, they have the frequency of 7 occurrences only, which constitutes %3.82 of lexical presupposition, so they ranked the fifth position.

The sixth position is held by **conventional items** with 4 occurrences, representing %2.18 of the total of lexical presuppositions.

The seventh (final) position is ranked the by **verbs of judging** with 3 occurrences only, which constitutes %1.63 of the total number of lexical presuppositions.

Table (2): Number of Occurrences and Relative Frequency of the Types of Lexical Presuppositions.

Lexical Presuppositions	Number of Occurrences	Relative Frequency
Factive verbs	91	%49.72
Change of state verbs	39	%21.31
Iteratives verbs	20	%10.92
Implicative verbs	19	%10.38
Non-factive verbs	7	%3.82
Conventional item	4	%2.18
Verbs of judging	3	%1.63
Total	183	%100

4.2.3 Structural Presuppositions

According to Yule (1996: 28), certain sentences structures can be used regularly and conventionally to presuppose that part of the structure is already assumed to be true.

Structural presuppositions stand in the third (final) position in relation to the other main types of presuppositions with 150 occurrences, representing %13.81 of the total number of presuppositions registered in the data under analysis. Within the domain of structural presupposition, the use of **temporal clauses** is brought forward. It ranks the first position among

the minor types of structural presuppositions with 57 occurrences. This makes up %38 of the total number of structural presuppositions.

The second position in the statistical hierarchy of structural presuppositions is taken by **questions** with 31 occurrences, representing %20.66 of structural presuppositions. Within questions, yes/ no questions are the most frequent type of questions with 17 occurrences, which constitutes %54.83 of the total number of questions and %11.33 of the total number of structural presuppositions. Wh-questions have the frequency of 11 occurrences, which constitutes %35.48 of the total number of questions and %7.33 of structural presuppositions. Rhetorical Questions have the frequency of 3 occurrences, which represent %9.67 of the total number of questions and %2 of the total number of structural presuppositions.

The third position is held by **counter-factual presupposition** with 26 occurrences, representing %17.33 of total number of structural presuppositions.

The fourth position is ranked by **cleft-constructions** with 21 occurrences, representing %14 of structural presuppositions. Within cleft-constructions, **It-clefts** are the frequent type of cleft-constructions with 14 occurrences, which constitutes %66.66 of the total number of cleft-constructions and %9.33 of the total number of structural presuppositions. Wh-clefts have the frequency of 7 occurrences, which constitutes %33.33 of the total number of cleft-constructions and %4.66 of total number of structural presuppositions.

The fifth position is held by **comparisons and contrasts** with 11 occurrences, representing %7.33 of total number of structural presuppositions.

The sixth (final) position is held by **non-restrictive clauses** with 4 occurrences, which represents %2.66 of the total number of structural presuppositions.

Table (3): Number of Occurrences and Relative Frequency of the Types of Structural Presuppositions.

Structural Presuppositions	Number of Occurrences	Relative Frequency
Temporal clauses	57	%38

Questions	31	%20.66
counter-factual presupposition	26	%17.33
cleft-constructions	21	%14
comparisons and contrasts	11	%7.33
non-restrictive clauses	4	%2.66
Total	150	%100

The main types of presuppositions investigated in the Ninth American Presidential Debate 2020 under analysis are also illustrated in Table (4) below in terms of their numbers of occurrences and their relative frequency:

Table (4): Number of Occurrences and Relative Frequency of the Main Types of Presuppositions.

Types of Presuppositions	Number of Occurrences	Relative Frequency
Existential Presupposition	753	%69.33
Lexical Presupposition	183	%16.85
Structural Presupposition	150	%13.82
Total	1086	%100

Chapter Five: Conclusions, Recommendations And Suggestions for Further Research

5.1 Conclusions

The following conclusions are arrived at as a result of the theoretical and practical sides of the study:

1. Presuppositions are strongly present and expressive in the speech of American presidential candidates. They constitute a plentiful part of this speech due to the fact that presuppositions are valuable tools which speakers use to guide the recipient of an utterance, discourse or text towards its intended meaning.
2. In the selected American presidential debate 2020, presidential candidate, in order to be in direct contact and friction with their supporters, they intend to mention their identities, qualifications, jobs, friends, personal properties, names of places and states, plans to develop something, opinions to resolve a specific problem, ...etc. All these terms are classified under the category of existential presupposition and consume most of the debate time. Accordingly, hypothesis no.1, which states that "In the selected American Presidential Primary Debate 2020, existential presuppositional usually records the first rank among the other types of presuppositions is verified.
3. Presidential candidates tend to mention facts and evidences during the debate so as to be in a high degree of responsibility in front of their supporters and to prove their courage about their about the information

mentioned in these facts and evidences. These facts and evidences can be expressed by some verbs such as: "realize", "regret", "know", "hear", "see", "cause", "become",etc. These verbs are factive verbs which are a subcategory of lexical presuppositions triggers and are used amply among the other types of lexical presupposition by the candidates. Accordingly, hypothesis no. 2, which states that "Factive verbs are used by the presidential candidates", is proved.

4. Presidential candidates always discuss outstanding problems or issues that are directly related to the future of the United States. These problems or issues are characterized by being occurred in the past and continued to the present time without any clear solutions. So, each candidate (as part of his/ her election programme) must present convincing solutions to these problems. These problems are expected by verbs such as: "stop:", "continue", "begin", "change", "cease", "finish", ...etc. These verbs are called change-of-state verbs which are a subcategory of lexical presupposition triggers and are used by the candidates among the other types of lexical presupposition. Consequently, hypothesis no.3, which states that "presidential candidates tend to use change-to-state-verbs among the other types of lexical presupposition triggers when they speak about fateful issues that are needed to be tackled with all power and solidarity", is proved.

5. As mentioned above, each candidate must present convincing solutions to some outstanding problems and begin to defend his / her solution as well as clarify the possible ways to make these solutions practicable. However, it happens during the debate that there is another candidate opposes or refuses these solutions and begins to ask questions such as: "What is the reason beyond choosing this solution?", "How much this solution does cost our economics?", "Where and when this or that solution will take place?", "Why this solution is suitable to some social ranks than others?", etc. As a result of these questions, the candidate behind these solutions answers these questions and insists on defending his/ her solutions. It is noticeable that these questions begin with what are called "Wh-words". These Wh-questions" are considered to be a part of questions which are involved under the category of structural presuppositions. Accordingly, hypothesis no. 4, which states that "presidential candidates intend to use wh-questions among the other types

of questions involved under the category of structural presupposition triggers when a candidate insists on tackling an issue while another candidate opposite opposes or refuses the ways of tackling that issue", is validated.

6. A conditional structure is usually used by presidential candidates in order to draw the audience's attention towards the false information mentioned in "if-clause". Presidential candidates resort to use such a tactical style when they are accused of being involved in a social scandal or a national security issue. As a result, they use counter-factual conditional presuppositions to earn the hearers' solidarity and sympathy that the information mentioned in the "if-clause" is not correct at the time of speaking. Consequently, hypothesis no.5, which states that "counter-factual presuppositions play an essential role in capturing the hearers' attention and interests by the presidential candidates", is proved.

7. A new type of questions is detected in this study is added to the types of question subcategory which is in turn involved under the category of structural presupposition. The new type of questions is called **rhetorical questions**. What makes rhetorical questions distinguishable from the other types of questions is that they are not asked, and or not understood, as ordinary information-seeking questions, but as making some kind of claim, or assertion, an assertion of the opposite polarity to that of the question.

8. The study shows the applicability and workability of the developed model for analyzing presupposition triggers in the selected American presidential debate 2020.

References

- Akmajian, A., Demers, R.A., Farmer, A.K., Harnish, R.M., et al. (2001). Linguistics: An Introduction to Language and Communication. Cambridge, MIT Press.
- Allott, N. (2010). Key Terms in Pragmatics. London: Continuum International Publishing Group.
- Biber, D., Johanson, S., Leech, G., Conrad, S. and Fineman, E. (1999). Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English. London: Longman.
- Crystal, D. (2008). A Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics. (6th ed.). Oxford: Blackwell.

- Huang, Y. (2014). Pragmatics. (2nd). OUP.
- Keenan, E. (1971). Two Kinds of Presupposition in Natural Language. In Fillmore and Langendoen (1971), Studies in Linguistic Semantics. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.
- Leech, G. (1974). Semantics. Middlesex: Penguin Books Ltd.
- Levinson, S. C. (1983). Pragmatics. CUP.
- Palmer, F. (1981). Semantics. Cambridge. Cambridge University Press.
- Saeed, J. (1977). Semantics. Oxford: Blackwell Publishers.
- Yule, G. (1985). The Study of Language. (1st ed.). CUP.
- (1996). Pragmatics. (1st ed.). OUP.