



# مجلة الدراسات والبحوث التربوية

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أ. محمد سعد إبراهيم عوض

### التعريف بالمجلة

تصدر مجلة الدراسات والبحوث التربوية عن مركز العطاء للاستشارات التربوية- دولة الكويت كل أربعة شهور، وهي مجلة علمية دورية محكمة بإشراف هيئة تحرير وهيئة علمية تضم نخبة من الأساتذة، وتسعى المجلة للإسهام في تطوير المعرفة ونشرها من خلال طرح القضايا المعاصرة في مختلف التخصصات التربوية، والاهتمام بقضايا التجديد والإبداع، ومتابعة ما يستجد في مختلف مجالات التربية؛ وتقوم بعض قواعد المعلومات الدولية بتوثيق أبحاث المجلة لديها، ومنها: Dar Almandumah & Shamaa.

### أهداف المجلة

تهدف المجلة إلى دعم الباحثين في مختلف التخصصات التربوية من خلال توفير وعاء جديد للنشر يلبي حاجات الباحثين داخل الكويت وخارجها. ويمكن تحديد أهداف المجلة بشكل تفصيلي في الأهداف الأربعة التالية:

1. المشاركة الفاعلة مع مراكز البحث العلمي لإثراء حركة البحث في المجال التربوي .
2. استنهاض الباحثين المتميزين للإسهام في طرح المعالجات العلمية المتعمقة والمبتكرة للمستجدات والقضايا التربوية.
3. توفير وعاء لنشر الأبحاث العلمية الأصيلة في مختلف التخصصات التربوية .
4. متابعة المؤتمرات والندوات العلمية في مجال العلوم التربوية.

### مجالات النشر في المجلة

تهتم مجلة الدراسات والبحوث التربوية بنشر الدراسات والبحوث التي لم يسبق نشرها في مختلف التخصصات التربوية، على أن تتصف بالأصالة والجدة، وتتبع المنهجية العلمية، وتراعي أخلاقيات البحث العلمي. كما تنشر المجلة ملخصات رسائل الماجستير والدكتوراه ذات العلاقة بمختلف التخصصات التربوية، والمراجعات العلمية، وتقارير البحوث والمراسلات العلمية القصيرة، وتقارير المؤتمرات والمنتديات العلمية، والكتب والمؤلفات المتخصصة في التربية ونقدها وتحليلها.

## القواعد العامة لقبول النشر في المجلة

1. تقبل المجلة نشر البحوث باللغتين العربية والإنجليزية وفقاً للمعايير التالية:

- توافر شروط البحث العلمي المعتمد على الأصول العلمية والمنهجية المتعارف عليها في كتابة البحوث الأكاديمية في مجالات التربية المختلفة.
  - أن تحتوي الصفحة الأولى من البحث على:
    - اسم الباحث ودرجته العلمية والجامعة التي ينتمي إليها.
    - البريد الإلكتروني للباحث.
    - ملخص للبحث باللغة العربية والإنجليزية في حدود (150) كلمة.
    - الكلمات المفتاحية بعد الملخص.
  - ألا يزيد عدد صفحات البحث عن (30) صفحة متضمنة الهوامش والمراجع.
  - أن تكون الجداول والأشكال مُدرجة في أماكنها الصحيحة، وأن تشمل العناوين والبيانات الإيضاحية الضرورية، ويُراعى ألا تتجاوز أبعاد الأشكال والجداول حجم الصفحة.
  - أن يكون البحث ملتزماً بدقة التوثيق حسب دليل جمعية علم النفس الأمريكية APA الإصدار السادس، وحسن استخدام المصادر والمراجع، وتثبيت مراجع البحث في نهايته.
  - أن يكون البحث خالياً من الأخطاء اللغوية والنحوية والإملائية.
  - أن يلتزم الباحث بالخطوط وأحجامها على النحو التالي:
    - اللغة العربية: نوع الخط (Sakkal Majalla)، وحجم الخط (14).
    - اللغة الإنجليزية: نوع الخط (Times New Roman)، وحجم الخط (14).
    - تكتب العناوين الرئيسية والفرعية بحجم (16) غامق (Bold).
    - أن تكون المسافة بين الأسطر (1.15) بالنسبة للبحوث باللغة العربية، وتكون المسافة بين الأسطر (1.5) بالنسبة للبحوث باللغة الإنجليزية.
    - تترك مسافة (2.5) لكل من الهامش العلوي والسفلي والجانبين.
2. ألا يكون البحث قد سبق نشره أو قُدم للنشر في أي جهة أخرى.
3. تحتفظ المجلة بحقها في إخراج البحث وإبراز عناوينه بما يتناسب وأسلوبها في النشر.
4. ترحب المجلة بنشر ما يصلها من ملخصات الرسائل الجامعية التي تمت مناقشتها وإجازتها في مجال التربية، على أن يكون الملخص من إعداد صاحب الرسالة نفسه.
5. بالمجلة باب لنشر موضوعات تهتم المجتمع التربوي يكتب فيه أعضاء التحرير.

## إجراءات النشر في المجلة

1. ترسل الدراسات والبحوث وجميع المراسلات باسم رئيس تحرير مجلة الدراسات والبحوث التربوية على الإيميل التالي: [submit.jser@gmail.com](mailto:submit.jser@gmail.com)
2. يرسل البحث إلكترونياً بخطوط متوافقة مع أجهزة (IBM)، بحيث يظهر في البحث اسم الباحث ولقبه العلمي، ومكان عمله.
3. يُرفق ملخص البحث المراد نشره في حدود (100-150 كلمة) سواء كان البحث باللغة العربية أو الإنجليزية، مع كتابة الكلمات المفتاحية الخاصة بالبحث (Key Words).
4. يرفق مع البحث موجز للسيرة الذاتية للباحث.
5. في حالة قبول البحث مبدئياً يتم عرضه على مُحكِّمين من ذوي الاختصاص في مجال البحث، لإبداء آرائهم حول مدى أصالة البحث وقيمه العلمية، ومدى التزام الباحث بالمنهجية المتعارف عليها، وتحديد مدى صلاحية البحث للنشر في المجلة من عدمها.
6. يُخطر الباحث بقرار صلاحية بحثه من عدمها خلال شهر من تاريخ استلام البحث.
7. في حالة ورود ملاحظات من المحكمين تُرسل إلى الباحث لإجراء التعديلات اللازمة، على أن يعاد إرسال البحث بعد التعديل إلى المجلة خلال مدة أقصاها شهر.
8. تؤول جميع حقوق النشر للمجلة.
9. لا تلتزم المجلة بنشر كل ما يرسل إليها.
10. المجلة لا ترد الأبحاث المنشورة إليها سواء كانت منشورة أو غير قابلة للنشر، وللمجلة وإدارتها حق التصرف في ذلك.

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## الافتتاحية

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم، عليه نتوكل وبه نستعين، نحمده سبحانه كما ينبغي أن يحمد ونصلي ونسلم على أشرف المرسلين سيدنا محمد وعلى آله وأصحابه والتابعين وبعد،،،

يشهد العالم ثورة معلوماتية كبرى منذ منتصف القرن الماضي بسبب التطور السريع والهائل لتكنولوجيا الإعلام والاتصال، وقاد هذا إلى تغير العديد من المفاهيم والأسس داخل المجتمع، فلم تعد المعدات والآلات الثقيلة ورأس المال الأدوات الرئيسية للنشاط الاقتصادي، إذ حلت محلها المعرفة التي أصبحت المحرك الأساسي للنشاط الاقتصادي والفرد في كل المجتمعات، وقد أدى تزايد قيمة المعرفة في العصر الحالي إلى أن أصبحت هي الطريق نحو مجتمع المعرفة الذي تتنافس الدول في تحقيقه.

وقد جعل ذلك الدول المتقدمة تنفق حوالي (20%) من دخلها القومي في استيعاب المعرفة، ويستحوذ التعليم على نصف هذه النسبة، كذلك تنفق المنظمات الصناعية والتجارية في هذه الدول ما لا يقل عن (5%) من دخلها الإجمالي في التنمية المهنية للعاملين بها، وتنفق ما يتراوح بين (3%-5%) من دخلها الإجمالي في البحث والتنمية.

ويعد البحث العلمي الوسيلة الرئيسية لإيجاد المعرفة وتطويرها وتطبيقها في المجتمع، كما يشكل الركيزة الأساسية للتطور العلمي والتقني والاقتصادي، ويساهم في رقي الأمم وتقدمها، وهو بمثابة خطوة للابتكار والإبداع، ويمثل البحث العلمي إحدى الركائز الأساسية لأي تعليم جامعي متميز، ويعد من أهم المعايير التي تعتمدها الجهات العلمية في تصنيف وترتيب الجامعات سواء على المستوى المحلي أو القومي أو العالمي؛ ويقاس التقدم العلمي لبلد من البلدان بمدى الناتج البحثي والعلمي مقارنةً بالدول الأخرى.

ويسر مجلة الدراسات والبحوث التربوية أن تقدم لقراءها هذا العدد، وتتقدم أسرة المجلة بالشكر إلى جميع الباحثين الذين ساهموا بأبحاثهم في هذا العدد، وتجدد دعوتها لجميع الباحثين للالتفاف حول هذا المنبر الأكاديمي بمساهماتهم العلمية. وندعو الله عز وجل السداد والتوفيق.

رئيس التحرير

أ.د/ محسن حمود الصالحي

تخلي أسرة تحرير المجلة مسؤوليتها عن أي انتهاك لحقوق الملكية الفكرية، والآراء والأفكار الواردة في الأبحاث المنشورة لا تلزم إلا أصحابها جميع الحقوق محفوظة لمجلة الدراسات والبحوث التربوية © 2020



## The Persuasive Use of Presupposition: A Pragmatic Study of Obama's Inaugural Speech

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**Abstract:** Pragmatics has a lot of tools such as presupposition. Presupposition represents a fundamental role in the process of communication in general and in political speech in particular. Politicians tend to employ presupposition to accomplish various aims. Based on Barack Obama's' inaugural speech, January, 2009, this paper is concerned with analyzing the persuasive use of presupposition at both existential, lexical and structural levels, for the aim of exploring how Obama has succeeded in achieving his real political goals by employing presupposition willing to provide a participation to comprehend political speeches. This paper adopts Levinson Model of Presupposition Triggers (1983) as the analysis tool for the ex-president Barack Obama's inaugural speech in 2009. The taxonomy of presupposition has been analyzed to figure out the function of each type. Analyzing Obama's inaugural address is really great, because he was the first African-American president of the USA and who confronted great economic political and social problems both in the USA and the rest of the world and his speech must reflect his concern with these issues to get domestic and international support. As a conclusion, presupposition has been employed in political speech for the purpose of persuasion and to gain the audience's support to the side of the speaker thus he can achieve his intentional goals.

**Key Words:** Presupposition, Barack Obama, Political Speech.

## Introduction:

Jucker (1997, p. 121) states that political speech is characterized by its trial to have the audience accept the speaker's point of view through the employment of different strategies. Therefore, language becomes so crucial to politicians who depend fundamentally on it to be their gate to be in touch with people during their campaigns, elections, inauguration, or governance (Taiwo, 2009). Furthermore, Moreover, David (2014, p.164) believes that the language of politics is the Language of the power of influencing thought, controlling people's behavior, and molding their ideology. Also, Beard (2000) claims that "language of politics helps us to understand how language is used by those who wish to gain power, those who wish to exercise power and those who wish to keep power".

## Presupposition:

In pragmatics, presupposition refers to the implied presumption about a background belief relevant to an utterance whose truth is taken for granted by both the speaker and the listener. Presupposition is defined as "the common ground" implanted in an utterance that is taken for granted by all the participants of a discourse (Levinson, 1983, p.3). Presupposition also refers to the embedded assumptions stuck to the direct meaning of a text or an utterance which is taken for granted (Richardson, 2007, p.63). Furthermore, Hudson (2000, p.321) states that presupposition has a vital role in making and understanding an utterance. While, Levinson (1997, p.186) points out that one of presupposition's main features is that it is accountable in the context where it is used. For example: "When did John leave?" presupposes that John left. Whereas, Widdowson (1996, p.63) illustrates that presupposition is associated with the implied meaning by the speakers and thus the same utterance may have different meanings if uttered by different speakers, in different situations, to different audience. According to Zare (2012, p.336), presupposition is defined as "one of the properties of language which impinges on readers or listeners' understanding of facts and events through using subtle linguistic devices and constructions is considered an argumentative concept in CDA". Also, Khaleel (2010) clarifies that the concept of presupposition was first introduced by the prominent German logician Frege in 1892 and that it refers to "the

implicit information of a proposition embedded in a sentence or an utterance. Presupposition, based on the common ground principle of a conversation at a particular time, is the set of propositions that the participants in that conversation at that time equally assume to be taken for granted and not subject to any further discussion or argument. In simple words, to presuppose something is to assume that it is commonly presumed to be true by the two parties. The common ground depicts a set of worlds in which all of the propositions in the common ground are true. When uttered forcefully, sentences are meant to update the common ground. If the sentence is approved by the participants, the proposition it expresses is added to the common ground. Updating is made by removing false propositions and keeping true ones. Sentences can have pragmatic presuppositions in the sense of imposing certain requirements on the common ground. A sentence like "It was Margaret who broke the keyboard" presupposes that someone broke the keyboard (Then it asserts that Margaret broke the keyboard) then common ground includes the proposition that someone broke the keyboard. One natural source of pragmatic presuppositions may be semantic presuppositions associated with the sentence (Fintel, 2000, p.49). In addition, Stalnaker (1974, p. 447) believes that presupposition is mainly a characteristic of the addresser not of the utterances. He also states that one must differentiate between what is asserted and what is presupposed in a sentence. For example, the sentence "Sam regrets that he voted for Nixon" presupposes that Sam voted for Nixon and asserts that he feels bad about it (p. 457).

Presupposition can be employed as a tool of avoidance because it let users of language not say all information and details related to certain topic, "if we had to spell out all the details every time we, then communicating would be an extremely lengthy and tedious" (Finch, 2000, p.165).

### **Entailment and Presupposition:**

Linguists have acknowledged that natural languages put forward the means to make a distinction between the basic point of an utterance, its assertive content, and information that should be considered as background information for the participants to the conversation, so-called presuppositions. Entailment refers to the relationship between two utterances where the truth of one (a) necessitates the truth of the other (b). For example, (a) "The King was

assassinated", entails (b) "The King is dead". If sentence (b) is false, then sentence (a) must be false too, and vice versa. Entailment is different from implicature where the truth of one sentence proposes the truth of the other but does not necessitate it. Also, entailment is different from presupposition where the truth of what one is presupposing is taken for granted. Negation is the best test to make distinction between entailment and presupposition (Blackburn & Bos, 1999, pp. 85-97).

### Test for verifying presupposition:

The process of differentiating between an entailment and a presupposition can be conducted through the test of negation, question and conditionals. Presuppositions can be verified by using the constancy under negation, question formation, conditional principles and modals such as may, perhaps, might, should, and must (e.g. John must stop smoking). According to this test, only semantic presuppositions remain true after negation, question and conditionals. In case of negation, the conventional meaning of the sentence (the truth) is affected but the presupposition is left untouched (e.g. Tom did not regret leaving the party), while modals affect modality of the sentence and also leave the presupposition unaffected (e.g. The king of Mally may be bald) and in the case of question forming, the speech act is changed from assertion to question but the truth value of the sentence is kept true thus the presupposition is left untouched too (e.g. Does Tom regret leaving the party), (Blackburn & Bos, 2005, p.93). In other words, presuppositions should not be affected by negation, question formation, conditional or modal. Likewise, Verschueren (1978, p.127) asserts, that some pragmatic presuppositions do not stay constant under negation. In other words, pragmatic presuppositions and their negated counterparts do not presuppose the same meaning. For example:

- John's brother has not come back from Nigeria .
- John has a brother (presupposition).
- John's brother has just come back from Nigeria (Negation).
- John has a brother (still presupposes).
- Has John's brother just come back from Nigeria? (Question).
- John has a brother (still presupposes).

- If John's brother has just come back from Nigeria, he would have taken a rest (Conditional).
- John has a brother (still presupposes).

The first sentence (1) presupposes the second one, and the presupposition will be proved to be true if it remains constant under negation, as proved in sentences (3) and (4), as well as under question as proved by sentences (5) & (6) and under conditional as proved by sentences (7) and (8). On the contrary, the presupposition will not be true if it is changed when it is tested.

### **Classifications of Presupposition Triggers:**

The efforts of linguists were devoted to render taxonomy of presupposition triggers. Karttunen (1971) has categorized thirty-one genres of presupposition. After that, Levinson (1983) has listed three general groups of presupposition triggers namely existential, lexical and structural. While Yule (2010) has classified presupposition triggers into six types, containing: existential, lexical, structural, factive, non-factive and counter-factual triggers.

### **Levinson's Model of Presupposition Triggers:**

Levinson (1983, p. 160) defines pragmatic presupposition as "something the speaker assumes to be the case prior to making an utterance". For example, the utterance "Mary's brother bought three horses", the addresser anticipates to have the presuppositions that a person called Mary exists. It also presupposes that she has a brother, only one brother who has a lot of money. Presuppositions can be differentiated from other linguistic constructions. There are some linguistic structures that writers or speakers can use to convey the implied information without stating them explicitly. These lexical classes or syntactic forms are called presupposition triggers. The large set of linguistic expressions or constructions that are said to "trigger" a presupposition includes definite descriptions (the), change of state predicates (stop, start, continue), additive particles (too), pseudo-clefts (it is X who...), or, importantly for this paper, factive verbs such as realize, discover, know, regret, ignore. For example, each sentence has an assertive component and a presupposition component. For example, "Zoologists realize that elephants are mammals" (Chemela & Bott, 2011, p.4). Furthermore, the presupposition must be true in the context of an

utterance of a sentence that contains a presupposition trigger. A great number of linguists have explained different types of presupposition triggers. On the one hand, Lamarque & Asher (1997, p.359) state that existential presuppositions are highly dominant and widely used. The most remarkable representations for the existential presuppositions are the possessive constructions, proper names and definite noun phrase of existence. For example, Mary's dog is cute presupposes that there exists someone called Marry and she has a dog. Also, Levinson (1983, p.177) indicates that some verbs stand for lexical triggers such as: implicative verbs as "forget, happen, and manage" showing that a verb like "manage" asserts the success in doing something, and presupposes the trial of doing this thing. He, also, clarifies another set of verbs of judging as "criticize and accuse" in which presupposition does not belong to the speaker but to the subject of the verb of judgment. Levinson goes further to reveal that iteratives are presupposition triggers which are associated with certain words as "another, again, anymore; returned; another time; to come back, restore, and repeal". Further, McCawley (1976, p.16) mentions that Counter-factual verbs as "pretend and claim" are considered presupposition triggers and that they presuppose the falsity of the proposition uttered which is contradictory to what is true. Furthermore, Palmer (1981:p.170) confirms that presupposition can be inferred from certain lexical items which are called conventional items as "clean and kill". For example, the sentence 'I cleaned the room'presupposes that the room was dirtydue to the verb, and the sentence 'I killed the bird'presupposes that the bird wasalive. Then the sentence John is a bachelor also presupposes that John is unmarried .

The investigation and analysis of presuppositions' structure function and translation will be conducted within the framework of Levinson's model of presupposition triggers (1983) in which has classified presupposition triggers into three main categories: Existential, Lexical and structural triggers.

### **Existential presupposition triggers:**

Lamarque (1997, p. 359) believes that existential presuppositions represent the cornerstone for presupposition theory. 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. For example:

(1a) Mary's dog is cute.

b. There exists someone called Mary

c. Mary has a dog.

Sentence (1a) presupposes (1b) and (1c); 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.

### **Lexical presupposition triggers:**

Certain kinds of verbs or lexical items trigger a presupposition as indicated below:

### **Implicative verbs:**

Yule (2010, p.28) explains lexical presupposition by stating that in saying that 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, a clause like "someone did not manage to do something" asserts that the person did not succeed (the asserted meaning), and presupposes that the person did try to do that thing (the non-asserted meaning). So, 'managed' is conventionally interpreted as asserting 'succeeded' and presupposing 'tried'. Levinson, (1983, p.181) labels this type of verbs as 'implicative verbs' providing, the following examples:

(1a) John managed to open the door.

b. John tried to open the door.

(2a) 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.

### **Factive items:**

Crystal (1997, p.147) states that Factive items presuppose 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.:

1)a) She didn't realize he was ill.

b. He was ill.

2)a) We regret telling him.

b. We told him.

Examples (1) and (2) 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, e.g.:

(1)a. I wasn't aware that she was married.

b. She was married.

### **Change of state verbs:**

Saeed (1997, p.99) indicates that Change of state verbs a kind of switch presupposition that the new state is both described and is presupposed not to have held prior to the change. These verbs include: start, stop, begin, continue, finish, take, leave, enter, come, go, arrive, etc. For example:

1)a) Judy started smoking cigars.

b. Judy used not to smoke cigars.

2)a) Michelle stopped seeing werewolves.

b. Michelle used to see werewolves.

### Verbs of judging:

Levinson (1983, p. 182) explains that the implication in such presuppositions is not attributed to the speaker so much as to the subject of the verb of judging, e.g.:

(1a) Agatha accused/didn't accuse Ian of plagiarism

b. (Agatha thinks) plagiarism is bad.

(2a) Ian criticized/didn't criticize Agatha for running away.

b. (Ian thinks) Agatha ran away.

### Counter-factual verbs:

Crystal (1997, p.147) elaborates that 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, as in the verb 'pretend' that carries a counter-factive presupposition. E.g.:

(1a) Max is pretending that he is sick.

b. Max is not sick.

### Conventional items:

Palmer (1981, p.170) believes that the presuppositions of sentences can be seen as part of the conventional meaning of expressions, that is, tied to 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'. Also, some nouns carry such a conventional meaning. E.g.:

(1a) John is a bachelor.

b. John is unmarried.

### Iteratives:

Levinson (1983, p.183) illustrates that another type of lexical presupposition is 'iterative' or 'categorical' presupposition. Iterative presupposition is associated with certain words, such as, another, again, anymore; returned; another time; to come back, restore, repeal, etc., e.g.:

(1a) Bill drank another cup of tea.

b. Bill had drunk at least one.

(2a) the flying saucer came /didn't come again.

b. The flying saucer.

### 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.

### Cleft constructions:

Biber et al (1999, p.155) state 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:

- It-clefts:

Biber et al (1999, p.159) illustrate that 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 adverbial phrase, or an adverbial clause, and finally by, a relative-like dependent clause introduced by that, who, which, or zero", e.g.:

(1a) It was his voice that held me.

b. Something held me.

Hence, sentence (1a) exhibits the it-cleft construction and the expression 'his voice' is the specially focused element which is of the type noun phrase. The occurrence of such a construction triggers a presupposition that presupposes sentence (1b).

- Wh-clefts:

Biber et al (1999, p.159) point out that 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, e.g.:

(1a) What I really need is another credit card.

b. I need a credit card.

Sentence (1a) exhibits the wh-cleft construction and it presupposes.

- Wh-questions:

Levinson (1983, p.181) argues that both constructions, i.e., the it-cleft and the wh-cleft constructions share approximately the same presuppositions. The wh-question constructions in English are conventionally interpreted with the presupposition that the information after the wh-form as is already known to be true, e.g.:

(1a) When did he leave?

b. He left.

(2a) where did you buy the bike?

b. You bought the bike.

The type of presupposition illustrated in (1, 2) 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"?

- Adverbial clauses:

Biber et al (1999, 194) indicates that adverbial clauses are used as adverbials in the main clause. Those clauses trigger presupposition. Therefore, sentence (1a) presupposes sentence (1b). E.g.:

(1a) She wrote the book when she lived in Boston.

b. She lived in Boston.

- \*Comparative constructions:

Levinson (1983, p.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, e.g.:

- Adjective-er + than...

(1a) Carol is /isn't a better linguist than Barbara.

b. Barbara is a linguist.

As + adjective + as....

(1a) Jimmy is/isn't as unpredictably gauche as Billy.

b. Billy is unpredictably gauche.

- Counterfactual conditionals:

Yule (2010, p.29) states that a conditional structure of the type shown in (1) below, generally, presupposes that the information in the if-clause is not true at the time of utterance.

(1a) If you were my friend, you would have helped me.

b. You are not my friend.

- Non-restrictive clauses:

Levinson (1983, p.184) believes 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 nonrestrictive 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.:

(1a) The Proto-Harrappans, who flourished 2800-2650 B.C., were/were no great temple builders.

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

### **Presupposition triggers in Obama's inaugural address in 2009. Retrieved from:**

<https://www.whitehouse.gov/the-press-office/2013/01/21/inaugural-address-president-barack-obama>

There are many presupposition triggers employed in the inaugural address delivered by Obama. They include different types: existential, lexical and structural with their sub-genres. This study provides a detailed analysis of them. Sentences including presupposition triggers are extracted. Presupposition triggers are italicized. The type of trigger, form of trigger, trigger itself and presupposition are all illustrated in each sentence. The symbol ">>" is used to stand for "presupposes." Existential, Lexical, and structural Presupposition triggers are analyzed.

**Table (1): Presupposition triggers in Obama's inaugural address**

Trigger	Type of Trigger	Form of Trigger	Presupposition
Vice president	Existential	Definite description	There is a vice president of U.S called Biden
Each	Lexical	Iterative	They gathered before to inaugurate the former president
Bear	Lexical	Factive	They realize that they are witnesses.
			They are sure of democracy

Trigger	Type of Trigger	Form of Trigger	Presupposition
Affirm	Lexical	Factive	promise. They have democracy.
Our	Existential	Possessive pronoun	
What binds us...	Structural	Wh-Clause	People are bound by one principle.
This nation	Existential	Definite description	There is a nation called America American are exceptional due to a concept.
What make us exceptional	Structural	Wh-cleft	
Continue	Lexical	Change of State	American will begin a new era.
while these truths are self-evident	Structural	Adverbial clause	Truth are evident
The patriots	Existential	Definite description	There are loyal people They realize the requirements of prosperity.
Determine	Lexical	Factive	
Discover	Lexical	Factive	They are aware of the rules of prosperous free market.
Resolve	Lexical	Factive	America is great due to its given attentiveness for the weak.
Life's	Existential	Possessive "S"	Life has hazards and people should be protected from them.
Society's ills	Existential	Possessive "S"	Society has ills that should be cured by cooperative



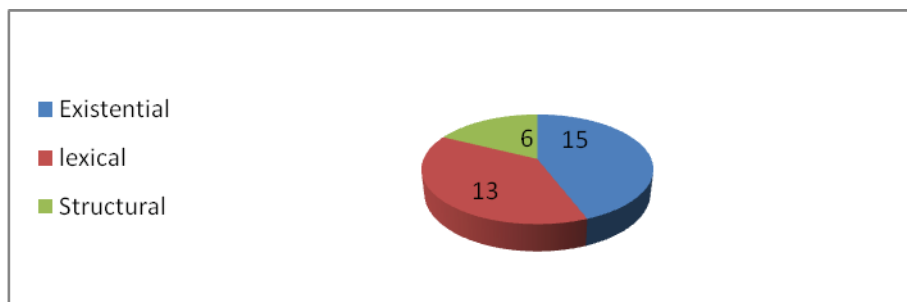
Trigger	Type of Trigger	Form of Trigger	Presupposition
			efforts.
Our	Existential	Possessive pronoun	They have promising children
begun	Lexical	Change of State	They have a new state and new era
A decade of war is ending	lexical	Change of State	They will witness a new peaceful era
America's prosperity	Existential	Possessive "s"	America has prosperity
Economic recovery has begun.	Lexical	Change of state	American will witness economic flourishing phase
When	Structural	Adverbial clause	Families suffer from the brink of hardship due to low wages
Knows	Lexical	Factive	They realize that poor girls have rights.
Maintain our national treasure	Existential	Possessive pronoun	There is a national treasure and he'll work hard to keep it.
Renew	lexical	Change of state	The institutions will witness renewal in his phase.
Our brave men	Existential	Definite description	There are brave people who fight without fear of battle's flames.
We will defend our people	Existential	Definite description	There are people in his country and he will defend them.

Trigger	Type of Trigger	Form of Trigger	Presupposition
resolve our differences with other nations peacefully	Existential	Possessive pronoun	They will accept and deal with differences peacefully.
lasting peace does not require perpetual war	lexical	Factive	He asserts that wars around must be ended up to enjoy permanent peace.
support democracy from Asia to Africa,	Existential	Definite description	There is democracy and he will support it to overwhelm from Asia to Africa
greater	structural	Comparative	No other country has more greatness than a powerful one
We are heirs of those who won peace	Existential	Definite description	Obama seeks to spread peace everywhere like some ancestors who cared for this.
's	Existential	Possessive "s"	This generation has a task to be accomplished
Better	Structural	Comparative	They should have a different way to welcome immigrants.

**Table (2): Number of Frequency of Presupposition Triggers in Obama's Inaugural Speech.**

Type	Frequency
Existential	15
lexical	13
Structural	6

**Figure (1): The percentage of presupposition triggers in Obama's inaugural speech.**



According to the major types of presupposition triggers, as illustrated in table (2) and figure (1) above, existential presupposition triggers have got the highest scoring fifteen frequencies, followed by lexical presupposition triggers that got the second rank thirteen occurrences, while the structural presupposition triggers got the third rank. As existential and lexical presuppositions recorded the most frequently used types, they are showed to be the constant characteristics of political discourse. With its easy structure formed of possessive constructions or definite noun phrases, existential presupposition is thought the most readily credited for presupposition. Schmid (2001) also assured that “people are more likely to object to the propositional content of that-clause that is represented as necessarily true than to the attitudinal meaning of the noun” (p, 154). As a matter of fact, existential presupposition is stronger or more difficult to detect in comparison to other categories. Schmid and Caffi are among the scholars who strongly confirm that existential presupposition is one of the least refutable presuppositions ever used. Interestingly, Bonyadi&

Samuel (2011) concluded that existential or presupposition through nominalization is among the most frequently used presupposition triggers in political speech. Simply, Existential presuppositions represent the highest recurrences. Existential is identified by means of possessive constructions or any definite noun phrase is called existential. As a matter of fact, by using these linguistic forms the speaker seems committed to the existence of mentioned entities. Lexical presupposition: as Yule (2010) points out, in lexical presuppositions the use of some forms with their stated meanings is interpreted as the presentation of some non-asserted meanings. Lexical presupposition can also be considered as one of the best method to express implicit proposition.

Levinson (1983) postulates that existential presupposition triggers shows the commitment of the speaker to the entities he refers to, his loyalty and responsibility especially when he uses the definite description and possessive pronouns. He goes further to assert that lexical presupposition triggers are employed by speakers to create an image specifically when using "change of state verbs" to refer to a transition or change of situation. Obama has employed the "change of state verbs" numerous times to make an indirect comparison between the former presidential phase and what he is going to do during his presidential term to gain people's support and to attract them to his side. Also, Obama has used factive verbs to speak about his beliefs and principle such as caring for spreading peace, equality among people, protecting the weak, considering the marginalized and immigrants, establishing democratic society, and giving a great concern to education and economy. All these points are worth to persuade people that he is the right person for the right place. Thus lexical and existential presupposition triggers have succeeded to achieve their functions as persuasive tools in the political speech.

### **Conclusion:**

Based on an analysis of presupposition triggers found in Obama's inaugural speech, it can be concluded that presupposition triggers have been used for better conveying his political intentions and thus getting the audience to his side. Presupposition triggers, including existential, lexical and structural ones, play a vital role in pinpointing important information, making language more concise and obvious, achieving the interaction with the audience and

creating close relationship between the parties of speech, thus the speaker can accomplish his political goals.

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