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The Realization of Presupposition Triggers in the Types of Presupposition in Articles by Non-Native English Writers

A B S T R A C T

This research was conducted with attention to the examination of presuppositions in the journal articles published by non-native English writers' case study Kurdish researchers. The study mainly intends to highlight the presupposition triggers, the nature of presupposition, and recognition of presupposition triggers in a particular presupposition in publications by Kurdish scholars. The significance of the thesis is to lead people to understand presuppositions in the writing language and to learn more about how presuppositions are triggered by native Kurdish writers. Students of linguistics may benefit from this research. The outcomes of the study are expected to be theoretically and practically helpful and relevant, especially for those specialized. The research focuses on publications by non-native English writers or *authors* from the Kurdistan region of Iraq. There is a plan to compile the journal text from 2000 to 2021. The researcher in this research relies on theories of presupposition triggers by Levinson. This paper intends to provide a comprehensive scrutiny of journal papers. A descriptive, yet qualitative study is thereby adopted for randomly selected articles by non-native English writers from Kurdish writers. During the data analysis of the 10 articles by non-native writers in relation to all thirteen categories of presupposition triggers, which have been identified in the Kurdish writers' articles, a number of conclusions are reached. The most prominent finding is that definite description is the most presupposition trigger that is found. However, verbs of judging have the least appearance.

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إدراك محفزات الافتراض المسبق في أنواع الافتراضات المسبقة في مقالات كتبها كتاب

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الخلاصة:

تم إجراء هذا البحث مع الاهتمام بتحليل الافتراضات المسبقة في المقالات الاكاديميه التي نشرها باحثون دراسة حالة للكتاب الإنجليزي لغير الناطقين باللغة الإنجليزية وفي هذه الحالة تم دراسته الباحثين الاكراد

. تهدف الدراسة بشكل أساسي إلى تسليط الضوء على محفزات الافتراضات المسبقة ، وطبيعة الافتراضات المسبقة ، والاعتراف بمحفزات الافتراض المسبق في افتراضات معينة في منشورات الباحثين الكتاب الأكراد. تكمن أهمية الأطروحة في توجيه الناس لفهم الافتراضات المسبقة في كتابه اللغة الانكليزية ومعرفة المزيد حول كيفية إثارة الافتراضات من قبل الكتاب المحليين الاكراد و قد يستفيد طلاب علم اللغة الانكليزية من هذا البحث. من المتوقع أن تكون نتائج الدراسة مفيدة وذات صلة من الناحية النظرية والعملية ، خاصة بالنسبة للمتخصصين ويهدف البحث. يركز البحث على المقالات العلمية المنشورة من قبل الكتاب المحليين من غير الناطقين باللغة الانكليزية دراسه حاله إقليم كردستان العراق. تم تجميع نصوص منشوره في بحوث ضمن المجلات المنشورة بين عامين ٢٠٠٠ إلى عام ٢٠٢١. الباحث ويعتمد هذا البحث على نظريات الافتراض المسبق من قبل . تهدف هذه الورقة إلى توفير فحص شامل للبحوث المختاره ليفينسون ١٩٨٣ ، وبالتالي يتم اعتماد دراسة نو منهجيه وصفية ونوعية لمقالات مختارة عشوائياً لكتاب اللغة الإنجليز غير الناطقين بها. تم التوصل إلى عدد من الاستنتاجات خلال تحليل بيانات المقالات العشرة لكُتَّاب غير أصليين فيما يتعلق بجميع الفئات الثلاثة عشر لمحفزات الافتراضات المسبقة ، والتي تم تحديدها في مقالات الكتاب الأكراد أظهر تحليل البيانات أن النصوص الصحفية الانكليزية تعتمد اعتمادا كبيرا على مطلقات الافتراض المسبق الوجودية أو صاف محددة بينما سجلت افعال الحكم المسبقة اقل نسبه استخدام من قبل الكتاب (descriptions definite) و.

الكلمات المفتاحيه الافتراضات المسبقة، محفزات الافتراض، المسبق، انواع الافتراض المسبق

1. Introduction

It cannot be disputed in our lives that language plays many significant functions in the actions of humans. Language facilitates social interaction and can provide some types of information. Language considers as a vocal symbol system utilized for communicating with human beings.

Language is utilized as a tool to shape how individuals see and arrange their environments. As a result, language is an unavoidable shaper of ideas, as well as the program and guide for an individual's mental activity. (Al-Samarrai, 2007). The English language is crucial in everyday settings all across the world. It is a worldwide language that deals with all aspects of life. As a result, all non-native scholars must acquire the fundamentals of academic writing in English (Sami, 2021)).

People generally utilize language to communicate their varied ideological and cultural origins in their social interactions. Language is employed in writing to communicate ideas and opinions about particular situations and occurrences. For example, a writer might utilize language in newspapers and magazines as a medium to communicate his ideas and opinions on paper or the Internet. (Al-

Zubeiry, 2020) .In our everyday communication, language plays a vital function. There are claims that language is a method for day-to-day communication. Without language, we can communicate in no meaningful sense. Because language allows individuals to socialize and to convey information. (Thoyyibah, 2017). Two categories are possible as a result of splitting Language: verbal-*spoken*- language and inscribed-*written* - language. The substance of the first category is usually more important than the second category. Written language denotes the language that has been documented in a form of text, whereas spoken language refers to language that has been spoken (Gerot, L. and Wignell, P, 1994). According to Yule (1996: 3) “*Pragmatics is the study of the meaning of a speaker's utterance*”, whereas the hearer is the one who deciphers the meaning from the context of what the speaker intended to communicate. In everyday status quo, speakers frequently make indirect assumptions about the true picture of the circumstance, and the meaning or comprehension of what said may be influenced by the speaker's assumptions. (Haji, S.S. and Mohammed, F.O., 2019)

The word presupposition is defined in this section of the study, and several prior researches are reviewed. The definition of a presupposition is "an implicit assumption about the universe or background belief that is assumed to be true in speech" (Akmajian, et al., 1995) and (Haji, S.S. and Mohammed, F.O, 2019) . What an individual articulates or denotes to is based on *presuppositions*, which are unspoken assumptions (Ibid). A *presupposition* is whatever the utterer assumes to be factual prior to constructing a declaration. Speakers have presuppositions, not sentences. ” (Yule, 1996) *Presuppositions* are comparable to suggestions that are supposed to be factual by the speaker and that must be known and taken into account by the interpretation in order for the speaker's utterance to make sense (Cruse, 2006) .The term “*presupposition*” is used to describe all of the speaker's assumptions about the speech and the expression that are created. Presupposition is defined as the speaker's unstated, but expressed assumption. (Levinson, 1983). Also, “*presupposition*” comes from philosophy of logic, where it refers to a certain sort of tacit knowledge (Renkema, 1993). Presupposition does not introduce any new communication; rather, it includes background information that the interlocutors take for granted (Perl, 2020). A *presupposition trigger* is an element or a structure that is accountable for indicating *presupposition* existence. Karttunen (1983), provides a numerical list of 31 different sorts of *presupposition triggers*, whereas Keenan (1971) offered just 9 different kinds of *presupposition triggers* labeled as 'logical presupposition Keenan (1971).' Hickey et al. (1993) proposed a total of fourteen different categories of presupposition trigger. Words, phrases, or sentences, who certain linguists consider like Cummings (2005), Grundy(2000), Griffiths(2006), Levinson(1983) and Potts(2014) refer to as triggers, can be used to validate presumptions in text.

The researcher faced problems in finding journals having non-native English writers' articles. Challenges still faced this time the learners who want to know the identification of the presupposition taggers. Here, they are somewhat unable to differentiate between the types of presupposition triggers. Some learners have not

yet been capable of finding out these types in the articles of both writers. Some of them are unable even to distinguish between the articles of native with those of non-native. There has been a lack of studies that analyze the presuppositions triggers in articles by non-native English writers especially in the Kurdish writers' case study.

Problems of the study

The researcher faced problems in finding journals having non-native English writer's articles. Challenges still faced this time the learners who want to know the identification of the presupposition taggers. Here, they are somewhat unable to differentiate between the types of presupposition triggers. Some learners have not yet been capable of finding out these types in the articles for non-native writers in case of Kurdish researchers.

Therefore, the research questions are:

1. What is the presupposition triggers found in non-native writers English writers?
2. What types of presupposition do they trigger? How are the presupposition triggers realized in the types of presupposition?

1.2 Objectives of Study

The following are the study's aims, which are based on the framing of the research problems:

1. To trace the *presupposition triggers* in non-native English writers (Kurdish writers).
2. To identify the types of *presupposition* in non-native English writers (Kurdish writers).
3. To define the *presupposition triggers* realized in the types of *presupposition* in the selected articles.

1.3 The significance of this paper

The significance of this paper is to educate readers about presuppositions in foreign language writing and to inform students on which presupposition triggers are used more often by native Kurdish authors.

1.4 Scope of Study

The research focuses on publications that publish papers by native Kurdish writers. There is a plan to compile the journal text from 2000 to 2021. The Researcher in this research relies on theories of presupposition triggers by Levinson Levinson (1983). An in-depth examination of journal papers will be provided in this research.

1.4 Presupposition between Semantics and Pragmatics.

While *presuppositions* are particularly speaker's behaviors in terms of pragmatic perception, semantic presuppositions indicate greater establishment of the

connotation of particular words and language frameworks. Pragmatic presuppositions comprise of the expectation for linguistic collaboration (for instance, the usage of a single language is a common public knowledge), informative nature of conversations in direct relation to goals and plans and the customs of sequential turns in dialogue. Although pragmatic presuppositions are the most explicit examples, they are the most challenging to identify by single words or phrases, but the over-all content of the situation – *context* - and the expectation of the participants as a result of communications.

Despite the fact that the two terms 'semantic' and 'pragmatic' suggest a clear divergent, semantic *presuppositions* are pragmatic when they are evaluated in the context of the discourse contributors' shared ground; this is due to the fact that the common *presuppositions* appear only in explicit contexts. The prior knowledge is the minimum requirement for communicators so that to conduct an evaluation. Furthermore, the term '*utterance presupposition*' use by Karttunen (1974) and Soames (1982) to indicate a semantic combination of conventional and pragmatic features. Semantic clarifications may be in-line with pragmatic perceptions by interpreting the usage of a *presupposition trigger* in an effective practice to achieve the speaker's accomplishment of presupposing. Nevertheless, the semantic viewpoint permits for the prospect that a speaker's speech may assume a suggestion (by convention) without the speaker's intention to act upon something (Soames 1982: 486; Levinson 1995), however, this is impossible on an entirely intention-based theory.

Research by Stalnaker,(1974) admits that semantics accomplishes a serious role in recognizing *presuppositions* in settings. He also claims that all *presuppositions* ought to be understood pragmatically, as he specified that "*I think all of the facts can be stated and explained directly in terms of the underlying notion of speaker presupposition, and without introducing an intermediate notion of presupposition as a relation holding between sentences (or statements) and propositions*" (Stalnaker, 1974) cited in (Potts, 2013).

OUALIF, (2017) in his study, highlights the many approaches taken by linguists regarding presupposition. Additionally, the study attempted to address what *semantics* and *pragmatics* are in an incorporated concept of sense and the feasibility of elaborating a semantic explanation of *presupposition* in the absence of resorting to pragmatics and the other way around. The study recommends Gazdar's pragmatic examination as the most secure foundation for laying out a workable grammar of presuppositions. According to (Gazdar, 1979) no differences are apparent from semantic concepts of *presupposition* in relation to inflexibility, but do differ in that it does not include presupposition inferences in sentence truth conditions.

Among the characteristics that a semantic theory must satisfy is describing and explaining the systematic relationships between words and sentences. According

to this view, the semantic *presupposition* is seen as an affiliation amongst sentences. In terms of entailment, semantic *presupposition* is commonly defined in the following manner. Entailment is an association that links two statements in which the truth of both statements is inseparably linked to the truth of the first. (OUALIF, 2017) In his research dismissed the viability of semantic theory of presupposition due to the fact that semantics concerns the classification of steady connotations linked directly to linguistic expressions.

The focus on the speaker, the context and the common knowledge of the communicators is the way how pragmatic presuppositions defined by linguists. According to Stalnaker (1974), pragmatic *presupposition* is what the communicator believes to be the shared comprehension between the contributors in a discourse. This adds up to the fact that sentences containing incorrect "presuppositions" lack truth value. It is important to consider that in deciphering speeches, the verbal discourse and the context of the statement should be considered, as well as contextual evidence and semantic representation of the statements made in a certain context.

The research above discusses semantic pragmatic, semantic-pragmatic, and syntactic *presupposition* definitions proposed in the 1970s. It demonstrated how Gazdar employs implicature to cancel presuppositions, allowing his approach to anticipate presupposition behavior in embedding constructs very well. The abundance of applications of the term "presupposition" in the literature suggests that *presupposition* is an assembly of various entities: a proportion is semantic, and the rest are pragmatic. However, the pragmatic aspect of this assembly appears to outweigh the conceptual. Yet, how to clearly distinguish between the two sides remains as a puzzle that needs further investigation. This suggests that "presupposition" is far more than this article can reveal.

To conclude, this study is not a semantic one but it is pragmatic. This is because pragmatic research emphasis is on a distinct decision maker that is directly associated to the very actual real-life status quo. So, the researcher here gives, within the presupposition triggers, real-world situations. This is a pathway to how to deal with pragmatic study in order to recognize a problem and sight it within its widest context. So here the researcher should focus on the meaning of words in a context and their inferred meanings, while in semantics study the literal meaning of a word is taken into consideration. In this research, the researcher puts emphasis on the users i.e. how to use words in their contexts. So, the background of the participants is significant in this study for the same word or sentence may have distinct meanings by different users because of depending on the intended meaning of the users.

2. Related studies

The study by Haji, S.S. and Mohammed, F.O., (2019) entitled "*The Use of Presuppositions in the Short Story of Zilkê Şixatê (Matchstick)*". It tries to figure out which form of presupposition appears more frequently in the short narrative and why. The data are construed by using descriptive and qualitative

methods. The data of this paper are sentences containing presupposition triggers. For the purpose of data analysis, the researcher uses the six sorts of presuppositions proposed by Yule (2006). After scrutinizing the information, the researcher concludes that out of 219 examples, the results reveals that *existential presuppositions* the highest percentage (58.90%), whereas the counterfactual presuppositions measured only 13.6%.

Another study by Sdiq, H.H. and Amin, N.M., (2021) entitled “A Pragmatic study of Presupposition in Masoud Barzani’s Speech ahead of the Referendum.” entitled “A Pragmatic study of Presupposition in Masoud Barzani’s Speech ahead of the Referendum.” By analyzing Mr. Masoud Barzani's speech on the referendum, this research aims to provide a pragmatic analysis of the lexical presupposition and *presupposition triggers*, and it is the most commonly used. A qualitative descriptive style and a quantitative method employed to investigate how often the presupposition type used. Ex-President Masoud Barzani has made a political statement during a press conference in 2017 about the Kurdistan Region's referendum on independence from Iraq, which this research uses as a source of information. Levinson's *presupposition triggers* and Yules' taxonomy of presupposition kinds are employed in this study's linguistic framework. The data show that just five categories of *presuppositions* are used by the former president: factual, existential, lexical, and counterfactual and non-factive presuppositions. Just five sorts of presuppositions used by the previous president, with structural presupposition being the only one that is not used. Non-factive and counter-factual presuppositions are far rarer than factive ones, with factive being the most prevalent.

2.1 Definitions of Presupposition:

According to Stalnaker (1974: 200) , presuppositions are related to linguistic items and facts. The linguistic truths to be described by a theory of *presupposition* are generally relationships between linguistic items or propositions and their linguistic expressions (Ibid). This idea is also confirmed by Levinson (1983: 168), as presuppositions are assumptions or inferences that appear to be constructed into linguistic expressions to allow its detection by using linguistic assessments. Rendering this concept, presupposition connects linguistic framework to further-linguistic context by inferences about the contexts that are drawn from the very linguistic framework.

Presupposition is linked to the usage of several words, phrases, and structures. Linguists have identified certain language constructs as base for presuppositions known as *presupposition* or lexical triggers. In other terms, the phrase "triggers" indicates to "linguistic elements that generate presuppositions" (ibid: 179), In other words, a *presupposition trigger* is a framework or an entity that indicates the presence of a presupposition.

2.2 Presupposition triggers are classified in a variety of ways.

1. Weischedel (1979) proposes that presupposition is related to specific lexical items and grammatical constructs. Thus, triggers are classified into two types: soft triggers and hard triggers. While the soft triggers consist of factive and change of state verbs, the hard triggers include the following types: Definite Description, Implicative Verbs, Interactive, Verbs of Judging, comparison and Contrast, Counterfactual Conditionals, Permissions and Obligations (Al-Hindawi, F. and Al-Khazali, A., 2019) Here is the list of presupposition triggers as it appears in Levinson 1983: "Definite descriptions, implicative verbs, Factive items, Iterative items, Comparative construction, Change of state verbs, temporal clauses, cleft sentences, Verbs of Judging, Non-restrictive Relative Clause, Implicit cleft with stressed constituents, Counterfactual conditionals and Questions, in the study by (Karttunen, 2016)".

2. Presupposition triggers are classified by Karttuen (1983) into three categories: existential (definite descriptions), lexical, and other (change of state verbs and verbs of judging, implicative and factive verbs, counterfactual verbs, conventional items and iterative). Thirdly Structural (Wh-questions, cleft constructions, , and counterfactual conditionals, adverbial and comparative constructions and non-restrictive clauses) (Al-zubeiry, 2020; Khaleel, 2010).

3. The following division is provided by Geurts (1999). The first one is existential, followed by Lexical Presupposition Triggers. Then, Lexical Presupposition Triggers subdivides into: Implicative Verbs, Factive Items, Change of State Verbs, Verbs of Judging, Counter-Factual Verbs, Conventional Items, and Iterative. Structural Presupposition Triggers takes the third position in this division and it is also subdivide into: Cleft Constructions, (both It-Clefts, and Wh-Clefts), Wh-Questions, Adverbial Clauses, Comparative Constructions, Counterfactual Conditionals, and Non-Restrictive Clauses (Hassan, 2015).

4. Birner (2012) has categorized the presupposition triggers into the following: Definite descriptions, Factive verbs, Change of stat verbs, Iterative, Clefts (a.It-cleft b.wh-cleft c.inverted wh-cleft) (Birner, 2012) .

5. Huang' (2007) divides presuppositions into eight categories starting from definite descriptions, and Factive predicates. Factive predicates are also subdivided into two other subcategories such as Epistemic or cognitive factive, and Emotive factive.

Because linguists have identified so many different sorts of presuppositions, thereby the author of this study aims at evaluating Levinson's (1983) and Yule's (1996) presuppositions. The point concerning presupposition categories in conversation is that, as Yule (2010) points out, they should be considered "potential presuppositions," that could only be true in cases when speakers desire to impart unasserted knowledge. To put it another way, utterances do not contain presuppositions; alternatively, speakers or writers presume the meaning they want. Numerous academics, linguists, and philosophers have researched presupposition and its triggers; however, the researcher has not found any researches conducted on this topic. Since there is insufficient researches linked to this subject, this study aims to determine the most common *presupposition triggers* used by native and

non-native writers in recently published works. This study aims to look at *the presupposition triggers* used by native and non-native English language authors in recently published works. Its goal is to figure out what presupposition triggers are employed in publications and to illustrate how native and non-native English authors use *presupposition triggers* to communicate their thoughts and opinions.

2.3 Levenson's presupposition triggers

The thirteen categories of presupposition triggers are as follows: “definite description, factive verbs, implicative verb, change of state verb, iterative, verb of judging, temporal clauses, cleft sentence, implicit cleft with stressed constituents, comparison and contrast, non-restrictive relative clause, counterfactual conditional, question”. These presupposition triggers indicate the existence of presupposition in the speakers or writer's phrase or statement.

2.4 Potential presupposition

Yule Claims that a significant number of words, phrases, and structures that have been associated with the usage of presupposition. These linguistic methods are viewed as ‘*indicators of potential presupposition*’ that is if they are if they are placed in context with speakers (Yule, 1996).

Yule described “A potential presupposition is an assumption typically associated with the use of a linguistic form (words, phrases, structure)” (1996:27). He separated potential presupposition into six groups. According to Yule 1996, p. 25-34 six types of presuppositions exist, including: “*existential presupposition, factive presupposition, lexical presupposition, structural presupposition, non-factive presupposition, and counterfactual presupposition*”. The Figure below illustrates the types of presupposition based on Yule's (1996:27) classification.

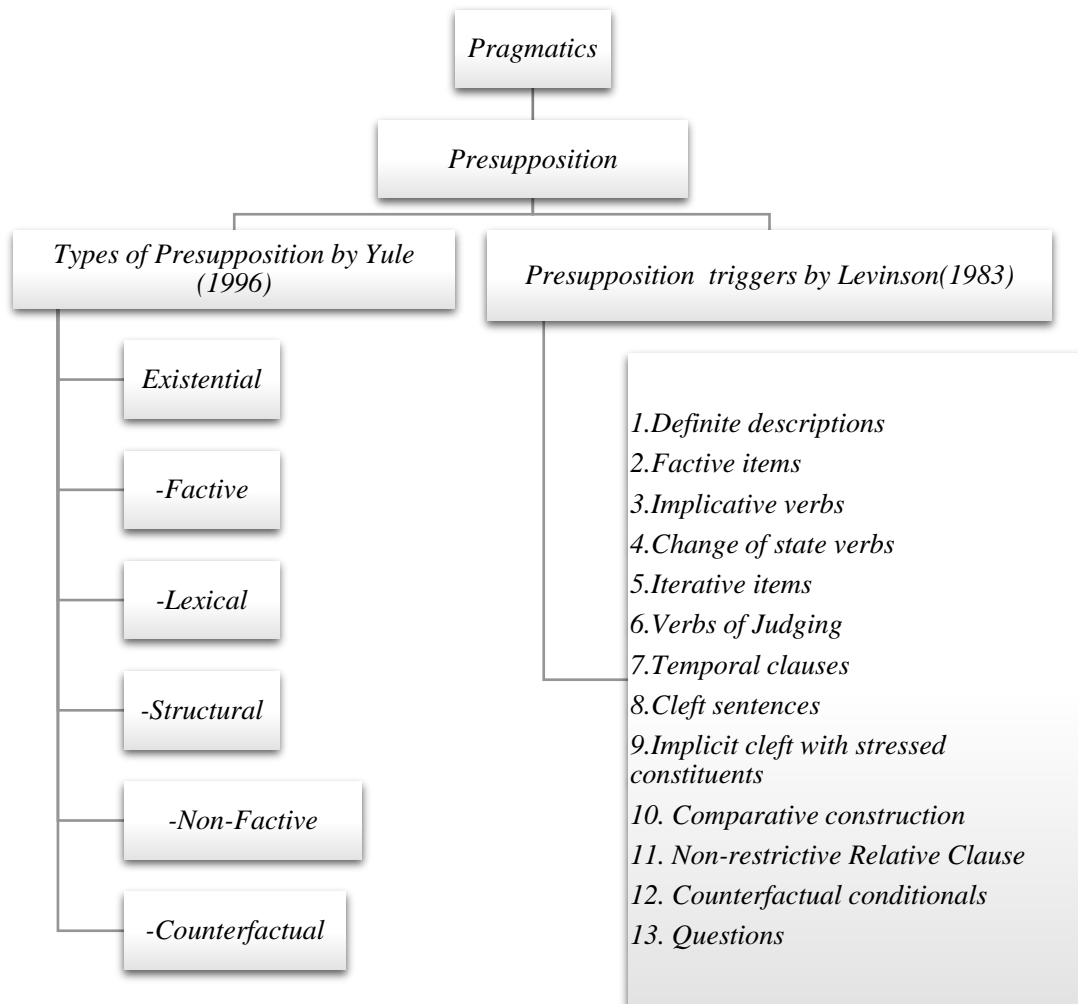


Figure (1) Presupposition Types and Triggers within Pragmatic

This paper provides a thorough analysis of the recognition of *presupposition triggers* in the types of *presupposition* in articles published in different journals by non-native English writers, as it is clarified in Figure (1)

3. Methodology

The methodology nature of this paper is a descriptive qualitative approach to previously published articles. According to Creswell (2009), research is a procedure that consists of phases used to gather and examine material to surge our comprehension of a subject or problem. Furthermore, Isaac, S. and Michael, W.B (1987) specified that the objective of a descriptive research is to elucidate methodically the evidence and features of a given issue or area of attention, accurately and precisely. It also refers to the fact that the information in this paper is scrutinized by gathering, assembling, examining, and interpreting the data from the research. Descriptive research shows that the collected information in this research is in forms of description and explanation. This research gathered phrases and sentences containing presupposition triggers from non-native English authors. The articles, in general, are scientific research and some of them are humanities research articles. In this study, qualitative content analysis is also employed.

The main feature of the collected data is the scripts in publications, thereby the analysis of the content is adopted to find out theoretically what categories of *presupposition* are used in the articles.

3.1 The data analysis

Firstly, the writer identifies the presupposition triggers from the 10 articles randomly chosen from non-native English writer depending on the classification by (Levinson, 1983) namely: “*definite description, factive verbs, imperative verbs, change of state verbs, iterative, verbs of judging, temporal clauses, cleft sentence, implicit clefts with stressed constituents, comparison and contrasts, non-restrictive relative clauses, counter-factual conditionals, questions*”. The articles are randomly chosen from non-native English writers. Then after that the writer determined the percentage of presupposition types that are used in each research by depending on the classification by (Yule, 2006) they are: “*Existential, Factive, Lexical, Structural, counterfactual, and Non-factive presupposition*”.

3.2 Data

The main feature of the data in this article is sentences comprising of *presupposition triggers* by Levinson and types of presupposition. They have been selected from journals that published within the period 2000- 2021 for non-native English writers. The number of the data includes 10 articles from non-native English writers. The source of data is from different journals. The data of this research are:

3.3 Analytical Techniques

The following actions are considered by the writer to examine the data:

1. Highlighting the texts' presuppositions.
2. Classifying the text according to presupposition categories.

3. Using the following formula to determine the percentage of presuppositions used in speeches:

$$X = F/N * 100\%$$

While X is the proportion of collected Presupposition phrases, F is the frequency of appearance with which they collected categories of Presuppositions occurs.

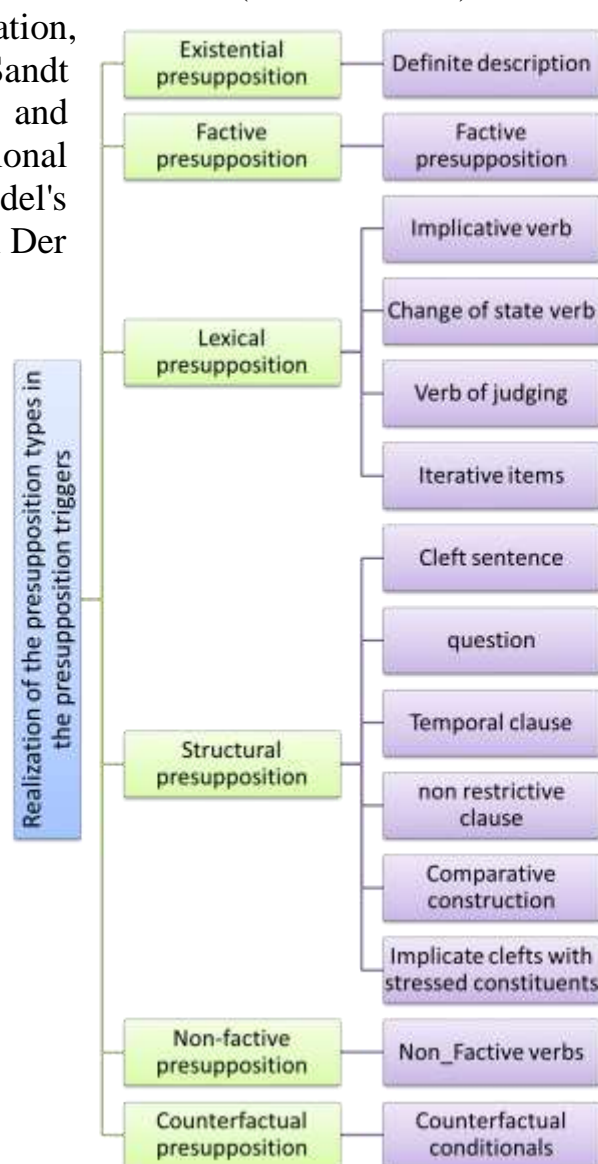
The total number of Presupposition phrases is denoted by N.

4. Determining the presupposition type that is most prevalent in each %

The same procedures of Analyzing Data used to determine the types of presupposition triggers.

3.4 Framework model

A fundamental model serves as a foundation for the investigation of presupposition in this study. Based on Yule (1996)'s classification of presupposition types and Levinson's (1983:181-182) characterization of presupposition trigger formation, constructed. Van Der Sandt merged with Yule (1996) and (1983) to provide an additional category to this model's presupposition triggers (Van Der 1988) Figure (2).



the model is (1988) is Levinson lexical Sandt,

Figure 1 Framework Model of Realization of the presuppositions types by the presupposition triggers

3.5 Selected articles by Kurdish writers selected form different journals and sources

- 1- Article one by Baper, (2018) under the title the role of heritage buildings in constructing the continuity of architectural identity in Erbil city.
- 2- The second article by Ali, K.A., Qadir, M.M., Rasool, S.O. and Hamad, O.M., (2012) under the title *“the effect of spraying of wheat straw extracts on controlling some weed species”*.
- 3- The third article is by Abdulla, (2015) under the title *Morphological study and Prevalence of head lice (Pediculus humanus capitis)(Anoplura: Pediculidae) infestation among some primary school students in Erbil City, Kurdistan region.*
- 4- The fourth article is by Daham, B.F.A., Mohammed, M.N. and Mohammed, K.S., (2014) under the title *Modified Harmony Search Algorithm for Solving the Four-Color Mapping Problem.*
- 5- The fifth article is by Abdullah, O.G., Saber, D.R. and Taha, S.A., 2015 under the title *The optical characterization of polyvinyl alcohol: cobalt nitrate solid polymer electrolyte films.*
- 6- The sixth article is by Kamel, F.H. and Najmaddin, C., (2016) under the title *Use of some plants color as alternative stain in staining of bacteria.*
- 7- The seventh article is by Abdullah, A.O., Hamakhan, I.A. and Talabany, Z.J., (2022) under the title *“DRYING OF CARROT SLICES USING FLUIDIZED BED DRYER AND MICROWAVE -ASSISTED FLUIDIZED BED DRY”*
- 8- Article eight by Brime, A.A. and Bajalan, F.R.H.,(2017) under the title *“Incorporating Outside Sources in Kurdish EFL Students’ Academic Writing”*.
- 9- *The ninth article is Mustafa, F.A. and Danoon, M.G., (2020) under the title Effect of Common Outdoor Spaces on Social Interaction: The Case of College of Engineering Campus at Salahaddin University–Erbil, Iraq.*
- 10- The tenth article is by Muho, H.A. and Bakir, S.N, (2014) under the title *“Taboo Words and Expressions in English”*.

4. Results and Discussions

According to the examined data, there are a number of results that are subject to explanation to abridge the clarification in relation to the *presupposition triggers* in randomly selected articles by non-native English writers (Kurdish writers).

4.1The presupposition triggers found in articles of the non-native English writers.

The majority of presupposition triggers are detected in the article texts written by non-native English writers. During the data analysis, definite descriptions, factive items, implicative verbs, verbs of judging, change of state verbs, iterative items, questions, temporal clauses, implicit clefts with stressed constituents, comparative constructions, cleft sentences, counterfactual conditionals, and non-restrictive relative clauses were identified. In the data analysis, most of the times that presupposition triggers are seen, they are clear descriptions, and judging verbs are used the least.

With 1486 occurrences, or 78% of the total number of presupposition triggers found in the article texts, "*definite description*" has surpassed it as the first most prevalent presupposition trigger. Temporal clauses are the second most common presupposition trigger, accounting for 5% of all presupposition triggers. Other triggers included comparative construction (3.6%), factive verbs (2.30%), iterative items (2.70%), implicit cleft with stressed constituents (1.80%), cleft sentences (1.50%), and both Non-restrictive Relative Clause and Change of state verbs (1%). The remainder makes up less than 1%.

4.1.1 Definite description

Definite description is the most occurrences among the other types. It found in all the articles. This is as a result of writer's inclination to refer to the presence of individuals or possessions as a point of interest. Common nouns in singular forms or noun-phrases in general are used as *definitive descriptions*. The definite articles are frequently used to characterize these noun phrases (Verschueren, 1999). An example found in the second article by (Ali, K.A., Qadir, M.M., Rasool, S.O. and Hamad, O.M., 2012) under the title "*the effect of spraying of wheat straw extracts on controlling some weed species*".

1- farmers

"farmers in Iraqi Kurdistan as other farmers elsewhere prefer to use herbicides to control problematic weeds regardless to any environmental sequences."

Example (1) displayed the use of definite description. Additional form of *definite description* that utilized in this sentence is definite name, for instance, (farmers). This speech defined as the *existential presuppositions* because it represents the presence of farmers in Iraqi Kurdistan. Here the definite description which trigger existential presupposition.

Another example is found is

The fifth article is (Abdullah, O.G., Saber, D.R. and Taha, S.A., n.d.) by nuder the title The optical characterization of polyvinyl alcohol: cobalt nitrate solid polymer electrolyte films.

2-these materials

“The growing interest in solid polymer electrolytes arises from the possibility of their applications in various solid state electrochemical devices [1, 2]. Polymer electrolytes are ion conducting solid solution of inorganic electrolyte salt in ion-coordinating polymers [3]. Optical characterizations of polymer electrolytes are of particular importance, as these materials are intended for practical application in various fields [4].”

Example (1) displays definite description. Definite descriptions are formed by using demonstrative pronoun. It presupposes the existences of the materials. And existential presupposition triggered by definite description.

4.1.2 Temporal clauses

This type has the second most occurrences of presupposition triggers with 5.00% of the total occurrences. The semantic function of temporality is achieved by using lexical objects as subordinate clauses such as before, after, during, whenever, as, while, or when. Clauses like this are used to elicit additional assumptions. It comes in the second highest level of occurrences with 5% of the total percentages.

An example of that is found the third article is by Abdulla (2015) under the title: *“Morphological study and Prevalence of head lice (Pediculus humanus capitis)(Anoplura: Pediculidae) infestation among some primary school students in Erbil City, Kurdistan region”*.

3-after

“About a day after mating, females begin laying eggs, each female lays about 3–10 per day, over 4–5 weeks, a male lays about 60–100 eggs (Atias, 1999).”

Example 3: exhibited the usage of *temporal clauses* as the completion part of the sentence to trigger a *presupposition*. It presupposes that females begin laying eggs soon after mating. The structural presupposition is triggered by temporal clauses.

4.1.3 Comparative constructions

It is the third highest occurrences with 3.60 % percentage . A comparative or contrast can be triggered by presupposition beliefs about the speaker of the speech (Haji & Mohammed, 2019)

The fourth article is by Daham, B.F.A., Mohammed, M.N. and Mohammed, K.S. (2014) under the title *Modified Harmony Search Algorithm for Solving the Four-Color Mapping Problem*

4- higher

“Table 2 illustrates how the MHS algorithm has advanced performance than the HS algorithm. Figures 11 and 12 are demonist rating the variance between the performance of both MHS & HS algorithms in reaching the ideal resolution in relation to time and number of sequences correspondingly.’

Example (1) shows that the usage of comparative form of construction in sentence triggers the *presupposition*. It presupposes that the HS algorithm has high performance but not as high as MHS algorithm.

4.1.4 Iterative items

The 'iterative' or 'categorical' presupposition is another type of lexical presupposition. Iterative refers to an event that is repeated (Crystal, 1997) According to Levinson (1983) , certain words are associated with iterative presupposition such as , another and again. These are lexical items which show a repeated action or event. They can take the form of verbs (return, repeat, restore, go back, redial, renew) or adverbs (again, anytime, too, so) (Haji, S.S. and Mohammed, F.O., 2019). The fifth article is by Abdullah, O.G., Saber, D.R. and Taha, S.A.,(n.d.) under the title The optical characterization of polyvinyl alcohol: cobalt nitrate solid polymer electrolyte films.

5-also

“The refractive index is a fundamental optical property of materials that is directly related to the other optical, electrical, and magnetic properties, and also of interest to those studying the physical, chemical, and molecular properties by optical techniques [19]. Refractive index was determined from the optical reflectance and extinction coefficient of the investigated films using the following formula.”

Example (1) displays the use of iterative items that triggers lexical presupposition. It shows that the refractive index is of interest other than those studying the physical, chemical, and molecular properties.

4.1. 5 Factive Items

2.3% frequent trigger occur in articles by Kurdish writers is *factive verb*, in which the researchers show higher level of data in their scientific texts to further establish the factual nature of the information to gain the readers trust in their publications. For example, learn, discover, notice, know, understand, regret, accept, hear, resent, appreciate, realize, and tolerate, among others, are factual verbs that assume real truth in their objects. As Crystal (1997), states that the term '*factive*' is employed in verb categorization to highlight that a verb that receives a complement clause and the writer assumes the reality of the proposition stated in the clause. As a result, the latter are referred to as "factive" since they expect the reality of their complement clause.

The seventh article is by Abdullah, A.O., Hamakhan, I.A. and Talabany, Z.J., (2022) under the title *“DRYING OF CARROT SLICES USING FLUIDIZED BED DRYER AND MICROWAVE -ASSISTED FLUIDIZED BED DRY”*

6- find out

“Souraki and Mowla [11] discussed the effects of microwave power and inlet air temperature and velocity on drying behaviors of garlic in an inert medium. They find out that the early stages of drying the garlic reach its equilibrium value; the internal resistance against mass transfer controls the drying rate of this product”.

The example (1) used *find out* showed the use of another form of factive items. Factive items which trigger factive presupposition. It presupposes that the early stages of drying the garlic reach its equilibrium value.

4.1.6 Implicit cleft with stressed constituents

The *implicit cleft* with stressed constituents is related to the particular presuppositions which are also easily triggers (Levinson, 1983). Whenever a sentence is created, this cleft is visible from the use of upper-case letters which are the indication of contrastive stress. “*Implicit cleft with stressed constituents is a kind of stress constitution that is not shown in sentence structures but in some other stress forms like bold type, underlined type, italic, upper-case, etc. in written copies*” (Yuan, 2016)

In the analysis of the first article by (Baper, 2018) under the title “The role of heritage buildings in constructing the continuity of architectural identity in Erbil city.”

The eighth article is by (Thornton, T.F. and Comberti, C., 2017) under the title *Synergies and trade-offs between adaptation, mitigation and development.*

7-Window of Opportunity

“Transformation can be triggered by a Window of Opportunity, such as rapid change, ecological crises (Folke et al. 2005), or social and economic shocks (Olsson et al. 2006).”

Example (1) demonstrates the employment of stressed elements with implicit cleft.

Implicit cleft with stressed constituents triggers the structural presupposition. It presupposes that it is certain that triggering transformation is by window of opportunity.

4.1.7 Cleft sentence

This category has 1.50% share of occurrences rate, clefts often draw attention to a certain component. Cleft constructions are mostly used as triggers to assume a previous assumption on the relationship between the speaker and the hearer. (Fichtner, 1993).

According to (Biber, D., Johansson, S., Leech, G., Conrad, S., Finegan, E. and Quirk, R., 1999), a sentence can be "split into two sections, each with its own verb." He goes on to say that clefting is utilized to draw attention to specific elements. He divides cleft structures into two types: It-clefts and Wh-clefts

Article eight by Brime, A.A. and Bajalan, F.R.H., (2017) under the title “*Incorporating Outside Sources in Kurdish EFL Students’ Academic Writing*”

8-It

“Paragraphs should always have a topic sentence. It helps the reader understand the purpose of that paragraph. When dealing with source material, it is important to have a topic sentence that contextualizes the information being introduced. The reader needs to know how the source material fits into the topic being discussed.”

Example (1) demonstrates the use of cleft sentences. The structural presupposition triggered by cleft sentences. It presupposes that the topic sentence is important for contextualizing the information being presented.

The third article is by Abdulla (2015) under the title *Morphological study and Prevalence of head lice (Pediculus humanus capitis)(Anoplura: Pediculidae) infestation among some primary school students in Erbil City, Kurdistan region.*

9-who

“The survey and collection of the samples have been conducted between October 2013 to May 2014 from different Governmental and Non-Governmental school students; from class one to six, each of the students who were enrolled in the study was assigned to 1 of 3 age groups.”

Examples (1) represents the use of cleft sentence. In this example, it presupposes that the students enrolled in the study. The structural presupposition is triggered by cleft sentence.

4.1.8 Non-Restrictive Clauses

Even though English includes two unique kinds of relative clauses, restrictive and non-restrictive clauses, (Levinson, 1983) contends that only non-restrictive clauses cause in a presupposition. Negation of the main verb in a relative phrase has no influence on the clauses; hence, it prompts presupposition. Biber, D., Johansson, S., Leech, G., Conrad, S. and Finegan, E, (1999.) add that non-restrictive clauses that are fragment of relative clauses further data that is not really required for identifying.

The ninth article is by Mustafa, F.A. and Danoon, M.G., (2020) under the title of : *Effect of Common Outdoor Spaces on Social Interaction: The Case of College of Engineering Campus at Salahaddin University–Erbil, Iraq.*

10-Which

“A third group consists of spaces such as a university campus or corporate plazas, which are privately owned but reachable to the general public. A final group is shared outdoor spaces usually accessible only to members of that group owning the space.”

Example (1) illuminates the use of non-restrictive relative clause. *Presupposition trigger* which trigger the framework of *presupposition* is nonrestrictive relative clause. It presupposes that a university precincts or commercial plazas are private property, however, they are in public.

4.1.9 Change of state verbs

(Khaleel, 2010) states *change of state* verbs presupposes that an item has been in a particular place or condition and involved in a shift of a kind of behavior. Such verbs include start, stop, begin, continue, finish, go, arrive, change, leave, enter, take, etc.

The tenth article is by (Muho, H.A. and Bakir, S.N., 2014) under the title Taboo Words and Expressions in English.

11- Began

“The community began to make a distinction between a genteel and an absence vocabulary, between the Latinate words of the upper class and the lusty Anglo-Saxon of the +lower. That is why a duchess perspired and expectorated and menstruated- while a kitchen maid sweated , spat and bled. “

Example (1) illustrates the use of change of state verbs. Change of state verb which trigger the lexical presupposition. It presupposes that they not make a distinction between a genteel and an absence vocabulary before.

4.1.10 Questions

This sort has the low existence proportion with only 0.80%. Wh-questions, rhetorical questions, and yes or no questions are the main types of questions (Liang, R. and Liu, Y, 2016), It observed that questions tend to presuppose their assertive counterparts and to introduce additional assumptions through their interrogative forms.

In English, wh-question formulations are often understood with the *presupposition* that the evidence subsequent the wh-form are previously acknowledged to be true .

The tenth article conducted by (Muho, H.A. and Bakir, S.N., 2014) under the title: *Taboo Words and Expressions in English.*

12-What

“However today, taboos in English seem to be primarily based on sexual profane and blasphemous references meanwhile new words are constantly emerging. Here speakers may ask so many questions related to people’s daily life such as, “How do we use a taboo word?, What prevents us from saying special words or achieving particular acts?”

The example (1) above exhibited the usage of question as *presupposition triggers*. It presupposes that we say special words or achieve particular acts. The form of question trigger the structural presupposition.

4.1.11 *Implicative Verbs*

This form has arisen in 8 articles at a ratio of 0.70% percentage. Other linguistic expressions that trigger presuppositions are *Implicative verbs*. Verbs like; manage , overlook, evade, occur, and so on are called *implicative* (Haji & Mohammed, 2019). (Yule, 1996) defines *lexical presupposition* by arguing that when a person manages to achieve something, the verb '*managed*' conveys both proclaimed and presumed meaning. The stated connotation is that the person is successful in accomplishing a goal. As a result, when someone says they are unable to achieve their objectives the claimed sense is that they are not succeed, but the presupposed meaning (which is not asserted) is that they attempted to do that task. So, the word '*managed*' can be seen as a claim '*succeeded*' and presupposing '*tried*' (Khaleel, 2010).

The sixth article is by Mott (2017) , under the title Approaches to the syllable: an assessment.

13-manage

“All this, however, is not to say that the concept of the syllable is indispensable in modern phonological theory. For example, Harris (1994: 45) in his description of the phonology of English argues that “[...] for our present purposes, we can manage quite happily without a syllable node.” In fact, abstract theories, like government phonology, on the whole, seem to adopt a word-level only (van der Hulst/Ritter 1999: 42).”

In example (1) the verb managed is the kind of *implicative verb* which triggers the lexical presupposition. The implicative verb manage presupposes that we can do it without depending on syllabic note.

4.1.12 *Counterfactual conditional*

The existence is 0.70% and occurred in 4 articles.

As a result of this presupposition, it should be assumed that the presupposed thing is not only false but also opposite the reality or contrary to the facts (Haji & Mohammed, 2019). Some conditional structures, known as counterfactual conditionals, for example, assume that the data in the- If-clause is false at the moment of speech (Yule, 1996).

The fourth article is by Daham, B.F.A., Mohammed, M.N. and Mohammed, K.S.(2014) under the title *Modified Harmony Search Algorithm for Solving the Four-Color Mapping Problem*.

14-If

“The evaluation function will return a value that will represent the fitness of a harmony vector. The function aims to get a minimum result, wherein, the smaller the fitness value, the better the vector is. The value also represents the number of errors present in the solution. If the fitness value reaches zero, then that is the optimal solution and the optimization process will stop. Figure 10 illustrates how the objective function works.”

Example provide the use of counterfactual conditional. The sentence brings a divergent to the detail. What if-clause stated in affirmative sentences presume the contradictory meaning, and just the opposite, then it presupposes that the fitness value doesn't reach zero.

4.1.13 Verbs of Judging

Verbs of Judging is the least occurrence one among the other type with 0.10% as only two articles used it in one sentence for each. Thus, due to these presuppositions are triggers by using words for specific purposes that is not suited for scientific articles such as credit, criticize, Justify, accused, blame, glorify, forgive, excuse.

The tenth article is by Muho, H.A. and Bakir, S.N, (2014) under the title *“Taboo Words and Expressions in English”*.

15- criticize

“The above words are used in their religious context, for instance in church or discussing religious problems and the priest may talk about Jesus Christ „or being damned by God. However, some people find their use outside formal circumstances as offensive and shocking as when we criticize someone by saying „Jesus Christ“ and you are so god-damned stupid. These words are regarded offended when they are used out of context or in a disrespectful way, i.e. when names are „taken in vain“ .Hence words such as „God“, „Jesus ,, and „Christ Almighty „become taboo“.

Example (15) shows the use of verbs of judging. Verbs of judging trigger the lexical presupposition.

It presupposes that people become sad or they dislike to be called “god dammed stupid”. It also presupposes that “there are people who do stupid things and they use the expression of “Jesus Christ”to criticize them.

Verbs of Judging are rarely found in the scientific content of publications, demonstrating that Kurdish researchers take a stance of impartial commentator, not supporting one side or party.

Presuppositions triggers

No		Definite Descripio	Factive	e Verb	Implicativ	Change Of State	Items	Iterative	Judging	Verbs Of	Temporal Clauses	Sentences	Non- Restrictiv a Palativa Cleft	With	Implicit Cleft
1	(Baper, 2018	305	6	1	1	2	0	3	6	1	2				
2	(Ali, K.A., Qadir, M.M., Rasool, S.O. and Hamad, O.M., 2012	68	0	1	0	2	0	17	0	1	12				
3	Abdulla, 2015)	109	3	1	2	5	0	11	3	2	8				
4	(Daham, B.F.A., Mohammed, M.N. and Mohammed, K.S., 2014	130	2	1	3	5	0	8	0	3	0				
5	(Abdullah, O.G., Saber, D.R. and Taha, S.A.,, n.d.	106	4	0	3	3	0	4	4	4	0				
6	(Kamel, F.H. and Najmaddin, C., 2016	32	2	0	0	2	0	8	1	3	3				
7	(Abdullah, A.O., Hamakhan, I.A. and Talabany, Z.J., 2022	120	4	1	3	4	0	9	4	2	1				
8	(Brime, A.A. and Bajalan, F.R.H., 2017	158	8	3		6	1	12	3	2	1				
9	(Mustafa, F.A. and Danoon, M.G., 2020	248	9	1	5	7	0	10	4	2	1				
10	Muho, H.A. and Bakir, S.N, 2014	210	5	4	3	16	1	18	5	1	6				
	Number of occurrences	148	4	13	20	52	2	100	30	21	34				
	Frequency of occurrences	78	2.0	0.70%	1.00	2.70	0.10	5.00	1.50%	1.10%	1.80%				
		6	3												
			0												
			%												

Table 1 Presupposition triggers identified in non-native English writers by Kurdish writers

4.2 The types of presuppositions.

Table (2) recapitulates the rate of existences of the presupposition types that it has been triggered by *presupposition triggers* noticed in the 10 arbitrarily designated English journalistic scripts by Kurdish writers.

An 'existential presupposition type' is used the most, while 'counterfactual presupposition trigger' is the least often utilized, according to our findings in table 2." Using existential presuppositions in more than 75% of the chosen studied articles is a signal of an inclination. The structural presupposition has a 14 percent share of the presupposition type, which is the second largest. The third is lexical presupposition, which accounts for around 5% of the total. Both Factive presupposition (2.2%) and counterfactual (0.68%) have the lowest recurrence rate. The high percentage of the frequency of *existential trigger* refers to the units and it is the modest one in order for speech to be more meaningful and comprehensible in providing facts to the readers and listeners (Zare, J., Abbaspour, E. and Nia, R.M., 2012).

The second highest type is for structural presupposition with 14% which consists of the following presupposition triggers (*cleft constructions, Wh-questions, comparative constructions, questions, counterfactual conditionals and non-restrictive clauses*). *Structural presupposition* is the postulation related to the practice of particular words and phrases that are supposed to be true, for example, *WH-question* framework in English is predictably understood with the assumption that the information after the *WH-* form is already known to be situational (Siagian, R.O., Pangaribuan, R.E. and Toruan, F., , 2015). It is arguable that the journal articles text used such triggers to present the knowledge as presupposed - (*assumed to be true*), thereby accepting the information as a fact by the reader.

Lexical presupposition is the usage of one form with its proclaiming connotation is unadventurously construed with the assumption that another meaning is comprehended. When used a presupposition trigger such as an implicative verb, change of state, verb of judging, or an iterative item is trigger their meaning would be perceived in another word. (Jasim, Z.F.I. and Said, N.K.M, n.d.). Therefore, the awareness of *implicative verb, change of state verb, verb of judging, and iterative items* denotes to *lexical presupposition*. In the article texts lexical presupposition is the third highest percentage with only 4.5%, this designates that authors practically favor employing lexical items in guiding their readers understating of the texts.

Factive presupposition is the postulation that is factual and can identify by some verbs such as 'know', 'realize', 'regret', 'be', 'aware', 'odd', and 'glad' (Yule, 1996). In opinion of the study examination, *factive presupposition triggers* has a

few occurrences in the non-native articles that are 43 for 10 articles with percentage of only 2.26%. This could be attributed to the writers' evasion in imposing accurate presupposed suggestions for articulating their opinions (Khaleel, 2010). The least common kind used by Kurdish authors is the counterfactual, which has only been used 13 times, or 0.68 percent of the time. A counter-factual presupposition indicates that what is assumed is not merely erroneous, but also opposed to what is factual or opposite to the facts. For instance, there are conditional structures sometimes referred to as counterfactual conditionals, which assume that the evidence in the If-clause is not true at the moment of speaking (Yule, 1996).

No.	Presupposition trigger	Types of presupposition	No.	Percentage
1.	Definite descriptions	Existential presupposition	1486	78 %
2.	Cleft sentence, question	Structural Presupposition	30 16	14%
	Temporal clause		100	
	non-restrictive relative clause		21	
	comparative construction		69	
	implicate clefts with stressed constituents		34	
	Total		270	
3.	Factive verbs	Factive presupposition	43	2.26%
4.	Implicative verb, change of state verb	Lexical presupposition	13 20	4.5%
	verb of judging		2	
	iterative items		52	
	Total		= 87	
5.	Counterfactual conditional	Counterfactual Presupposition	13	0.68%

Table 2 Types of presupposition triggered by presupposition triggers in Non - native English writers

4.3 The presupposition triggers realized in the types of presupposition

This section gives a comprehensive examination of the realizations of presupposition triggers (thirteen type according to Levinson) in the types of presupposition (six type according to Yule 1983). The presupposition triggers imply the existence of presupposition type in the speaker's utterance or the writer's statement. As a reference, below are the six types and how they have been realized:

Existential presuppositions are assumptions that someone or something exists that are triggered by the realization of definite description and it is the first type of presuppositions. Typically, it can be realized by the presence of something or some concepts. It is often triggered by descriptions that include proper names, the definite article, demonstrative pronouns, and possessives.

Lexical presupposition is the second sort of presupposition. This kind of presupposition assumes that what is presented is true. It is often triggered by implicative verbs, change of state verbs, judging verbs, and iterative items. Lexical presupposition is when the conventional interpretation of a form with its stated meaning is based on the presupposition that another meaning is understood. Implicative verbs, change of state verbs, judging verbs, and iterative items are a kind of presupposition triggers whose usage with their declared meaning is often read with the assumption that another meaning is recognized. The realization of implicative verbs, change of state verbs, judging verbs, and iterative items thus referred to lexical presupposition.

Structural presupposition is the third type of presupposition. It is often triggered by cleft constructions, questions, temporal clauses, non-restrictive relative clause, and comparison and contrast. Certain sentence structures have been examined as typically and routinely assuming that a portion of the structure is true. One may suggest that speakers can utilize such structures to regard information as presupposed (assumed to be true) and, thus, to be accepted as true by listeners. Certain words and phrases that trigger presupposition are known as presupposition triggers.

The counterfactual presupposition is the fourth type of presupposition. Typically, it is triggered by a conditional clause. Counter Factual Presupposition is a sort of presupposition that happens when the assumption of what is presupposed is not only false, but also the total opposite of what is true, or contradictory to the facts. Counterfactual presupposition is a form in which what is presupposed is not only false, but also contradictory to the facts.

This type also assumes that positive statements in the if-clause are not occurring and negative propositions occur. For this reason, the realizations of the counterfactual conditional refers to the counterfactual presupposition.

Factive presupposition is a kind of presupposition that is shown by the use of verbs that may be considered facts. Factive verbs are one of the presupposition triggers that are used to indicate facts. Therefore, the realization of the factive verb in the clause referred to the factive presupposition

Non-factive presupposition is the last type of presupposition, in which it is assumed that something is not true. It is a non-factual presumption since it contains verbs or nouns that are assumed to be false. A Non-factive presupposition refers to the presupposition linked with verbs that are assumed to be false. Non-factual verbs such as dream, imagine, and pretend, among others, are used to imply that what follows is not real. For this reason, the realizations of non-factive verbs is called non-factive presupposition.

Conclusion

In its effort to recognize the *presupposition triggers* employed in English journalistic scripts that are written by Kurdish writers, this study has demarcated and acknowledged the *pragmatic presupposition triggers* employed in randomly selected English journalist articles. According to the examination of the sample studies, majority types of presupposition triggers are used in all the selected publications with few variation in occurrences in terms of their frequencies in the various articles.

It can be noticed that the high frequency is of existential presupposition; that can be attributed to the discrepancy and extent of the articles' topics. In viewpoint of the examination of *presupposition triggers* in the articles, the results confirmed that the most frequent *presupposition* is *existential* with 1486 occurrences (78 %), followed by Structural presupposition with 270 existences (14 %), lexical presupposition with 87 occurrences (4.5%), Factive presupposition with 43 occurrences (2.26%), Counterfactual presupposition with only 13 occurrences (0.68 %). In addition, the study also displays the existence of *presupposition triggers* which comprises of certain descriptions (78%), the second highest occurrences is 100 temporal (5%), 69 comparative (3.60%), 52 Iterative (2, 70%), 43 Factive Items (2.30%), 34 implicit cleft with stressed (1,80%), 21Non-restrictive clauses (1.10%) , 20 Change of state verb(1%), 16 Questions (0.80%), both implicated verbs, and counterfactual conditionals have the same with (0.70%) however the implicated verbs are found in 8 articles out of 10 ,whereas the other one were only found3= in four articles. Finally, the least presupposition trigger

type is verb of judging with only 2 which indicates that the Kurdish articles are intend to not giving their opinions or being biased and only take a neutral position in showing the facts and information and due to the purpose of the writing in this case which is scientific researches.

Bearing in mind the conclusions of the result of this paper, the occurrences of *presupposition triggers* provided much influence to the roles of Kurdish writers; also, it acts as a common for article researchers to present facts, information and conclusions. It is to an extent, it acceptable to acknowledge that the articles offer the presence of their contextual assumption to abridge the clarification as language in articles should be brief, modest and dense form of opinion. This accurate evidence certainly intended to empower the value of the truth to support what the non-native articles mentioned or contended on.

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