

3.Speech(3) Prime Minister's statement on coronavirus (COVID-19): 23 June 2020

<https://www.gov.uk/government/speeches/prime-ministers-statement-on-coronavirus-covid-19-22-september-2020>

4.Speech(4) Prime Minister's statement on coronavirus (COVID-19): 9 March 2020

<https://www.gov.uk/government/speeches/prime-ministers-statement-on-coronavirus-covid-19-22-september-2020>

5.Speech(5) Prime Minister's statement on coronavirus (COVID-19): 18 March 2020

<https://www.gov.uk/government/speeches/prime-ministers-statement-on-coronavirus-covid-19-22-september-2020>

6.Speech(6) Prime Minister's statement on coronavirus (COVID-19): 20 March 2020

<https://www.gov.uk/government/speeches/prime-ministers-statement-on-coronavirus-covid-19-22-september-2020>

7.Speech(7) Prime Minister's statement on coronavirus (COVID-19): 16 March 2020

<https://www.gov.uk/government/speeches/prime-ministers-statement-on-coronavirus-covid-19-22-september-2020>

8.Speech(8) Prime Minister's statement on coronavirus (COVID-19): 12 March 2020

<https://www.gov.uk/government/speeches/prime-ministers-statement-on-coronavirus-covid-19-22-september-2020>

9.Speech(9) Prime Minister's statement on coronavirus (COVID-19): 17 March 2020

<https://www.gov.uk/government/speeches/prime-ministers-statement-on-coronavirus-covid-19-22-september-2020>

10.Speech(10) Prime Minister's statement on coronavirus (COVID-19): 25 March 2020

<https://www.gov.uk/government/speeches/prime-ministers-statement-on-coronavirus-covid-19-22-september-2020>

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Appendix (1)

Speeches of the Prime Minister Bo- ris Johnson about coronaviruses crisis

1.Speech(1) Prime Minister’s state-
ment on coronavirus (COVID-19): 10
May 2020.

[https://www.gov.uk/government/speeches/
prime-ministers-statement-on-coronavi-
rus-covid-19-22-september-2020](https://www.gov.uk/government/speeches/prime-ministers-statement-on-coronavirus-covid-19-22-september-2020)

2.Speech(2) Prime Minister’s statement on
Coronavirus, press conference: 11 May 2020
[https://www.gov.uk/government/speeches/
prime-ministers-statement-on-coronavi-
rus-covid-19-22-september-2020](https://www.gov.uk/government/speeches/prime-ministers-statement-on-coronavirus-covid-19-22-september-2020)

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by: working from home if you can; limiting contact with other people; keeping distance if you go out 2 metres apart where possible; washing your hands regularly...” and “Workers who are finding that their jobs are under threat or are going, through no fault of their own. ... remember our joint objective: to beat this virus”.

The Prime Minister speech shows many occurrence of “Factive presupposition” which is 24 (7.16%) this indicates that in many occasions he delivers implied or indirect message to his nation which is, if they don’t realize the dangerous situation of this crisis and break the rules which should be followed, they would face terrible consequences of this disease. The researcher finds also that through using “Factive presupposition” that the prime minister tries to motivate his nation like saying “*even if things seem tough now, just to remember, that we will get through this, this country will get through this epidemic, just as*

it has got through many tougher experiences before” that is as we can see here, he wanted to remind them that they are strong enough to pass this crisis, and they should stay united and help each other to face this virus.

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The Prime Minister utilized presupposition mostly to present a lot of information to his nation using “Existential presupposition” in most of his speeches, which is the most prominent type used in the selected speeches, he uses it to set the background of his nation to make effective communication as in “*Approximately one in 1,700 people in the community in England are now estimated to have the virus, down from 1 in 400 four weeks ago*”; and he uses it also to mold the ideologies of his nation as in “*we continue to look out for one another, to pull together in a united and national effort, I have no doubt that we can and will rise to that challenge*” and “*I want to tell you where we got to in our national fight back against the coronavirus*” here he use the pronoun “we” to indicate that he (the prime minister) and his nation are one unity have the same ideologies and thoughts, and they are all together facing this dangerous disease, therefore they should work together

as one unity to prevent themselves and families.

The prime minister speech was very effective and motivated because he depends on using “Existential presupposition”, that is, he was very logical about numbers, facts and the precise nature of thing that is He portrays each event by the showcase of a timeline as in “*On 20 June, 283 people were admitted to hospital with coronavirus in England, Wales and Northern Ireland - down from 438 two weeks earlier, and down from a peak of 3,432 on 1 April*” and “*In total, 306,210 people have now tested positive for coronavirus, which is an increase of 874 cases since yesterday*”. Moreover, he emphasis issues related financial matters and advice his nation that they should follow precautions like self-isolation and hand –washing to prevent them from the virus because the government can’t provide food and other essential necessities because of lack of fund as in “*People should Stay Alert,*

tions to avoid its danger unless they must follow the rules to save their lives. Thus, the prime minister assumes that “They are avoiding all unnecessary social contact now, why not avoiding earlier, or later? Why bring in this very draconian measure?”

7. Conclusions

The purpose of this research was to identify types and functions of presupposition in the speech of the Prime Minister Boris Johnson during coronaviruses crisis to his country. According to the analysis of the selected speeches, the researcher finds that all kinds of presupposition used in the selected speeches, but there is some differences in the rate of occurrence in the different speeches. The analytical part of the study shows that the total number of presupposition found in all the speeches is (335). The most prominent type is “Existential presupposition” 153 (58.67%) followed by “Lexical presupposition”

101(30.14%). Then “Counter-factual presupposition” 51(15.2%), “Factive presupposition” 24 (7.16%). The presupposition types with the lowest frequency “non- fictive presupposition” 3(0.89%) and “structural presupposition” 2(0.59%). The results show that ‘existential’, ‘lexical’ and “Counter-factual ” presupposition are the ones utilized mostly in the speeches while ‘structural’ and ‘non-factive’ presupposition are the least. Based on the results of the study. The following points can be drawn: the data analysis shows that the Prime Minister has strong and effective language skills, he utilized them to persuade and effect his nation. For example, he choose a simple words in his speech to advise them and convince them to follow the rules of World Health Organization, also he creates the awareness for his people about the, effects, causes, solutions, symptoms, and the procedures that is taken by his Cabinet.

safe and enforce social distancing”.

Appendix,speech. 1

“This has been an incredibly tough time for these establishments. But I hope that everyone working in them can take confidence in knowing they will be able to open their doors once again in just a couple of weeks’ time”.

Appendix,speech. 3

In the above examples, the use of” non- factive” verb “hope” make the listener presuppose that the details which follow this verb is not facts “untrue”. That is, these examples presupposed that “people don’t act on this week”, “The hospitality industry and other public places don’t re open this week” and “everyone working cannot take confidence in knowing they will be able to open their doors once again in just a couple of weeks’ time”.

6. Structural presupposition

Structural presupposition receives the least occurrences of frequency

2(0.59%). The most familiar structure used in this type is the” Wh –question”. This kind of presupposition presupposed that the part of the sentence which follow the Wh- question is true. That is the structure is conventionally interpreted with the assumption that what follow the question word is already known by the listener. The following are some examples from the speeches under investigation.

- “*why are we doing this now, why now, why not earlier, or later? Why bring in this very draconian measure? The answer is that we are asking people to do something that is difficult and disruptive of their lives”.*

Appendix,speech. 7

In the above example, it is obvious that the prime minister used the Wh –form to prepare the audience for discussing his main ideas. He actually asks them such questions not to get a specific answers, But he wants them to realize how serious and dangerous this crisis is and the there is no op-

ing verbs like “realize”, “know”, “regret”, etc. Information delivered in this type of presupposition is treated as true. (Yule, 1996, :27). Based on the analysis of the data “fictive presupposition” receives 24 (7.16%) this few occurrence compared with existential, lexical and counter fact presupposition reflect the avoidance of the prime minister in stating factual presupposed utterances for explaining his opinions. The following are some illustrative examples from the data of the use of “factive presupposition”:

- “*I know that these steps will not be easy for parents or teachers*”. Appendix, speech. 4

- “*I know that many people including millions of fit and active people over 70 may feel, listening to what I have just said*”. Appendix, speech. 7

- “*I just want you to know that the government will do all we can to help you and your family during this period. We’re not just going to be as you saw yesterday supporting the econo-*

my during this period”. Appendix, speech. 8

In these examples, “factive presupposition” is illustrated by utilizing the factive verb “know”. Actually, the informative message is expressed in the data after the lexical item “know”.

5. “Non-factive presupposition”

This type of presupposition can be identified by using verbs like dream, hope, imagine, pretend, etc. In fact, the semantic properties associated with such verbs make the speaker send a message to the listener that the information after these verbs are “not true”. In this study, this type received a very low occurrences 3 (0.89%) among other types. The following are some examples from the data of the use of “non-factive presupposition”:

- “*And the first step is a change of emphasis that we hope that people will act on this week*”. Appendix, speech. 1

- “*we will hope to re-open at least some of the hospitality industry and other public places, provided they are*

local outbreaks”.

-“*we are of course keeping this under review and this again may change as the disease spreads*”. Appendix, speech. 8

This sentence shows that the use of the word “again” promote the presupposition asserted in the sentence. The lexical item again presuppose that specific action has already taken place before, so, the sentence can be inferred as “ they take this situation under review and this may change as the disease spreads”

3. “Counter-factual presupposition”

As we mentioned earlier in this study, in “Counter-factual” presupposition what is assumed is “not true” and it is “opposite to the facts”. This type is used in the “if – clause” constructors which is called conditional structures, which usually assumes that what is said is not true at the time of speaking (Yule, 1996: 29).). The following are some examples from the speeches un-

der investigation.

- “*I must tell you that if the virus were to begin to run out of control*” Appendix, speech. 3

In this example, the sentence of if – clause presuppose that this information is contrary to the reality. Actually, it assumes that “the virus is not out of control”

- “*We can avoid that if we all continue to stay alert and do our bit to control the virus*”. Appendix, speech. 3

Likewise, in this example the if clause sentence is opposite to reality. In fact, it presupposed that “we all don’t continue to stay alert and do our bit to control the virus”

- “*stay at home for seven days if you think you have the symptoms*”. Appendix, speech. 4

Also, this example presupposes that “you think you have not the symptoms”

4. “Factive presupposition”

This type can be identified by us-

expressions the reader assumes the existence of “*police officers*”, “*the supermarket*”, “*delivery drivers*”, etc. through using this type of presupposition, which got the highest occurrence among other types, the prime minister delivers a many information to the listeners which true, he confirm them presenting a real evidence like statistics numbers of patients and recoveries cases to persuade the people that they are strong enough to pass this crisis.

2. “Lexical presupposition”

In this type, the use of one type with its asserted meaning is usually explained with the assumption that non asserted meaning is understood. (Yule, 1996: 28). Based on the data analysis, it is found that lexical presupposition comes next to “existential presupposition” in terms of frequency of occurrences in all the speeches, this emphasis that the prime minister almost prefer utilizing lexical expressions in guiding the listener identify

his implied meaning. Below are two examples shows how the prime minister uses lexical presupposition to achieve the speech purpose.

- “*And this obviously requires everyone to act responsibly, which I have no doubt they will do. It will still be possible for the police to break up large and irresponsible gatherings*”.

Appendix,speech. 3

- “Of course, the fight is far from over. This is a nasty virus still that wants to take advantage of our carelessness. I’m afraid there will be local outbreaks”. Appendix,speech. 3

By using the word “still”, the prime minister let the listeners interpret the implied message asserted in the speech, in fact, this idea can be understood in the first sentence as: “It will be possible for the police to break up large and irresponsible gatherings”, while the second sentence could be interpreted as “This is a nasty virus that wants to take advantage of our carelessness. I’m afraid there will be

Speech.8	12	2	0	7	0	7	28	8.3
Speech.9	14	3	0	3	0	1	21	6.2
Speech.10	13	0	2	2	0	0	17	5.07
Total	153	24	3	101	2	51	335	100
(%) .Per	45.6	7.16	0.89	30.14	0.59	15.2		

Table (1) shows that the total number of presupposition found in all the speeches is (335). The most prominent type is “Existential presupposition” 153 (58.67%) followed by “Lexical presupposition” 101 (30.14%). Then “Counter-factual presupposition” 51 (15.2%), “Factive presupposition” 24 (7.16%). The presupposition types with the lowest frequency “non- fictive presupposition” 3 (0.89%) and “structural presupposition” 2 (0.59%).

1. “Existential presupposition”

This kind of presupposition is assumed to appear generally in definite noun phrase and in possessive constructions (Yule.1996:27) Through using such phrases or expressions the prime minister is supposed to be committed to the existence to the things or entities named and the number of patient and recoveries. The following are illustrative examples from the data:

- “*we need other critical workers with children to keep doing their jobs too – from police officers who are keeping us safe to the supermarket delivery drivers, social care workers who look after the elderly and who are so vital*”. Appendix, - speech. 4
- “*secondary pupils facing exams next year will get at least some time with their teachers before the holidays*”. Appendix, speech. 1

The underlined words are examples of existential presupposition ,by using such

Then, the collected speeches were classified based on Yule's classification (1996) of presupposition, this classification is explained in table (3) below.

Table (3)

YULE'S (1996) CLASSIFICATION OF TYPES OF PRESUPPOSITION

Presupposition Type	Explanation	Example	*Pre >>
1. Existential	Entities named by the speaker and assumed to be present. (NP – possessive case)	The Cold war has ended. - Maher's car is nice.	>> Cold war exists. >> Maher exists, and >> he has a car.
2. Factive	Identified by the presence of some verbs: 'know', 'realize', 'regret', 'be aware'.	- I knew that Huda has died. - I regret calling him.	>> Huda has died. >> I called him.
3. Non-factive	An assumption referred to something that is not true. Verbs like "dream, imagine, pretend"	- I pretended that I was ill. - She dreamed that she was married.	>> I wasn't ill. >> she wasn't married.
4. Lexical	In using one word, the speaker can act as if another meaning will be understood	- Sue stopped dieting. - Are you still angry.	>> Sue used to diet. >> He was angry.
5. Structural	An assumption associated with the use of certain structures (Wh-questions).	- When did Sami arrive? - Where did you find the mouse?	>> Sami arrived. >> You found a mouse.
6. Counterfactual	The assumption that what is presupposed is not only untrue, but is the opposite of what is true, or contrary to facts. (conditional structure – if)	- If you were my son, I would buy you a car. - If I were rich, I would buy a villa.	>> You are not my son. >> I am not rich.

*The symbol >> means presupposes.

7. Results and Discussion

Table (4)

Frequency and percentage of types of presupposition used in Prime Minister Boris Johnson selected speech

Speech.No	Existential	Factive	Non-factive	Lexical	Structural	Counter-factual	Total	(%) .Per
Speech.1	16	4	0	17	0	15	52	15.5
Speech.2	15	0	0	11	0	5	31	9.2
Speech.3	23	1	1	19	0	6	50	14.9
Speech.4	17	2	0	7	0	1	27	8.05
Speech.5	14	5	0	15	0	4	38	11.3
Speech.6	12	4	0	6	0	4	26	7.7
Speech.7	17	3	0	14	2	8	45	13.4

9. "Judging verbs": this type of presupposition is different from other types that the implication is attributes to the verb of judging, not to writer or the speaker just like the previous types of presuppositions. For example:

- Sarah accused Suha of stealing. This sentence presupposed that stealing is bad.

10. "Contrasts and comparisons": this type of linguistic form can be identified by comparative constructions or by particles such as in return, backe, too, etc. Forexample:

- John is a better teacher than Ali. This sentence presupposed that John and Ali are teachers.

Accordingly, all these linguistic forms mentioned above considered as the main types for producing potential presupposition. Thus, in light of what is mentioned previously, the researcher identified that, the assumption made by the listener is depending on many factors such as the mutual knowledge and the way the listener analyzing the

speech according to the context of conversation; even the relation between the speaker and the listener effect the explanations of what is said.

6. Methodology of Research:

This research is qualitative approach using descriptive measures in analyzing the selected data. The data of this study comprises a sample of (10) whole speeches of Prime Minister Boris Johnson about coronaviruses crisis to his country. These statements are taken from the internet. The selection of those speeches is depending on the assumption that both the speaker (the Prime Minister) and the audience (his nation) understand each other because they belong to same cultural backgrounds and have the same ideologies.

Based on the collected data, the following process was applied in the data analysis. The first stage was to read through all the speeches. The second stage was to identify different kinds of presupposition in all the statements.

example:

- - The writer is Arthur Smith.
- This sentence presuppose that Arthur Smith exist.

3.Cleft sentences:there are some types of sentence structure which may generate potential presupposition like "it -clause" and" if- clause". For example

- It was Sarah who hits me.

This sentence presupposed that Sarah got hitted.

4. "Iteratives verbs": this type includes verbs like , return, another again, anymore, repeat, etc.for example:

- You couldn't go hospital again.

This sentence presupposed that you once can go to the hospital.

5. "Implicative forms": This type include verbs like forget,manage,etc.for example:

- Sarah forget to write her home work.

This sentence presuppose that Sarah ought to write her home work.

6. "Temporal clause":this type contains verbs like during, whenever, after, before, while, since,etc. For example:

- While Ali was sleeping .Huda came in.

This sentence presupposed that Ali was sleeping.

7. "Questions forms": the wh-question structure is very familiar linguistic form, producing the presupposition of the existing of the thing answering the question,or writer or speaker assuming of such an entity (Beaver, 1997:2). Forexample:

- Does Sarah travel yesterday?

This sentence presupposed the existence of Sarah.

8. "Fictive forms": this type of potential presupposition includes verbs like realized,known,aware,etc. factive predicte like; be happy that,be sad that,etc For example,

- It was wonderful who glad he was.

This sentence presuppose he was glad.

lieve specific information for granted.

4. **Linguistic constructions of potential presupposition:**

There are different views, which states that, presuppositions seem to appear with specific linguistic forms in specific context. but it is important to emphasize that “the fact that an utterance contains a semantic trigger that is (normally) responsible for a presupposition does not mean that the (potential) presupposition will ascend to become an (actual) presupposition of the speaker meant utterance” (Capone, 2017:26). Capone (ibid) adds that the existence of these specific linguistic forms will not usually generate actual semantic and conventional presupposition. Some linguists are confused whether these forms have a “heterogeneous nature”, rendering those specific linguistic forms related to presupposition arbitrary. This view was strongly supported by Stalnaker who argues that “one can explain many presuppositions in terms

of general rules (...) without building anything about presuppositions into the meanings of particular words or constructions” (Stalnaker, 1974:212). Or whether presuppositions share a “homogeneous nature” which is directly related presupposition to specific group of phrases, words and structures, this view is strongly supported by Yule and Beaver. (Yule, 2000:27).

The following are some main linguistic constructions which may produce potential presupposition Levinson (1983: 196-7):

1. “Change of state verbs”: this type includes the verb like begin, finish, start, etc. for example:

- Ali finished his term exam.
This sentence presupposed that Ali had an exam but now he finished it.

2. “Definite noun phrases”: This type includes mainly names, possessives also “that” and “this” clauses. the presupposition derived from this type is called “existential presuppositions”. (Levinson, 1983: 181). For

for the speaker that the listeners identifying that the speaker considers specific information as common knowledge but the basic idea of producing a statement is communicate a presupposition that is needed by uttering this statement.

Later on, some linguist such as, Simons (2003: 16-17) and Rooy (2007), develop Stalnaker's work and presenting the concept "informative presupposition" which is defined as "The one in which a speaker utters a presupposing sentence knowing full well that the presuppositions of the sentence are not in the common ground. As Stalnaker has observed from the first, such utterances may be entirely appropriate, and may lead to a perfectly natural process of accommodation. Such uses of presupposing sentences, we will call informative presuppositions". Asudeh (2008: 4-5) adds that it seems that presupposition imposes restrictions on communicator's understanding on the common

ground or on the common ground to let the proposition interpreted based on the presupposition.

Furthermore, Simons (2002:13) assert Stalnaker points of view, stating that the speaker traditionally represent his speech as presupposing that the statement is part of common ground and that "this representation is a transparent pretense, but it is nevertheless by means of the representation that communication is accomplished" (ibid.).

Accordingly, Stalnaker (ibid: 17) draws a distinction between making presupposition and presupposition, stating that making presupposition is implied or indirect way to give the listener anew information and make him believe it as common ground. In other words, it is an intentional producing of assumptions, this way of producing information is called informative presupposition. Finally, it's worth mentioning that this kind is employed in different ways to make the listener be-

important. That is, presupposing sentence is to assume its presupposition and in any normal context the speaker behaves as if the listener normally would take his statement for granted. He (ibid. 17-20) clarified that informative presuppositions solves many problems related to presupposition when it used together with accommodation. He adds that in specific contexts, the speaker should assume that the statement is part of general information by means of accommodation, and the listener then would believe and accept the assumed proposition or this statement might face presupposition failure.

Abbott (2000, 1422) argues that the main point concerning common ground is that presupposition is recognized with "old" information and since people need in some cases to accommodate some new data and consider it as old one depending on rules of accommodation as discussed above. Thus, accommodation play an

informative function which basically based on speaker presupposition

Stalnaker (1972: 441) adds that "any semantic presupposition of proposition expressed in a given context will be a pragmatic presupposition of the people in that context". But unfortunately the concept common ground knowledge faces many difficulties when tested against some specific context. (Atlas 1975: 37)

To solve such difficulties Lewis (1979: 340) discuss the term accommodation which consider as a way of or strategy used by the listener to change his thoughts or believes for preventing "presupposition failure". In this respect, he (ibid) states that "if at a time t something is said that requires a presupposition p to be acceptable and if p is not proposed just before t , then –ceteris paribus and within certain limit- presupposition p comes into existence at t ". Furthermore, Stalnaker (1979:449) emphasizes the point that it is not important

3. “Response stance”: agree, accept, admit, etc.

Furthermore, Hooper (1975 : 91) finds that presupposition construction is related to factives predicates which is followed by either strong or weak clauses .those constructions are usually called “strong factives” or “emotive factives”.(ibid:92) classify a the concept as follow:

Table(2)

Assertive and Non- Assertive factive , Hooper (1975 : 92)

Assertive Semi- factive	Non- Assertive(True Factive)
Find out realize know remember learn reveal notice see	regret forget amuse suffice bother be interesting make sense care be add

4.Presupposition and Common Ground

Many linguist in the field of pragmatics study the concept presupposition in relation to the concept common ground , they define it as proposition that the listener interpreted and accept it as part of common ground and mutual knowledge.In this respect, Asudeh (2008:4-5) disuses that presupposition should be understands as part of mutual knowledge or assumptions between the listener and the speaker in specific discourse .

Simons (2003: 16) express that “the idea seems to be that the utterance of a presupposing sentence brings the (speaker) presupposition into being”. In the same vien, Stalnaker (1972: 451) discuss the relation between speaker presupposition and sentence presupposition; considering that speaker presupposition is more

For example, if you study, you would pass. This sentence assumes that you did not study that is, this conditional structure assumes that what is said in the if-clause is not true at the time of speaking. Yule (ibid:30) presents the following table of the linguistic forms of potential presupposition, this sign means “presuppose”.

Table (1) Potential Presuppositions

Type	Example	Presupposition
Existential	The x	>> <i>x exists</i>
factive	I regret leaving	>> <i>I left</i>
Non-factive	He pretended to be happy	>> <i>he wasn't happy</i>
lexical	He managed to escape	>> <i>he tried to escape</i>
structural	When did she die?	>> <i>she died</i>
counterfactual	If I weren't ill	>> <i>I am ill</i>

6. The Factive Presupposition

This type of presupposition indicator is called factive because they appear in sentences to refer to facts, e.g.: realize, glad, knows, etc. for example:

Everyone knows Ali is a doctor. This sentence assumes that everybody knows that Ali is a doctor.

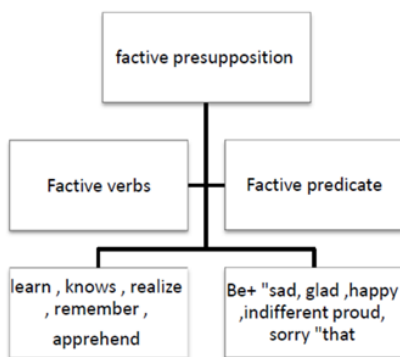


Figure (1) Factive presupposition (constructions) (Yule, 2008:27)

Another classification introduced by Cattell (1978: 61-77) who classifies presupposition indicators into three groups:

1. Factive(non-stance): notice, remember, recognize, know, regret, etc.
2. “Volunteered stance”: believe, suspect, assume, etc.

the things named. Also we find this type in “possessive construction” such as .e.g:your bag, which presupposes you have a bag.

2.The Lexical Presupposition

The indicators of this type is words like stop, manage and start. In this kind of preposition the use of one affirmative meaning is usually explained with the presupposition that another (non - affirmative) meaning is understood. For example,when a person say he managed to do something, this presuppose that this person tried or succeed to do something and the opposite is true in (non -affirmative) meaning in sentence like “he did not manage to do something” is interpreted as this person did not succeed to do something.

3.The Structural Presupposition

As we can see from the previous types of presupposition which is recognized from the use of specific words or phrases this type is recognized from the use of specific sentence struc-

ture,inother words using these structures is presupposing usually that part of this sentence is true. For example, if we say “when did Mary married?” this sentence structure presuppose or assume that Mary married. That is the speaker can utilized the wh –forms (when ,where, etc) structure to deal with the information as assumed and hence to convince the listener that these information are true. (Yule, 2000: 29)

4.The Non-Factive Presupposition

In this type the indicators used are verbs like pretend,dream,imagin and what follow these verb is usually not true. e.g. Ali imagines that he was the boss. This sentence presuppose that Ali was not a boss.

5. The Counter-Factual Presupposition

The last type of presupposition is the “Counter-Factual Presupposition”, the most common feature in this type is that, what assumed is the contrary to what is true or the opposite of facts.

notions can be specified and defined.

Pragmatically, there are three points of views of presupposition:

- Pragmatic presupposition means the presumptions of the sender (speaker) about the context of communication.
- Pragmatic presupposition is considered as a “felicity condition”.
- Pragmatic presupposition is regarded as the “mutual knowledge” between interlocutors. (Aitchison, 1999 : 100).

Atlas, (2007:34) agree with Simon view, as he explains that “any semantic presupposition of proposition expressed in a given context will be a pragmatic presupposition of the people in that context”. Generally, In presupposition, there are two dimensions must be verified, the first dimension is that presupposition can be classified into three critters: “context-based”, “sender –base”, “listener – based”. In the first criteria both the sender and the receiver make prediction based on

the context of the discussion while in the second criteria the sender intend specific thing when he says something , the last criteria the listener predict something from what is said. (Stalnaker, 1995 : 25) and (Leech 1989 : 191)

3. Types of presuppositions:

Through studying the term presupposition, the researcher finds different classifications related to different linguists of the concept, in this section, these classification will explained in details. (Yule, 2000: 27) shows that there are different linguistics forms which considered as indicators of possible presupposition that would be presupposition case in specific context, which can be classified as follow:

1.Existential Presupposition

In this type of presupposition, the present structure is usually used, as in “definite noun phrase” like (the president Obama , the house, etc.) in which the speaker assume the existence of

receiver (listener) to communicate and understand each other since it enable the listener to recognize the intended meaning. Crystal (1991: 272) express that the term presupposition deals with a very specific type of information called “implicit information” which is supposed to be recognized by the participants during their communication.

In this concern Finch, (2000:165) finds that presupposition considered as a natural feature of the use of language and it could be utilized as a “linguistic economy” technique, since the speaker is not obligated to say every detail when he speaks because repeating such details every time makes the conversation extremely boring. Furthermore, Simon (2006 : 76) and Verschueren (1999 : 27) finds that presupposition gives the effect of persuasion on participant in specific context that should be attributed to the people involved in that context, since they believe that context should

satisfy the rules used to add meaning to the utterance.

In the same direction, Verschueren (2002:26) says that “background information” is essential element to develop any communication and it is not important how direct and obvious the speaker wants to be, but conveying information depends mainly on various means including presupposition. Moreover, Simons (2007:13-4) emphasis that presupposition is proposition of an utterance U if it fulfill the following conditions :

1. The listener should believe the sentence to accept P to give meaning to U.
2. The cause for this utterance.
3. Is not just that the speaker has control the conversation intention with respect to P.

Simon in his view, argues that presupposition is related to utterance rather than speaker or sentence. Thus depending on utterance sentence and speaker presupposition the derivative

ance U presupposes P (at t) iff one can reasonably infer from U that

“the speaker S accepts P and regards it as uncontroversial, either because

a. S thinks that it is already part of the conversational context at t, or because

b. S thinks that the audience is prepared to add it, without objection, to the context against which U is evaluated”.

Simons (2007: 1) adds that there are theoretically related differences between various different type of presupposition each type shares general features”

In the same line, Yingfang (2007:55) defines presupposition “as a very important in linguistics, especially in pragmatics, presupposition is frequently employed in order to enhance the effects of persuasion because of its own special properties.” This definition emphasis that presupposition effects the people in a way that makes them interested about something and

wants them to know more about it.

Thus, presuppositions can be defined as certain elements of language which should be recognized and understood by the speaker and the listener which is supposed to be true for any part of conversation to make sense. The concept “presupposition” also refers to hidden meaning to what the speaker suppose as true and understood by the listener by means of the shared mutual knowledge.

2. Presupposition as pragmatic concept

Many linguists asserts that language considers as containers of hidden meaning , which means that it connects the implicit meaning and information to the explicit meaning. Nauhardt (2009 : 56) refers to the shared knowledge between people in the same communication as presupposition, which considers as the foundation for the sender (speaker) and the

1. On defining the concept Presupposition

Many linguists defined presupposition depending on their concern in the linguistic field, that is, some of them explain it from semantic point of view which claims that presupposition is the proposition that the speaker presuppose to be true in order to give truth value to the conversation (Simons, 2007: 10-15). Whereas, Yule (1996:25) defines the concept presupposition as "something the speaker assumes to be the case prior to making an utterance", in his definition Yule indicates that when the speaker say something he assumes that the hear understand what is his implied meaning because there are a common knowledge and cultural background between them.

Most of the studies about presupposition agree that there are three basic definitions as appoint departure, which is "utterance presupposition", "sentence presupposition" and

"speaker's presupposition". Simons (2007: 9-14) gives a clear explanation of these definitions that is , sentence presupposition is "a sentence S presupposes p if p is standardly a presupposition of cooperative utterances of U." sentence presupposition has many studied in linguistic and logic which is mentions as "implicit assumption" that helps to give the truth value to the sentence. While, speaker presupposition is defined as "S presupposes a proposition P in uttering U if S intends U to have an interpretation which is fully cooperative only given her acceptance of P". This definition about speaker presupposition appears to be related to utterance because it requires the speaker S intends his utterance U to be explained in specific condition. Therefore, we can explain what the speaker assume in more general meaning since the proposition that a sender believe consider mutual knowledge. Whereas, utterance presupposition is defined as "an utter-

الخلاصة

تعتبر هذه الدراسة تحليل تداولي لأنواع الافتراض المستخدمة في التصريحات الرسمية لرئيس الوزراء (بوريس جونسون) الخاصة بازمه كورونا لشعبة حيث تهدف هذه التصريحات الى تشجيع الناس لمواجهه الصعوبات التي تواجههم في حياتهم اليومية بشتى الطرق والتي اثرت على الناس بطرق مختلفة مثل الخوف والاكتئاب والشعور بالإحباط تعتبر هذه الدراسة وصفية ونوعيه حيث اعتمدت على تقنية جمع البيانات مثل التوثيق والملاحظة.

أهداف البحث هي:

(١) تحديد انواع الافتراض المختلفة في الخطب المختارة لرئيس الوزراء بوريس جونسون حول أزمة فيروسات كورونا إلى شعبة.

(٢) توضيح وظيفة كل نوع من انواع الافتراضات المستخدمة في النصوص.

(٣) حساب تكرار كل نوع من انواع الافتراضات المستخدمة في الخطابات المختارة.

يعتمد البحث على تصنيف (يول - ١٩٩٦) للافتراض لتحليل البيانات والاجراءات التي تم اتباعها لتحليل النص هي، قراءة النصوص وتحديد الافتراض ومن ثم تصنيف انواع الافتراضات ومن ثم تقديم بعض الأمثلة التوضيحية لكل نوع من النصوص الخطب المختارة، ثم تصنيف وظائف كل نوع من انواع الافتراض.

أظهرت نتائج الدراسة أن العدد الإجمالي لأنواع الافتراضات في البيانات المختارة هو (٣٣٥)، وأبرز أنواع الافتراضات الموجودة هو «الافتراض الوجودي» ١٥٣ (٥٨,٦٧٪) يليه «الافتراض المعجمي» ١٠١ (٣٠,١٤٪). ثم «الافتراض الوقائي المضاد» ٥١ (١٥,٢٪)، «الافتراض الوقائي» ٢٤ (٧,١٦٪). أقل تكرار هو «الافتراض المسبق غير التخيلي» ٣ (٠,٨٩٪) و «الافتراض الهيكلي» ٢ (٠,٥٩٪).

أخيراً؛ أظهرت النتائج أن «الافتراض الوجودي» حقق أعلى نسبة من بين جميع انواع الافتراض المستخدمة، وهذا يدل على أن رئيس الوزراء بوريس جونسون يعتمد في الغالب على الأشياء والبراهين الملموسة كالأشخاص، والأعداد الحقيقية للمرضى في نقل المعلومات إلى الناس كوسيلة لأقناعهم باتباع قواعد ونصائح منظمة الصحة العالمية بشأن الحماية من فيروس كورونا، وتشجيعهم على الحفاظ على نظرة متفائلة خلال هذه الأزمة.

كلمات مفتاحية : خطابات، تداولي، فايروس كورونا، الافتراض، المعرفة المشتركة

Abstract

This study is a pragmatic analysis of types of presupposition used in announcements of Prime Minister Boris Johnson about coronaviruses crisis to his country. These statements aims to encourage people to encounter difficulties in divers ways dealing with their everyday lives, which effected people in different ways like fearful, depressed and feeling demotivated. This study is descriptive qualitative study by using the techniques of data collection such as documentation and observation.

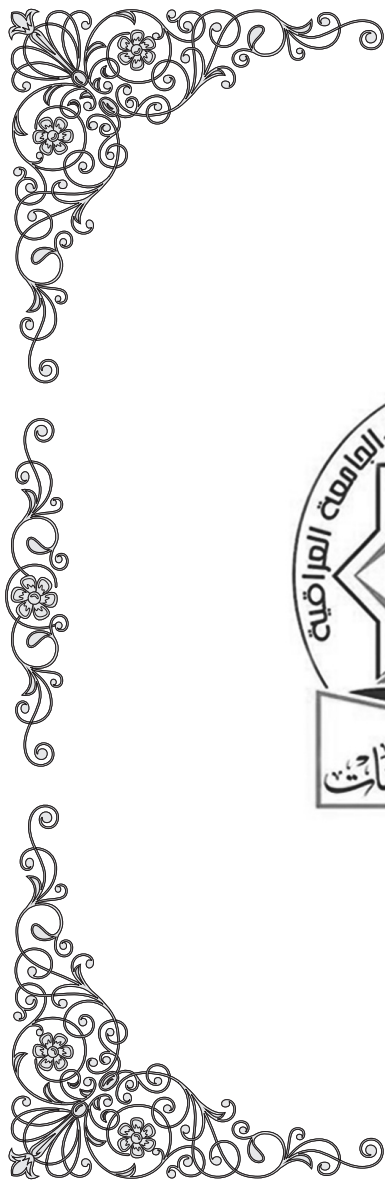
The goals of the research are:

- (1) identifying different types of presupposition in the selected speeches of Prime Minister Boris Johnson about coronaviruses crisis to his nation.
- (2) explaining the function of every type of presupposition used.
- (3) counting the frequency of each type of presupposition used in the selected data.

The research follows Yule's (1996) classification of presupposition to analyze the data. The procedures adapted to analyze the data are; reading the speeches, identifying presupposition and classifying types of presupposition, and presenting some illustrative examples of each one of them from the data. Then, categorizing functions of each kind of presupposition.

The results of the study shows that the total number of types of presupposition in the selected data is (335). The most prominent of all types of presupposition found is "Existential presupposition" 153 (58.67%) followed by "Lexical presupposition" 101 (30.14%). Then "Counter-factual presupposition" 51 (15.2%), "Factive presupposition" 24 (7.16%). The lowest frequency are "non-fictive presupposition" 3 (0.89%) and "structural presupposition" 2 (0.59%). Finally, the findings showed that existential presuppositions are standing in the highest percentage of all, which means that Prime Minister Boris Johnson depends mostly on existing entities, as persons, real numbers of patients in conveying information to people as a mean to convince them following the rules and advices of World Health Organization, concernig corona virus protection, and encourage them to keep optimistic look during this crisis.

Key words: annoceent, pragmatic, coronavirus, presupposition, commonground



**Presupposition in the Announcement of Corona
virus Crisis: A
Pragmatic Study**

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الافتراض في لغة التصريحات الخاصة بأزمه كورونا: دراسة
تداولية

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