



Media Narratives in Wartime: A Pragma-Discourse Analysis of Selected Al-Arabiya Reports on the Israeli–Lebanese Conflict.

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Abstract in English

This paper uses eclectic pragmatic/discourse approach in investigating ideologically loaded messages in Al-Arabiya's reporting on the Israeli-Lebanese conflict that started on the 2nd of March 2026. Although this channel claims neutrality and objectivity, it represents the KSA policies towards the current conflicts. As is commonly believed, it studies the phenomenon of disinformation within the framework of Al-Arabiya's reporting on the conflict and aims to investigate the linguistic media narrative disinformation through pragmatic means towards creating misleading images and manipulating perceptions of the events. A set of selected Al-Arabiya reports covering the conflict were taken for analysis. Two inter-connected models have been used for analysis; (1) the pragmatic model (drawing from the models of Levinson 1983 and Yule 1996, focusing on pragmatic strategies and types and triggers of presupposition) and (2) an ideological model according to van Dijk (1998) to unveil underlying ideological bases of disinforming narratives. This study finds out that Al-Arabiya's reporting on the conflict is not neutral but ideologically biased and disinforming, using charged framing and presuppositional manipulation in the discourse and giving negative representation of the events, to manipulate audience perceptions.

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1. Introduction

During war, the media's role is more significant than simply "reporting" factual events: it also affects how events should be seen and understood. News coverage affects both the way in which wars are described and understood by the audience; hence, the role of wartime journalism in the study of the relationship among language, ideology, and

disinformation is important. How news outlets choose to present events affects people's view of the people who are at war, and can help to create perceptions, normalize certain actions, steer audiences, and so on. Al-Arabiya is one such organization which was major player reporting the March 2, 2026-ongoing conflict between Israel and Lebanon; this role is rarely neutral or objective as this theoretical approach outlines. According to this theoretical framework, and within media discourse generally, there is much more to disinformation than just plain lies. It also includes subtle linguistic cues, ideological presuppositions, and frame choices that manipulate without manipulative intent, making disinformation a more ideologically-embedded form of discourse. Particularly in contexts where one side is presented in favorable light, while the other is framed in terms of "threats, violence, and chaos," disinformation serves a function in that ideological framing. This study focuses on some selected Al-Arabiya news items about the Israeli-Lebanese armed conflict, in an attempt to look into the way disinformation might be achieved through a language. It tries to look at the pragmatic and ideological ways that could push the audience into one specific view of the events. Using Levinson's 1983 and Yule's 1996 eclectic pragmatic approaches to types and triggers of presupposition, and van Dijk's (1998) ideological square, it reveals polarized ideological structures embedded in the portrayals of the two sides. The significance of the research lies in its integration of discourse analysis of the mass media with pragmatic theory, in an effort to show how language choices may be ideological in wartime news. The study of presupposition and the ideological square reflects the assumption that a language used for reporting may serve as a partisan tool to support the actions of one side and denigrate those of the other. It regards the language used as an active agent in fabricating narratives of war, showing how disinformation may be embedded not only in claims but in presuppositions and ideological structures.

1.2. Limitation of the Study.

This study is limited to analyzing randomly selected news reports from Al-Arabiya's official website to show whether it uses disinformation and hidden ideology in its news reporting or not.

2. Literature Review

2.1. Disinformation

Disinformation first surfaced in the 1960s and gained prominence in the 1980s, when false information was developed and disseminated to deceive people regardless of personal, social, or political background, according to Mahairas and Vilyanski (2018, p.239). Disinformation is information that people believe is true and vehemently defend while refusing to consider other viewpoints (Hameleers et al, 2022).

It is a particularly serious form because it is not a simple case of incorrect information being passed on but carefully designed to manipulate the general understanding of reality Dalkir & Katz, p. 38) (Desai & Reimers, 2020, p. 2). It can be employed deliberately, by governments, media institutions and other agencies with great power, as a cover up for truths which would, perhaps, be uncomfortable to acknowledge or a

more persuasive means of conveying and manipulating public opinion about events (Jones, 2021, p. 173).

Disinformation is employed for a variety of purposes. It is used to undermine political opponents, promote political or military action, divert public attention from a scandal or crisis, influence public opinion about laws or issues of social concern, and so on. In that sense, it is covert and manipulative, propagandistic -- a form of hidden "propaganda, aimed at influencing people's thinking and behavior" (Ibid, p. 175). Disinformation is, then, an ideological practice in the mass media. This study examines Al Arabiya as producer of disinformation regarding the Israeli-Lebanese conflict.

2.2. Presupposition

Presupposition is defined as the assumption that something is true, which in some way allows a speaker or writer to continue making an idea while leaving out what is already assumed to be true of that idea (Yule, 1996, p. 25). Richardson (2007, p. 63) states that people make use of presupposition to convey an unstated meaning that leaves an element unspoken, yet one which implies it is true. As these presuppositions are literally inherent within the literal meanings of words and text, they are received as true without question.

In fact, presupposition is one of the fundamental building blocks of language, not just in the production and comprehension of speech (Hudson 2000, p. 321) but often implicitly too. As Levinson (1983, p. 186) points out that one of the main features of presupposition is that it is very context bound. For example, when someone asks, "What time did John leave?" he or she presupposes that John did, in fact, leave. Thus speech is governed not only by the grammatical forms and the words themselves, but by who speaks and in what situation, and to whom, the statement is made. Presupposition often used by speakers because it is inherently linked to the conveyed meaning (Widdowson, 1995, p. 63).

Richardson (2007: 63) points out that the likelihood of individuals taking on information increases substantially in certain contexts and may be facilitated by certain linguistic formats. As pointed out by Lawal (2003: 153), presupposition has two major characteristics namely its defeasibility and constancy under negation. It can also be thought of as tacit assumptions people make about the world, and these assumptions exert considerable impact on the meaning of assertions. In everyday communication, speakers typically formulate their statements based on an implicit view that listeners already have prior knowledge about certain issues. It is for this reason that presupposition relies upon background knowledge of issues being discussed by both speaker and listener (Levinson, 1983: 3) so that common ground is maintained in dialogues.

Stalnaker (1974:447) takes the view that, basically, it's the speaker's job to carry the presuppositional load in an utterance. For example, in much conversational talk people draw assumptions when talking rather than saying anything. Also some clauses cause presupposition as a result of their lexical choice. For instance words like "begin" or "continue" indicate change or persistence in state, as do phrases like "after" and

"before" indicating sequence (Grundy 2000:120). Yule (1996:17) points out that, in general, presupposition is tied to words, phrases, and syntactic forms.

In the present study presupposition is adopted as a tool for analysis of the data under study namely disinformation in Al- Arabic's coverage of the Israeli-Lebanese conflict. Presupposition is triggered by a variety of existential, lexical and syntactic forms that provide a useful lens to examine covert aspects of the selected data.

2.2.1. Existential Presuppositions

Whenever we make a statement about a noun, simple or complex, we presuppose that the thing described actually exists (Frege, 1952, p. 69). According to Yule (1996, p. 27), existential presupposition is found in all noun phrases, and often associated with possessive noun phrases, personal names, and definite noun phrases, namely definite descriptions, because in each of these cases the speaker implies that things named or described actually exist in discourse.

2.2.2. Lexical Presuppositions

2.2.2.1. Iteratives

Iteratives are words, usually verbs and adverbs, denoting things that happen again or have happened before, such as "again," "another," "anymore," "return," "come back," "restore," and "repeal." As such, these words often make reference to a prior action. They presuppose, either within the speaker or the listener or within the speech itself, the occurrence of the same action earlier (Levinson, 1983, p. 183). Such a presupposition is called "iterative presupposition."

2.2.2.2. Change of Verb State

Change-of-state verbs tend to provide the sense of moving from one thing (situation or condition) to another and contain a connotation of change. Words such as "stop", "begin", "continue", "go", "leave", "start", and "take" imply a state of being before a new state develops (Ibid).

2.2.2.3. Judging Verbs

Judging verbs form an evaluation or opinion based on a view established after an action or event. In this form of presupposition, the speaker is not the direct agent in making that judgment (Ibid, p. 182).

2.2.3. Syntactic Presuppositions

2.2.3.1. Temporal Clauses

This temporal trigger operates by assuming one event and linking it to another. It is typically activated by time-related conjunctions like "before," "after," "during," "so far," "whenever," and "midway," which indicate a temporal relationship between two statements (Ibid).

2.2.3.2. Comparisons and Contrasts

Comparison and contrast are primarily expressed through emphasis, prosodic features, particles like “too,” and parallel structures. These linguistic tools emphasize similarities or differences between ideas within the utterance (Ibid, p. 183).

2.2.3.3. Non-Restrictive Clause

A non-restrictive clause gives additional information about a person, thing, or event already mentioned in the sentence. It typically comes after a proper noun or a definite common noun, and commas are used to set it apart, indicating that the extra information is not essential to the main meaning of the sentence (Ibid, p. 184).

2.3. Ideology

Ideology, as van Dijk (2018, p.17) states, is regarded as the thought representation or maybe the schema associated with a specific social group. It represents the morals, beliefs, identity, objectives and norms of the social group and also governs their relationships along with other groups (van Dijk, 1998, p. 69). They may be classified into categories like racist/anti racist, feminist/sexist, pacifist/militarist, religious/irreligious, etc. These categories exemplify the idea of polarization and also distinguishing between in-group, normally good, and also out-group, normally bad, illustrating the idea of 'the good us' and 'the bad them' (van Dijk, 2017, p.17).

Ideologies are generally evaluative or judgmental in determining what is appropriate and what is not and what is wrong and right for the groups, thus becoming the provider of the standards for the group's perception and interaction. (van Dijk, 1995, p. 248).

Since ideologies stand for the morals and identity of the social group, they can supply an optimistic self-image for it, that is, it stresses the good in the group as well as the bad in the out-group. This study examines how Al-Arabiya ideologically portrays and assesses the conflicting sides, specifically whether the Israeli side or Lebanon is depicted as part of “the good us” or “the bad them.”

2.3.1 Ideological Square

The idea of 'ideological square' is coined by van Dijk (1998, p.267) where he unveiled the information of the good in group and the bad out group. van Dijk further explains that this binary opposition, in-group and out-group, is illustrated by the usage of linguistic dimensions and lexical choice of the discourse (van Dijk, 1998, p. 33). Consequently, ideologies include the representation of SELF and OTHERS or US and THEM, which fuels polarization and the idea of the good self representation and the bad other representation (Ibid.). According to Van Dijk (2000), there are four principles for analyzing ideology that are:

1. Emphasize/state what is good or positive about **US**.
2. Emphasize/state what is bad or negative about **THEM**.
3. De-Emphasize/deny what is bad or negative about **US**.
4. De-Emphasize/deny what is good or positive about **THEM**.

These principles can be used with presupposition to analyze Al-Arabiya's reports, offering a valuable framework for examining ideological portrayal, particularly concerning the contrast between “us” and “them.”

3. Methodology

3.1. Data Collection and Description

The data selected for this paper represent the top articles that are posted on Al-Arabiya's official website (<https://english.alarabiya.net/>). Four articles are selected randomly from different periods of time, starting from March 02, 2026, to April 14, 2026. This study is a qualitative one. Some examples are selected, among others, due to the large volume of data, which may be misleading in statistical analysis. Thus, it is better to emphasize qualitative research on randomly selected articles. Table 1 below shows which articles are used for this study.

	Title
R1	“Israel tells military to seize new positions in Lebanon as troops deploy in the south.”
R2	“Israel strikes south Lebanon, Beirut suburbs as Hezbollah keeps up attacks.”
R3	“Israel pounds Lebanon with heaviest airstrikes of the war as Hezbollah pauses attacks.”
R4	“Hezbollah rejects truce talks as Israel presses Lebanon strikes.”

Table 1: Data Collection for this study

3.2. Research Method

This study utilizes a pragma-discourse approach for analyzing the data. The framework of this eclectic pragmatic approach deals with the types and triggers of presuppositions in the data under study using both Levinson's (1983) and Yule's (1996) presupposition models, which are appropriate because of their richness and their utility to the purpose of this study. The approach then moves onto van Dijk's (1998) 'Ideological Square' model to detect ideological disinformation in the data. Figure 1 illustrates the model used in this study.

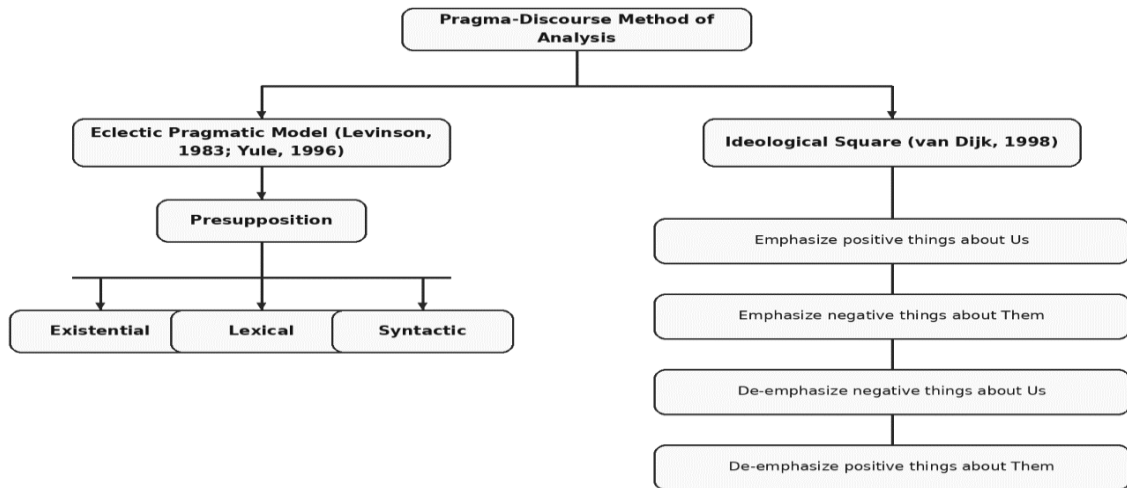


Figure (1): Model of Analysis

4. Data Analysis and Discussion

4.1. Presupposition Triggers

4.1.1. Existential Presupposition

What the concept of existential presupposition suggests is that a particular noun phrase prompts the reader to assume that the referent must exist (Frege 1952, p.69). That is, by mentioning a person, group, place, institution, or object, the text establishes the existence, recognizability, or reality of whatever it has in mind. It does so as if such reference already occurred. This is very important in war reporting in that certain noun phrases invoke categories and political identifications already implicit within the military discourse, and do so without necessarily drawing attention to this presupposition (Yule 1996, p.27).

In R1, existential presupposition appears strongly through territorial and military noun phrases. Phrases like "more positions," "additional strategic positions," "Israeli border communities," "a border area," "a broad security belt," "a buffer zone," and "the dominating terrain" each presuppose the presence of currently familiar army occupations and strategic entities. The report does not doubt whether these roles are genuine and whether the "buffer zone" is lawful. It just assumes these are actually established realities. Precisely the same pattern continues in phrases like "the border area," "our civilians," and "the head of Hezbollah's intelligence services," "Hezbollah's Al Manar Tv broadcaster," and "Hezbollah's Al Nour radio broadcaster." These noun phrases display both Hezbollah and Israel as organized, real doers. However, on the Israeli side, the result is normalizing army movement and showing it as a protective action in the current strategic space. On the Hezbollah side, the result is presenting it as being a set up security and press apparatus instead of only a loosely defined faction. In this report, existential presupposition helps create a world where the army occupations, geography, and institutional hierarchy are viewed as unquestioned information instead of as political constructs.

The report in R2 depicts Hezbollah as an "Iran-backed militant group" engaged in "the Middle East war." It also talks about Israeli movement towards "the border area" as well as "the Litani River." It then refers to the southern suburbs of Beirut as "the Hezbollah stronghold." The presence of a settled referent is necessary for each of these noun phrases. The article does not discuss whether the southern suburbs of Beirut are really a Hezbollah stronghold; It simply identifies them as such, prompting the reader to accept this as established knowledge. It also refers to "the border cities of Naqura and Qawzah," as "weapons storage facility," and as "Hezbollah command centers." Existential presupposition is used to transform places, structures and towns into security map elements. These noun phrases are therefore not ideologically neutral. Prior to any clear argument is made, they subtly alter the reader's view of the conflict.

In R3, the article mentions "the conflict with Hezbollah," "a two week US Iran ceasefire," "the largest coordinated strike of the war," "Hezbollah command centers and military sites," and "the ceasefire." Additionally, it covers "the situation in Lebanon," "a former French protectorate," "the official decision," "the Litani River," "a security zone," and "its northern residents." Each expression assumes a fixed political or perhaps military reality. For instance, "a security zone" does not only describe land; additionally, it implies military control as an established security measure. Likewise, "its northern residents" presupposes a certain population whose protection is morally evident. These presuppositions help establish a discourse of strategic necessity and order. The conflict is displayed through established institutions, ongoing ceasefires, acknowledged command facilities, as well protection zones, making the Israeli stance seem organized and logical. At exactly the same time, Hezbollah remains a well-defined military adversary, with command centers and military sites.

R4 begins with phrases such as "Hezbollah chief Naim Qassem," "the Iran-backed group," "a genuine security zone," "a larger buffer zone," "the Litani River," "the border," "the Gaza model" and "the current war." The existence of the referents is assumed by these phrases without any explicit argument for their existence. Particularly significant tend to be the repeated references to "buffer zone" as well as "security zone" which reinforce normalization. The expansion of Israeli military power is portrayed as an extension of an existing security feature.

R1, R2, R3 and R4 show that existential presupposition is utilized in these reports beyond identifying individuals as well as locations. The presence of military structures, ideological identities, strategic zones, and conflict parties is deemed normalized by it. The reports present politically charged realities as factual, stable, and assumed by using terms like "additional strategic positions," "the Hezbollah stronghold," "Hezbollah command centers," as well as "a security zone."

4.1.2. Lexical Presuppositions

4.1.2.1. Iteratives

Iteratives are lexical units that indicate repeating, continuation, or recurrence of an earlier action or state. Words such as again, come back, return, another, and similar expressions

do not simply describe an event; they imply that a similar event has happened earlier (Levinson, 1983, p. 183).

The use of iterative presupposition in R1 is apparent from the outset and serves to normalize the continuous Israeli military expansion. The phrase "more positions in Lebanon" implies that Israel already holds certain positions and it is adding others. In the same way, "additional strategic positions in Lebanon" indicates that there are already positions and that the present action extends them. The pattern continues with "additional points," indicating that Israeli forces had been in the past stationed elsewhere and are being deployed elsewhere. The iterative nature of Hezbollah's strike becomes apparent when it is referred to as "its fourth attack on Tuesday," assuming three previous attacks that day. The term "another senior militant" presumes the death associated with an earlier militant. The article looks at these actions as part of a continuous sequence instead of as isolated incidents.

The headline in R2 reads "Hezbollah keeps up attacks," which is a perfect illustration of an iterative trigger. The word "keeps up" implies that Hezbollah has already been attacking and that the attacks are going on. In much the same way, "renewing an evacuation warning" signifies a prior warning. The report states "the area has been targeted multiple times during the conflict," with the word "multiple times" indicating repeated prior targeting. The term "a series of attacks" suggests a pattern of occurrence instead of a single incident, and "repeated air raid sirens" suggests the sirens have repeatedly sounded in the past. The main point is the fact that the article does not simply report on ongoing attacks; it goes beyond that. It emphasizes their continuing, renewal or repeating. The portrayal gives the impression associated with a continual and recurring threat, which reinforces the wider ideological view of Hezbollah as a source of constant violence.

Iterative presupposition is used in R3 not just for military actions and attacks but also for language about displacement and return. The article states that operations against Hezbollah "would continue" and that "the battle in Lebanon continues." The verb "continue" assumes that these happenings were already taking place when the present statement is made in both instances. Additionally it mentions "continued Israeli strikes," implying previous strikes and framing present ones as part of a continuous sequence. The article cautions against trying to "return" without an official signal as well as states that give someone a signal to return he'll return." Iterative expressions such as "return" and "go back" are frequently used because they call for a previous state that the speaker is attempting to revisit.

Iterative presupposition is utilized in R4 to emphasize repetition, continuity, and conflict once again. The post says Israel "has kept up strikes on its northern neighbor," implying the strikes began earlier and therefore are continuing. Additionally, it mentions Hezbollah made "dozens of statements claiming attacks" and also launched "more than eighty attacks" in one day. Although the figures are partly qualitative, they bolster the notion that Hezbollah's activities are ongoing and repeated. The article refers to "a renewed evacuation warning," assuming a previous warning. It reaffirms the area has been attacked multiple times during the conflict, with "multiple times" denoting repeated attacks. On the whole, these iterative expressions indicate the conflict is ongoing and repetitive violence instead

of isolated incidents. They help normalize Hezbollah's role as being a repeated assailant by framing the violence as part of a continuing cycle.

R1, R2, R3, and R4 all make use of phrases like "more positions," "additional strategic positions," "fourth attack," "another senior militant," "keeps up attacks," "renewed evacuation warning," "targeted multiple times," "continued Israeli strikes," "return home," and "has kept up strikes" to indicate that the same events have happened in the past. The reports are now able to describe the conflict as one of ongoing recurrence and continuity instead of isolated incidents, which is important because it allows for that characterization. Israelis are viewed in such language as normalizing military expansion as well as security measures as part of a continuous process. Hezbollah stresses a pattern of recurrent militancy and aggression.

4.1.2.2. Change of Verb State

The verbs that indicate a change of state indicate a transition from one condition to the next. Words such as stop, start, leave, go, continue, begin, and take do much more than simply describe an action. They also suggest that a previous state existed prior to the brand new one occurs. They are particularly useful in war reporting due to their ability to depict transition, interruption, continuation, or escalation as background components (Levinson, 1983, p. 183).

The way in which the report organizes Israeli and Hezbollah actions is shown in R1 using change-of-state verbs. According to the article, Israel was instructed to "take additional positions in Lebanon" as well as "advance and take control of additional strategic positions." "Take" indicates a shift from no control to control. Additionally, it mentions that Israeli forces advanced into a border region and that the army was "establishing a buffer zone in Lebanon." Israeli military expansion is depicted in these phrases as a continuous process: The area is no longer restricted to Lebanese but is being transformed into a military zone with a controlled perimeter and buffer zone. In the same way, phrases such as soldiers being "deployed" to different places as well as Israel "immediately launching large scale strikes on Lebanon" indicate shifts from a single state to the next, no strikes to strikes, and no control to control. Hezbollah's actions follow exactly the same pattern, with Lebanon enticed into war after "an initial attack on Israel by Hezbollah." In the meantime, Hezbollah is accused of using "attack drones," "targeted bases," and "carried out its fourth attack on Tuesday." The continual use of these verbs gives the impression of a conflict that moves from one stage to the next, with Israeli advances being viewed as normal and Hezbollah attacks being the triggers for every subsequent stage.

The article in R2 claims that Lebanon became involved in the conflict once "Hezbollah began launching rockets at Israel on March 2." This is a crucial illustration since it expressly assumes a previous state where Hezbollah wasn't launching rockets and indicates a shift to active hostilities. Israel has "intensified strikes across Lebanon" along with "sent ground troops" into the southern border. The term "intensified" implies earlier strikes and indicates an increase in violence, while "sent" refers to a transition from zero presence to the deployment of soldiers.

The change-of-state verbs in R3 are easily recognizable. The article says the conflict with Hezbollah "broke out last month." The term "broke out" denotes the transition from inactive fighting to open conflict. Additionally, it mentions that Hezbollah halted attacks throughout the ceasefire while Israeli operations would continue. Both verbs are important : The word "paused" refers to prior attacks and indicates a short - term halt, while "continue" assumes that operations had been already in progress and will continue. The report states the ceasefire "did not apply to Lebanon," implying that Lebanon had entered a distinct conflict zone beyond the ceasefire agreement. The article claims that "Hezbollah stopped attacks on Israeli targets early on Wednesday," which is an important development as "stopped" implies prior attacking activity and indicates a shift to non-aggression.

In R4, the article says that "the Iran backed group...launched attacks," indicating an energetic assault, while Israel is referred to as "expanding a buffer zone" inside Lebanon, saying the zone already exists and it is currently being enlarged. The statement continues by noting Israel had "kept up strikes" and also sent ground troops to "take control" of a strip up to "the Litani River". The references to some "genuine security zone" currently being "expanded" and on the thought of "creating a larger buffer zone" both stick to exactly the same logic: a current zone is experiencing expansion.

R1, R2, R3 and R4 all employ verbs such as "take," "advance," "create," "deploy," "launch," "begin," "intensify," "dismantle," "break out," "pause," "continue," "stop," "expand," "occupy," "flee," "return" as well as "go back" to indicate a prior state followed by a move to a brand new one. Ideologically charged transitions depict the conflict. Israeli actions are frequently depicted as efforts to defend, protect or control, while Hezbollah actions are depicted as efforts to attack, escalate or retaliate violence. On the whole, civilian experiences are depicted as shifting towards displacement, with the desire to go back home as well as safety.

4.1.2.3. Judging Verbs

Judging verbs are associated with evaluation, making a judgement according to an already formed perspective of an event or action. They integrate this evaluation into the discourse itself rather than simply describing neutrally (Levinson, 1983, p. 182).

The description of the Lebanese source as "expressing concern" regarding "Israel's attempt to establish a broad security belt in south Lebanon" is a noteworthy example in R1. The expression "expressing concern" is significant as it suggests an evaluative perspective instead of neutral reporting. The reader is informed the Israeli action is seen as problematic and alarming, not merely a neutral event. The act of verbal judgment is effectively illustrated by using a negative evaluative stance instead of a straightforward description.

R2 refers to Hezbollah as an "Iran-backed militant group," the southern suburbs of Beirut as "the Hezbollah stronghold," and the Israeli army claims to have killed "a number of [designated by source as] terrorists." Strong evaluative connotations are associated with these expressions, which are communicated mainly through nouns and labels instead of

verbal judgments. The article may not be neutral, but its bias is mainly due to classification and labeling instead of explicit judgment verbs.

The report in R3 claims that French President Emmanuel Macron demanded the inclusion of Lebanon in the deal, and that the local mayor cautioned inhabitants against returning prior to an official announcement was made. The word "cautioned" implies that returning at that time may be inappropriate or risky. It's a lot more than a neutral instruction; It implies an evaluative perspective on what should as well as should not be done. The description of Lebanese President Joseph Aoun as "welcoming" the US Iran ceasefire is one other example. The participial "welcoming" expresses a positive view of the ceasefire and is slightly critical.

The headline in R4 already demonstrates this by using the verb "rejects" in the headline "Hezbollah rejects truce talks as Israel presses Lebanon strikes." The verb "rejects" is judgmental as it indicates that Hezbollah is actively rejecting a suggested action. It does much more than just state facts; It demonstrates an evaluative attitude towards the negotiations.

Together, R1, R2, R3, and R4 illustrate examples of judging verbs like "expressing concern," "cautioned," "welcoming," and "rejects."

4.1.3. Syntactic Presupposition

4.1.3.1. Temporal Clauses

Syntactic triggers such as temporal clauses link one event to the next by utilizing time - related expressions such as before, after, during, because, and when (Levinson, 1983, p. 183). They're among the most obvious as well as prominent features in this study. The use of temporal clauses is common in Al-Arabiya to present past events as facts, particularly those relating to Hezbollah. This is significant due to the fact that temporal clauses perform more than simply sequence events. They additionally indicate what the reader has to already accept as true for the remainder of the sentence to have meaning.

In R1, temporal clauses are generally used to outline an obvious sequence of incidents from earlier to later on. For example, the expression "after an attack from Iran backed armed group Hezbollah" positions the Hezbollah attack as being a certain, with Israel's movement into Lebanon to follow it. Likewise, "after Israel and the United States went to war against the Islamic Republic" treats the earlier war as shared context, placing Hezbollah's actions later. The word "following the Israeli army's' escalation" indicates the escalation had previously happened before Lebanon's redeployment. A more illustrative example is "after an initial attack on Israel by Hezbollah," that presupposes Hezbollah's steps and after that depicts Lebanon's entry as a result. Furthermore, "after evacuation warnings" assumes warnings came first, preceding airstrikes. In general, in R1, these temporal clauses always frame earlier actions as identified, allowing the following army measures to show up as an all natural continuation.

The report structure in R2 relies heavily on temporal clauses. The statement "when Hezbollah started firing rockets into Israel on March 2" employs the word "when," implying that Hezbollah initiated the rocket attacks, and the report bases its wider narrative

on Lebanon's involvement on this basis. The phrase "since the latest round of fighting began" refers to a previously known date, which places the present Israeli strikes as well as troop movements inside a continuous timeline. The article states that the southern suburbs of Beirut had been attacked "after Israel's military reissued an evacuation warning late Tuesday," a statement that assumes that the warning was already in place and could also rationalize the consequent strike. In addition, "after the early morning strike" establishes the strike as being a fact prior to describing damage and debris. The phrase "after the group claimed a series of attacks" follows a similar pattern, assuming the claims and attacks are made prior to talking about what follows. On the whole, these temporal clauses in R2 support a narrative which portrays Israeli actions as antecedents to Hezbollah's earlier actions and its subsequent actions as a result of Israeli actions.

The article uses temporal clauses in a broader conflict context, but they retain their importance in R3. It says that Israel's most heavy strikes on Lebanon occurred "since the conflict with Hezbollah broke out last month." The use of the word "since" suggests the conflict had already started as well as aligns the present airstrikes with that moment in time. An even more clear case is in "since March 2, when Hezbollah started firing rockets at Israel in solidarity with Tehran." The sentence mixes "since" as well as "when," establishing the rocket fire of Hezbollah as the genesis of the wider violence. The phrase "Hours before the strike" is additionally essential because "before" presumes the eventually strike and implies that warnings are part of the lead-up. The use of "earlier on Wednesday" provides additional structure to the report inside a broader temporal context. In R3 temporal clauses place present destruction, ceasefire talks, and displacement inside a predetermined time frame which the reader realizes to be already established.

Temporal clauses play a significant interpretative role in R4. The pattern in the sentence "when Hezbollah started firing rockets into Israel on March 2" is similar to that in R2, with Hezbollah's action being the presumed starting point of the escalation. The phrase "after a renewed evacuation warning" assumes the warning had been issued prior to the command center strike. The expression "after the early morning strike" works similarly, considering the strike as a previous event just before describing the debris and damaged structures resulting from it. These examples show that R4, similar to the other reports, incorporates temporal clauses straight into its grammar to incorporate sequence and causality..

4.1.3.2. Comparisons and Contrasts

The use of comparisons and contrasts is seen as a means of highlighting oppositions, scales, degrees, or differences in an utterance (Levinson, 1983, p. 183). The selected data typically exhibits this via comparative adjectives, quantity indicators, ranking phrases and also obvious variations between conditions. The forms matter since they do much more than simply describe events; They amplify, order and point the reader's focus on an event as larger, worse, stronger or perhaps more significant than another.

In R1, comparability and comparison are apparent ; for instance, the expression "more positions in Lebanon" compares the present army action with current positions, suggesting an expansion beyond that which was formerly held. Phrases like "additional strategic positions" and, afterwards, "additional points" reinforce this idea by referring to a previous

situation and portraying the Israeli advance as an extension instead of an isolated incident. In general, comparison in R1 is mainly determined by additive language.

In R2, the expression "up to the Litani River, around 30 kilometers from the frontier" sets a geographical guide that can help people realize the scope of Israeli military actions. In a similar manner, "targeted multiple times during the conflict" contrasts present strikes with earlier ones, indicating a trend of escalating bombardment. The report also mentions Hezbollah's launch of "more than 100 rockets," an accurate figure which improves the perceived scope of the threat by going out of an indefinite estimation to a concrete quantity. The use of terms such as "more than 1,000 people" and "more than one million displaced" on the humanitarian side serves to compare as well as highlight the magnitude as well as severity of the situation, rather than simply providing statistics. In R2, comparison and contrast are systematically employed to emphasize the severity of the humanitarian and military consequences. The report emphasizes escalation by frequently highlighting the size of the figures, highlighting the sense of increasing severity.

The headline in R3 explicitly draws a significant comparison. These strikes are considered the most severe of the "heaviest airstrikes of the war." The article continues with phrases such as "the biggest coordinated strike of the war" as well as "the biggest concentrated blow to Hezbollah" that contrast current actions with previous ones, highlighting their intensity. Additionally, it highlights an crucial contrast : The account of the strike was bolstered by the fact that central Beirut was not given a warning, as it had been also hit, separating areas that were given warnings from the ones that were not. The article frequently utilizes quantitative comparisons, like "around 15 % of Lebanese territory," "more than 1.2 million people," "more than 1,500 people," "more than 130 children and more than 100 women," "more than 400 Hezbollah fighters," as well as "10 of its soldiers." Comparisons such as these draw attention to scale, contrast and proportion, making comparison as well as contrast crucial tools for conveying military, casualties, and violence significance.

Comparison and contrast feature prominently in R4. A good example is "a larger buffer zone," which compares the new proposed zone with an existing one, highlighting expansion as its key characteristic. "A genuine security zone" adds a contrastive, evaluative dimension, indicating that the zone is not only nominal but substantial and real. Yet another noteworthy example would be in "more than 80 attacks" and "the largest daily number in the current war," that specifically compares today's attacks to those in earlier times and also suggests that modern figures are classified as the highest thus far. The pattern continues with "more than 100 rockets" and then "more than 1,000 people killed in Lebanon" and "more than three days of Israeli strikes," almost all focusing on quantity, length, and ranking. " Even "around thirty kilometers from the border" works on a comparison, considering the dimensions of the controlled strip. The war is portrayed as growing in scale, depth, and strain through comparison as well as contrast in R4. The article does not simply state which attacks and strikes occurred; They are repeatedly depicted as bigger, more numerous or wider than before.

4.1.3.3. Non-Restrictive Clauses

Non-restrictive clauses provide additional details in regards to a known individual, place or thing and are typically separated by commas (Levinson, 1983, p. 184). These clauses

add background details, assessments as well as ideological perspectives to the provided data, making the additional information seem secondary and natural instead of directly persuasive.

In R1, non restrictive clauses subtly attach explanatory details, identity, or motives to the primary event. For example, the clause "which said it wanted to 'avenge'" is non restrictive because Hezbollah is currently revealed, which clause provides extra insight in its motive. An alternative example is "known as Camp Yitzhak," a parenthetical phrase which provides extra information about the base without becoming vital to its identification. A final case is "saying he was responsible for overseeing," that supplies explanatory details following the key event. In general, non restrictive clauses in R1 serve to add additional info which influences interpretation, particularly by providing motive, identity, and military significance, without making these details seem to be central to the sentence.

In R2, the phrase "which occupied southern Lebanon for around two decades until 2000" features like a regular non-restrictive clause. Israel is already identified, and the added clause provides historical context. The phrase "who have fled" is a notable example as it provides additional information regarding the inhabitants and also emphasizes the depiction of the area being emptied because of war. A non-restrictive clause which provides additional information regarding northern Israeli locations is a third example, "where there were no immediate casualties reported." Non-restrictive clauses in R2 are especially effective due to their ability to integrate historical background, humanitarian effects, and contextual specifics in a manner that is grammatically secondary but is discursively significant.

Non-restrictive clauses tend to be prevalent in R3 and frequently take the form of descriptive or appositive clauses. The term "a former French protectorate" is clearly non-restrictive, providing historic context regarding Lebanon without the need for identification. An alternative example is "a 54-year-old man displaced from Beirut's southern suburbs," which offers additional info following the speaker's name. The clause "who was displaced from a village in the south" provides additional background information regarding the speaker in a similar manner. The expression "which was also hit" is non-restrictive and provides pertinent additional information about central Beirut. These clauses in R3 hold particular significance due to diplomatic framing, personal identification and humanitarian information, that are presented as ancillary to the primary point.

The role of non-restrictive clauses in adding additional information to the report is once again crucial in R4. For example, the clause "which occupied southern Lebanon for around two decades until 2000," provides historic history concerning Israel. Israel's rejection of negotiations is further detailed in another example, "which has so far rejected his proposal." The expression "who have fled" is a non-restrictive relative clause which provides humanitarian context following the noun it refers to. In the exact same way, "a Hezbollah stronghold" is a nonrestrictive appositive that provides additional descriptive details. In general, non-restrictive clauses in R4 permit the article to incorporate ideological labels, historical memory, and political history into the story while remaining grammatically secondary.

4.2. Ideological Square

van Dijk's (1998) ideological square is distinctly observable. The reports do much more than recount army events; They frame the conflict by contrasting the two sides. Israel is consistently portrayed as a place of security, strategy, defense, people and protection. On the other hand, Hezbollah and the wider Lebanese region are frequently characterized by terms such as attack, terrorists, threat, rockets, militancy, and strongholds. The lexical as well as structural choices produced in these reports reveal the ideological square.

R1 emphasizes the positive features of "Us" with phrases like "additional strategic positions," "to prevent attacks on Israeli border communities," "a broad security belt," "a buffer zone," "forward defense," "to protect our civilians" as well as "to ensure the safety of our people." Israeli military actions are portrayed as strategic, protective and reasonable instead of aggressive by these expressions. Israeli expansion seems to be a lot more like a technical response to threats than a military or political escalation due to the language choice. On the other hand, the report emphasizes negative aspects of "Them" by using phrases like "an attack by Iran-backed armed group Hezbollah," "an initial attack on Israel by Hezbollah," "attack drones," "rocket salvo" and "its fourth attack on Tuesday," repeatedly portraying Hezbollah as the aggressor, escalator, and threat. On the other hand, phrases such as "This is not a ground operation" soften negative portrayals of "Us." Territorial control is framed as "buffer" and "defense" and is a tactical measure. The perspective of Hezbollah is briefly recognized as "in response to the criminal Israeli aggression," but even this perspective is incorporated into a larger narrative dominated by Israeli security language. R1 is an example of the ideological square. Israel is portrayed as defensive and strategic, while Hezbollah is portrayed as aggressive and potentially threatening.

In R2, similar structure is presented much more concisely yet really powerfully. Good aspects of "Us" are highlighted with phrases as "Israel launched strikes," "take control of the border area," "dismantled a weapons storage facility," and "dismantled Hezbollah command centers," framing Israeli actions as specific, powerful, and deliberate. Conversely, bad portrayals of "Them" feature conditions like "Iran-backed militant group Hezbollah," "kept up attacks," "Hezbollah began firing rockets into Israel," "the Hezbollah stronghold," "more than 100 rockets," and "several [designated by source as] terrorists," mostly depicting Hezbollah as a continual military threat. The report downplays bad factors of "Us" by emphasizing Israeli functional language much more than the effect of Israeli strikes in Lebanon. Sometimes when mentioning damage, displacements, and casualties, these details are much less prominent compared to the military framing. Good factors of "Them" are also minimized because the Lebanese perspective is underrepresented, with sites like Lebanese localities consistently labeled as "stronghold," and Hezbollah framed largely as an aggressor instead of as a political actor with nuanced views. To sum up, R2 reveals the ideological square through asymmetric framing, hostile labels, and military lexicon.

In R3, the ideological square becomes apparent through words which highlights scale and strategic legitimacy. Good aspects of "Us" are highlighted with phrases like 'the largest coordinated strike of the war, the biggest concentrated blow to Hezbollah, operations against Hezbollah will continue,' and 'a "security zone" ... meant to protect northern residents.' These statements portray Israel as highly effective, structured, and protective.

Bad aspects of "Them" are emphasized through phrases as "the conflict with Hezbollah," "Hezbollah command centers and military sites," and specifically "since March 2, when Hezbollah started firing rockets at Israel in solidarity with Tehran." This regularly places Hezbollah as the initiator and threat for the escalation. Meanwhile, bad characteristics of "Us" are minimized, as even severe Israeli strikes are discussed in specialized, strategic, and security focused language. Even though civilian casualties and displacement are recognized, the predominant narrative is still grounded in military action driven by conflict and security issues. Good factors of "Them" are also minimized; for instance, Hezbollah's short-term pause in attacks doesn't replace the entire portrayal, which stresses earlier rocket attacks and Israeli statements about Hezbollah's military sites and security zone. In general, R3 illustrates the way the ideological square works even if several Lebanese suffering and Hezbollah 's restraint are acknowledged - by regularly framing the narrative to favor positive self-presentation and negative other-presentation.

In R4, the ideological bias is obvious as the statement explicitly criticizes Hezbollah's refusal to make a deal, emphasizing Israeli security expansion. Good factors of "Us" are highlighted with phrases like "expanding a' buffer zone' inside Lebanon," "creating a genuine security zone," "creating a larger buffer zone," and noting that six Hezbollah rockets were "all intercepted." These word choices depict Israel as effective, preventive, and strategic. Conversely, bad factors of "Them" are highlighted through phrases like "the Iran backed group launched attacks," "dozens of statements claiming attacks," "more than 80 attacks," "the largest daily number in the current war," "Hezbollah began firing rockets into Israel," "a Hezbollah stronghold," and "Several terrorists." This regular language portrays Hezbollah as intense, persistent, along with militarized. Meanwhile, bad portrayals of "Us" are downplayed, as Israeli expansion is discussed with terms as "zone," "security," and "prevention," staying away from language suggestive of invasion or occupation. The phrase "the Gaza model" is found in the UN Secretary-General 's warning instead of as a central theme of the article. Likewise, Hezbollah's stance is displayed primarily through refusals and militancy - phrases as "would amount to' surrender'" and "would have none of it" reflect Hezbollah's voice but frame it as an obstacle to ceasefire and peace. In general, R4 exemplifies van Dijk's square, particularly through the contrasting language of "security zone" for Israel and "Attack" for Hezbollah.

Conclusions

This research investigates how Al-Arabiya 's coverage of the Israeli Lebanese conflict constructs media disinformation through pragmatic and ideological approaches. Making use of an eclectic pragma-discourse approach, it includes presupposition analysis with van Dijk's ideological square to disclose exactly how language shapes the depiction of the struggle. The analysis suggests that Al-Arabiya 's discourse is not neutral but ideologically biased, frequently favoring one side and framing the additional badly and also as a risk.

On the pragmatic level, the reports heavily depend on presupposition triggers, leading people to recognize specific assumptions as facts. Existential presuppositions naturalize army structures, strategic zones, and identities. Change-Of-State and iterative verbs depict the struggle as a consistent cycle of strikes, expansions, and reactions. Temporal clauses frequently place Hezbollah's actions in the background and Israeli actions in the foreground

as consequent developments. Comparisons and contrasts highlight the scale of violence and army value, while non restrictive clauses subtly add evaluative, political, and historical details as secondary info. Judging verbs are used less often however help evaluative positioning in several instances. General, these linguistic structures show that presupposition is a primary mechanism which guides interpretation and also creates contested meanings appear to be unquestioned and natural.

At the ideological level, the reports strongly reflect van Dijk's ideological square. The Israeli side is frequently associated with protection, civilians, strategy, defense, and security, while Hezbollah and/or Lebanese territory are connected with attack, strongholds, rockets, militancy, and risks. This particular framing emphasizes positive characteristics of "us" and negative ones of "them," while simultaneously reducing negative aspects of Israeli army actions and marginalizing justificatory or positive portrayals of Hezbollah. The snowball impact will be the building of a polarized wartime narrative, portraying Israel as genuine, logical, and protective, while Lebanese forces, destabilizing, appear aggressive, especially Hezbollah, and insidious.

To conclude, this particular study confirms that Al-Arabiya 's stories on the Israeli Lebanese conflict are formed by both ideological framing plus presuppositional language. They do much more than recount wartime events; they definitely develop a specific variant of truth. Through discerning lexical choices, presupposed assumptions, and also polarized depictions, they promote disinformation which could affect public perception of the conflict and the parties involved. This highlights the importance of pragma discourse evaluation for finding out how wartime media narratives function - not only as reflections of truth, but as tools for shaping it.

Suggestions for Further Studies.

The current study focuses on media disinformation shown by Al-Arabiya News reports; however, this study investigates disinformation from one side of the conflict. Suggestions for further studies include media disinformation in News Reports by pro-Iranian and pro-Hezbollah channels, to conduct a comparative study to compare how disinformation is utilized by both sides of the conflict.

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Abstract in Arabic

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