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**A Comparative Analysis of Presupposition Triggers in Pakistani English  
Newspapers Headlines**



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**Abstract**

The present study is designed to explore the purpose and nature of presupposition triggers used in Pakistani English Newspapers headlines. Presupposition is both the semantic and pragmatic phenomenon because at both levels the major concern is the study of meaning. Semantics attempts to relate meaning to logic and construction of reality and deals with meaning as a matter primarily of sense relations within language whereas pragmatics attempts to relate meaning to the context of the utterances. Meaning is understood as a part of the communication not as something abstract. Inferences and presuppositions help in meaning making and comprehension process. There are some grammatical and lexical items which create presuppositions about what is being communicated. The headlines as a data (approximately 300-350 headlines for duration of 3-5 months) are sampled from three different national newspapers (*The Dawn, The News, and The Nation*) representing a wide range of social, political and ideological contexts.. For theoretical framework, blended approach of schematic theory and Karttunen's proposed model for the analysis of presupposition triggers (as cited in Levinson: 1983) worked as tools. The analysis showed that lexical units are not merely the indicators of grammatical categorization rather the falsity or truth of the statements hidden in the headlines is conditioned and molded with the help of these triggers.

**Keywords:** Presupposition, Pragmatic, Semantic, Newspaper Headlines

**INTRODUCTION**

News headlines are taken as a sub-genre of journalistic discourse genre (Bell: 1991). When we look at the structure of the news headlines, we observe that headlines mostly contain different expressionistic techniques like bold-faced expressions, polarization, exaggerations, etc., and appear in colored letters. (Kronrod & Engel: 2001, p.686) Newspaper headlines generally contain following properties: their unique style, syntactic characteristics of telegraphic speech and compact information, with a view to function communicatively. Headlines are not only the means of conveying information but a source of persuasion. Headline is opening and indispensable part of the journalistic writing. The role of news headlines is to inform the readers as well as persuade them to read the whole news story. Newspaper headlines meet two opposing needs, i.e., conveying maximum information and using minimum words (Nir: 1994).

When we study newspaper headlines, the super-structure merely represents the top layer of the meaning that is derivable from the constituent parts (both lexical and grammatical) of the sentence in which information is expressed. Rest of the information, which is cognitively deduced, exists in cultural context. . Context helps us in investigating all the categories for the construction of meaning. When words form an utterance, there are several factors behind that which have a significant role, for instance: our exposure to physical and social world, psychological factors, our understanding of spatial and temporal concepts (Yule: 1996).

It is the job of the listeners/ readers to understand what is implied in discourse or presupposed by the writer/speaker. The clues are available there. For instance,

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whenever a definite article *'The'* is used with a common noun it points towards a special entity/person (in *'He is the Aristotle of our class'*, refers precisely to the most promising student of the class). In news headlines, the phenomenon of presupposition is quite pronounced one, for example, in *'China regrets US challenge of export subsidies* (The Dawn, Feb 13, 2015)' the word 'regrets' proposes factive proposition on the part of China. In another headline, *'Waseem vows to win Olympic medal if given foreign training* (The Dawn, Feb 13, 2015)', structural presupposition can be found in 'if conditional' which shows the concern on the part of the boxer to play well in boxing at international level.

Newspaper headlines achieve their goals in four ways -and constitute major functions of presuppositions (Jue Wu: 2005); these have two pragmatic goals. If we examine the structure of the newspapers, the goals served are: to provide information and with the use of presupposition triggers extra information is being conveyed. For instance: *MQM finally joins Sindh govt* (The Nation, April 23, 2014) conveys the extra information *that MQM was reluctant and not willing to join the Sindh govt.* In the absence of presupposition, the headline would have been too long to convey additional information and appear like this: *MQM leaves reluctance and finally joins Sindh govt..* ).The function of the news headlines is to make the readers alert to the context and nature of the text (Iarovici and Amel: 1989). It means that headlines convey background information; the readers utilize their previous knowledge on the issue; memory is reactivated; expectations of the readers are catered. Apart from that the principle of being informative and terse/ economic, reading into the minds of the readers is another important factor. In pragmatic presupposition the Journalists (writers) already know what is already known by the readers (receivers). The readers are categorized into informed and less informed ones (Verschueren: 1999, p.186). The targeted audience of the journalists or editors are both that is why presupposition is helpful to reactivate the prior knowledge of the informed readers who have more knowledge about the issue under discussion and provide maximum information to less informed readers.

The presupposed information given is that *Islamabad had already been a target of terrorism in the past.* The informed readers know all about the terrorist activities happened in the past whereas for the less informed readers a general state of affairs is created through providing presupposed meaning, the present situation of the past story and conveying asserted information. The curiosity on the part of the readers is aroused when wh-questions carry presupposed information. With the help of questions additional information is conveyed. The following headline, *Why Jamaat discarded Munawar Hasan* (The Dawn, April 01, 2014), stimulates curiosity on the part of the readers that there are some grounds on which Munawar Hasan was discarded by Jamaat. The similar analysis works on this headline: *Why Holliwood won't make more female-led movies* (The Dawn, April 01, 2014). The presupposed information is that *Holliwood won't make more female-led movies.* Journalists or editors know the expectations of the readers and can look into their minds that's why headlines are generally abrupt and close to their daily life. Presupposition is helpful for them to create interest of the receivers. In other words, headlines convey information that is intended to convey. At the same time, presupposition functions to predict reader's thought and opinions. It is worth noticing here that presupposition may mirror journalists' opinion in indirect way. Though objectivity is considered to be prime motive of journalistic writing but such expectation is not viable in news headlines.

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## **RESEARCH QUESTION**

Q1. What type of presupposition triggers are used in newspaper headlines?

Q2. What purposes do these presupposition triggers perform in newspaper headlines?

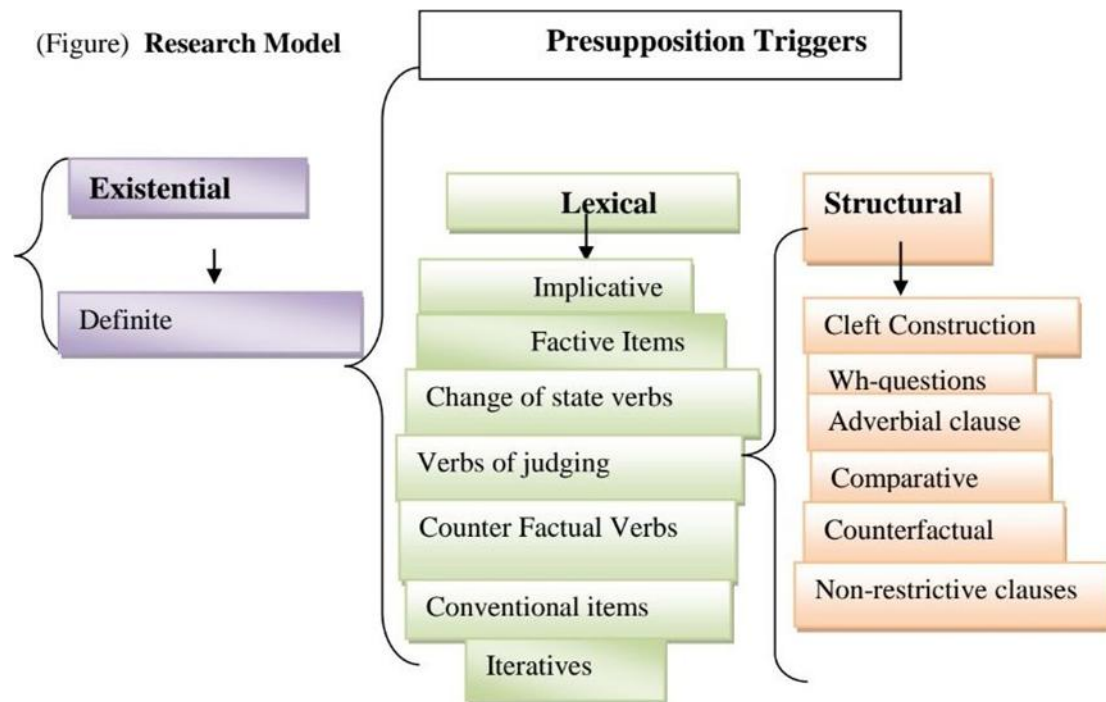
## **OBJECTIVES**

To identify the presupposition triggers used in newspaper headlines.

To evaluate the purpose of presupposition triggers in news headlines

## **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

In the past, journalistic discourse has gained marginal consideration in the area of research. Quantitative content analysis was in vogue as compared to the qualitative perspectives (Van Dijk:1988). The shallow boundaries covered by such analysis were incapable to develop it into comprehensive area of research. Models of a combination of qualitative and quantitative research approaches have been developed (Mayring, 2014). The movement of mixed methods research has evolved as a new alternative, as a "third way" in social and behavioral science (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2010; Teddlie & Tashakkori 2009) to fill this gap. The main tenants of this method are Creswell, 2009; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007; Greene, 2007; Johnson and Onwuegbuzie:2004 and Tashakkori and Teddlie: 1998, 2003, 2009. In any sort of research activity, if qualitative and quantitative methods are applied as irreconcilable contraries, it would be unhelpful and unrealistic at the same time (Denscombe: 2012). This essential point is unanimously agreed upon that there should be coordination and interlink between the different approaches used in research. In the present research, the mixed method approach has been applied for data collection and content analysis. Generally, in content analysis when data is analyzed it is mostly collected in the form of numerical data but in social sciences the texts are produced within certain context. Sometimes, e.g. within mass media research contexts it is labeled as data collection method, because it extracts material (as sample) out of a huge amount of texts (e.g. newspapers) (Mayring: 2014, p.43). For this purpose the technique of qualitative content analysis works because 'document analysis as research design can deal with a broad range of texts: newspapers or other mass media products, files, protocols, documentations in institutions, web pages and so on'. Grounded in Karttunen, (cited in Levinson 1983:181-184), and Yule (1996: 28), the niggers, adopted in this study, are classified into three major types: existential; lexical and structural. The study is based on two domains: semantics and pragmatics. For lexical analysis, Karttunen's model has helped to categorize and identify presupposition triggers in headlines whereas for pragmatic analysis schematic theory is applied.



### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

The concept of presupposition emerged and developed mostly in the 60s and 70s. It contradicted all the previous generative linguistic theories and treated language in a different manner. The previous theories dealt with language as an abstract device. Its sociable form was neglected altogether because the relationship between users and society did not gain much consideration (Levinson: 1983). Presuppositions are proposed assumptions and, in the words of Yule, while designing our message we as speakers hold a lot of assumptions that the listener already knows the conveyed message. Presupposition is a technical term borrowed by linguists from logic; according to which "what a speaker (or writer) assumes is true or known by the listener (or reader)" (Yule:1995, p. 133).

On the other hand, presuppositions are taken as "pieces of information which are associated with certain lexical items or syntactic constructions" (Geurts: 1999). Strawson (1950 as cited in Grundy, 2013) is of the view that presupposition as an entailment that survives negation and is truth-conditional. This approach was redefined by Kruttenen (1971). Beaver (1996) clarifies the relationship between presupposition and semantic theory and builds a binary relationship between set of sentences of a language. In order to elucidate the semantic aspect of sentences he propounds the concepts like semantic valuation of the sentences and entailment within sentences. When we talk about semantic and pragmatic aspects of utterance, we come to know that there is no clear cline between syntactic or pragmatic interpretation. Mey, J (2001) gives an example: 'John managed to sell his shares before the market crashed'.

Even if the non-elliptical form of the response is 'No, John didn't manage to sell his shares before the market crashed', the truth/ presupposition remains there that

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John seriously tried to sell his shares. In this case both the above given sentences survive presupposition that John tried to sell shares. Presupposition has this property of survival which according to most of the linguists is related to lexical item. Karttunen (1971) discusses how verb '*manage*' proposes that a thing has been tried seriously. Sometimes, presupposition does not have only semantic but pragmatic value as well. For example:

Sara regrets that she missed the chance.

Sara doesn't regret that she missed the chance.

In both the sentences, there is presupposition that Sara missed the chance. In the same connection it is necessary to quote Levinson (1983:201):

John does not regret having failed, because in fact he passed.

If we analyze second half of the sentence, contrary to the first half, it is presupposed that John passed. In case, if we do not get confused here it is just because we identify what is communicated with the help of the context. While performing pragmatic act we apply cooperative principle. Here, verb *regret* does not cancel presupposition. In original account of presupposition was given by Strawson who restricted his view of presupposition to the definite non phrases. Later on, the scope of presupposition widened and it was accepted that sentences containing factive verbs like *regret* and *realize* do presuppose the truth of the complement sentence. So, it was argued that some counterfactual verbs do imply presupposed meaning, i.e., the truth of the complement clause.

Conclusively, presupposition is a related to inference making or implying something depending upon the choice of both the interlocutors. So presupposition is both semantic and pragmatic phenomenon Presupposition is subdivided into two categories, i.e., semantic presupposition deals with the customary aspects of the meaning of the phrases or sentences. However, pragmatic presupposition relates to the speaker's actions and intentions behind producing an utterance.

Presupposition is part of all the words, phrases and statements. In order to analyze the assumptions of the addresser, it is necessary to find the connection between what is said and what is communicated. Presupposition is most of the time conventional phenomenon. Presupposition is expressed through particular subset of constructions which are categorized grammatically (Beaver: 1996). These grammatical categories are known as presupposition triggers. Presupposition as: the existential, factive, lexical, structural, non-factive, and counterfactual presupposition. Whatever information is implied in the text it helps in meaning construction process (Yule: 1996, p.27-29). The notion of presupposition has received much attention from semanticists (Wilson: 1975, Gazdar: 1979), Oh and Dinneen: 1979), and Mccawley:1981) among others, who define it as a logical concept bound up with truth-conditional semantics. Moreover, Caffi (1993, cited in Mey: 1993, p.203) argues that "pragmatic presuppositions not only concern knowledge, whether true or false; they concern expectations, desires, interests, claims, attitudes towards the world, fears, etc." which are supposed to be shared between the addresser and addressee. Thus, for the success of any communication there must exist shared knowledge, and the ability to make judgments about the capacities, and needs of interlocutors in different social situations. Therefore, the success of a presupposition depends on the addressor's assumptions, shared knowledge between interlocutors and their knowledge of the world.

### **DATA ANALYSIS**

In the modern linguistics, presupposition is the core issue related to context-dependent theory. The background assumptions can be inferred properly by understanding this subject. The assumptions behind any expression, action, utterance and theory become rational and cogent when presupposed meaning is understood. (Levinson: 1983, p.168; Crystal:1997, p. 271; and Verschueren:1999, p.27). Generally, speakers register linguistic messages that are presupposed. Utterances and constructions possess presupposition that is created from words, phrases and structures within. In the other words, presuppositions arise from the utterances that are made while performing a speech act. First of all, existential presupposition is discussed here. The existential presupposition is the property of possessive constructions and definite descriptions. It has been noticed that names or definite descriptions create a referring expression towards the existence of an entity or person, for example, *Pentagon chief's visit exposes Us-China divide* (The Nation, April 10, 2014). The description of names shows that Pentagon's chief exists. In the analyzed headlines /Germany's schaeuble/, /Denmark's Norma/, /Brown's visit/, /Ayaz Sadiq's appeal/, /Shahbaz's devotion/, /Dicken's letter/, /Musharraf's lawyers/, /Wasim Akram's father/, /Lalu's charisma/, /Dar's statement/, /Barca's transfer/, /Musharraf's old legal team/, /Thailand's first female PM/, /Waqar's appointment/, /Qatar's emir/, all pointed out the existence of the mentioned persons.

In order to make proper inferences, it becomes necessary to build knowledge structures according to the situation. When communicators follow the 'cooperative principle' given by Grice (1989), they can easily understand the content of the talk and identify which schema is appropriate/ relevant for selection. In the case of inaccessibility of the schema, the process of building relevant information is interrupted, for example, in *Iran's reservations to be allayed: Pervaiz* (The News, April 4, 2014) the reservations are specified on the part of Iran. If the readers do not have the prior knowledge about the nature of Iranian reservations, it is hard to build knowledge schema or information sequence about how these reservations can be addressed. In other case, informed readers may refine their schemas on the ground of pre-existing knowledge.

It is noteworthy to mention Frege's (1892) opinion about the role of simple or compound proper names. He is of the view that these proper names have particular referents and it is supposed that listeners already know about whom the reference is made. In *Gandhi's India forever changed* (The News, April 25, 2014) clearly for granted information is that there was someone called Gandhi in India. The speaker presupposes the truth of utterance. In both the affirmative and negative version, the existence of the person remains constant, *i.e.(a) Gandhi's India forever changed and Gandhi's India is not forever changed*. The speaker of sentence already assumes that Gandhi was among the founders of India. Our knowledge schemas make the storyline with the help of or prior knowledge that there was a long struggle on the part of Gandhi in India but now the situation has worsened and state is working contrary to his vision. In the analyzed headlines, all the proper names e.g.: /Qatar's emir/, /PM's youth loan scheme/, /Imran's directives/, /Major Amir's dissociation/, /Altaf Hussain's Pak passport/, /Waqar's appointment/, indicate the existence of the mentioned personnel. Other examples of the possessive constructions which mark the existential presupposition were, e.g. /Govt's credibility/, /PTI's education emergency/, /SBP's Siddiq/, /London's High court/, /Pakistan's debt/, /India's food

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basket/, /World's biggest elections/, /PTI's dissidents KP MPAs/, /England's foreign students/, /Mother's illness/, /Pakistan's Syria policy/, /Iran's reservations/, /Taliban's ceasefire/, /Citizen's freedom/, /Speaker's ruling/, /Musharraf's supporters/, /Workers' economic murder/, /Qaddafi's son/, /Govt's move/, /Pakistan's progress/, /Journalists' organizations/, /FBR's ignorance/, /Britain's largest media union/, /Australia's bubble of brilliance/, /Nasa's space station/, /India's new govt/, /India's election campaign/, /Indian Prime minister's half-brother/, /China's president/, /China's Communist party/.

'A definite description is any phrase of the form 'the F'. It must begin with 'the' and specify exactly one referent'(Russell: 1950). The difference between definite descriptions and indefinite description is that of 'one man' and 'some man'. In his view, uniqueness of a referent is emphasized by the addition of 'THE' at the beginning of the sentence. For him definite descriptions are explicit information that is clearly pronounced in the sentence. In assertion, *'The king of France is bald'*, the uniqueness of the existence of king of France who is bald is present. Frege (1892), Strawson (1950), have contradictory views than him. For them, subject-predicate relations predict the presupposition of the uniqueness of the entities referred to by subject of the assertion. Presupposition is not triggered from outside the sentences but from within. That's why existence of things and their uniqueness is treated as implicit assumptions that can be deduced from the sentences. Following their tradition, presupposition is taken as a kind of unstated or implicit assumption, detectable only by its effects on other, explicit sentences (Bagwell, Jeffrey N: 2014). The term 'commitment' that must be fulfilled to prove the truth of the statement'. In this research, the same school of thought is followed. For instance: *'Police apologized for detaining German tourist'*. (The Dawn, April 3, 2014) expresses the uniqueness of the tourist who is arrested and belongs to Germany. By presupposing different assumptions are made from within sentence. The embedded meanings are explicitly stated above but the implied meaning is that it is illegal to detain tourists. The structure of the sentences projects the presupposition and provides the context as well.

The second type of presupposition triggers is lexical items as illustrated in the items below. Implicative verbs are lexical presupposition triggers. As factive verbs presuppose the truth of its complement clause so do some implicative verb though in a different manner. Implicative verbs presuppose some necessary condition which help in determining whether an event or situation stated in the complement took place or not. The main sentence can be taken as an utterance about whether this condition stated in utterance is fulfilled and at the same time it tells about the spatial and temporal circumstances. Levinson (1983) through the examples *John managed to open the door* provides the explanation that the utterance presupposes that *John tried to open the door* and *John forgot to lock the door* implies that *John ought to have locked or intended to lock the door*. In case if an utterance is a positive assertion the implied assertion is taken as true but situation becomes vice versa if it is a negative assertion. For categorizing verbs, there are two types; implicative and non-implicative, those are discussed by pragmaticians.

Karttunen (1971) includes the following verbs in first category: *manage, remember, bother, bother get, dare, care, venture, condescend, happen, see fit, be careful, have the misfortune/sense, take the time/ opportunity/ trouble, take it upon yourself*. Some other examples are *happened to* and *avoid* which presuppose *'didn't plan or*

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*intend to* and *'was expected to or ought to'* respectively. There are some verbs which do not propose or imply any meaning that's why these are called non-implicative verbs, e.g., *agree, decide, want, hope, promise, plan, intend, try, be likely, be eager/ready and have in mind*. In *Defense tries to build case at pistorius trail* (April 17, 2014) and *Pakistan intends to issue \$500M Eurobonds: Dar* (April 05, 2014) the implied or asserted meaning is that defense has put an effort to build a case but proposed meaning is that there no positive development till now. In the second utterance, the verb *intends* shows that complement clause do not propose the happening in real rather the decision is still under consideration. Yule (1996) explains that implicative verb *managed* carries positive assertion and proposed meaning at the same time. The asserted meaning is that person succeeded in accomplishing the task and proposed meaning is that person tried to do something. If it is said that he did not manage, the asserted meaning is: person did not succeed in doing something and proposed meaning is: person didn't try. Both the verbs 'Survives' and 'intend' presuppose the effort on the part of the doer of the action. These verbs imply that subject has struggled and is committed respectively. Factive predicates are generally considered as one of the canonical classes of presupposition triggers (Beaver and Geurts et al: 2011). Factive verbs are lexical presupposition triggers.

The other category of lexical presupposition triggers is 'verbs of judging'. About this category of lexical triggers. The subject of judging gets more attention than the intention of the speaker. The presupposed information is judged from the verbs that are used in the utterance. (Levinson: 1983). These verbs are the lexical triggers that produce presupposition. In the analyzed headlines, both the verbs 'accuse' and 'condemn' expressed the judgment made on the part of the speaker/journalist. In the headline, *'Ukraine accuses Russia of waging war in East'* (The Dawn, April 14, 2014) the presupposed information is that Ukraine considers it bad to wage war.

The next type of triggers is counter-factual constructions. The proposition of the complement clause is totally refuted. It is interesting to note that in such constructions what is proposed is taken as false and along with that it is taken as the opposite of the true. A very valid example is the use of second conditional in such statements. The use of second conditionals is example of counter factual presupposition.

After viewing presupposition as a necessary precondition for a sentence to be either true or false, semanticists define this semantic concept as conventional. Generally the conventional meaning of the sentences is associated with certain lexical items and presupposition in these sentences is taken as for granted (Levinson: 1983, p.206) . It is seen as the part of the sentence not as a separate one. In order to affirm his point of view, Palmer (1981:170) also favors the existence of presupposition associated with specific lexical items. Thus, the sentence */ cleaned the room* involves the presupposition that *the room. was dirty* due to the verb 'clean'. Not only verbs have associative conventional meaning but there are other categories of lexical items which generate presupposition, for instance some nouns also convey presupposition, for example, the headline *More than 100 soldiers killed despite peace efforts: Pak Army* (The News, 20 Feb, 2014) proposes that *Soldiers were alive*.

In the process of reading, "comprehension of a message entails drawing information from both the message and the internal schemata until sets are

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reconciled as a single schema or message"(Anderson et al. in Hudson:1982, p.187). In this connection Wallace (1992:33) says that the first part of any text activates schema which is either approved or disapproved by what is coming up next. The process of the organization of these schemata starts very earlier than this: "The environment sets up powerful expectations: we are already prepared for certain genres but not for others before we open a newspaper, a scholarly journal or the box containing some machine we have just bought." (Swales: 1990, p. 88). In the above given example first part, "More than 100 soldiers killed despite peace effort", activates the schema which would confirm or disconfirm either peace efforts were made in real or not. Our schema sets up our expectations about uncertain peace-talk environment. When the readers have a cursory look upon the texture of headlines, they visualize the captions, italicized words or presupposition triggers and by using schemata they can predict very easily about what is being communicated. The verbs like kill, continue, commence, extend, release, suspend, ban, remain, and remove carry presupposition that is closely related to presupposition restricted to verbs. The conventionality is not strictly associated to the verbs only. There are some words within sentence that can convey presupposition, for instance, in the headline: '*France in new tack to fight roots of terrorism*' (The News, April 2, 2014), the word 'new' carries the meaning that old tack did not work well in fight against terrorism. The verb '*hide*' indicates that reality is being hidden.

Another class of lexical presupposition triggers is iterative or categorical presupposition. The term iterative is used to 'refer to an event which takes place repeatedly' (Crystal: 1997). There are particular verbs such as *another* and *again* that contain presupposition of re-occurrence (Levinson: 1983). A list of such verbs is developed by linguists who categorized following words under the category of iterative. These words are *anymore; returned; another time; to come back, restore, repeal*, etc. A general conception about lexical presupposition triggers is that such triggers help the addresser to express something unstated. In the given headlines, lexical triggers are: *another, once again, revamps, regain, again, reaffirm, recall, review, restore, rebuff and restore*. The iterative triggers noticed in the given headlines are *again, reopen, re-appropriate, reappoint, another, reclaim, rethink, revisit, reissue, reshuffle, resume, restore, realign, retake, resurface, revive and review*. All these verbs presuppose the repetition of the same action. The term 'iterative' is coined to "refer to an event which takes place repeatedly" (Crystal: 1997).

Structural presuppositions form a type of presupposition in which the addressee assumes that the part of structure is already known by the addressee. The sentence structure can be regular or conventional. The truthfulness of the statement is taken as for granted. Under structural presupposition the category of presupposition triggers is cleft. A Cleft Construction is a complex sentence construction consisting of two clauses, a matrix clause containing a copula whose non-subject complement is a focus phrase and a relative (or relative-like) clause one of whose arguments is co-indexed with the focus phrase. Together, the main and the relative clause denote a logically simple proposition. Though this proposition can be presented in a single clause yet such construction expresses presupposition" (Lambrecht: 1988). Clefts are presuppositional. All clefts, by virtue of their syntax, are presuppositional (Prince: 1978, p.884, Gazdar: 1979, p.128, Delin: 1992, p. 291). The presupposition can be derived by substituting the relativizer for a suitably existentially-quantified phrase (represented in the examples below as *someone* or *something*). Thus, the clefts yield

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the factive presuppositions. In *It felt great to dive back into work, because it helped me escape the negativity: Annie* (April 27, 2014) presupposed meaning us that some helped in escaping negativity.

About wh-question constructions, it is generally assumed that information provided after wh-form is already known as truth. It means that questions are asked just for confirmation or to convey already known information by the addressee. In this type of presupposition the information is perceived true (Yule: 1996). Wh-questions are not asked just for asking question. Therefore, in asking the question "*Who has taken my umbrella?*" the addresser is said to be presupposing or taking it for granted that somebody has taken his umbrella. Clearly, it would be anomalous for an addresser to say "*I know that he had taken my umbrella, but who has taken it?*" *What we're not talking about?* (The Nation 18 Feb, 2014) proposes that we are not talking about something. In the headline, '*Who died and made the JSJ queen?*' (The Nation, April 28, 2014) wh-question presupposes that someone died. In another headline: '*Why Us Franking Campaign Are Licking Their Lips Over Ukrain* (The Nation, April 12, 2014), the truth of statement is obvious that US franking campaign are licking their lips over Ukrain. In '*Who Urges Global Push to treat Hepatitis C* (The Nation, April 10, 2014), the addressers already take this information for granted that someone urges global push to treat Hepatitis C. In the headline, '*Why the Army is Sacrosanct*' (The Nation, May 8, 2014) the addressers seem to have prior knowledge that Army is Sacrosanct. The other headline *What do Afghan Election signifies?* (The Nation, April 09, 2014) presuppose that Afghan elections signify something. In the below given headlines (a) presupposed (b):

*What Americans really want in foreign policy?* (The Nation, May 4, 2014)

Americans want something in foreign policy.

*What ails Pakistan?* (The Nation, May 11, 2014)

Something is ailing Pakistan

The addressers seem to already know about the proposition held by all the questions.

For instance (a) presupposes (b):

*Why is the election commission effective in India?* (May 14, 2014)

Election commission is effective in India.

*What does Imran want?* (May 12, 2014)

Imran wants something.

*Who puts shackles on Pakistan over polio* (May 6, 2014)

Somebody puts shackles on Pakistan over polio.

*Why Hollywood won't make more female-led movies* (April 01, 2014)

Hollywood won't make more female-led movies.

*Why Jamaat discarded Munawar Hasan* (April 01, 2014)

Jamaat has discarded Munawar Hasan.

In complex sentences, the comparative constructions exhibit greater indications of the presence of a presupposition. Karttunen (cited in Levinson, 1983:183) claims that the use of comparisons and contrasts triggers presupposition. These comparative constructions can be of any type, i.e.: "adjective-er + than" and "As + adjective +as". In the following sentences, for instance, (a) presupposes (b)

*Carol is /isn't a better linguist than Barbara.*

Barbara is a linguist.

In the following examples use of comparisons and contrasts triggers following presuppositions where (a) presupposes (b):

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*The two individuals more capable than the entire state (The Nation, April 28, 2014)*

State is not capable enough.

*I was never good enough as Bond: Brosnan (The Nation, April 17, 2014)*

Bond had been better.

*Misbah greater captain than Kardar, Imran: Peter (The Nation, May 10, 2014)*

Kardar is not that much good captain.

*ECP prefers EUMs to Nadra's biometric verification system (The Nation, May, 2014)*

(b) Biometric verification system is not better.

*Special persons get more care in Pakistan as compared to developed states.*

*(The Nation, April 6, 2014)*

Develop states do not give much care to special persons.

In the following headlines, given in 'The Dawn', presupposition is triggered as follows:

*Cannes opens with a royal biopic worse than Diana .*

Diana is also opened worse in royal biopic.

*Real spying is much more boring than depicted in The Americans.*

*Spying is also depicted in The Americans.*

*Asia takes more Iran crude in Feb than nuclear deal allows.*

*Nuclear deal allows Iran crude.*

Here are two more examples from 'The News':

*More delisting than listing in last few years.*

In the last few years, delisting had been done.

*No TV supported Imran the way Geo did: Sethi*

Other TV channels did not support Imran much.

Adverbial clauses are used as adverbials in the main clause. Those clauses trigger presupposition. These clauses have some freedom of positioning, i.e., they are commonly placed either in initial or final position (Biber et al: 1999, p.194) in the given headlines (a) presupposes (b):

*She wrote the book when she lived in Boston. (The Dawn, 2014).*

(b). She lived in Boston.

*Nasa reveals solar storm that caused blackout on Earth. (The Dawn, 2014)*

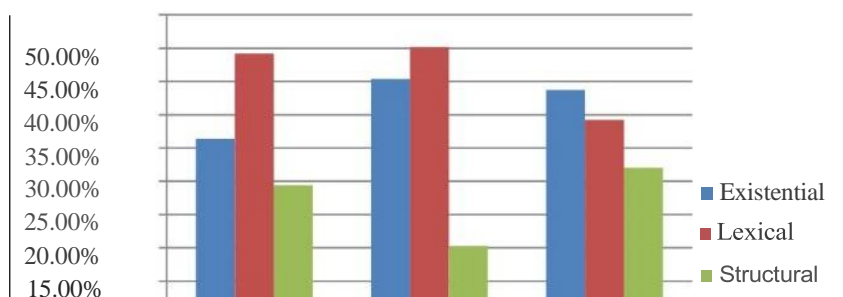
There is blackout on the earth.

*As Us Withdraws, It May Back A Role for China in Afghanistan.*

*(The Dawn, April 2014)*

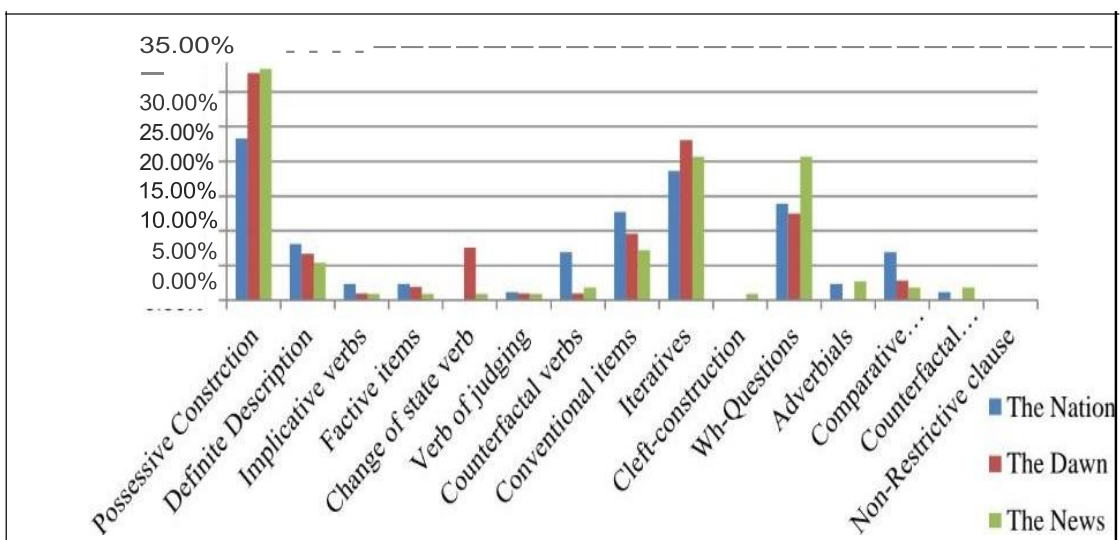
## RESULTS

It has been observed that in three selected newspapers (The Nation, The Dawn, The News) the occurrences of categories exhibit marked difference, for example, the occurrence of existential presupposition triggers in three above mentioned newspapers is 31.39%, 40.38% and 38.73%. The lexical triggers constitute 44.18%, 45.19% and 34.23% whereas structural triggers are 24.41%, 15.38% and 27.02%. As illustrated in the figure below, The Dawn used 15.38% structural presupposition triggers as compared to The Nation and The News which used 24.41% and 27.02% respectively. In 'The Nation' existential presupposition triggers are 31.39% whereas in The Dawn and The News ratio



is 40.38% and 38.73 respectively. In 'The News', lexical triggers are 34.23%, in The Nation 44.18% and in The Dawn ratio is 45.19%.

The ranking difference found in categories is observable in the figure below. In 'The Dawn' the occurrence of 'change of state verbs'(7.69%) and 'iterative'(23.07)



is pronounced more than other newspapers and in 'The News' counterfactual verbs(1.80%), wh-questions (20.72%) and comparative constructions (1.80%) are ranked higher than other newspaper headlines. The below given figure shows that in 'The Nation' , possessive constructions are 23.25% , definite description 8.1% , implicative verbs 2.3%, factive items 2.3%, change of state verbs 13.9%, verb of judging 2.3%, counterfactual verbs 6.9%, conventional items 12.7%, iterative 18.6%, cleft-construction 2.3%, wh-Questions 13.9%, adverbials 1.16%, comparative constructions 6.9%, counterfactual conditions 1.16% , and non-restrictive clause are non-existent.

**Figure 2: Types based on Newspaper**

These lexical units are not merely the indicators of grammatical categorization rather the falsity or truth of the statements hidden in the headlines is conditioned and molded with the help of these triggers. It also proves that meaning of utterances is never restricted to the surface structure of utterances only. We have to move to and fro to find out the intended meaning of the speaker.

**CONCLUSION**

It has been observed that in three selected newspapers (*The Nation, The Dawn, and The News*) the occurrences of categories exhibited marked difference. The

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occurrence of more lexical triggers showed that through the use of verbs, the situation behind the headlines was portrayed effectively. These lexical units are not merely the indicators of grammatical categorization rather the falsity or truth of the statements hidden in the headlines is conditioned and molded with the help of these triggers. It also proved that meaning of utterances is never restricted to the surface structure of utterances only. We have to move to and fro to find out the intended meaning of the speaker. The possessive constructions in English are characterized by existential presupposition. The news headlines have referring expressions which lead to the concept that journalists/ editors who use existential triggers intend to convey some other information. The "meaningfulness" of the headlines becomes justifiable when existential presupposition is traced. Expressions having referential expression contain singular demonstrative pronouns, proper names, singular personal and impersonal pronouns and definite descriptions. In this research, headlines are analyzed with the application of schema theory. It assisted us in the apprehension of how human schemas play a vital role in shaping and molding our response into the form of words. In the perception of a particular situation and linguistic processing, these schemas are supportive. Actually, different situations have different frames of references within which conversation takes place. In case, if the words are insufficient to communicate the intended meaning, even then we can comprehend and revive that situation with the help of these schemas. Along with that, our schemas, frames or scripts facilitate us to interpret specific contexts.

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