Presupposition Triggers in British and Saudi English Newspaper Opinions

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Abstract—This paper aims to investigate the presupposition triggers in British and Saudi English newspaper opinions. The data of the study comprises a sample of 30 newspaper opinions articles selected from the Saudi Gazette and the UK Gazette (15 articles each). The results demonstrate that the Saudi articles receive the highest number of presupposition triggers occurrences, that is 556 (56.60%) compared to the UK articles which receive 426 (43.40%). The results also reveal that 'existential' and 'lexical' presupposition triggers in both cases are the ones used the most while 'non-factive' 'structural' presupposition triggers are the least. Comparison between the two cases indicates that there are considerable similarities. The few differences are not very significant; hence, it is true to say that native and non-native writers of English used presupposition triggers similarly. Based on the study findings, the following implications have been drawn: presupposition triggers help speakers and writers pass a lot of information to their audiences; they are used by speakers and writers to set the background of their negotiation for better and effective communication; and they are used by speakers and writers in order to mold the ideologies of their audiences. The study concludes with some pedagogical recommendations for EFL instructors in the TEFL context and suggestions for further studies on presuppositions in discourse analysis.

Index Terms—presupposition triggers, pragmatics, communication, newspaper opinions, Saudi and British writers

I. INTRODUCTION

In their social interactions, people usually use language to convey a message that reflects their different ideological and cultural backgrounds. In the form of writing, language is used to express one's opinions and views towards certain situations and events. A writer, for instance, can use language as a tool for communicating his opinions and views in newspapers and magazines – paperback or online. As a result of global online communication, people all over the world read articles and get informed about national and international affairs from different parts of the world. When readers go through various articles, they get a lot of information more so from implied messages encoded through the manipulation of linguistic tools that writers follow in expressing their opinions, point of views, or comments concerning recent events (Liang and Liu, 2016)

Manipulation of linguistic tools is considered as an influential strategy for effective communication. It enhances communication by creating a more interactive environment between speakers/writers and their audiences. By virtue of being a linguistic aspect of pragmatics, presupposition is used as a linguistic tool through which a speaker/writer makes his communication effective and more interactive (Finch, 2000). Yule (1996, p. 23) defines presupposition as "something the speaker assumes to be the case prior to making an utterance." The term 'Presuppose' is a verb which means to suppose or assume beforehand (Liang and Liu, 2016). It is a philosophical logic of linguistics requiring being a satisfied precondition for a given statement to be false or true. For example, '*Has John stopped beating his wife*? This statement presupposes that '*John has a wife and has been beating her*'. It brings in the requirement of an antecedent fact or logic. Therefore, the presupposition is an assumption concerning particular background understanding which is related to a given utterance whose truth is hypothesized or taken for granted in the concerned discourse. According to Perl (2020), presupposition is a common ground element that is embedded in utterances that are assumed by the writer and reader or speaker and listener. The presupposition trigger is a linguistic construction or lexical item that stands to be responsible for presupposition in a given content, hence, a trigger to it. Therefore, presupposition trigger is an item or construction that can signal presupposition existence in an utterance/sentence. Bonyadi and Samuel (2011) indicate that the trigger is known to be a projection of a meaning assumed in a sentence. It is, therefore, true to say that any linguistic item, that is in a position to presuppose a particular meaning in the utterance, is referred to as 'presupposition trigger'. The use of presuppositions triggers in communicating writer's/speaker's implied messages has attracted some researchers to explore them across genres (cf. Primayandi, 2013 [novel]; Hidayati, 2009 [advertisements]; Khaleel, 2010 [journal texts]; Bonyadi & Samuel, 2011 [news transcripts], amongst others). The above brief overview creates an avenue towards a clear understanding of the main topic of the present study, i.e. 'presupposition triggers in British and Saudi English newspaper opinions.

A. Aim of the Study

In view of the above-mentioned background, the present study sets out to investigate the presupposition triggers in British and Saudi English newspaper opinions. It attempts to identify the presupposition triggers deployed in newspaper opinions and describe how native and non-native writers of English manipulate presupposition triggers in expressing their opinions.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

As a branch of linguistics, pragmatics is concerned with the study of meaning as communicated by a speaker (writer) and interpreted by a listener (reader) (Yule, 1996, p. 3). In his discussion of the areas of pragmatics, Mahmood, (2019) classifies these areas into four: a) contextual meaning; b) speakers' meaning; c) the relative distance expression; and d) how to communicate to more audience than what is just said. In the light of such classification, presupposition falls into the fourth area which emphasizes the manner in which audience make inferences about what the speaker/writer attempts to say. In so doing, the audience can arrive at the primary intended meaning of the speaker/writer and at the same time explore a great deal of what is not directly said but recognized as part of the delivered message. In fact, it is considered as another way of investigating the communication of information that is invisible. In this regard, Leech (2016) considers 'presupposition triggers' as the aspect of communication that indicates information which might not be said by the speaker but it is implied to be part of what is said. On the other hand, it should be known that presupposition does not bring in any form of new communication; instead, it comprises background message which is taken for granted by the interlocutors (Perl, 2020). Therefore, presupposition triggers are clearly responsible for the realization of presupposition in a given context. Secondly, presuppositions have a constructive meaning for both readers and listeners provided they are familiar with the very presuppositions (Frege, cited in Finch, 2000). The eminent German logician, Frege, is known to have brought up the concept of 'presupposition' around 1892. Since then presuppositions have drawn interest from different disciplines especially linguistic and philosophical domains with regard to its construction, meaning and use.

In view of the mutual importance of presupposition and presupposition triggers in semantics and pragmatics, considerable researches have been devoted to account for the information that is not communicated in the utterances/sentences of the speaker/writer directly. With this in mind, presupposition received a lot of attention from scholars in semantics including: Oh & Dinneen, (1979); Gazdar, (1979); Kempson, (1975); and Wilson, (1975), among others. They consider it as the concept of logic which is bound up with truth-conditional semantics.

The semantics of truth-condition adopts an approach that deals with the proposed meanings of a sentence with their logical conditions; and as such, it establishes much of the information which is not communicated directly by the speaker/writer. According to Van Dijk (1977), semantics presupposition brings the relationship between sentences; one sentence presupposes another sentence in a situation where the second sentence is deemed necessary to affirm truthfulness or falsity concerning the first sentence. Owing to views about the concept of presupposition (e.g., Keenan, 1971; Levinson, 1983; Marmaridou, 2000; Atlas, 2004; Van der Sandt; 2012), a positive or a negative sentence does not change the purpose of the presupposition. For instance, in the sentence '*John's brother came from Europe*', the presupposition is that '*John has a brother*'. Likewise, in the sentence '*John's brother did not come from Europe*', the presupposition remains the same, that is '*John has a brother*'. In fact, constancy under negation is considered as a defining property of presupposition. According to pragmatics, it is also argued that apart from the literal meaning, an utterance or a sentence delivers a host of the indirect message (Capone, 2017). Many sentences need to have some naturally defined contexts or conditions that are satisfied with an utterance of the sentence to communicate its message (Mahmood, 2019). Stalnaker (1973) introduced the notion of presupposition trigger in a manner that is familiar in relation to background information. According to him, the 'presupposition trigger' shows a proposition whose truth is hypothesized. Following different researchers' findings, the presupposition is associated with various numbers of words, structures, and phrases. Linguistics isolates such constructions as presupposition sources known as 'lexical' or 'presupposition triggers'. It can also be said that 'triggers' are the linguistics terms that generate presuppositions (Liang & Liu, 2016). Therefore, a presupposition trigger is an item or construction that is responsible for signaling presupposition existence. Karttunen (1983) has a collection of thirty-one types of presupposition triggers; Keenan (1971) proposed nine presupposition triggers under the 'logical presupposition' title. In addition, Hickey, et al. (1993) proposed fourteen such types of presupposition triggers. However, Yule (1996) classified them into six kinds of such linguistic constructions which constitute the core phenomenon concerning presupposition triggers to date. They are summarized in the table below:

TABLE I.
YULE'S (1996) CLASSIFICATION OF PRESUPPOSITION TRIGGERS

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

*The symbol >> means presupposes.

According to Karttunen (1983), presupposition triggers are categorized into three major types: (i) existential, (ii) lexical (change of state verbs, factive & implicative verbs, judging verbs conventional items, counterfactual verbs and iterative) and (iii) structural (wh-questions, constructions, adverbial and comparative constructions, non-restrictive clauses and counterfactual conditions). This classification is represented in the flowchart below.
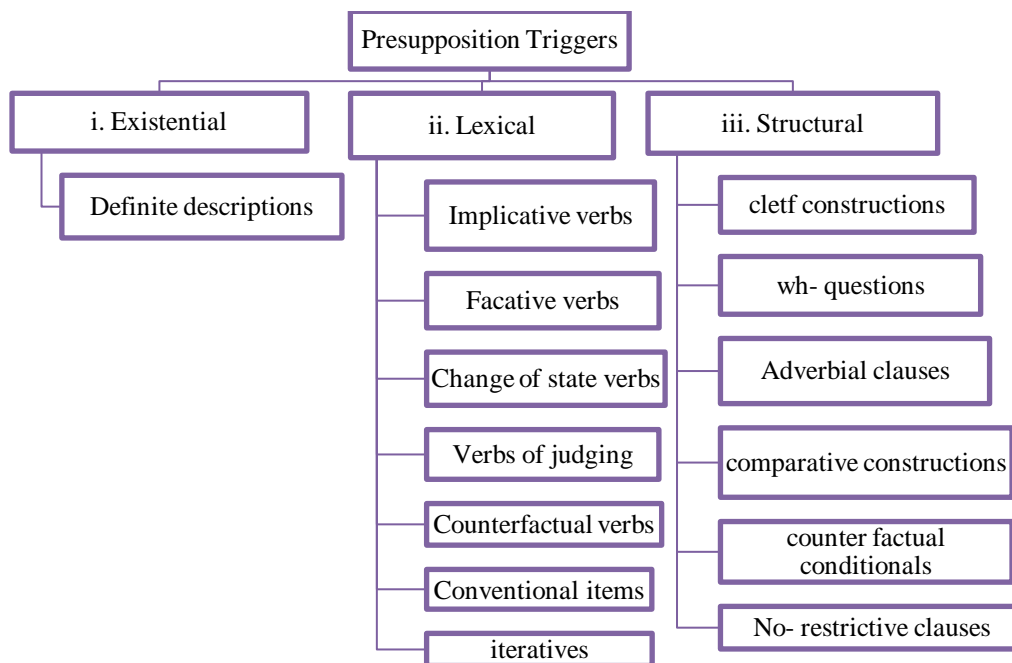
Practically, an utterance or a sentence presupposes a context which is deemed to be appropriate according to the message delivered (Keenan, 1971). It is, therefore, true to say that always there is a relationship between the presupposition made by a writer/speaker and how the reader/listener is likely to interpret it. Taken for granted, if such relationship is successful, then the sentence structure does not have ambiguity in its interpretation to the listener/reader. In light of Karttunen's work which lists thirty-one types of presupposition triggers, Levinson (1983) came up with thirteen kinds of presupposition triggers which are as follows: factive verbs, definite description, change of state verbs, verbs of judging, imperative verbs, iterative, temporal clauses, cleft sentence, counterfactual conditionals, comparison and contrasts, implicit clefts with stressed constituents non-restrictive relative clauses and questions. He Ziran (2003) further classified the thirteen lists of presuppositions triggers given by Levinson into three general groups. His classification was as follows: factive verbs, implicative verbs, verbs of judging & change of state verbs; adjuncts such as [another, again, either, back, too, s, even & the] and iterative; clauses including contrasts, comparisons, non-restrictive clauses, questions as well as cleft sentences.

A. Previous Related Studies

A number of studies concerning presupposition triggers were conducted by different researchers. For instance, Primayandi (2013) conducted a study that aimed at analyzing presupposition in the novel *'Love in the Afternoon'*

written by Lisa Kleypas. The researcher used a qualitative method in her study. She adopted Yule's framework concerning presupposition triggers. According to the findings of the study, presupposition triggers are found to hold a position in revealing the truthful information of the speaker's utterances and allowing the readers get the underlying message.

Another study was carried out by Hidayati, (2009). The aim of the study was to analyze the different types and meanings of presuppositions in 'Slogan in outdoor advertisements. The study was based on descriptive qualitative method. The researcher followed Yule's classification of presupposition types. The results of the study indicated that all sentences and utterances have presuppositions and they are the hidden meanings of what a writer or speaker wants to communicate.

Similarly, Khaleel (2010) conducted a study that mainly focused on presupposition triggers as used in English journal texts. The study explored the presupposition triggers in journalistic texts and their uses. In his data collection, there were six different regional and national English newspapers that represent a range of regional and political differences as they were randomly selected. As per the results of this particular study, most of the English journalistic texts make use of 'existential' presupposition with results of 57.7%. On the other hand, 'lexical' presupposition triggers took a share of 19.7% as per the selected samples.

A similar study was done by Bonyadi and Samuel (2011). The study aimed at investigating whether presupposition is applied in news transcripts. The two samples used to form the side of America and Persia represented by CNN and TV English channels. There were forty news transcripts selected for the study from the channels' website. The results indicated that presupposition triggers were used and that they dominated both TV channels. In the press TV transcripts, 'existential' presupposition occurred about 300 times and in CNN transcripts, it occurred approximately 200 times. 'Lexical' followed with 55 and 94 times in CNN and Press TV's transcripts. This was an indication that both 'existential and lexical' had the highest number of occurrences compared with other types. Therefore, the news transcripts proved to be the premium in communicating through presupposition triggers.

Likewise, Fadhly and Kurnia (2015) have done a study aimed at investigating presupposition in *The Jakarta Post* daily newspaper's articles in political column. The results of the study indicated that the most frequent occurrences of presupposition were 'existential' with 202 (78.59%), followed by 'factive' with 2 (0.79%), 'lexical' with 36 (14%), 'structural' with 11 (4.28%), 'non-factive' with 2 (0.79%) and 'counterfactual' with 4 (1.56%). The study also revealed that both types and triggers of presuppositions were related to each other.

Another different study was conducted by Liang and Liu (2016). The researchers analyzed the presupposition triggers occurred in the first campaign speech of Hilary Clinton. These triggers were categorized in terms of 'lexical' and 'syntactic'. Based on the findings of the study, the researchers found out that presupposition triggers play an important role in strengthening information, making language more economical and vivid, motivating the interaction with the audience and drawing a closer relationship between the speaker and the audience.

A recent study was carried out by Hasta and Marlina (2018). Its aim was to analyze the use of presupposition triggers in Israeli-Palestinian news in the two online news: Al-Jazeera and Fox news. The data was collected from the Israeli-Palestinian news in two online Al-Jazeera and Fox news. The results showed that in Al-Jazeera, the highest occurrence is 'existential' (definite description) that occurred 28 times (43%), and 20 times (40%) in Fox news. It was also found that Al-Jazeera and Fox news used 'change of state verb in lexical', and 'adverbial clause in structural' as the dominant types. In contrast, the difference in the two online news existed in the use of verb of judging. The study concluded that fox news was considered as more ideological news compared to the Al-Jazeera's.

Considering the previous reviewed studies, it is to point out that presuppositions do not bring in any form of new information; instead, they comprise background messages taken for granted by interlocutors and readers, and they are signaled by presupposition triggers. On account of this view, the contribution of the present study lies in its endeavor to investigate how presupposition triggers are used in genre and context other than the ones studied before. In fact, it attempts to identify the presupposition triggers deployed in the British and Saudi newspaper opinions and describe how native and non-native writers of English manipulate presupposition triggers in expressing their opinions.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Data Collection and Procedure

The present study is based on a qualitative approach employing descriptive measures in the process of analyzing the data collected. The data for this study comprises a sample of 30 newspaper opinion articles selected from the Saudi Gazette and UK Gazette (15 articles each) and which were published during 2019-2020. The selected materials for this study provide data which is in the form of sentences, clauses, and phrases of presupposition triggers; such data elements are extracted from respective websites of the UK and Saudi newspaper opinions. The selection of the two groups of articles (British and Saudi) is based on the assumption that they represent two different groups of audience in terms of ideological and cultural backgrounds. This study employed a purposeful type of sampling to achieve the main objective of collecting the required data. There were two main reasons that called for the choice of purposeful sampling method in the data collection. The first reason is that the study is limited to the British and Saudi English newspapers articles. The second reason is that the selected articles should represent different ideological and cultural backgrounds. The analysis of presupposition triggers in the selected materials is based on Yule's (1996) classification. The data collected

was analyzed in concerning the utilization of various presupposition categories. The data was analyzed in terms of frequency and percentage of occurrences of the presupposition triggers; enumeration and tabulation were applied. Afterward, the frequency of presupposition triggers on the side of British newspapers and Saudi ones was elaborated. Finally, the highest frequency of the presupposition utilization and the lowest in the two-discourse analysis were brought out.

Based on the data collected, the following procedure was applied in the data analysis process. The first step was to read through all the compiled texts. The second step was to identify various types of presupposition triggers in the compiled data. After that, the collected texts were categorized in line with Yule's framework shown in the table below.

TABLE II.
CLASSIFICATION FRAMEWORK FOR ANALYSIS

1. SAUDI NEWSPAPER OPINIONS (GAZETTE)
Presupposition Trigger Types
Existential
Factive
Non-factive
Lexical
Structural
Counter-factual
2. THE UK NEWSPAPER OPINIONS (GAZETTE)
Presupposition Trigger Types
Existential
Factive
Non-factive
Lexical
Structural
Counter-factual

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

As the study aims at investigating the presupposition triggers in British and Saudi newspaper opinions, every reading of the selected texts was subjected to analysis of presupposition triggers. Frequency of occurrences and percentage was brought out and the findings normalized. After validation of the data and preliminary findings, the indication was that the articles had utilized various types of presupposition triggers. The analysis is tabulated in two tables: one representing the Saudi case and the other one representing the UK. The results of the analysis are as follows:

TABLE III.
FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF PRESUPPOSITION TRIGGERS IN SAUDI NEWSPAPER OPINIONS

Pre. Type Article	Existential	Factive	Non-factive	Lexical	Structural	Counter-factual	Total	Per. (%)
Reading 1	38	1	2	12	0	0	53	9.53
Reading 2	36	2	1	7	0	3	49	8.81
Reading 3	31	1	2	6	2	4	46	8.27
Reading 4	32	2	2	7	1	1	45	8.09
Reading 5	21	2	1	6	1	1	32	5.76
Reading 6	27	2	3	5	0	1	38	6.83
Reading 7	19	2	0	4	0	2	27	4.86
Reading 8	20	0	0	1	2	3	26	4.68
Reading 9	18	2	0	1	2	2	25	4.50
Reading 10	37	2	0	3	1	3	46	8.27
Reading 11	32	0	3	3	2	9	49	8.81
Reading 12	17	2	0	4	3	3	29	5.22
Reading 13	29	0	0	2	1	3	35	6.29
Reading 14	21	0	0	2	2	0	25	4.50
Reading 15	22	0	2	4	0	3	31	5.58
Total	**400**	**18**	**16**	**67**	**17**	**38**	**556**	**100**
Per. (%)	**71.94**	**3.24**	**2.88**	**12.05**	**3.06**	**6.83**		

The table above reveals that the most used type of presupposition trigger in all the readings is 'existential' with occurrences number of 400 (71.94%) out of the total number (i.e., 556). It is followed closely by 'lexical' with occurrences number of 67 (12.05%). The presupposition trigger with the lowest frequency is 'non-factive' and 'structural' with occurrences number of 16 (2.82%) and 17 (3.06%) respectively. In terms of readings, the highest number of presupposition triggers is found in reading 1 with occurrences of 53 (9.53%) out of the total number. It is followed by readings 2 and 11 (both, 49 [8.81%]). Readings 9 and 14 receive the lowest number of presupposition triggers occurrences, i.e., 25 (4.50%).

TABLE IV.
FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF PRESUPPOSITION TRIGGERS IN THE UK NEWSPAPER OPINIONS

Pre. Type Article	Existential	Factice	Non-factive	Lexical	Structural	Counter-factual	Total	Per. (%)
Reading 1	29	3	2	5	2	4	45	10.56
Reading 2	18	2	1	3	0	2	26	6.10
Reading 3	21	2	1	3	1	2	30	7.04
Reading 4	18	2	2	6	3	8	39	9.15
Reading 5	18	0	0	2	0	0	20	4.69
Reading 6	18	2	2	3	1	1	27	6.34
Reading 7	23	0	1	5	2	4	35	8.22
Reading 8	18	2	0	3	0	0	23	5.40
Reading 9	18	0	1	3	0	3	25	5.87
Reading 10	17	1	0	3	0	0	21	4.93
Reading 11	20	0	0	4	0	1	25	5.87
Reading 12	18	2	0	3	1	0	24	5.63
Reading 13	19	2	0	4	0	1	26	6.10
Reading 14	23	3	0	4	0	3	33	7.75
Reading 15	24	1	0	1	1	0	27	6.34
Total	**302**	**22**	**10**	**52**	**11**	**29**	**426**	**100**
Per. (%)	**70.89**	**5.16**	**2.35**	**12.21**	**2.58**	**6.81**		

The table (IV) above shows that 'existential' is the most used type of presupposition trigger in all the readings with occurrences of 302 (70.8%) out of the total number (i.e., 426%). 'Lexical' presupposition triggers come next with a total of 52 (12.2%). The presupposition trigger with the lowest occurrences is 'non-factive' and 'structural' with 10 (2.3%) and 11 (2.58%) respectively. As far as readings are concerned, reading 1 constitutes the highest number of presupposition triggers, making a total of 45 (10.56%). Reading 4 comes next with occurrences of 39 (9.15%). Readings 5 and 10 have the lowest number of presupposition triggers occurrences, i.e., 20 (4.69%) and 21 (4.93%) respectively.

TABLE V.
TOTAL FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF PRESUPPOSITION TRIGGERS IN BOTH SAUDI & THE UK NEWSPAPER OPINIONS

Case	Pre. Type	Existential	Factive	Non-factive	Lexical	Structural	Counter-factual	Total
Saudi	**Fre.**	400	18	16	67	17	38	**556**
	Per. %	71.94	3.24	2.88	12.05	3.06	6.83	**56.60**
UK	**Fre.**	302	22	10	52	11	29	**426**
	Per. %	70.89	5.16	2.35	12.21	2.58	6.81	**43.40**

The table above summarizes the total frequency and percentage of presupposition triggers occurrences in both Saudi and the UK articles. It shows that the Saudi articles receive the highest number of occurrences, that is 556 (56.60%) compared to the UK articles which receive 426 (43.40%). This demonstrates that there is almost a significant difference in the use of presupposition triggers by native and non-native writers of English. This difference, however, lies in the high frequency of 'existential' presupposition triggers that the Saudi articles receive; and such variation is based on the nature of the articles' topics and length. The table also reveals that 'existential' and 'lexical' presupposition triggers are the ones that used the most while 'non-factive' and 'structural' presupposition triggers are the least. Comparison between the two cases shows that there are a lot of similarities. The few differences are not very significant though. Therefore, it is true to say that native and non-native writers of English used presupposition triggers similarly.

In view of the descriptive analysis of the study, it is observed that most types of presupposition triggers are used in all the articles, while the frequency of occurrences varies from different articles. The basic purpose of presupposition triggers of conveying implicit information has been obtained though differently. For the convenience of presentation and space limitation of the paper, each type of the presupposition triggers will be described and exemplified with two illustrative excerpts accounting for how presuppositions are triggered in Saudi and the UK newspaper opinions.

A. Existential

Existential presupposition is assumed to be present in possessive constructions, but more generally in any definite noun phrase (Yule, 1996, p. 27). By using any of such expressions, the writer/speaker is assumed to be committed to the existence of the entities named. Based on the analysis of the study, it is found that both native and non-native writers used 'existential' the most in triggering their presupposed propositions. This finding conforms to the ones confirmed in the studies of Khaleel (2010), Bonyadi and Samuel (2011), Fadhly and Kurnia (2015) and Hasta & Marlina (2018). The following are illustrative excerpts taken from Saudi and the UK articles.

Saudi excerpt: "*In sports, for instance, the fans of each sport club have their songs by which they express their support for their team*". (Appendix A- Reading 5)

By means of the existential trigger of presupposition, it is found that the writer imparts a lot of information to the readers. The presupposed information can be as such: '*sports exists*'; '*fans exist*'; '*sport clubs exist*'; '*sport clubs have songs*'; '*they also have support*'; and '*they have teams.*

The UK excerpt: "*I visited Mirren Park School and was impressed by the dedication of its staff.*" (Appendix B- Reading 15)

Likewise, by using existential trigger in the sentence, the writer delivers certain presupposed messages. The possible presupposed messages are: '*a school by the name Mirren Park exists'; 'the school has staff'; and 'the staff have dedication to their school'.*

B. Factive

Factive presupposition can be triggered by using a verb like '*know*' and it is treated as a fact. Other verbs such as '*realize*' and '*regret*' as well as phrases involving '*be*' with '*aware*', '*odd*' and '*glad*' have factive presuppositions (Yule, 1996, p. 27). In view of the study analysis, factive presupposition triggers receive a few occurrences in the Saudi and the UK articles, that is 18 (3.24%) and 22 (5.16%) respectively. This is likely to be ascribed to the writers' avoidance in imposing factual presupposed propositions for expressing their opinions (cf. Khaleel, 2010). The following excerpts show how the native and non-native writers of English use factive triggers in their opinion articles.

Saudi excerpt: "*...people in this religious society should be aware that animals are also part of God's creations and God's Kingdom.*" (Appendix A- Reading 10)

By virtue of the phrasal structure '*be aware that*', the writer embedded his presupposed fact which can be inferred as, '*animals are also part of God's creations and God's kingdom'.*

The UK excerpt: "*We all know that police officers have to attend more serious incidents.*" (Appendix B- Reading 6)

The factive presupposition above is expressed by using the factive verb '*know*'. In fact, the established factual message is manifested in the information following the verb '*know*', i.e., '*police officers have to attend more serious incidents'.*

C. Non-factive

A non-factive presupposition is one that is assumed not to be true. Based on semantics of truth-condition, a non-factive presupposition is retrieved with reference to the semantic properties of certain verbs produced by a speaker/writer. The use of non-factive verbs like '*dream*', '*imagine*' and '*pretend*' presupposes that the following propositions are 'untrue'. Unlike the findings of Bonyadi & Samuel (2011), non-factive presupposition triggers received the least occurrences compared to the other triggers in both cases, Saudi articles and the UK ones (i.e., 16 [2.88%] and 10 [2.35%] respectively). Consider the following illustrative excerpts found in the data of the study:

Saudi excerpt: "*..... Erdogan pretends that he is now playing big power politics.*" (Appendix A- Reading 1)

Owing to the use of the non-factive verb '*pretend*', the writer signals the presupposed non-factual details. In fact, the writer believes that the embedded propositional content- *Erdogan is playing big power politics'*- is not true.

The UK excerpt: "*Let's imagine that Jesus was born today.*" (Appendix B- Reading 1)

Similarly, the use of the non-factive verb '*imagine*' in the sentence above brings out the presupposed idea that '*Jesus was not born today.*'

D. Lexical

In lexical presupposition, the use of one form with its asserted meaning is conventionally interpreted with the presupposition that another (non-asserted) meaning is understood. Items like, '*manage*', '*stop*', '*start*', and '*again*' are examples of lexical presupposition (Yule, 1996, p. 28). On the basis of the study analysis, it is found that lexical presupposition triggers come next in terms of frequency of occurrences in all the articles, Saudi (67, 12.05%) and the UK (52, 12.21%). This indicates that writers almost prefer using lexical items in guiding their readers arrive at their implicit messages. Below are two excerpts exemplifying how Saudi and the UK writers use lexical items to achieve their purpose.

Saudi excerpt: "*As we are still in need of non-Saudi workers in low-level and some medium-level jobs, ...*" (Appendix A- Reading 9)

By the use of lexical item '*still*', the writer gets the prospective readers draw the implicit idea asserted in the sentence. In fact, this idea can be inferred as: '*we are in need of non-Saudi workers....*"

The UK excerpt: "*... again the UK Government has completely botched a pension policy and targeted those financially worse off.*" (Appendix B- Reading 8)

It is evident from the excerpt above that the use of the lexical item '*again*' induces the presupposition asserted in the sentence. The presupposition is manifested in the fact that such an action has already taken place before, that is '*the UK Government botched a pension policy and targeted those financially worse off.*'

E. Structural

In structural presupposition, certain sentence structures are analyzed as conventionally and regularly presupposing that part of the structure already assumed to be true. The '*WH*-Question construction' in English is conventionally interpreted with the presupposition that the information after the '*wh-form*' is already known to be the case (Yule, 1996,

pp. 28-29). Similar to the results of the non-factive presupposition triggers, the analysis of the articles shows that the structural presupposition triggers receive the least occurrences of frequency in both cases, Saudi articles and the UK ones (i.e., 17 [3.06%] and 11 [2.58%]). This finding aligns with Khaleel's (2010) who found that structural presupposition triggers are less used in journalistic texts as they are restricted to certain structures. Consider the following illustrative examples.

Saudi excerpt: "*For example, what are the positive and negative effects of imposing dependent fees on expatriate workers?*" (Appendix A- Reading 9)

By virtue of the *wh*-structure used in the sentence above, the writer presupposes that '*there are positive and negative effects of imposing dependent fees on expatriate workers*. It seems that the writer used such a structure in order to set background for negotiating his main arguments.

The UK excerpt: "*Keen to find out what John Knox was thinking when he instilled the Calvinist faith.*" (Appendix B-Reading 1)

Similarly, in the sentence above the writer presupposes information that can be derived from the embedded *wh*-structure used in the sentence. This information is inferred as that '*John Knox was thinking of something when he instilled the Calvinist faith*'.

F. Counter-factual

A counter-factual presupposition refers to the case that what is presupposed is not only 'not true', but is the opposite of what is 'true', or 'contrary to facts'. For instance, some conditional structures, generally called counterfactual conditionals, presuppose that the information in the *If*-clause is not true at the time of utterance (Yule, 1996, p. 29). Similar to the result of the factive presupposition triggers, 'counter-factual' receives a few occurrences in the Saudi and the UK articles, that is 38 (6.83%) and 29 (6.81%) respectively. This trend is recurrent in other studies (cf., Bonyadi & Samuel 2011; and Fadhly & Kurnia, 2015). The following are some illustrative examples found in the articles under investigation.

Saudi excerpt: "*If we just had a whole Islamic system, we would resolve today's problems and bring back our past glories.*" (Appendix A- Reading 15)

In the example above, the '*if- clause*' trigger presupposes that the information is contrary to the reality. In fact, it presupposes that '*we have not a whole Islamic system*'.

The UK excerpt: "*How boring would the world be if we all kept our New Year's promises?*" (Appendix B-Reading 4)

Likewise, the proposition embedded in the *if-clause* structure above is believed not true. To put it differently, the sentence presupposes that '*we all do not keep our New Year's promises*'.

V. CONCLUSION

The aim of the study was to investigate the use of presupposition triggers by native and non-native writers of English (Saudi and the UK) in British and Saudi English newspaper opinions. According to the analysis of the study sample, it was found that most types of presupposition triggers were used in all the articles, but there was some variation in frequency of occurrences in the different articles. The results showed that the Saudi articles receive the highest number of occurrences, that is 556 (56.60%) compared to the UK articles which receive 426 (43.40%). In fact, such difference lies in the high frequency of existential presupposition triggers that the Saudi articles receive; and that can be ascribed to the variation and length of the articles' topics. In view of the analysis of presupposition triggers in the articles, the results demonstrated that 'existential' and 'lexical' presupposition triggers in both cases are the ones used the most while 'non-factive' and 'structural' presupposition triggers are the least. Comparison between the two cases showed that there are a lot of similarities while the few differences are not very significant. Therefore, it is acceptable to conclude that native and non-native writers of English used presupposition triggers similarly. On the basis of study findings, the following implications can be drawn: presupposition triggers help speakers and writers pass a lot of information to their audiences; they are used by speakers and writers to set the background of their negotiation for better and effective commutation; and they are used by speakers and writers in order to mold the ideologies of their audiences. In the light of the implications above, it can be recommended that more attention should be given by EFL instructors in teaching presupposition triggers in the skills of speaking and writing. This will help students improve their critical thinking in these productive skills. Further studies should be done on the use of presupposition triggers in spoken contexts as to bring in further insights to their effectiveness in communication.

APPENDIX A. READINGS OF SAUDI NEWSPAPER OPINIONS (SAUDI GAZETTE) 2019-2020

Reading 1: http://saudigazette.com.sa/article/586172/Opinion/Editorial/Turkey-sending-troops-to-Libya
Reading 2: http://saudigazette.com.sa/article/586415/Opinion/Voices/The-Unnerving-CAA-Literal-analysis
Reading 3: http://saudigazette.com.sa/article/586416/Opinion/Voices/How-do-you-solve-a-problem-like-plastic
Reading 4: http://saudigazette.com.sa/article/586697/Opinion/Voices/Creating-a-globally-renowned-land-of-song-literature-and-film
Reading 5: http://saudigazette.com.sa/article/581604/Opinion/Local-Viewpoint/National-Song-Festival
Reading 6: http://saudigazette.com.sa/article/581861/Opinion/Local-Viewpoint/Aramco-Kingdoms-jewel-in-the-hands-of-its-people
Reading 7: https://saudigazette.com.sa/author/563/1/Hamoud-Abu-Taleb
Reading 8: http://saudigazette.com.sa/article/586372/Opinion/Local-Viewpoint/The-Arab-autumn-tweets
Reading 9: http://saudigazette.com.sa/article/581759/Opinion/Local-Viewpoint/Healing-the-markets-wounds
Reading 10: http://saudigazette.com.sa/article/590198/Opinion/OP-ED/Cruelty-to-animals-has-no-place-in-Islam
Reading 11: http://saudigazette.com.sa/article/590735/Opinion/OP-ED/Should-I-take-another-wife
Reading 12: http://saudigazette.com.sa/article/590954/Opinion/OP-ED/Islam-tolerance-and-political-Islam
Reading 13: http://saudigazette.com.sa/article/590578/Opinion/OP-ED/Facing-the-Iranian-corona
Reading 14: http://saudigazette.com.sa/article/591033/Opinion/OP-ED/Best-reward!
Reading 15: http://saudigazette.com.sa/article/590114

APPENDIX B. READINGS OF THE UK NEWSPAPER OPINIONS (UK GAZETTE) 2019-2020

Reading 1: https://www.the-gazette.co.uk/news/18089820.jack-haugh-christmas-time-giving-not-just-receiving/
Reading 2: https://www.the-gazette.co.uk/opinion/17508847.derek-mackay-40m-investment-will-help-council-keep-area-moving/
Reading 3: https://www.the-gazette.co.uk/news/18225217.barbara-campbell-selfish-minority-making-life-misery-law-abiding-residents/
Reading 4: https://www.the-gazette.co.uk/news/18128907.jack-haugh-resolutions-hard-can-make-difference/
Reading 5: https://www.the-gazette.co.uk/news/18107294.jack-haugh-red-rose-wilted-leaving-labour-party-feeling-unloved/
Reading 6: https://www.the-gazette.co.uk/news/18188167.barbara-campbell-time-crack-mindless-vandals-spreading-misery/
Reading 7: https://www.the-gazette.co.uk/news/18103933.steph-brawn-change-heart-best-decision-make/
Reading 8: https://www.the-gazette.co.uk/news/18206223.barbara-campbell-bishopton-erskine-deserve-fair-share-funding-pot/
Reading 9: https://www.the-gazette.co.uk/news/18273820.barbara-campbell-wet-weather-worst-experienced-40-years/
Reading 10: https://www.the-gazette.co.uk/opinion/17423171.derek-mackay-budget-means-investment-for-highly-valued-services/
Reading 11: https://www.the-gazette.co.uk/opinion/17369458.iain-nicolson-we-aim-to-build-on-positive-momentum-during-2019/
Reading 12: https://www.the-gazette.co.uk/opinion/17406718.tom-arthur-budget-means-investment-for-our-nhs-and-schools/
Reading 13: https://www.the-gazette.co.uk/news/17527634.barbara-campbell-urgent-need-for-social-housing-has-been-ignored-for-far-too-long/
Reading 14: https://www.the-gazette.co.uk/opinion/17492684.tom-arthur-scottish-budget-will-provide-stability-in-face-of-tory-brexit-chaos/
Reading 15: https://www.the-gazette.co.uk/opinion/17470655.gavin-newlands-big-banks-must-be-held-to-account-over-closure-plans/

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