

Contrastive Analysis of Presupposition Triggers in English and Chinese and a Review of Translation Strategies

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Abstract: The definition of presupposition is the fact and information accepted by mutual parties and the presupposition is usually conveyed with common sense or professional knowledge, which is a very common pragmatic phenomenon. For example: Please open the door. A simple request is likely to presuppose that the door is closed and the recipient is capable and willing to open the door. The factors to trigger the presupposition come from a certain phrase or word in a sentence, even the syntactic structure and context. Then these factors are called presupposition triggers. The presupposition triggers are divided into lexical presupposition triggers and syntactic presupposition triggers according to the existing form, vocabulary and sentence pattern of the language. Lexical presupposition triggers include proprietary descriptors, factual verbs, judgment verbs, state-changing verbs, meaning verbs, and repetitions. By contrast, syntactic presupposition triggers include non-restrictive relative clauses, splitting sentences, comparative sentences, time clauses, and subjunctive conditional sentences with opposite conditions. In both Chinese and English, presupposition triggers have similarities and differences. For example, when actual verbs are used as presupposition triggers in English, they are usually passive. Meanwhile, actual verbs are not converted into passive in Chinese. That is to say, when causative verbs are implemented, they are always written in active voice. However, factual verbs as presupposition triggers also indicate a certain state of mind no matter in English or Chinese. Through this paper, readers can have a deeper understanding of the presupposition triggers and the application in the translation process of people's daily English and Chinese in two different languages. Understanding presupposition triggers is very helpful in communicative life and the triggers can be used to summarize the the process of translation and the translation methods in English and Chinese.

Keywords: presupposition; presupposition trigger; English; Chinese

1. Introduction

The term "presupposition" was first coined by the logician Frege in his book *On Meaning and Significance* published in 1892. He believed that an assertion and all the contained references have meaning and the referent, while the assertion has no premise or judgement if the contained reference has no referent (Frege, 1999). The referent of this assertion is the connection between language and the external world in philosophy, and it is also the precondition for the appearance of this assertion. In synchronic pragmatic environment, precondition has become a fact and information that both parties in the communication accept. That is to say, the presupposition is conceptualized in pragmatics (Zeevat, 2001).

Whether in English or Chinese, presupposition is a common phenomenon in language use and presupposition triggers are the elements in language that make presupposition occur. The purpose of this paper is to analyze the presuppositions in English and Chinese and explore their translation strategies through the presupposition triggers in both languages [1]. The comparison of English and Chinese presupposition triggers can be roughly divided into three aspects.

1.1 Presupposition Triggers in Chinese Sentences

This part mainly analyzes which components in the sentence play the role of presupposition triggers, which category of words they belong to, and how they clarify the meaning and structure of Chinese sentences.

1.2 Presupposition Triggers in English Sentences

This part mainly analyzes which components in sentences act as presupposition triggers, what kind of words they belong to, and how they behave as presupposition triggers in English sentences, so as to clarify the meaning and structure of English sentences.

1.3 Comparison of English and Chinese Presupposition Triggers

This part divides the presupposition triggers into lexical presupposition triggers and syntactic ones, and focuses on the comparison of English and Chinese presupposition triggers. It mainly analyzes the application or position of presupposition triggers in Chinese and English sentences in order to find out the similarities and differences between them. Additionally, we need to know what causes these similarities and differences in presupposition triggers in both languages. The paper generalizes the presupposition triggers and it can also stimulate our understanding of Chinese and English. This helps us a lot in theory and practice.

Every sentence or utterance has a premise, so every sentence or utterance has a presupposition trigger and the triggers play a crucial role in daily communication [2]. Therefore, research on presupposition triggers is very valuable and its values are as follows: to analyze the rationality of sentences or discourses, to help people to reason better, to help people avoid misunderstandings, to improve our eloquence, and to improve our expression. Through its proper use and identification, one can achieve and understand its subtlety and simplicity. Finally, by analyzing the presupposition triggers in English and Chinese sentences, we can understand English and Chinese better, and summarize our different strategies for the translation in English and Chinese presupposition triggers.

2. Classification of preset trigger words in Chinese and English:

Presuppositions are triggered by a word, phrase, or context. Some linguists divide presupposition triggers into three categories: lexical presupposition triggers, syntactic presupposition triggers and phonetic presupposition triggers [3]. Meanwhile, there are many other patterns to categorize presupposition triggers. Stalnaker (1970) collected 31 species and Levinson selected 13 of these 31 as the default trigger words in English in his book "*Pragmatics*". His theories have been widely used and accepted in today's linguistic regions [4]. Of these 13 types, the first six are lexical presupposition triggers, and the last seven are syntactic presupposition triggers.

2.1 Proprietary Descriptors

Proprietary descriptors are also known as reference expressions. It is usually used as the subject or subject of every sentence. Proper nouns, definite articles, possessive structures, and nouns with modifiers all fall into this category. Proprietary descriptions often trigger existing presets. Typical proprietary descriptors include the (*zhe ge*), this(*zhe ge*), the Great Wall(*chang cheng*), a close friend of mine(*wo de peng you*), etc.

2.2 Factual Verbs

Factual verbs are verbs that describe something that has happened, such as "be aware of"(*yi shi dao*), "be regretful of"(*hou hui*), etc. It also contains some adjective-predicate functions, such as "realize"(*yi shi dao*), "regret"(*hou hui*), etc.

2.3 Meaning Verbs

Meaning verbs are verbs that usually have a meaning but people don't say it directly, such as "happen"(*fa sheng*), "manage"(*guan li*), etc.

2.4 State-Changing Verbs

This type of verb refers to a verb or verb phrase that expresses a change of action. Examples include verbs "begin" (*kai shi*), "stop" (*ting zhi*), "continue" (*ji xu*), "cease" (*ting zhi*), and so on.

2.5 Repeated Words

Verbs used to refer to repetition are called repeating verbs. Such as "again" (*zai ci*), "any more" (*bu zai*), "any longer" (*bu zai*) and so on [5].

2.6 Judgment Verbs

Judgmental verbs are verbs or verb phrases that help in judgment. Such as "accuse" (*kong su*), "charge" (*ju bao*), etc. But unlike other presuppositions, the meaning of such verbs usually does not come from the speaker.

2.7 Time Clause

Time clauses may also trigger presuppositions. For example, use "before" (*zhi qian*), "since" (*zi cong*), "after" (*zhi hou*), "during" (*qi jian*) as tense clauses with the first element first.

2.8 Split Sentences

Split sentences are used to express the emphasis of certain elements in a sentence to express the speaker's intention to express something. E.g:

(1) It is PAUL that I am interested in.

In this sentence, the speaker wants to emphasize Paul to express his or her interest in the man named Paul.

2.9 Hidden Sentences with Key Elements

Hidden sentences with key elements do not express the key points through sentence structure, but express the key points through other forms such as bolding and underlining. Particular emphasis is placed on the composition that may give rise to a particular presupposition. E.g,

(1) PAUL came to Beijing.

From this sentence we can infer that Paul came to a certain place and set Paul as a person with a certain identity, and this identity is the presupposition of this sentence, and this Paul is the presupposition trigger of this sentence.

2.10 Comparison and Contrast Sentences

Generally, comparison and contrast are used to provide similarities or differences between two objects or elements. They are usually expressed with "too", "as well", "more+comparative", or other comparative words. E.g:

(1) It is as well to appreciate you.

The presupposition of this sentence is that the other person is as good as everyone else, but they differ because the other person's achievements are more prominent and special.

2.11 Non-Restrictive Relative Clauses

Nonrestrictive relative clauses provide people with some explanatory information that triggers the presupposition, which cannot be changed even though the main verb may be negated. E.g,

(1) Stephanie, who is very beautiful, is not selected as art president in her class.

In this sentence, "*who is very beautiful*" is a non-restrictive relative clause used to describe Stephanie. Although the main verb "*is*" in the sentence is negated, that is, although Stephanie was not chosen to represent the art class in the class, the fact that she is beautiful is immutable. That is to say, the presupposition is that Stephanie is beautiful in this sentence and the presupposed trigger is the nonrestrictive relative clause itself.

2.12 Counterfactual (Subjunctive) Conditional Sentences

In a counterfactual conditional sentence, what the sentence says and its presupposition are both untrue. On the contrary, the inverse proposition of the presupposition is always true. In this type of sentence, "if" or "unless" is usually used as its first element to indicate the affirmation of its opposite. E.g,

(1) If Stephanie had remembered to lock her room, her room would not be stolen.

In this counterfactual conditional sentence introduced by "if", we can get the information that Stephanie forgot to lock the room.

2.13 Interrogative sentences

Interrogative sentences can be divided into two categories, one is "yes or no" questions (general interrogative sentences), and the other is "wh-word" questions (special interrogative sentences). In "yes or no" questions, the presupposition is usually an answer of "yes or no", while in "wh-word" questions, the presupposition is always determined by the question word. For example, the word "who" will trigger someone, the word "where" will trigger a destination, and the word "how" will trigger a probable manner. Here are two examples:

(1) Will you go to school?

(2) Where are you going this morning?

In the instance f, the presupposition to go is either I want to go to school or I don't go to school, which is the will. In question g, the answer is somewhere I'm going. Therefore, the presupposition is the destination.

In the research on presupposed triggers in Chinese, Professor Lan Chun published a preliminary study of presupposition triggers in Chinese in 1999 and put forward the most famous presupposition theory in Chinese linguistics today, including 9 presupposed triggers in Chinese: Proprietary descriptors, factual verbs, state inflection verbs, repeated words, tense clauses, subjunctive sentences, counterfactual conditional sentences, interrogative sentences, and contrasting sentences [6]. It is similar to Levinson's concept of 13 kinds of English presupposition triggers, but it is simpler, more concise, and more correspondent with Chinese expression customs and syntax in modern Chinese.

3. Comparison and Translation Strategies of Chinese-English Presupposition Triggers:

Presupposition triggers can be roughly divided into lexical preset trigger words and syntactic ones. Even if the meaning expressed is based on utterances or speech acts in a certain context, the presence of certain words or structures may convey specific communicative messages or intentions [7]. As a preset trigger, there are two basic conditions: Firstly, a presupposition trigger is based on meaning and can be further divided into lexical meaning and structural meaning [8]. Secondly, Words or structures can be inferred in sentences or utterances. Thus, one can determine the relationship or utterance between the meaning of the presupposition trigger and the sentence [9]. This provides a referred premise for us to divide presupposition triggers into lexical ones and syntactic ones.

3.1 Comparison of English-Chinese vocabulary preset trigger words and the derived translation strategies

3.1.1 Proprietary Descriptors

In English, the most common proper descriptors are proper nouns, such as "Paul", "John", "Mary", "Bob", etc.; singular demonstrative pronouns, such as "it", "that", "this" etc.; singular personal or impersonal pronouns, such as "I", "you", "he", "she", "it", etc.; singular noun phrases, consisting of a definite article and a noun, such as "the cat", "the dog", "the president of United States", "the old woman", etc. In contrast, in Chinese, it is expressed as "the president of the United States"(mei guo zong tong), "cat"(mao), "dog"(gou), "this"(zhe ge), "that"(na ge), "me"(wo), "he"(ta), "Zhang Dongling"(zhang dong ling) and other corresponding words and structures. The difference between proper descriptors in Chinese and English is that there is no word in Chinese that corresponds to the word "The" in English [10]. But sometimes, "this"(zhe ge), and "that"(na ge) in Chinese may have the same function as "the" in English, which presupposes that something exists.

E.g:

(1) The smell in bathroom is so wonderful that I cannot help standing here for several minutes to enjoy the flavor.

The word "*The*" in English has no corresponding term in Chinese in the example above, but the premise of these two sentences is the same. We can see from this sentence that its default is that there is a smell in the bathroom, and the presupposition trigger is "*the smell in the bathroom*" (*yu shi li de wei dao*).

It can be seen that the proprietary descriptor has a sole meaning in a specific context, that is to say, when the exclusive descriptor is used as the presupposition trigger of the whole sentence, it creates an absolute presupposition in the presentation form. Under the absolute presupposition, the translation of proper descriptors can be distinguished as follows: proper nouns are translated according to official conventions, most of them are literal translations, and other words or phrases with specific cultural meanings are translated by free translation, but all of them must be translated. A translation that conforms to official authority.

3.1.2 Factual Verbs

In English and Chinese, factual verbs are usually divided into two categories: cognitive factual and emotional factual. Words such as "*regret*" (*hou hui*) and "*know*" (*zhi dao*), and "*know*" (*zhi dao*) are generally considered to be cognitive fact verbs, and when such words appear, the immediately following clause is generally considered to be fact.

(1) John realized that he had missed a very important appointment with Paul.

From these two sentences can we see that John missed a very important appointment with Paul.

(2) Xiao Wang regrets that he has stolen Lao Li's bike. /Xiao Wang regrets that he has stolen Lao Li's bike.

These two sentences presuppose the fact that Wang stole the car.

It can be seen that, for the situation of cognitive factual verbs as presupposition trigger words, we must accurately judge what kind of cognitive activity the subject reflects in the sentence, and such cognitive factual verbs are usually accompanied by A relative pronoun leads a subordinate clause, which reflects the state of affairs, while the main clause reflects the subject's cognitive and psychological activities. Then, the translation of this preset trigger word should judge the cognitive mental state of the subject according to the reference meaning of the word and the facts reflected in the clause, and obtain the corresponding result as the translation result.

Emotional factual verbs include verbs such as "*be glad*" (*gao xing*), "*be surprised*" (*jing ya*), "*be amazed*" (*jing qi*), and "*be jealous*" (*ji du*). Their voices are similar to the above-mentioned cognitive reality verbs, and most of them are passive in English, but the psychological activities of the responses originate from the subject's own irrational emotions rather than rational cognition. Like epistemic verbs, the clauses following such verbs are considered factual. Take the following example,

(3) Stephanie is jealous of Anastasia's intelligence and beauty.

The English presupposition trigger word "*be jealous of*" here has the same meaning as the Chinese emotional factual verb "*ji du*", and we can clearly draw the presupposition of this sentence that Anastasia is a person with high intelligence and amazingly beautiful women. The presupposition trigger is "*be jealous of*", because jealousy of the beauty and intelligence of others is a well-known fact and a typical human weakness. Let's look at another example:

(4) People are all envying/ jealous that she has a rich father.

The English presupposition trigger "*envy/be jealous of*" and the Chinese emotional factual verb "*ji du*" have a semantically equivalent relationship and have the same semantics. However, it is not translated as envy but envy. This is because the object of this clause in Chinese, that is, the presupposition, is the huge wealth of the father. In order to express the meaning of the English presupposition trigger and form a reasonable collocation with the object. It is necessary to convert it into a synonym for envy that can be matched with wealth. Therefore, the presupposition trigger in the example is "*envy/be jealous of*".

It can be seen it is necessary to use the reflected facts and the object of the sentence in the translation in addition to accurately judging the inner emotional activity in the case of emotional factual

verbs as presupposition triggers. The collocation in the language can be flexibly transformed and this transformation is controlled by the synonyms [11]. Meanwhile, an emotional factual verb is also accompanied by a relative pronoun to lead a subordinate clause, which reflects the state of affairs, and the main clause reflects the emotional activity of the subject.

But there is a special case among factual verbs. Only when the opposite meaning of the factual verb can be inferred can we acquiesce that the clause leading after the factual verb reflects the fact and regard the fact as the presupposition of the sentence. Let's look at an example with complain as the default trigger word:

(5) He always complains his teacher's rudeness to him.

In this sentence, we can't be sure if his teacher was rude to him, but we're sure the listeners will get tired after hearing the complaints. But if the word "always" were negated and replaced by "never," the sentence would become:

(6) He never complains his teacher's rudeness to him.

At this time, we can clearly think that the teacher is rude to the subject and take this as a fact, and at the same time believe that the presupposition trigger of the sentence is the teacher's rudeness.

3.1.3 Meaning Verbs

This type of presupposition trigger refers to a lexical item that contains two semantic meanings. In English, such verbs include "forget"(wang ji), "happen"(fa sheng), and "manage"(guan li). All these words contain two semantic components. For example, the word "happen" has two meanings, one happen to do something (*bu xiang zuo mou shi*), and the other is actually doing something (happen doing something). In Chinese, there are several words whose presupposition is similar to the implicit words in English, and they also consist of two semantic components or meanings, such as "get drunk"(he zui), "lock up"(suo zhu), "catch up with"(zhui shang,) and "fall asleep"(shui zhao.). Meaning verbs in Chinese and English are the same in that they not only contain an action, but also contain a result. E.g:

(1) Mrs. Hart was drunk last night.

The Chinese "he zui" and the English "be drunk" in this sentence does not only have semantic equivalence, but also include two semantic components: one is that someone is drinking, and the other is that the speaker can't stand others like this drunk. That is to say, there are two presuppositions triggered from this meaning verb, one is the behavior and the other is the result reflected to the speaker.

In contrast, the difference between meaning verbs in Chinese and English is as follows: In Chinese, most of these words are two semantic components connected by two morphemes. The former morpheme represents the action, and the latter morpheme represents the result. In English, words composed of two morphemes are very different from words in Chinese. [12] Because in English, the former morpheme usually represents an action, and the latter morpheme usually represents a direction, such as: "breakthrough"(tu po), "frustration"(cuo zhe), "feedback"(fan kui) and so on. Obviously, they are presupposed in a different way than compound words in Chinese.

It can be seen that the translation for sentences is differentiated according to the meaning verb as a verb phrase or the fixed collocation of the verb in the case where the meaning verb is used as the presupposition trigger of the sentence: A meaning verb is fixed when it is used in conjunction with to do or doing. In this case, it is considered that the action and the result are expressed at the same time, and the translated content only needs to express the presupposition of the action itself, because the presupposition expressing the result is also translated according to the current translation methodology. Excessive translation and interpretation do not conform to the economical principle of translation. When the meaning verb is an English verb phrase, it represents an action morpheme and a direction morpheme. In a Chinese verb phrase, it still represents an action morpheme and a result morpheme. At this time, only the action presupposition is translated because the directional morphemes (prepositions) of the English meaning verb can reflect presuppositions and results to readers so as to avoid over-translation.

3.1.4 State-Changing Verbs

In English, state-changing verbs include "start"(kai shi), "stop"(ting zhi), "begin"(kai shi), "continue"(ji xu), "finish"(jie shu), "renounce"(fang qi), etc. These words include the beginning or end of an action. All these words, if they have a complement, then the complement should be presupposed

to be true. E.g:

(1) Did Tom stop beating his son?

In this sentence, the word "stop" is a state-changing verb, and the presupposition "Tom beat his son" is always true whatever the answer is. If the answer is yes, then we can get information that Tom hit his son for some time. If the answer is no, then we can know that Tom is still hitting his son now.

In contrast, there are many state-changing verbs in Chinese, such as "leave" (*li kai*), "begin" (*kai shi*), "finish" (*jie shu*) and so on. They all carry the presupposition that the object being described has moved from an initial state to a new state.

It can be seen that the translation of sentences is limited to the later state of the subject in the case of state-changing verbs as the presupposition triggers of sentences, and there is no need to mention the initial state of things because presuppositions are all definite no matter what the state changes [13]. That is to say, there will be non-absolute presuppositions or absolute presuppositions without relative ones in the translation of sentences containing state-changing verbs, so the translation strategy is to show the final state of the event according to the context and to ignore the relevant initial state. Otherwise, it will cause redundancy.

3.1.5 Repeated sentences

In English, repeated sentences contain words that represent repeated meanings, including words such as "too" (*ye*), "again" (*zai ci*), "anymore" (*bu zai*), "come back" (*hui lai*), and "return" (*fan hui*). In Chinese, words that express the meaning of repetition include "zai ci", "ye", "hui fu", "shou fu" and "fan hui". The following examples are some repeated words in Chinese and English.

(1) His passion for study goes up again.

From the word "again" we can know that the presupposition of this sentence is: He used to be enthusiastic about learning, but his enthusiasm has dropped for some reason. Now his enthusiasm has risen again. According to the Chinese expression, this Chinese translation can be translated in English as "His enthusiasm for his career comes back." As you can see from the "hui gui", he used to be very enthusiastic about learning, but he is not as enthusiastic as he used to be for some reason. Now he is as enthusiastic as before. In Chinese, the word "come back" is equivalent to "hui gui". Let's look at another example:

(2) Mommy does not need to worry about my study any more.

From this sentence we can infer that the speaker's mother was worried about his learning, and the assumption is that the mother was worried about her own learning. From the word "never again" we know that now the speaker's mother doesn't have to worry about the speaker's learning anymore.

The difference between English and Chinese repeated verbs is that in English sentences, the words that express repetition are often placed at the end of the sentence, such as "too", "anymore". We often put them last. In Chinese, this type of word means "another" (*ling yi ge*) and is usually placed in the middle of a sentence. It can be seen that in the case of using repeated words as the presupposition triggers of sentences, attention should be paid to placing the result of repeated words in the middle of the sentence when translating into Chinese, especially before the verb and after the subject; Be sure to put the translation results in Chinese repeated words at the end of the results in English.

3.1.6 Judgmental Verbs

Judgmental verbs are often used as presupposition triggers because such words can give us some information from which we can know if something happened. In English, words such as *criticize* (*pi ping*), *think* (*ren wei*), *believe* (*xiang xin*), *accuse* (*kong gao*)/*denounce* (*qian ze*) all belong to this category. An example is as follows:

(1) I believe that our friendship is eternal between us.

From this sentence we can infer that the two agents are good friends and they get along very well, which means that the premise of this sentence is that we have always gotten along well. In Chinese, the verbs expressing judgment include "criticize" (*pi ping*), "think" (*ren wei*), "believe" (*xiang xin*), "accuse" (*kong gao*) and so on.

The difference between Chinese and English judgment verbs is that such words are often used as intervening elements in English. In Chinese sentences, there are few intervening components and we often omit them. It can be seen that the translation method of sentences containing judgment verbs in

Chinese is to convert them into sentences with interjections, while in the process of translating from English to Chinese. On the contrary, the independent nominative and relative clauses are omitted and not translated.

3.2 Comparison of English-Chinese Syntactic Presupposition Trigger Words and Extended Translation Strategies

3.2.1 Time Clauses

In 1952, the logician Frege proposed the idea that tense clauses can cause presuppositions. In English, tense clauses are sentences that include "before", "when", "while", "after", "since", etc. E.g,

(1) After separation between Stephanie and Spencer, they began to quarrel frequently.

From this sentence, we can know that Stephanie and Spencer were once separated. The premise is that the two of them have a failed marriage. And "zhi hou" in Chinese has the same pragmatic meaning and effect as "after" in English.

(2) Since Deng Xiaoping performed a reform in the year of 1978, people's life has become better than before.

The word "since" is placed before the term "Deng Xiaoping". From this sentence, we can see that Deng Xiaoping carried out a reform in 1978. It can be seen that when the time clause is used as the presupposition trigger, the translation of this time clause should pay attention to the time logic represented by the relative conjunction. After that, the time conjunction that expresses the lag is placed after the subordinate clause and the main clause is at the end when translating from English to Chinese.

3.2.2 Split Sentences

A split sentence is a sentence that emphasizes a word or group of words in the sentence. In English, splitting sentences can be divided into two categories, one starts with "it" and the other starts with wh-words (subject clause). "it" is usually followed by "is" or "was" or "were". E.g,

(1) It is Stephanie who helped the old man to cross the road last night.

The emphasized word in the sentence above is "Stephanie" and the speaker mainly mentions Stephanie, so the presupposition we get from this sentence is that someone helped the old man cross the street last night. In English, English split sentence structures start with "it" or wh-words but cannot replace each other. By contrast, the corresponding structures can be replaced with each other in Chinese: the sentence structure in Chinese "mou ren zuo le mou shi" can be replaced by "shi mou ren zuo le mou shi". Here is another example:

(2) It was the corrupt official's mistress who revealed the official's crime.

Then the presupposition of this sentence is that the corrupt official has committed a crime before and it is also the subordinate clause of this sentence.

At the same time, besides the "it" structure and the special interrogative word structure can be replaced with each other, the word order of Chinese split sentences can also be changed. It can be seen that it can be divided into two cases when the split sentence is used as the presupposition trigger: Chinese to English and English to Chinese. We pay attention to when using "it" as the beginning and put the subject after the BE verb as a predicate when translating from Chinese to English. The predicate in the sentence is followed by the relative pronouns THAT/WHO/WHICH, etc. Finally, we put the rest part of the original Chinese sentence after the relative pronoun; and the subject of the original sentence is placed at the end when translating into a subject clause. The rest part is placed into the subject clause, but this may appear top-heavy and often used less.

When translating from English to Chinese, it is relatively flexible as long as the length of the emphasized result and the clause is weighed. The emphasized part is used as the subject and the clause is set as the remaining part. Sometimes, we add "yes" before the subject.

3.2.3 Cracked Sentences with emphasis

This is also an emphasis structure. However, a major difference between the grammatical emphasis and the cracked sentences is that the emphasis is not expressed from sentence structure, but in other forms such as intonation, intonation, etc. This emphasis is also called the logical subject, and the types of emphasis listed in the previous subsections are what we call grammatical emphasis. In the logical

subject, the change of the emphasis part can shift the meaning emphasized by the sentence and the content that the sentence presupposes. It can be seen that the translation and the presupposition trigger of cracked sentences are mainly placed in the front according to the content of the logical subject, and the other steps are the same as the split sentences.

3.2.4 Contrastive Sentences

As mentioned before, there are three ways that this structure can be expressed as a comparative structure in English. In Chinese, there are also many similarities. E.g,

(1) This house resembles the one we lived in three years ago.

From this sentence we know that the parties lived in a house three years ago. But, if we change this sentence into a new sentence "*This house is as beautiful as the house we lived in three years ago*", we might get the message that the house the parties lived in three years ago is beautiful. Take Chinese as an example,

(2) Stephanie prefer to stay at home to play computer games rather than date with friends on weekends.

From this sentence we know that the presupposition is that Stephanie likes to stay at home on weekends. From this sentence, we can suppose that either this house is very big or the house the parties lived in was a big house three years ago, maybe both are big houses or small. If they are both small, we can convert this sentence to "*This house is as small as the one we lived in three years ago.*" It is also acceptable in Chinese.

Therefore, the presuppositions in the contrastive structure and the contrasting structure are sometimes difficult to judge. The sentences mentioned below have different presuppositions:

(3) Stephanie is as smart as Spencer.

In English, "*even*" and "*still*" have similar meanings to "*geng*"(more) in Chinese. In English, "*more*" and "*still*" are often used together with "*more....than*" or "*less....than*", and in Chinese, "*geng*" and "*also*" are also commonly used to compare structures. The difference between the two is as follows: In Chinese, "*geng*" and "*also*" can be divided into weak and strong forms. It is important for us to judge whether it is weak or strong form by considering the context.

Therefore, we should pay attention to the degree of comparison and make appropriate results according to the degree when a comparative sentence is used as the presupposition trigger of the sentence. Then we should pay attention to whether the objects mentioned in the presupposition are compared. Sometimes the presupposition doesn't necessarily state that the compared goods meet certain properties.

3.2.5 Non-restrictive Relative Clauses

Non-restrictive relative clauses usually produce a presupposition in the entire sentence. Non-restrictive attributive clauses are usually used to explain or specify the noun or group of nouns mentioned above, or to give additional information based on the preceding information. The truth expressed from a non-restrictive attributive clause does not change even if the verb contained in the main clause is converted into negative.

(1) Qingdao, which is located in the east of Shandong province, is a beautiful seaside city.

The presupposition of this sentence is that Qingdao is located in the east of Shandong Province. Even if the verb "*is*" in the main clause is converted to "*is not*", the presupposition remains constant.

By contrast, we do not see non-restrictive attributive clauses in Chinese, and the presupposed information is usually contained in the modifiers preceding the noun or noun group. For example:

(2) The old man, who is suspicious, is staring at us now.

From the example above, we can easily see the difference between English sentences and Chinese sentences. In English, attributive elements are usually placed after the noun or group of nouns being explained or explained. However, the attributive component usually precedes the noun described in the sentence in Chinese. As mentioned before, the presupposition is always contained in the attributive component whether it is English or Chinese. Thus, in English, the presupposition is always arranged after the noun or noun group, while in Chinese the presupposition is before the noun being described [14]. That is to say, there is only the situation of English translation into Chinese when the

non-restrictive relative clause in English is used as the presupposition trigger. In this case, the content in the relative clause must be placed before the subject as a modifier, and the word order of the remaining content must be consistent with the original English sentence and translated according to the contextual content.

3.2.6 Counterfactual Conditionals

In English, the subjunctive conditional sentence is the most common counterfactual conditionals [15]. As mentioned earlier, subjunctive conditionals usually start with "unless" (*chu fei*) or "if" (*ru guo*). Besides the subjunctive conditional, here are some other forms to state that it is a counterfactual conditional. Here are three examples:

- (1) **Spencer wished he did as teacher had told him when he was at senior high school.**
- (2) **Stephanie pretended that she did not know the old woman.**
- (3) **Spencer is crazy about pursuing idols as if he can live on pursuing idols in the future.**

From sentence 21 we know that the presupposition is that Spencer didn't do what his teachers told him to do in high school. From sentence 22 we know that the presupposition is that Stephanie knows the old woman. From sentence 23, we know that the presupposition is that Spencer cannot continue to pursue idols in the future.

There are words like "ru guo", "jia ru" and "yao shi" in Chinese, which correspond to "if" or "unless" in English. But we should pay attention to the fact that not all sentences beginning with "if" or "unless" in English and sentences beginning with (*ru guo*) and (*yao shi*) in Chinese belong to counterfactual conditional sentences. Compared with Chinese sentences, English sentences are easier to judge whether they are counterfactual conditional sentences. Because the verbs in counterfactual conditionals are usually marked. An example is as follows:

- (4) **If it had not rained all the day, we would have a nice weekend.**
- (5) **If the weather is good, we will go out for a picnic.**

Both sentences start with "if", but the presupposition is in a different form. From sentence 24 we can infer that the presupposition is that it rains all day. By contrast, we are not sure what the weather will be like tomorrow from sentence 25, because what we said is just a forecast. Similarly, Chinese sentences have the properties as well. It is apparent that the conjunction expressing the condition should be placed at the front of the Chinese or English version during translation when a counterfactual conditional sentence is used as a presupposition trigger in a sentence. The sentence is usually followed with the conditional clause, adding "originally" (*yuan lai*), "as if" (*si hu*), and other modifiers in the main clause can reflect the completely different reality and assumption.

3.2.7 Interrogative sentences

As mentioned earlier, questions can be roughly divided into three categories: special questions, general questions, and choice questions.

- (1) **Where will you go after graduating from senior high school?**

The presupposition of this sentence is that he is going somewhere after high school. The same is true of Chinese sentences. E.g,

- (2) **Is Stephanie the one who treat you best in your class?**

From this sentence we know that the presupposition of this sentence is: Stephanie is either the best for you or not the best for you in your class. From the examples above, we can find that there is almost no difference between the presupposition triggers in the interrogative sentence in English and Chinese [16]. The famous linguist Levinson (1983) mentioned this point when he wrote "Pragmatics" in 1983.

Therefore, the translation strategy is to convert it into the form of a general question sentence according to the literal translation proposed by the presupposition trigger in the main sentence and add "Is it?" when an interrogative sentence is used as the preset trigger word in a sentence. The Chinese translation with special interrogative words is converted into the form of special or selected interrogative sentences. [17]

4. Summary

Through the comparative analysis of English and Chinese presupposition triggers, we can better understand presupposition triggers and how they trigger works. Then we can draw conclusions on how to translate these presupposition triggers. In addition, this also enables us to comprehend that there are many similarities and differences between the presupposition triggers in English and Chinese. This is owing to the different characteristics of English and Chinese language.

My conclusion on the translation of presupposition triggers is that the nature of these triggers and the absolute, non-absolute and relative presuppositions they embody can adapt to the context brought by cultural factors and other professional regions.

The definition of presupposition lies in the facts and information accepted by mutual parties, which is a very common pragmatic phenomenon [18]. The factors that trigger the presupposition come from a certain phrase or word in a sentence, even the sentence structure and context. Through this paper, people can have a deeper understanding of the presupposition triggers and their application the translation process of English and Chinese. It is very helpful in communications, especially in the process of translation. All in all, this paper can be used to summarize the translation methods of English and Chinese presupposition triggers.

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