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1 2 2  
(<sup>1</sup> , 200092) (<sup>2</sup> , 201620)

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“ — ” “

“ ;  
÷)3? 52+± ĩ ; Ō g G ž ú : 9Kc â+±M±@ë Í W '-A/£ ũ 6 W>ÿ ŌE - ' ;  
+±@Ñ- '-mUŸ(1) ( ) ;(2)

;(3)

B842

(trigger)

(Degen et al., 2020)

(presupposition)”

(common ground; Stalnaker, 2002)

( )

(linguistic co-presence,

) (visual co-presence,

(world knowledge)/ (community membership,

(Clark & Marshall, 1981)

“ — ” “ ” “ ” “ ”

( )<sup>1</sup>,

: 2021-06-18

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(conventional meaning) (assertion) (implicature) (what is said)

( , 2003; Domaneschi, 2016) ( ) ; (Domaneschi, 2016; , 2013) ,

( ) , ( , 2014; Schwarz, 2014), ( “ ”), ( “ ”) ( “ ”<sup>2</sup>, presupposition felicity processing)

( ) ; ,

**1**

( only) ( “ ... ” )

<sup>2</sup> (infelicitous condition), (false condition) (Schneider et al., 2019)

( the) ( again)

, ; ( “ ”) (default processing, )

**1.1**

(Tiemann et al., 2011) (Tiemann et al., 2011, ) , (

), ( “ ... ”), (“ , ”), (“ ”), (Jiang & Zhou, 2020; Pickering & Garrod, 2007; Schneider et al., 2021)

<sup>3</sup>( , 2007; Wang & Schumacher, 2013; Nieuwland & Martin, 2017; Coopmans & Nieuwland, 2020) ,

” vs. “ ”

<sup>3</sup> ,

”)

1.2

(Schwarz, 2016)

(presupposition satisfaction)

“He said that the conductor was very impressive.”

“Tobias visited a conductor in Berlin.”

(presupposition violation)

“Tobias talked to Nina.”

(presupposition failure presupposition falsification)

(presupposition accommodation)

(“Due to overstaffing problems, about a month ago the graphic designer was made redundant”)

(“In Paolo’s office there are many employees”)

(Domaneschi et al., 2018)

(Schwarz, 2014)

(Wang & Schumacher, 2013; Nieuwland & Martin, 2017; Coopmans & Nieuwland, 2020; Jiang & Zhou, 2020)

(Nieuwland & Martin, 2017; Coopmans & Nieuwland, 2020)

(Schwarz, 2014)

(Domaneschi et al., 2018)

2

2.1





(“In Paolo’s office, there used to be a very bad-tempered graphic designer”)

(“In Paolo’s office, there are many employees”),

(“Due to overstaffing problems, about a month ago the graphic designer was made redundant”)

(e.g., designer)

N400 , P600 ( “ ” “ ”),

(Domaneschi et al., 2018)

(soft presupposition trigger, “Tom continues to go to school.”)

(hard presupposition trigger, “Tom was late again .”)

Glanzberg (2005)

(weak trigger, “John solved the problem too .”) (strong trigger, “ John regrets voting for Bush.” )

(Domaneschi et al., 2018; Jiang et al., 2009; Jiang et al., 2013)

, Domaneschi (2014)

( 1 vs. 3)

**3**

## 3.2

, 1  
3 , (Sperber & Wilson, 1986),  
(Domaneschi & Di Paola, 2019)  
(Sperber & Wilson, 1986) , Burkhardt (2006)  
(Domaneschi et al., 2014) ( Tobias visited a conductor in Berlin.) ( 1 Tobias visited a concert in Berlin.) ( 2 Tobias talked to Nina.) (He said that the conductor was very impressive.)  
(Abusch, 2010; Glanzberg, 2005)  
( stop doing something “ ” ) ,  
(Domaneschi & Paola, 2018)  
“N400-P600” ,  
N400 , P600  
(Domaneschi et al., 2018)  
(Burkhardt, 2006; Domaneschi & Paola, 2018; Kirsten et al., 2014; Jiang et al., 2013; Jouravlev et al., 2016; Shetreet et al., 2019)







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/ ,  
,  
(Dietrich et al., 2019; Feng et al., 2017,  
2021; van Moort et al., 2020)  
,

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## Presupposition processing in language comprehension

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**Abstract:** Presupposition refers to the non-explicit assumption or belief held by both the listener and the speaker (or the “common ground”). When encountering a message of presupposition, the listener is required to infer what the speaker implies from the specific linguistic marker (or presupposition trigger) and its constrained object (or computational point). For instance, the sentence “Zhang Ming published a paper<sub>computational point</sub> again<sub>trigger</sub>” generates a presupposition “Zhang Ming published a paper before”. The listener relies on the trigger to access the common ground of both sides of the communication, and infers the presupposed content on the computational point; subsequently, the comprehender relates the generated