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1 2 2
(¹ , 200092) (² , 201620)

() , “ — ” “ ”
“ ” ;

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

; (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)

“ — ” “ ” , “ ”

()¹,

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

(, 2003; Domaneschi, 2016) () ;

(Domaneschi, 2016; , 2013) ,

() ,

(, 2014; Schwarz, 2014),

(“ ”), (“ ”) (“ ”)², presupposition felicity processing)

() ;

1

(only) (“ ... ”)

²

(infelicitous condition), (false condition) (Schneider et al., 2019)

(the) (again)

processing, (default

1.1

(Tiemann et al., 2011)

Tiemann et al., 2011,) ,

(“ ... ”), (“ , ”), (“ ”),

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

³(, 2007; Wang & Schumacher, 2013; Nieuwland & Martin, 2017; Coopmans & Nieuwland, 2020) ,

” vs. “ ”

³

”)

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

() , (the) (a) , (Murphy, 1984) (Schneider et al., 2020; Schneider & Janczyk, 2020) Murphy (1984) (Schneider et al., 2019) (mouse-tracking paradigm)⁴, () , () () , () (Tiemann et al., 2011), “again” “twice”, (“Tina ist mit einer guten Freundin shoppen.” : “Tina is shopping with a good friend.”), (“Sie kauft heute rote Handschuhe .” : “She buys red gloves today .”), (“Sie kauft wieder rote Handschuhe .” : “She buys red gloves again .”) (Tiemann et al., 2011,) ;

world paradigm) (“again”) (“twice”) (Schwarz, 2014) (, “ ”, “ ”, “ ”) (“Some of these children went to play golf on Monday, and some to play volleyball.”), (“John went to play golf (i) again later on...” (“John went to play golf (ii) twice this week...”), “again” “twice” 200 ms (200~400 ms), ; “again” “twice” () () (“Prima della gravidanza Gaia fumava dieci sigarette al giorno” Before her pregnancy Gaia smoked ten cigarettes per day; “Gaia è al terzo mese della sua primagravidanza” Gaia is at the third month of her first pregnancy), (“Le possibili malattie del feto la spaventano davvero molto. Sin dall’inizio ha smesso di fumare del tutto ma le sue paure sono rimaste sempre uguali.” The possible fetal diseases scare her a lot. From the very beginning she has given up smoking but her worries

⁴ , Stillman et al. (2018)

(“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.)

L

(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)

3.3

(P600) (Burkhardt, 2006), (2), (Jiang et al., 2013) (3.2) , 5 , (Domaneschi & Paola, 2018; Burkhardt, 2006) (Schwarz, 2014; Schneider et al., 2019), / (Jiang et al., 2013; Zang et al., 2019) **3.4**

; (Galati & Brennan, 2021) , / ;

(van Moort et al., 2020; van Moort et al., 2018, 2021) , Jiang (2013) “ (A)... (B)”

, A B , () () (“* _____”) (“_____”) , (/) N400 (350~450 ms) (, “ N400 (550~800 ms) N400 _____ ”), (“ ... ”) (“ ... ”) (, (Keysar et al., 2000) () ()

(Zang et al., 2019) _____ 5 , Burkhardt (2006) , Jiang (2013) ,

/ ,
,
(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_{computational point} again_{trigger}” 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