

THE PRESUPPOSED FOCUS – SOME REMARKS ON THE ANALYSIS OF ENGLISH IT-CLEFTS

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The aim of this paper is to report on some new findings related to the basic English cleft constructions. The analysis is based on Lambrecht's extensive works on clefts (1994; 2001) and presents a new reading into the focus and assertion areas of the cleft constructions by introducing a new category: the presupposed focus. The purpose of adding this new category is to unpack the grammatical need and/or motivation for the choice of this grammatical structure. The context and the surrounding non-linguistic prompts play a vital role; hence, the presupposed focus aims to communicate any agreements and/or disagreements the speaker tries to convey based on the addressee's knowledge database.

Key words: information packaging, information structure, clefts, topic, focus

INTRODUCTION

Cleft constructions share similarities with dislocations as they both emphasize specific parts of a sentence by dividing a basic declarative sentence into two segments – consequently, the name “cleft”. While resembling fronting constructions, clefts appear to be less overtly rhetorical; the speaker's emphasis is not placed on the rhetorical devices, but rather on conveying their message in a clear and efficient manner. One distinctive characteristic of cleft sentences is their consistent bi-clausal nature, always having a mono-clause equivalent. Fundamentally, these are straightforward declarative sentences wherein a constituent is highlighted for importance by being “cleft” within the sentence structure. Consider the following pairs of examples:

1. Adam initiated the debate. → It is Adam who initiated the debate. (*IT-cleft* construction)
2. Adam has requested a work permit. → What Adam has requested is a work permit. (*WH-cleft* construction)

3. Adam needs a break. → A break is what Adam needs. (*reversed WH-cleft* construction)

As it is evident from the examples above, cleft constructions divide declarative sentences into two parts, often to introduce contrast, allowing the focused element to stand out prominently. This focus can manifest early (or the beginning of the sentence), as seen in *IT-clefts* and *reversed WH-clefts*, or later (or towards the end of the sentence), as observed in *WH-clefts*. Theoretically, the emphasized element is termed “foregrounded,” while the less emphasized element is termed “backgrounded”. For instance, in example (1) “Adam” serves as the foregrounded element, while in example (3), the focused element is “a break”. In example (2), the foregrounded element appears at the end of the sentence, namely “a work permit”. Notably, the foregrounded element in example (1) functions as the subject of the declarative sentence, whereas the focused elements in examples (2) and (3) serve as the direct objects in their respective declarative counterparts.

Jespersen characterizes *IT-clefts* as a distinctive form of declarative sentence in which the subject is replaced by the subject personal pronoun “it”. For example, he explains the sentence “It is pop music he enjoys the most” by drawing a connection to the equivalent sentence “Pop music is what he enjoys the most”, wherein “pop music” is substituted with the subject pronoun “it” (1927: 89). However, in his later work, Jespersen challenges his own concept through an examination of English and other languages (1937: 83 – 89). Initially referred as a relative clause, the so-called “parenthetical clause” evolves into a cleft sentence and thus Jespersen acknowledges the departure from the fixed English SVO word order. His theory is grounded in the common features shared by cleft sentences in various languages (qtd. by Lambrecht 2001: 464).

METHODOLOGY

The present study aims to overview the *IT-cleft* type of emphatic construction in a quantitative and qualitative manner. My objective is to explore examples from the living language through the use of the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) for the quantitative analysis and then examine those examples qualitatively within the framework that Lambrecht proposes in his 2001 work. McEnery and Hardie claim that characterizing corpus linguistics as a method is inappropriate, asserting instead that the corpus alone should be the exclusive foundation for generating hypotheses about language (McEnery and Hardie 2012: 6).

Therefore, my goal is to investigate the information packaging examples void of assumed hypotheses based on any linguistics studies.

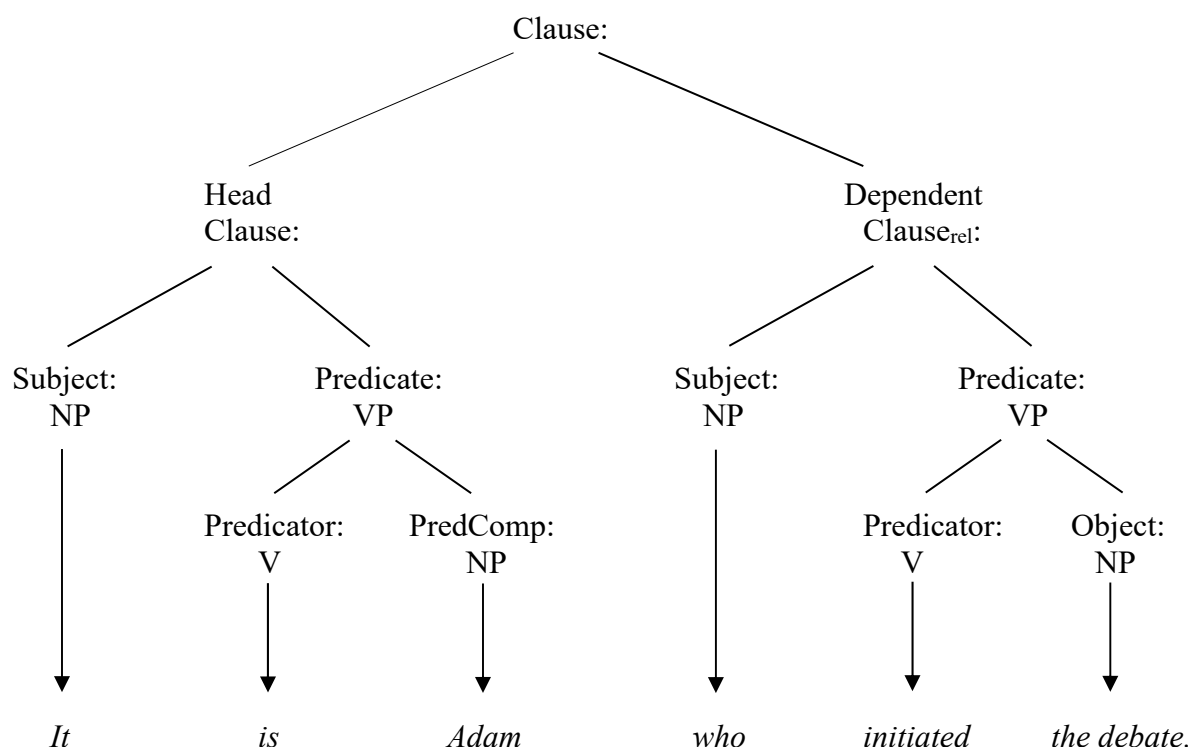
The COCA Corpus does not allow the search for language data on a syntactic level, the search query is limited to “it BE adj. that”. Two types of genres will be the objective of main investigation in this paper – spoken and academic language. Comparing these two genres provides a rich opportunity to uncover the nuances of language use in diverse contexts. It allows the exploration of how language adapts to different communicative purposes, audiences, and sociolinguistic contexts. The investigation may reveal contrasts in linguistic features, such as formality, register, and the role of context, offering insights into the varied ways language functions in spoken and academic settings.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The *IT-cleft* construction exhibits considerable flexibility in capturing various forms of basic declarative statements. Within the *IT-cleft*, the focused element can be a noun phrase functioning as a subject or object, or part of a prepositional phrase in the original declarative sentence. This type of cleft is composed of the following components:

- the pronoun “it”, which functions as a dummy pronoun subject;
- the verb “be”, which may be accompanied by the negative particle “not”, a modal verb, or an adverb;
- a focused element, which can be a noun phrase, prepositional phrase, adverb phrase, adverbial clause, adjective phrase (in rare instances); and
- a relative dependent clause, introduced by pronouns such as “who”, “which”, “that”, or a zero pronoun.

The following syntactic tree illustrates what the structure of an *IT-cleft* is like. Example (1) can be outlined syntactically as follows (adapted from Huddleston and Pullum 2007: 252):



This example highlights the distinction between a cleft relative clause and the typical constituent of a relative clause. According to Huddleston and Pullum, “Adam initiated the debate” is clearly an integrated relative clause; however, it does not function as a syntactic constituent independently of Adam” (2007: 187). In contrast, a standard integrated relative clause, such as in “Adam who initiated the debate has been dismissed by the competition authorities” is syntactically projected as a cohesive constituent within the noun phrase. Another differentiating factor is the obligatory use of the pronoun “that” in a cleft sentence, unlike in an integrated relative clause in which its omission is occasionally acceptable. The exclusion of “that” is prevailing within conversational English.

Lambrech posits that cleft sentences function as matrix clauses, forming two predicative constructions (1994: 26). The elements within the matrix clause are linked by a copula, typically the verb “to be”. In the context of an *IT-cleft*, the primary component is a relative clause, as exemplified by “who initiated the debate” in example (1). Lambrecht contends that the “relativized argument should be [is] co-indexed with the predicative argument of the copula” (1994: 110). This implies that in the sample sentence “Adam” should be associated with and share a co-index with the relative pronoun who”, or “who” has “Adam” as its antecedent.

Chankova (2016) studies focusing constructions from a similar theoretical perspective but brings in some formal syntax insights, i.e. she analyzes various displacement operations based on an approach integrating information packaging theory tools within the major line of enquiry of late Minimalism. In various cases, certain constituents facilitate a more pronounced focus on elements within declarative clauses, while others exhibit less emphasis. As an illustration, Cowan provides seven instances of constituents where the adjective phrase portrays a scenario indicative of a less commonly employed *IT-cleft* (adapted from Cowan 2008: 521):

1. a. *Jennifer* decorated the Christmas tree. (*subject noun phrase*)
 b. It was *Jennifer* who decorated the Christmas tree.
2. a. Mark passed his driving test *two years ago*. (*time adverb*)
 b. It was *two years ago* that Mark passed his driving test.
3. a. The school authorities do not allow frequent school trips *to avoid accidents*. (*adjunct of purpose*)
 b. It is *to avoid accidents* that the school authorities do not allow frequent school trips.
4. a. My brother leaned *on the freshly painted wall* while waiting for the results. (*prepositional phrase*)
 b. It was *on the freshly painted wall* that my brother leaned on while waiting for the results.
5. a. She likes driving *red cars*. (*adjective phrase*)
 b. It is *red cars* that she likes driving.
6. a. *How you respond to the last question* is crucial. (*subject interrogative clause*)
 b. It is *how you respond to the last question* that is crucial.
7. a. She conducted some more research *because she wanted to explore some more details about the case*. (*adverbial subordinate clause*)
 b. It was *because she wanted to explore some more details about the case* that she conducted some more research.

Even though both types of cleft sentences divide a sentence into two elements to highlight one, they each have a particular discourse purpose. Cowan identifies three main situations where the *IT-cleft* is employed for specific purposes (adapted from Cowan 2008: 524 – 525):

- presenting a contrast: this is a highly typical scenario where speakers or writers often use the *IT-cleft*. Typically, the new constituent is presented in the emphasized element, making it easy for the listener or reader to discern the contrast from the preceding point. For example:

A: *Klara was absent from the meeting yesterday.*

B: *No, it was Clare who was absent from the meeting yesterday.*

- arguing a point: this occurs when the speaker or writer aims to persuade a point that may seem out of place or has not gained much prominence. This usage is commonly applied when introducing a cause-and-effect relationship. For example:

Rap music evolved at some point to the hip-hop genre. Actually, it is the rap music that paved the way to contemporary hip-hop music.

- introducing a topic: this is a frequently employed method for commencing a topic using an *IT-cleft*. This effectively captures the listener's or reader's attention and maintains sentence focus. For example:

It was the murder of Archduke Franz Ferdinand that started World War One. He was visiting Sarajevo, then part of the Austro-Hungarian Empire, to meet with the local nobility.

INFORMATION PACKAGING PECULIARITIES OF IT-CLEFTS

Information packaging or information structure, as per Lambrecht, represents a pivotal aspect of linguistic analysis that delves into how speakers strategically organize information within a discourse to convey meaning effectively. Lambrecht's framework emphasizes the arrangement of information to draw attention to significant elements and establish coherence in communication (2001). In Lambrecht's conceptualization, information structure encompasses various components, including topic and focus. The "topic" refers to the familiar or given information, often serving as a reference point that the speaker assumes the listener is already aware of. "Focus" refers to new information, drawing the listener's attention to the speaker's intended point of emphasis.

Lambrecht presents the concept of "information packaging" as a concept through which speakers manipulate syntactic and prosodic features to signal the organization of information within a sentence or larger discourse unit. One of the notable tools in this regard is the use of cleft constructions, such as *IT-clefts*, to foreground specific elements and enhance the communicative impact. These structures allow speakers to strategically position new or contrastive information, therefore influencing the overall

interpretation of a proposition. Furthermore, Lambrecht emphasizes the dynamic nature of information structure, illustrating how speakers adapt their communicative strategies based on the context, discourse goals, and their assumptions about the listener's knowledge. This dynamic interplay between topic and focus contributes to the overall coherence and effectiveness of any linguistic discourse. In this manner, Lambrecht's exploration of information structure offers a valuable insight through which to analyze how speakers shape and organize their utterances to convey meaning in a nuanced and contextually sensitive manner. The interplay between topic and focus, as well as the use of specific linguistic constructions like cleft sentences, stresses the intricate ways in which speakers manipulate language to achieve their communicative goals.

The COCA Corpus retrieves 127 cleft sentences in the spoken genre and 36 in the academic. This difference clearly contradicts what Biber *et al.* claim about the distribution of *IT-clefts* across the different registers (2003: 422). This discrepancy indicates that the actual distribution of *IT-cleft* constructions in the spoken genre is more than three times more frequent compared to the academic genre.

In this excerpt from PBS NewsHour, Michael Oppenheimer, a representative of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC), emphasizes the importance of public engagement and political will in addressing climate change. He acknowledges that while scientific evidence is crucial in setting the foundation for addressing the issue, it alone is insufficient:

WILLIAM-BRANGHAM: I'd like you to take off your IPCC hat for a section. I want to ask a question about political will. Five days ago, we saw four million people on the streets demanding action. On Monday at the U.N., we saw world leaders relatively minor commitments to fight climate change. Do you think this evidence is going to be enough to move the needle?

MICHAEL-OPPENHEIMER: Science is never enough. Science can set the basis for solving a problem, but **it's people that have to decide they want it solved**, and they have to tell their leaders that they want it solved. That's my personal opinion. IPCC doesn't criticize or comment on governments. So it's very encouraging to someone like me, who has worked on this problem for 35 years, to see the young people in the streets demanding action. My generation didn't solve the problem. Now it's going to be on their shoulders. They know it, and they're angry about it. And I think

that this is going to result in political change, not fast enough, but I think it's coming. But a part of the problem I'm really worried about is, you cannot solve the coastal problem just by reducing emissions.

(PBS: *PBS NewsHour*, 2019 (19-09-25), *PBS NewsHour*, SPOK genre)

The boldfaced *IT-cleft* sentence is used to perspectivise and highlight the important part in a mono-clause equivalent (i.e. *People have to decide they want it solved*). The initial position is occupied by the plural countable noun “people” which in its own terms employs the focus function of the proposition. The pragmatic presupposition or topic in this example would be “that have to decide they want it solved”. In other words, the emphasis in this sentence is on the “people” who need to address the problem they are facing. The *IT-cleft* construction allows the speaker, Michael Oppenheimer in this case, to highlight the essential role of the human agency in solving the issues related to climate change. The sentence before aims to determine what the solution to the problem might be, but then with the use of the *IT-cleft* this solution is disproved. This allows the accentuation on the focus of the *IT-cleft*, thus making it more compelling compared to the mono-clause equivalent construction. This in turn will force the relative clause to be unaccented despite the use of the simple aspectuality with the main verbs, i.e. “have to” and “want”. If these were the focus of the *IT-cleft*, it would then become decentralized, i.e. it would create confusion and miscomprehension. Consequently, this signifies one of the main uses of an *IT-cleft* construction – to emphasize a particular element in a sentence.

Syntactically, the topic of the *IT-cleft* reveals other interpretations related to the defining relative clause following immediately after the plural noun “people”. Even though the aim of the speaker is to further inform the addressees of what these people are like, he is also trying to elaborate on a unified definition of the individuals within the discussion so that there will be no confusion. The relative clause helps the speaker to narrow down and label the subgroup of people, emphasizing that he refers only to those who are actively involved in the decision-making process. The emphasis is further manifested through the use of the semi-modal verb “have to” and its implications of the part of the whole proposition. The modal verb “have to” implies a necessity or requirement and in this context, it suggests that the responsibility for deciding is a crucial and unavoidable task. Its use emphasizes that the decision is not merely optional or discretionary, but rather something that is unavoidable. This implies that the individuals (i.e. the “people”) bear a moral or ethical duty to decide whether they want the problem solved or not and that this responsibility is not to be taken lightly.

This framing emphasizes the active role that people need to play in taking ownership of the issue and participating in the decision-making process.

To implement Lambrecht's ideas on reading an information packaging construction, the structure would take the following form (2001: 475):

- **Context sentence:** Science is never enough.
- **IT-cleft sentence:** Science can set the basis for solving a problem, but it's people that have to decide they want it solved, and they have to tell their leaders that they want it solved.
- **Presupposition:** "x have to decide they want it solved"
- **Focus:** "people"
- **Assertion:** "x = people"

What this scheme suggests is that the speaker's open relative clause proposition "x have to decide they want it solved" is pragmatically presupposed and hence it suggests that the audience should understand or infer the assumption that individuals must actively choose to address the issue at hand. Lambrecht uses the term "knowledge presupposition" (or K-presupposition, for short), but the core concept remains centered around referencing information already known or unknown to the addressee (2001: 474). The speaker's pragmatic assertion, which Lambrecht describes as "the effect the utterance of the sentence has on a hearer's knowledge or belief state" (*ibid.*), is demonstrated by introducing the focus variable "people" in this open proposition.

Lambrecht recognizes that employing a non-canonical structure requires contextual support. It would seem peculiar to mention the monoclausal canonical equivalent without providing some context or implicit guidance regarding the pragmatic assertion. This item of information is expected to be brought to the forefront of the addressee's mind through inferable references. Therefore, Lambrecht introduces the term "consciousness presupposition" (C-presupposition). In essence, when someone uses C-presupposition, they are expecting that the audience already has a certain concept or idea in their immediate memory, and the speaker builds on this assumption to convey their message effectively. It reflects a reliance on shared or recently activated knowledge between the speaker and the addressee for effective communication (2001: 475).

The referent or proposition assumed through C-presupposition may be completely activated or merely accessible, as described by Prince's concepts of "discourse-old" and "inferable" (1994: 247 – 249). However, this alone does not provide a complete understanding, as the assertion must also

convey pertinent information related to the ongoing proposition, establishing a connection with the present discourse. Consequently, Lambrecht introduces another essential assumption on the part of the speaker – the topicality presupposition (or T-presupposition). T-presupposition indicates that the speaker expects that the addressee will find a specific element relevant and important to the ongoing conversation, considering it a likely subject for further discussion. The definition further notes that a topical denotatum, which is the subject of the presupposition, is inherently a relatively predictable element in a proposition. This means that, based on the context or shared knowledge, the addressee can reasonably anticipate the inclusion of this element in the conversation (2001: 476).

From a logical standpoint, the fulfillment of the T-presupposition assumption requires a level of activation in the minds of those engaged in the discourse. In other words, the precondition for topicality is the prior satisfaction of the C-presupposition. Therefore, the outlined scheme above can be further detailed as follows:

- **Context sentence:** Science is never enough.
- **IT-cleft sentence:** Science can set the basis for solving a problem, but it's people that have to decide they want it solved, and they have to tell their leaders that they want it solved.
- **Presuppositions:**
 - K-presupposition: “x have to decide they want it solved”
 - C-presupposition: “the K-presupposed proposition has been activated”
 - T-presupposition: “the K-presupposed proposition is of current interest”
- **Focus:** “people”
- **Assertion:** “x = people”

In this scenario, the speaker's assumptions have prompted the selection of a specific grammatical form for the current expression. Specifically, the speaker opts for the IT-cleft construction to fulfill certain discourse-related assumptions:

- his recipient knows or believes the (open) proposition “x have to decide they want it solved” evoked by the relative clause;
- this proposition is currently activated in the addressee's short-term memory evoked by the preceding open clause “science can set the basis for solving a problem”; and
- this proposition is of current interest in the conversation evoked by the lexical item “problem”.

The discussion above seems to overlook the triggers in the assertion domain that align with the focus denotatum. Put differently, it is interesting to consider how the speaker establishes a connection with the assumed information, enabling the addressee to comprehend or accept it at the moment of the utterance. Let us detach the sentence from its context. In the absence of activated referents leading to the presupposed focus of the utterance, the addressee would find it impossible to perceive an information unit as novel. This process necessitates not only inferable or relatable referents but also a pre-existing extensive understanding of the subject matter. By extensive knowledge, I do not refer to professional or specialized expertise (as in medical, engineering, legal, etc. terms), but rather to a broad knowledge base that can be readily activated and/or revisited. For example, if we substitute the focus of the IT-cleft with something else such as a concrete group of individuals like “paleoclimatologists”, the addressee’s comprehension of the focus denotatum might entirely be lacking due to the lack of general knowledge on the topic of conversation. Therefore, the prior general knowledge of the addressee becomes crucial in determining the grammatical construction choice. For this reason, a new area of exploration is necessary, and, on that account, I employ the following three categories to further describe a domain that will help tackle the focus projection. The additional term is labeled as the presupposed focus, and it is an elaboration on Lambrecht’s concept of unpredictability (2001: 474):

- *Fully knowledgeable*: The focus component exists in the addressee’s knowledge database and can be readily invoked at any time.
- *Semi-knowledgeable*: The focus component exists in the addressee’s knowledge database but cannot be readily evoked or fully recalled at the moment the utterance is made.
- *Unknowledgeable*: The focus component is absent from the addressee’s knowledge database.

Taking into account this elaboration, the following explanation can be suggested:

- **Context sentence**: Science is never enough.
- **IT-cleft sentence**: Science can set the basis for solving a problem, but it’s people that have to decide they want it solved, and they have to tell their leaders that they want it solved.
- **Presuppositions**:
 - K-presupposition: “x have to decide they want it solved”

- C-presupposition: “the K-presupposed proposition has been activated”
- T-presupposition: “the K-presupposed proposition is of current interest”
- **Focus:** “people”
- **Assertion:** “x = people”
 - Presupposed focus: “fully knowledgeable as the word “people” is something that exists in most people’s knowledge database and its meaning can be evoked anytime, anyplace”

More precisely, it can be suggested that the speaker chooses the *IT-cleft* to fulfill the following assumptions within the discourse:

- his recipient knows or believes the (open) proposition “x have to decide they want it solved” evoked by the relative clause;
- this proposition is currently activated in the addressee’s short-term memory evoked by the preceding open clause “science can set the basis for solving a problem”;
- this proposition is of current interest in the conversation evoked by the lexical item “problem”;
- the presupposed focus item is fully knowledgeable as it is a lexical item that can easily be evoked and associated with something concrete. The speaker assumes that this concept is familiar and easily accessible in the addressee’s knowledge database, and it can be readily invoked at any time.

The following academic study explores the work of Wicomb, who offers a cautionary perspective on the dangers of nationalism in the aftermath of liberation, challenging the trend of invoking racial or ethnic nationalism in South Africa and beyond. In her novel “David’s Story”, South African author Zoe Wicomb expresses skepticism towards nationalism in the post-liberation era, particularly the ethnic nationalism. Wicomb sees ethnic nationalism as predisposed to the absolutism and intolerance reminiscent of the apartheid era in South Africa. She views nationalism as a strategy that has outlived its usefulness and suggests that healing should focus on individuals rather than the nation:

...Wicomb confirms this in interviews conducted around the time of the novel’s publication, in which she discusses nationalism as a formerly useful strategy that has now outlived its utility: What South Africans have done could not have been done without a sense of nationalism. Unfortunately Spivak falls short of discussing what happens next. Part of the ugly things that are told

in my novel is the result of nationalism. Of course it is not a nation that is going to be healed--that's nonsense. **It's people that will be healed.** Let's just forget about the bloody nation now, because it has run its course. It's done its job. We know what it led to in Europe. I know what it means in Scotland. (qtd. in Willemsse 151-52; see also Meyer and Oliver 92.) Read in this light, David's Story might become a cautionary Fanonesque tale about the pitfalls of nationalism in the post-liberation era. Indeed, the novel seems to fly in the face of a growing tendency for both ruling and opposition parties to invoke racial or ethnic nationalism in ways that echo disturbing histories in South Africa and around the world. (*Studies in the Novel*, 2008, "This Text Deletes Itself": Traumatic Memory and Space-Time in Zoe Wicomb's "David's Story")

The use of the *IT-cleft* construction in the excerpt above is employed by the author to emphasize the focus on individual healing rather than the nation as a whole. By splitting the sentence into two parts, the author places emphasis on the idea that the true beneficiaries of the healing process are individuals. The use of "it" and "be" in the first part of the sentence helps isolate and highlight this specific point, making it more prominent in the reader's mind. In the broader context of the passage, this emphasis on the individual healing aligns with the author's overall skepticism towards nationalism and its potential pitfalls. The author suggests that the emphasis on people rather than the nation is a crucial perspective in the post-liberation era, challenging the notion that national identity alone can lead to healing. The *IT-cleft* structure serves as a rhetorical device, effectively conveying the author's viewpoint on the nature of healing and contributing to the overall clarity and impact of the passage. It also helps in clearly conveying the key point and provides a structured way to present the evidence or assertion.

In terms of information packaging, the following explanation can be provided:

- **Context sentence:** Of course it is not a nation that is going to be healed--that's nonsense.
- **IT-cleft sentence:** It's people that will be healed.
- **Presuppositions:**
 - K-presupposition: "x will be healed"
 - C-presupposition: "the K-presupposed proposition has been activated"
 - T-presupposition: "the K-presupposed proposition is of current interest"

- **Focus:** “people”
- **Assertion:** “x = people”
 - Presupposed focus: “semi-knowledgeable as the collective noun “people” does not refer to any previously mentioned country. The addressee should be guided to the full understanding of this lexical item”

The focus of the assertion is on “people”, and the analysis suggests that the presupposed focus is semi-knowledgeable because the term “people” lacks a specific reference to a previously mentioned state or country. The term “people” is a collective noun that generally refers to a group of individuals. However, it lacks specificity in terms of which people or community are being discussed in this context. It does not point to a previously mentioned group or entity, making the reference somewhat vague. Without additional context or clarification, the term remains somewhat open-ended and requires more information for a complete understanding. The addressee, according to the analysis, should be guided to a full understanding of this lexical item, indicating that the term “people” may require additional context or explanation for a complete understanding, especially regarding its specific application or relevance in the given context. More precisely, it can be suggested that the speaker decides on the *IT-cleft* to observe the following assumptions within the discourse:

- his recipient knows or believes the (open) proposition “x will be healed” evoked by the relative clause;
- this proposition is currently activated in the addressee’s short-term memory evoked by the preceding open clause “Of course it is not a nation that is going to be healed--that’s nonsense”;
- this proposition is of current interest in the conversation evoked by the lexical item “people”;
- the presupposed focus is semi-knowledgeable as the collective term “people” lacks reference to any previously mentioned country. Additional guidance is needed for the addressee to attain a comprehensive understanding of this lexical item.

CONCLUSION

The exploration of information packaging, as outlined by Lambrecht (1994; 2001), provides a valuable framework for understanding how speakers strategically organize information within a given discourse to convey meaning in a clear and effective manner. Lambrecht’s emphasis on the arrangement of information to establish coherence and draw attention to

significant sentence elements aligns with his conceptualization of information packaging which includes components such as topic and focus. The introduction of the three key presuppositions, knowledge presupposition (K-presupposition), consciousness presupposition (C-presupposition), and topicality presupposition (T-presupposition), helps for the better understanding of the message the speaker aims to convey to the addressee. These presuppositions also reveal how speakers rely on shared or recently activated knowledge, inferable references, and the anticipation of specific elements' relevance to effectively convey their message. However, the part that is missing is the link to the broader context of linguistic analysis and discourse interpretation related to the addressee's cognitive state at the time the utterance has been delivered. The introduction of the concept of presupposed focus, categorized as fully knowledgeable, semi-knowledgeable, or unknowledgeable, enriches the understanding of how speakers tailor their expressions based on the assumed familiarity of the audience with the focus point of the message. This categorization delves into the intricacies of speaker-addressee dynamics, shedding light on the adaptability of linguistic structures to align with the addressee's cognitive state. Further studies are needed to explore how this presupposed focus can affect the message delivery through other agencies besides the grammar and syntax means.

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