An Analysis of Police Interrogation from the Perspective of Presupposition: A Case Study of *Jodi Arias Case*

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ARTICLE INFORMATION	ABSTRACT
	Nowadays, as crimes have become increasingly complicated, it is difficult for interrogators to find out all the criminal facts before interrogation, so that interrogation becomes a significant process to clear up some facts and prove whether the interrogated is guilty or not. However, some criminals always conceal the criminal facts and resist interrogation. This difficulty decides that interrogators need some interrogatory skills to elicit some criminal facts from the suspect. Presupposition is one of the interrogatory skills frequently used by interrogators so that it is very necessary to study interrogatory language from the perspective of presupposition. However, the literature review indicates that few research studies police interrogation from the perspective of presupposition. Therefore, this paper is to apply presupposition theory classified by Yule (2000) to analyze interrogatory language in Jodi Arias case. Specifically, it is to analyze how interrogators make use of presuppositions to elicit more information and explore the functions of presuppositions in investigatory interrogation. In order to address the problem, this paper employs both quantitative and qualitative method to analyze police interrogation in Jodi Arias case. The results show that there are five types of presuppositions identified in the selected data, that is, existential presupposition, factive presupposition, lexical presupposition, structural presupposition, counter-factual presupposition, and their frequency varies from each other. Secondly, presupposition enables the interrogatory language to be more concise and euphemistic and presupposition help the interrogators increase the pervasive effect and presupposition can help set a trap for the suspect to admit his or her guilt. This study will enlarge the application scope of presupposition and even linguistics and help interrogator employ presupposition into interrogation and improve their interrogation skills.

1. Introduction

Police interrogation is a process where interrogator interrogates criminal suspects to obtain true confession and explanation of the suspect, and to collect evidence to prove the criminal suspect guilty or innocent or to prove the crime to be minor or grave. Nowadays, with increasing criminal cases and more complicate crime means, it has become increasingly difficult to collect evidence. Therefore, interrogation is an essential process during the whole case to clear up cases and urge the criminal to admit his crime, which requires lots of language tactics used by interrogator. Presupposition as one of language tactics, which should merit considerable attentions. Since Philosopher Frege put forward the problem of presupposition in his work *On Sense and Reference* in 1982, presupposition has been investigated by researchers from different perspectives, such as TV show(Su, 2014), detective novels(Cao, 2013), advertising text(Zeng, 2012), public speech(Li, 2017) and legal discourse((Li & Sun, 2018) However, in terms of legal discourse, most studies of presupposition concentrated on courtroom discourse((Li & Sun, 2018; Gong, 2015; Jiang, 2013; Chen, 2008; Tang & Yang, 2010), while few focused on police interrogation(Gaines, 2018). Therefore, this paper intends to explore the application of presupposition to police interrogation

in *Jodi Arias case*, a well-known case in America, due to the cruel murder means used by Jodi Arias to kill her ex-boyfriend, Mr. Alexander. Specifically, it is to analyze how presupposition is employed by interrogator to prove whether the suspect is guilty or not in *Jodi Arias case* and explore the functions of the application of presupposition to investigatory interrogation. Both quantitative and qualitative approaches are adopted. This paper bears its theoretical and practical significance. Theoretically, this paper expands the study scope of presupposition by studying interrogation discourse. Practically, this study helps interrogators understand how to make good use of interrogation skill-presupposition to elicit more language evidence.

This article is comprised of five parts, this is introduction, literature review, methodology, results and discussion and finally conclusion. The first part introduces the rationale and research aim of the present study. The second parts reviews previous studies, particularly those related to the application of presupposition in legal contexts in order to put forward the research questions to be answered. The third part concerns a detailed description of the adopted method. The fourth part presents a detailed analysis of police interrogation in Jodi Arias Case from the perspective of presupposition and discusses the functions of the presupposition triggers. The final part summarizes the major findings, points out the limitation of the present study and provides some suggestions for future study.

2. Literature Review

The term presupposition was first used by Gottlob Frege, who states that if sentences contain definite descriptions as their subjects, they involve a presupposition that those objects exist, otherwise, any sentences that include them can be neither true nor false (1892). For example, "The king of France" presupposes that there exists a king in France. Russell (1905), who coincides with Frege's claims that sentences containing presuppositions of this type are simply false if their presuppositions are false. He analyses "The king of France is bald" into the two assertions: "There is one and only one king of France and he is bald." In other words, he regards "There is a king of France" as an assertion (not a presupposition) of the sentence and, since this is "plainly false", the whole sentence is just false. Russell's theory doesn't meet any challenged until Strawson proposes a quite different approach in his work *On referring* in 1952. He asserts the sentence doesn't have the problem of being true or false, but only the statement made through the sentences does, that is to say only the statement was judged in its context could have the truth value. but only the statement made through which brings the study of presupposition closer to the pragmatic.

The studies of presupposition reach its golden years in 1970s, represented by Levinson (1982). Levinson (1982) in his masterpiece *Pragmatics* defined presupposition as hidden behind a sentence and shared by all participants, that is, the known knowledge present by them or the undisputable information known to them. He selected thirteen kinds of them, that is definite descriptions, factive verbs, implicative verbs, change of state verbs, verbs of judging, comparisons and contrasts, iteratives, temporal clauses, cleft sentences, implicit clefts with stressed constituents, non-restrictive relative clauses, counterfactual conditionals, questions.

Since 1990s, researches on presupposition turn to a variety tendency, such as projection problem (Sandt &Rob, 1992), classification of presupposition (Yule, 2000) and so on. Yule (2000) classified presupposition into six types, existential presupposition, factive presupposition, lexical presupposition, structural presupposition, non-factual presupposition, counterfactual presupposition. Wei (2003) divides presupposition into two categories, semantic presupposition (including potential presupposition and actual presupposition) and pragmatic presupposition (factive presupposition, belief presupposition, state presupposition, behavior presupposition, culture presupposition and pun presupposition). This paper adopts the classification by Yule(2000).

And discourses analysis based on presupposition has also gained great attention (Hickey, 1993; Anderson, 2009; Edward, 2013; Li & Sun, 2018; Su, 2014; Li, 2017). In legal discourse, many scholars have done research on courtroom discourse from the perspective of presupposition (Zhang, 2007; Dong & Wang, 2008; Li, 2008; Tang & Yang, 2010; Edward, 2013; Jiang,2014; Xi, 2019). For example, Jiang (2013) employed presupposition theory to analyze the Q-A of prosecutor and witness in courtroom. Dong & Wang (2008) made an analysis of leading question in courtroom context from the perspective of presupposition to reveal how different classes of leading questions come into realization by different types of pragmatic presupposition triggers. Xi (2019) used presupposition as a theoretical background to analyze public prosecutor's interrogation in criminal court. Only few researchers study presupposition in police interrogation (Jin, 2010; Zhou, 2013). Zhang (2010) applied presupposition to analyze investigative interrogation to explore how interrogators acquire favorable information from the suspects during criminal interrogation. Zhou (2013) made an analysis of police interrogation from the perspective of presupposition, but lack of true interrogation discourse as corpus.

From above analysis, despite a large portion of research on legal discourse from the perspective of presupposition, most studies of presupposition concentrated on courtroom discourse, while few investigated police interrogation. However, due to increasing criminal cases and more complicate crime means, it has become increasingly difficult for policemen to collect evidence. Interrogation is an essential process during the whole case to make cases clear and urge the criminal to confess, which requires lots of language tactics used by interrogator. Presupposition as one of language tactics, which should merit considerable attentions. Therefore, this study is an attempt to fill the gap by analyzing interrogatory language in *Jodi Arias case* from the perspective of presupposition. Three key research questions are thus raised below to investigate whether presupposition skill is helpful for interrogators to elicit more information from the suspect.

(1) What presuppositions are commonly employed in police interrogation?

(2) How interrogators make use of presupposition to elicit more information?

(3) What functions do these presuppositions have in police interrogation?

3. Methodology

To address the first research question, a mixed method was preferred. A quantitative approach was first adopted to count the percentage of each type of presupposition in the corpus. And a qualitative approach was used to make a descriptive content analysis of specific examples of each kind of presupposition selected from the self-built corpus. A combination of a quantitative approach and a qualitative approach in the present study would seem to offer objectivity and better analysis of the corpus. For the second research question, a qualitative approach was used to describe the functions of presupposition used in police interrogation as functions could be better detailed in a descriptive qualitative approach.

3.1 Data collection and analytical tool

The data was collected from the police interrogation of *Jodi Arias case*, from website https://www.websleuths.com/forums/threads/transcripts-of-the-interrogation-videos-of-jodi-arias.203866/. To make sure the completeness and the correctness of the transcription, the author searched several websites and watched the video to check whether there is any mistake in the transcription. There is a total of 56832 words.

UAM corpus tool 3.3 is adopted as an analytical tool (Xu, 2004; Zheng, 2014). First, create a project with name of presupposition. Second, edit the coding scheme of presupposition triggers, as shown in figure 1. Third, add the transcripts data in the extended corpus, as in figure 2. Fourth, annotate manually the data within coding scheme, as presented in figure 3. To raise the correctness of the annotation, the author asked my teacher for help when being unsure of which presupposition this example belongs to. Furthermore, the author checked several times and asked my teacher to be the final checker. Finally, the Statistics interface will present the statistic results, as in figure 4.

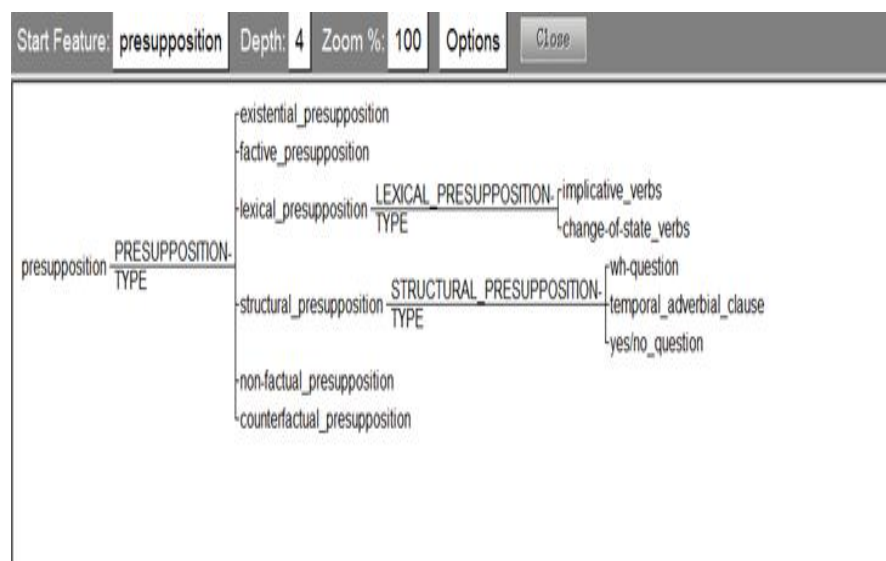Figure 1 Presupposition Scheme
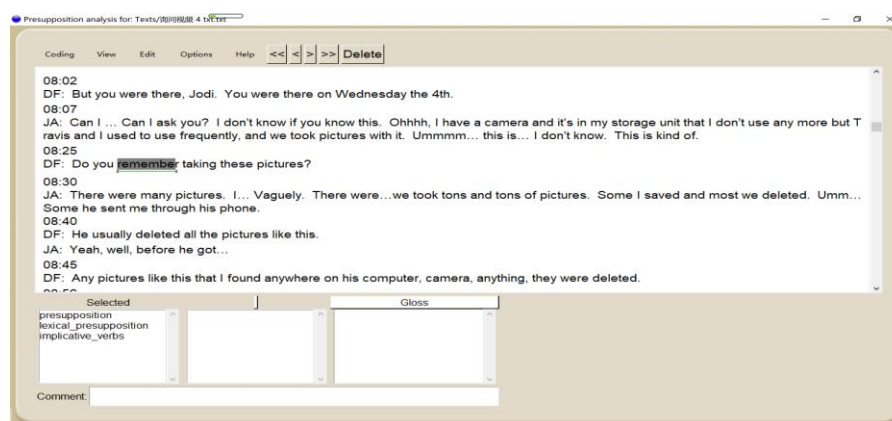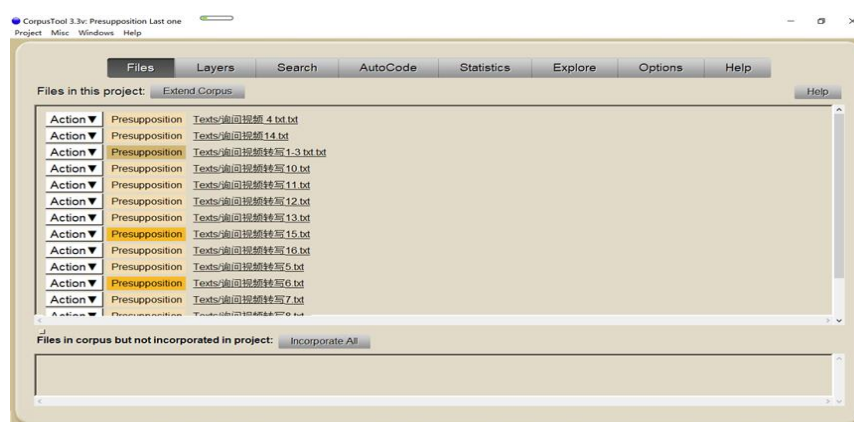
Figure 2 Manual Coding Process


Figure 3 Self-built corpus

3.2 Data analytical procedures

Data analysis approach in this study were determined by the research questions driving the study, and the data collections used by the researcher (cited in Bitchener, 2012). The percentage data was used to reveal the frequency level of each type of presupposition to explore the reasons under the usage of presupposition skill. The transcription was used to select the most representative example to explore how policemen use presupposition skill to elicit more information. Based on the above-mentioned analysis of the selected examples, the author made a discussion about the functions of presupposition skills used by police interrogators.

4. Results and Discussion
4.1 Frequency of each type presupposition

Figure 4 Percentage of Each Type of Presupposition
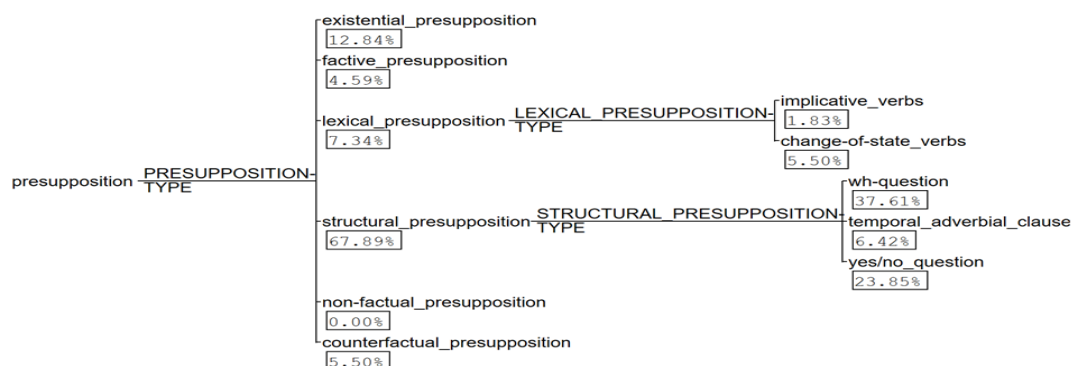
The first research question was directed to find out which presuppositions are commonly employed in the police interrogation of *Jodi Arias case*. As a first step, the author annotated the transcript manually in terms of six types of presupposition, that is existential presupposition, factive presupposition, lexical presupposition, structural presupposition, non-factual presupposition, counterfactual presupposition (Yule, 2000). And the frequency of each type of presupposition was calculated in terms of a percentage with the help of UAM corpus tool 3.3. As is shown in figure 4, the frequency of structural presupposition in on the top, with 67.89% of the total, following is existential presupposition, with a frequency of 12.84%. Lexical presupposition ranks the third place with a frequency of 7.34%. The frequencies of factive presupposition, counterfactual presupposition, non-factual presupposition are respectively 4.59%, 5.5.%. 0.00%. Existential presupposition, lexical presupposition and structural presupposition are most frequently used by interrogators, which is supported by Tang and Yang' study(2010), which found that existential presupposition: definite descriptions, lexical presupposition(implicative verbs), and structural presupposition are the most effective and frequent ways for interrogators to elicit more information. Structural presupposition is the most favored one because police interrogation is mainly dominated by questions. Non-factual presupposition is not adopted by interrogators in data because the fact this kind of presupposition triggers is not true or don't happen, so using this type of presupposition will not help elicit more useful information.

4.2 The Application of presupposition to police interrogation
The second question considered how interrogators make use of presupposition to elicit more information. Some typical examples were selected under each type of presupposition and analyzed one by one.

4.2.1 Existential presupposition
Existential presupposition assumes the existence of some entities. This kind of presupposition is triggered by definite descriptions. definite descriptions are those words or expressions with definite meanings, such as proper nouns, possessive constructions, personal pronouns, noun phrases with the definite article "the" and demonstrative pronouns "this" and "that" (Yule, 2000). Definite descriptions are relatively abundant in the selected interrogatory language. The following sentence is typical examples selected from the data.

*(1) Interrogator: Where was **that gun** from, then?*
》 [2]There exists a gun and the suspect knows something about the gun.

Definite descriptions present an existence of something or stand for a fact. In example (1), noun phrase with demonstrative pronoun "*That gun*" presupposes there exists a gun and the suspect knows something about the gun. The suspect denies she owns or has touched any gun, so if the suspect just focuses on "*where*" and replies the exact time without carefully considering the question, it is assumed that the suspect has accepted the presupposition that she knows something about the gun.

*(2) Interrogator: Why was **your palm print** in blood?*
》 The palm print in blood is Jodi's.

From example (2), the interrogator used a possessive presupposition "*your palm print in blood*" which presupposes the palm print in blood is Jodi's. The suspect Jodi denied the fact that she was in the murder scene. The focus of this question is "*Why*", so if the suspect just focuses on "*why*" and replies with the reason, it is assumed that the suspect has accepted the presupposition that she is in the murder scene.

4.2.2 Factive presupposition
Factive verbs are the presupposition triggers of factive presupposition. Factive verbs are those words whose object or object clause reflect the fact that already happen, such as regret, know, realize and so on. Some adjective phrases are also included in this category, such as "be sorry that", "be odd that", "be proud that" and so on (Yule, 2000). In this kind of presupposition, the adjective is the focus of the sentence, so the presupposition that follows the adjective is the part that will be neglected by the suspect. For example,

*(1) Interrogator: **Was he happy t**o see you when you got there that day?*
》 The suspect and the victim had met each other at that day

In this example, the information after the adjective phrase "*be happy to*" is the presupposed information. This question presupposes that the suspect and the victim had met each other at that day. The suspect Miss Arias denies she appears at the

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[2] What follow "》 "   are the facts that the presupposition triggers.

victim's home, and the focus of this question is on the adjective phrase "*Was he happy to*", so whether the suspect replies "Yes" or "no", it is assumed that she accepts she appears at the victim's home.

*(1) Interrogator: **Are you sorry for** what you did to him?*
    》 The suspect did something wrong to the victim.

In this example, "*What you did to him*" means that jodi had murdered Mr. Alexander, the victim. The interrogator uses an adjective phrase "*be sorry for*" which presupposes that the suspect did something wrong to the victim. During the interrogation, the suspect asserts that she didn't appear in Mr's Alexander's house, let alone murdering him. The focus of this interrogatory question is "*be sorry for*", so if the suspect ignores the presupposition hidden behind the adjective phrase, whether answering with "Yes" or "So" , it means that the suspects accepts the presupposition that she had done something wrong to the victim, which indirectly means she had murdered him.

4.2.3 Lexical presupposition
According to Yule (2000), 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. He (2006) classified five types of lexical presupposition: implicative verbs, factive verbs, change-of–state verbs, verbs of judge and iterate words. Factive verbs have been discussed above. The following sections only discuss implicative verbs and change-of-state verbs, because the rest two doesn't appear in the selected corpus. As is presented in figure 4, the frequency of change-of-state verbs is 5.50%, while the frequency of implicative verbs is a little lower, 1.83%.

4.2.3.1 Change-of-state verbs
Change-of-state verbs are those words that indicate changes in action such as "stop", "begin", "continue", "start" and so on (He, 2006). A typical example is "Has you stopped beat your wife". Whether the suspect answers in a positive or negative way, he accepts the presupposition that he beat his wife before. Below is an example of this category.

*(2) Is it true that the jealousy probably **continued** even after the fact that you moved away?*
    》 The jealousy exits before.

In this example, the interrogator used "*continue*" to trigger the presupposition that "The jealousy exists before". The interrogator think may be the jealousy issue cause the suspect to murder the victim. No matter the suspect offers a positive or negative answer, it is assumed that she accepts that she is jealous about the victim traveling with another girl.

4.2.3.2 Implicative verbs
Those verbs that imply something but do not say it explicitly are defined as implicative verbs, such as "manage", "forget", "remember" and so on (He, 2006). This kind of presupposition is not usual and easy to find. Implicative verbs presuppose the action before implicative verbs happen. They occur on one of the two semantic parts. The sentence "John didn't manage to open the door" includes two semantic parts "John tried to open the door" and "but he failed". Look at the following example.

 *(3) Interrogator: Do you **remember** what time you rolled in?*
    》 What time you rolled in?

In this question, the implicative verb "*remember*" presupposes that "the suspect rolled in the victim's home" and "but she forgot", so whether the suspect gives a "yes" or "no" answer, she accepts the presupposition that she rolled in the victim's house.

 *(4) Do you **remember** taking these pictures?*
    》 You have taken these pictures.

In example (7), the interrogator employs the implicative verbs "*remember* ", which presupposes that "you have taken these pictures". This presupposition indirectly indicates the suspect Jodi was in the victim's house. With this presupposition in question, whether the suspect answers "yes" or "not", it suggests that the suspect admits that she have taken these pictures.

4.2.4 Structural presupposition
Structural presupposition means certain sentence structures conventionally and regularly presuppose that part of the structure is already assumed to be true. This kind of metaphor appears the most in the selected data. Yule (2000) divided structural presupposition into WH-question, temporal-adverbial clause and relative clause. Because relative clause doesn't appear in the chosen interrogatory language, so this study only analyzes two types in details. The frequencies of WH-

question, temporal adverbial clause and yes-no question are 37.61%, 6.42%, 23.85%. WH-questions are more frequently adopted than yes-no questions because the former question is open question giving the interrogated more room to answer so that more information can be drawn out while the latter is closed question which limits the answers of the interrogated. (Tang & Yang, 2010).

4.2.4.1 WH-question
According to Yule (1996), wh-question construction is conventionally interpreted with the presupposition that the information after the wh-form. He gives an example, "When did you leave"? The wh-form presupposes that he left. The following are two examples from the interrogation in *Jodi Arias case*.

  (5) ***Why*** *did you go there that day, Jodi?*
    》 Jodi got there that day.

From the above example, the why-question presuppose that "Jodi got there that day" Whatever the suspect answers, she admittedly accepts that she got there that day. During the interrogation process, Jodi claims that she doesn't appears in Mr Alexander's house in the day he was murdered. Asking a question with such presupposition, the interrogator indirectly proves that Jodi was in his house in that day.

  (6) ***Where*** *did you get it?*
    》 Jodi got the gun.

In example (9), "*it*" refers to the gun that shot Mr. Alexander. The where-question here presupposes that Jodi got the gun, rejecting the claim made by Jodi that she doesn't own any gun. No matter what the suspect answers, this question presupposes the presupposition that the suspect accepts that she has a gun.

4.2.4.2 Temporal-adverbial clause
Temporal adverbial clause presupposes the existence of a fact. Temporal clause after "before, after, when, while and so on" indicates something happens, there is no doubt that something must happen. The interrogator use temporal clause to lead suspect to recall favorable information.

  (7) *So* ***after*** *you and him have sex on his bed, right?*
    》 You and him have sex on his bed.

From example (10), temporal adverbial clause led by "*after*" contains presupposition, that is the suspect and the victim have sex in that day, which indicates indirectly that Jodi has got into his house, paving a way for the conviction that she murdered him. The interrogator sets a language trap to draw out information he wants.

  (8) *So was the door unlocked* ***when*** *you got there?*
    》 You got there.

Temporal clause led by "*when*" presupposes that the suspect got there. If the suspect answers "no", it only means that the door was locked; if the suspect replies "yes", it only means that the door was unlocked, which both don't deny the presupposition, so no matter the suspect replies, she admits she got there, which is what the interrogator wants to prove.

4.2.4.3 Yes-no question
    Yes-no question means that this question requires a yes or no answer, so if the suspect, without considering the question carefully, just directly replies with a yes or no, he will fall into the language trap set by the suspect. In *Jodi Arias case*, the interrogator usually asks yes or no answer to set language trap to get information from the suspect.

  (1) *Were you guys got there alone?*
    》 You got there.

Example (12) presupposes that the suspect got there. If the suspect answers "yes", it only means she was alone, otherwise, she got there with somebody. No matter what the suspect replied, it is assumed that she admitted the presupposition, that is, she got there.

  (2) *Was he expecting you to come over that day?*
    》 You come over that day.

This yes or no question presupposes that she came over that day, that is to say, she came into his house. A yes answer only means he was expecting her; whole a no answer means he wasn't expecting her. If the suspect directly answers yes or no, she admits she came into her house that day.

4.2.5 Non-factual presupposition

Non-factive presupposition means that the fact it triggers is not true or don't happen. This kind of presupposition is one that is assumed not to be true. It is triggered by the words such as "dream", "imagine", and "pretend" are associated with this kind of presupposition (Yule, 2000). In the selected data, the frequency of non-factual presupposition is zero percent. It is seldom adopted by interrogators in police interrogation.

4.2.6 Counter-factual presupposition

Like non-factive Presupposition, the meaning of counter-factual presupposition is opposite to the truth. Counter-factual presupposition presupposes that the information is false at the time of utterance Examples of counter-factual presupposition are associated with if-clause (Yule, 2000). In the selected interrogation data, the frequency of counterfactual presupposition is 5.5.%. They are employed by the interrogator much more than that of non-factive presuppositions to elicit more information from the suspect.

(1) *if you would have never met him, he probably would still be alive.*
   》 You have met him.

This question is embedded with one counter-factual presupposition, that is the suspect have met the victim, which constructs an assumption and make a contrast with the fact. Evidences are crucial things for the interrogator to convict the suspect of a crime, but there are occasions that it is hard to collect evidences. Under these circumstances, reasonable counter-factual presupposition are needed by the interrogator.

4.2.7 Summary

The above analyses tell us that the characteristic and role of police interrogation determines the dominant position of interrogators, so interrogators can ask questions with different presupposition, which can help hide subjective statements useful for eliciting more information. Whether interrogators adopt which kind of question, they generally hide presuppositions favorable for their aims in questions to direct topic and to set language trap. Thus, if the interrogated fails to identify those traps immediately and break them, they will be at a disadvantageous position in interrogation.

4.3 Functions of presupposition in police interrogation

This question explored the function of presupposition in police interrogation. The above analysis of the application of presupposition to police interrogation shows properly making use of presupposition can help the interrogators elicit more information and getting knowledge of presupposition skills can help the interrogated avoid falling into some linguistic traps set by interrogators. The following are three functions of presupposition adopted as linguistic skill in police interrogation.

4.3.1 For the interrogatory language

On the one hand, presupposition enables the interrogatory language to be more concise (Jin, 2010). In police interrogation, it is general that interrogator asks and suspect answers, which decides that interrogators must communicate more information in less words. Common ground makes interrogatory language more concise, which can help better achieve expected aim and intention of interrogators. On the other hand, presupposition enables the interrogatory language to be more euphemistic. In criminal interrogation, it is a taboo for interrogator to let the suspect know all the information he collects. However, embedding presupposition in question to let the suspect know the information interrogators collect will give an impression to the suspect that we the police have known all. Euphemism helps mitigate head-on confrontation, which gives interrogator an opportunity to control the situation finally getting more favorable information.

4.3.2 For the interrogators

Presupposition help the interrogators increase the pervasive effect. During police interrogation, sometimes suspects are not willing to express some information. With hidden characteristics, presupposition can be embedded in the question and is not easy to be found by the suspects. In some crimes that interrogators have found evidence but suspects deny, presupposition makes suspects to admit their crime, which help enhance pervasive effect.

4.3.3 For the interrogated

Due to its implicitness, presupposition gives a possibility for interrogator to set a language trap (Xi, 2019). Some cunning suspects don't want to acknowledge their crimes, despite the powerful evidence. For example, in *Jodi Arias case*, Miss Arias

denied her crime of killing Mr. Alexander through all the interrogation process. Even after interrogators showed her the evidence, she just admitted that she was in his house but she didn't hurt Mr. Alexander. In face of this kind of suspect, presupposition may be a very significant way to urge the suspect to admit her guilty.

5. Conclusion

The aim of this study was to make a relatively comprehensive analysis of interrogatory language in *Jodi Arias case* from the perspective of presupposition. A mixed method, containing quantitative approach and qualitative approach, was respectively adopted to account the frequency of each type of presupposition and to explore how interrogators include presupposition in their questions. The major findings can be summarized as follows. Firstly, through the careful annotation of the collected data, clear pictures about different kinds of presuppositions are shown to the readers. Among six types of presupposition classified by Yule (2000), only non-factual presupposition isn't employed by interrogator. This is because of the fact this kind of presupposition triggers is not true or don't happen. The rest five presuppositions, that is existential presupposition, factive presupposition, lexical presupposition, structural presupposition, counter-factual presupposition, are applied with different frequency. Structural presupposition has the highest value of appearance. This is may be because of the characteristic of police interrogation, that is questions dominate the dialogue of interrogation. Among structural presupposition, the frequency of WH-question is on the top, because WH-question is open question giving the interrogated more room to answer so that more information can be drawn out. Existential presupposition occupies the second place. Lexical presupposition places third. Followed by lexical presupposition is factive presupposition. The fifth place is counterfactual presupposition. Secondly, it is found that presupposition employed in police interrogation have functions in terms of three aspects. From the perspective of interrogatory language, presupposition enables the interrogatory language to be more concise and euphemistic. In terms of interrogators, presupposition help the interrogators increase the pervasive effect. For the interrogated, presupposition can help set a trap for the interrogated to admit his or her guilt. In general, the application of presupposition helps interrogators better collect evidence and prove the interrogated guilty or not. In theory, this study will enlarge the application scope of presupposition and even linguistics. Practically, it will be beneficial for interrogators to Improve interrogation skills. Despite the theoretical and practical significance of this paper, it still has its limitations. On the one hand, the data is only selected from one case-*Jodi Arias case*, which doesn't cover all kinds of presuppositions, so that this case cannot be synonymous with other cases. Therefore, the conclusion of this paper may be not applied to interrogatory language in other cases. On the other hand, this paper is subject to subjectivity. The annotation of presupposition in the data is all manual, so certain presupposition may be neglected by the author due to limited energy, despite the great effort put on this paper. Despite the limitations listed above, this paper still offers some inspirations for future research and it is suggested that future study on presupposition should be pay more attention to interrogatory language and cover data from different types of criminal cases.

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