

**A STUDY OF THE PRESUPPOSITION OF GOODS
ADVERTISEMENTS IN *THE JAKARTA POST***

THESIS

By
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**ENGLISH LETTERS AND LANGUAGE DEPARTMENT
FACULTY OF HUMANITIES AND CULTURE
THE STATE ISLAMIC UNIVERSITY OF MALANG
2007**

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Presented to the State Islamic University of Malang
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for
the Degree of Sarjana Humaniora.

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2007**

APPROVAL SHEET

This is to certify that Slamet Sri Wahyudi's thesis entitled
A Study of the Presupposition of goods Advertisements in
The Jakarta Post has been approved by the thesis advisor
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**A Study of the Presupposition of goods Advertisements in
*The Jakarta Post*** has been approved by the Board of Examiners
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MOTTO

“He that hath knowledge spareth his words.”
(Proverbs in Peter Grundy ‘Presupposition’)

Words are like leaves: and where they most abound.
Much fruit of sense beneath is rarely found.
(Alexander Pope, *An Essay on Criticism*)

وَفَوْقَ كُلِّ ذِي عِلْمٍ عَالِمٌ

“And over every lord of knowledge there is one more knowing.” (*Yusuf: 76*)

DEDICATION

My thesis is proudly dedicated to my dearest parents:
Slamet Riyadi (Alm) and Hj. Robi'atul Adawiyah for their endless love,
sacrifices, prayers, supports and advises.
You teach me to know the sea of knowledge.

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Finally, I realize that this thesis is still far from perfection. Thus, I will always appreciate for the coming constructive comments from the readers. Hopefully, this work can give a valuable contribution to the field of linguistics study.

Malang, 21st May 2007

Slamet Sri Wahyudi

ABSTRACT

Wahyudi, Slamet Sri. 2007. **A Study of the Presupposition of goods Advertisement in *The Jakarta Post***. Thesis. English Letters and Language Department, Faculty of Humanities and Culture. The State Islamic University of Malang. Advisor: Dra. Hj. Syafiyah, MA.

Key Words: Presupposition, Goods advertisement.

Presupposition is what a speaker assumes is true or is known by the hearer. Presupposition can be encountered in any context of communication including in advertisement as a means of communicating the advertiser's ideas toward audience. Presupposition is widely used in advertising since advertisers cannot directly state that their products are of better quality than those of their competitors, but they possibly make indirect assertions via presupposition.

Advertisement, especially goods advertisement, was selected as data source of this research for several reasons; *first*, advertisement is a form of written communication that develops at the same time with the advance of technology, whether in oral or written ways. *Second*, in linguistic study, advertisement in newspaper is included into transactional discourse since its stress is on the expression of message from an advertiser to consumers. *Third*, the language of advertisement, which is compact and persuasive, is different from most of the other language used in every day life, i.e. the language is discrete.

The descriptive-qualitative was used as the method design of this research since the data are in the form of words or utterances rather than numbers. The data were taken from *The Jakarta Post* published from 1st to 31st of March 2007. The number of the analyzed data was 10. The researcher chose these data because they represented the whole one-month of goods advertisement. The researcher himself became the research instrument in the process of data collection and data analysis. The data were described descriptively based on presupposition theory of Levinson and George Yule using discourse analysis approach.

Thus, this study was aimed at identifying the presupposition and finding out the types of presupposition of goods advertisement in *The Jakarta Post*. To achieve the above objectives, the data analysis was handled in several steps. The researcher firstly identified the presupposition in the utterance of goods advertisement in *The Jakarta Post* based on the common ground and its triggers. Then, the researcher tried to confirm the presupposition identified. To confirm the presupposition, the researcher tested its nature that was constancy under negation. To accomplish this confirmation, the utterance was negated. When the former presupposition was maintained, the presupposition thus was confirmed. But when it failed, it then would not be included into presupposition. After that, the researcher found out the type of presupposition based on the characteristics indicated. Finally, the researcher made some conclusions of the discussion

Based on the researcher's analysis, the researcher concluded that most goods advertisements presupposed the existence of something. It seemed that the advertiser's choice to intensify the use of the existential presupposition was supported with his purpose to emphasize and implant the existence of an object being offered on the readers' or addressees' mind and to ease the addressees in understanding the content of the advertisement.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents background of the study, statement of the problems, objectives of the study, scope and limitation, significance of the study, and definition of the key terms

1.1 Background of the Study

When people are communicating, they share the same background of knowledge. It means that people are accustomed to sharing intended information to others. According to Stalnaker in Brown and Yule (1983:29), common ground of knowledge is also involved in a characterization of presupposition.

Presuppositions are knowledge taken by the speaker to the common ground of participants in conversation. In more general way, speakers continually design their linguistic messages on the basis of assumptions about what their hearers already know. These assumptions may be mistaken, of course, but they underlie much of what we say in everyday use of language. What a speaker assumes is true or is known by the hearer, which can be described as presupposition (Yule, 1985: 100).

The term 'presupposition' originated in the philosophy of logic, where it is used to denote a special type of implicit information. Information which is explicitly stated is referred to as a 'claim' or an 'assertion'. The term 'presupposition' is reserved for a proposition which must be true for the sentence in question to have a truth value, that is to say, for the sentence to be true or false

(Renkema, 1993:154). In addition, Grundy (2000: 119) asserts that presupposition is about the existing knowledge common to speaker and hearer that the speaker does not, therefore, need to assert.

The above presupposed knowledge is then taken together with the presuppositions asserted in the utterance and the addressee's knowledge of the world as the basis on which an inference is drawn to the implied meaning, or implicature, that the utterance conveys. It means to understand the utterance conveys the addressee and the speaker to have background or share knowledge or information. For example, when the speaker says 'can I ask another question?', it presupposes that the speaker had already asked at least one question before. Therefore, presupposition can be made as information to the speaker and addressee who have background knowledge and information from the utterance without knowing the context.

Presupposition is not stated by the speaker explicitly in conversation but the speaker believes that listener has the same assumption with him. Presupposition is something the speaker assumes to be the case prior to making an utterance (Yule, 1996: 25). Thus, presupposition refers to terms of assumption the speaker makes about what the hearer is likely to accept without challenge (Givón as quoted by Brown and Yule, 1983:29).

There are two ways of how we could spot that presupposition exists (Grundy, 2000: 119-120). Firstly by looking the presupposition *triggers*. The presupposition trigger is a construction triggers or item that signals the existence of a presupposition in an utterance (Levinson, 1983: 179). Furthermore he states

that there are thirteen kinds of presupposition triggers, they are: Definite descriptions, Factive verbs, Implicative verbs, Change of state verbs, Expressions of repetition, Expressions of temporal relations, Verbs of judging, Cleft sentences, Stressed constituents, Returned actions, Comparisons, Counterfactual conditions and Questions.

The second way of looking at presupposition is to think of them as ways of expressing shared or non-controversial knowledge. A proposition is a presupposition of a speaker when the speaker assumes or believes that presupposition is true or believe that his addressee recognizes that he is making these assumptions, or has these beliefs. In short, the proposition must be mutually known or assumed by the speaker and addressee for the utterance to be considered appropriate in context.

Related to the analysis of how speakers' assumptions are typically expressed, presupposition has been associated with the use of a large number of words, phrases, and structures (Yule, 1996: 27). These linguistic forms are considered as indicators of potential presupposition, which can only become actual presupposition in contexts with speakers.

Potential presupposition, according to Gazdar (1979: 124), is a presupposition that is triggered by some part of an utterance (such as a subordinate clause) taken in isolation, but that may or may not be a presupposition of the whole utterance. For example, the utterance *John says that the king of France is bald* has two potential presuppositions: There is someone identified as John and there is a king of France.

While an actual presupposition is any potential presupposition that is not cancelled by its context. For example, the utterance *John says that the king of France is bald* have two potential presuppositions: There is someone identified as John and there is a king of France. Of these two, only the presupposition that there is someone identified as *John* is an actual presupposition, because the second presupposition is reported.

In more detail, Yule (1996: 27-30) stated some types of potential presupposition-an assumptions typically associated with the use of linguistic form. They are: existential presupposition, factive presupposition, lexical presupposition, structural presupposition, non-factive presupposition, and counterfactual presupposition.

Existential presupposition is the assumption that someone or something, identified by the use of a noun phrase, does exist. Factive presupposition is the assumption that information stated after certain words, such as 'know', 'regret', is true. Lexical presupposition is the assumption that in using one word, the speaker can act as if another meaning (word) will be understood. Structural presupposition is the assumption that part of a structure contains information being treated as already known. Non-factive presupposition is the assumption that certain information, as presented, is not true. Counterfactual presupposition is the assumption that certain information is the opposite of true

Presupposition can be encountered in any context of communication including in advertisement as a means of communicating the advertiser's ideas toward audience. Presupposition is widely used in *advertising* since advertisers

cannot directly state that their products are of better quality than those of their competitors, but they possibly make indirect assertions via presupposition. The advertiser describes information in the form of printed text by using his experience, thought, and worldview in words. Meanwhile, the audience uses their thought and worldview to reconstruct and interpret the advertiser's words for catching the advertiser's intended messages.

Before audience understand the utterance of advertisement, they make an inference by drawing a conclusion as to what the utterance is intended to convey. After the inference is done by audience or hearers, they try to presuppose the utterance being displayed in the utterance and the addressee's knowledge of the world as the basis on which an inference is drawn as to the implied meaning.

Advertisement is one of human life activities that can be found in radio, television, magazines, newspaper and other sources. Advertisement as a tool of communication from the advertiser has many purposes; to introduce a new product, to sell goods, to familiarize consumers with product uses, to attract the customer, to introduce styles and customs, to get customers to enter a store and prepare the way for the salesman (Rowse and Nolan, 1957: 37).

Advertisement, especially goods advertisement, is selected as data source of this research for several reasons; *first*, advertisement is a form of written communication that develops at the same time with the advance of technology, whether in oral or written ways. The development of technology allows people to communicate with each other in many ways. *Second*, in linguistic study, advertisement in newspaper is included into transactional discourse since its stress

is on the expression of message from an advertiser to consumers. *Third*, the language of advertisement, which is compact and persuasive, is different from most of the other language used in every day life, i.e. the language is discrete.

To bring the purposes of advertisement into reality, advertisers need media; one of them is news paper. Newspaper is used as a means of communication in the form of written text between the writers and readers. Through the newspaper, people can get much information and news as soon as possible. Some types of newspaper published in Indonesia are Jawa Pos, Kompas, Media Indonesia, The Jakarta Post and many others.

The Jakarta Post is also used as the data source since the English daily newspaper is unique in the context of Indonesian press, not only in its goal, which is to improve the standard of English language in Indonesia, but also in producing a qualified mass medium within an Indonesian perspective. Besides, in 1994, it received the International newspaper marketing association-editor and publisher award, winning first place among newspapers with circulations under 50.000 copies daily in the category of public relations printed materials. Printed in phoenix, Arizon, May, 16, 1994, the award was accompanied by another certificate of merit for the same category (2006, [www. The Jakartapost.com](http://www.TheJakartapost.com)).

A study related with presupposition has been previously conducted by Evi Yusnia Maria Ulfa in her thesis entitled *Presupposition Used in John Grisham's Novel The Client* (2006). She analyzed the conversation of the novel and she found out that most characters who tried to interrogate their client use structural presupposition and they tended to gain the acceptance of the client over

proposition and obtained the needed information. They used presupposition to interrogate and led the client to the information needed by the interrogators.

Another writing related to presupposition is Sells and Gonzales' paper *The Language of Advertising (2002)*. Their focus was on printed advertising that take the important component of the overall message and used presupposition as the basic analytic concept. Here, they analyzed the advertisement in some products such as shampoo and computer brand. In the end of their paper, they summarize that presuppositions are crucial parts of advertising.

Unlike Yusnia's thesis which analyzes the use of presupposition in a novel and Sells and Gonzales' paper which is focused on the function of presupposition, this research, which entitles *A Study of the Presupposition of goods Advertisements in The Jakarta Post*, is mainly intended to discuss the presupposition used in goods advertisements of The Jakarta Post, a well-established English newspaper published in Indonesia.

1.2 Statement of the Problems

Based on the above background of the study, this research is intended to answer the following problems:

1. What are the presuppositions of goods advertisements in The Jakarta Post?
2. What are the types of presuppositions of goods advertisements in The Jakarta Post?

1.3 Objectives of the Study

In line with the previous statement of the problems, this research is mainly intended to identify the presuppositions of goods advertisements in The Jakarta Post and to find out the types of presuppositions of goods advertisements in The Jakarta Post.

1.4 Scope and Limitation

There are many kinds of advertising which are based on *who* does the advertising or *to whom* it is directed and sometimes is based on *the ultimate aim* or purpose of the advertising. One kind of advertising based on the ultimate aim or purpose is *consumer advertising*. Consumer advertising is the advertising that attempts to sell goods or services to the ultimate user. This study is focused on discussing the presupposition and its types of consumer advertisements by using Levinson and George Yule theory. Levinson theory is used to analyze the presupposition triggers and George Yule is used to analyze the type of presupposition.

In addition, consumer advertising is divided into two categories, i.e. *goods* and *service* advertisement. Goods advertisement offers a certain product, while service advertisement does a public service. This research is limited on the study of presupposition of the advertisements and their types in goods, not service, advertisement. Finally, it is important to be reemphasized that this research is intended to elaborate the presupposition of consumer advertisement which offers a certain product (goods).

The research is conducted on the selected written advertisement of goods advertisement found in The Jakarta Post during one month (1st to 31st March 2007) due to their most contemporary publishing.

Since this research is only focused on analyzing the presupposition of goods advertisement in a printed mass media, i.e. the Jakarta Post, the result of this study, therefore, cannot be entirely generalized into all kinds of advertisements in any mass media. Applying the result of this study *per se* to institutional or public welfare advertisements in television, for instance, is prone to misleading. Thus, an integral perspective upon presuppositions that are commonly used in almost any mass media requires more comprehensive researches than what is merely resulted from this study. Above all, the researcher still expects that this research, which has very limited object of the study, might give both valuable contribution to a wide range of the presupposition studies and stimulating inspiration to other researchers to conduct further research within the same area.

1.5 Significance of the Study

Based on the researcher's opinion, this research is significant to conduct due to the following considerations:

Theoretically, the result of this study is hoped to enrich the scientific knowledge on discourse studies, especially within the area of the use of presupposition in advertisements.

Practically, this research is significant to provide some information about presupposition for those who are interested in the study of presupposition. This

research is expected to be a reference and alternative information for other researchers in conducting the similar research. However, this research only gives a little contribution to the wide range of linguistic studies. So that, it needs to be followed and completed by other researchers who conduct the same subject or object of the study.

1.6 Definition of the Key Terms

Presupposition is something the speaker assumes to be the case prior to making an utterance.

Advertising is any paid for message that seeks to motivate someone. It is a paid message that seeks to make someone to buy a product, use a service, or embrace an idea.

Goods advertisement is a kind of consumer advertising which is intended to offer a certain product, while service advertisement does a public service.

Constancy under negation is the quality of the presupposition of a statement remaining true when the statement is negated.

Projection problem is the meaning of some of presuppositions (as 'parts') doesn't survive to become the meaning of some complex sentences (as 'whole').

Presupposition trigger is a construction or item that signals the existence of a presupposition in an utterance.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

In this section, some concepts used in this research are presented, i.e. the concept of presupposition and advertisement. The former covers the concept of presupposition, presupposition triggers, the types of presupposition, and the projection problem, while the later includes the language of advertisement, and kinds and functions of advertisement.

2.1 Presupposition

2.1.1 The Concept of Presupposition

Presupposition is something the speaker assumes to be the case prior to making an utterance (Yule, 1996: 25). The term ‘presupposition’ originated in the philosophy of logic, where it is used to denote a special type of implicit information. Information which is explicitly stated is referred to as a ‘claim’ or an ‘assertion’. The term ‘presupposition’ is reserved for a proposition which must be true for the sentence in question to have a truth value, that is to say, for the sentence to be true or false (Renkema, 1993:154).

Levinson (1983, 169-172) says that the concept of presupposition in pragmatics originates with debates in philosophy, specifically debates about the nature of reference and referring expressions. Such problems lie at the heart of logical theory and arise from consideration of how referring expressions in natural language should be translated into the restricted logical languages.

The first philosopher in recent times to wrestle with such problems was Frege, the architect of modern logic. In elliptical discussion that allows

considerable freedom of interpretation, he raised many of the issues that were later to become central to discussions of presupposition, such as:

If anything is asserted there is always an obvious presupposition that the simple or compound proper names used have a reference. If one therefore asserts 'Kepler died in misery, there is a presupposition that the name, Kepler' designates something. (Frege, as quoted by Levinson, 1983: 169)

Frege, then, sketches a theory of presupposition with the following propositions:

- a) Referring phrases and temporal clauses (for example) carry presuppositions to the effect that they do in fact refer
- b) A sentence and its negative counterpart share the same set of presupposition
- c) In order for an assertion (as he put in the Kepler case) or a sentence to be either true or false, its presuppositions must be true or satisfied.

As is clear from (c) held more than one view of presupposition - sometimes he speaks of uses of sentences (assertions) as having presuppositions, sometimes of sentences themselves as having presuppositions. Later these distinctions came to have importance. But it is clear that there are in embryo the parameters that have guided much of the subsequent discussion of presupposition.

One of the most well-known sentences in presupposition research, according to Renkema (1993: 157), was originally used in article published at the beginning of this century by the philosopher Bertrand Russell. The sentence reads as follows.

(1) The king of France is bald

This sentence has the following existential presupposition, that is, a presupposition which can be derived from a proper name or a nominal constituent containing a definite article

(1a) There is one and only one king of France

Following the definition, there is an opposite claim with the same presupposition.

(2) The king of France is not bald.

In the case of (2), the same presupposition,(1a), is presumed to be true.

These sentences pose a difficult problem for philosophers and logicians. If it is assumed that either a claim or its negation is true (so either (1) or (2) must be true) and if it is also assumed that (1a) can be derived from (1) or (2); then a presupposition can be deduced which is logical but untrue: France is after all republic.

Although Russell suggested a way of getting around this problem, the solution remained unsatisfactory. Russell's analysis remained largely unchallenged until Strawson (1950) proposed a quite different approach. He provided a pragmatic analysis, the gist of which is the following: sentences can only be true or false if their presuppositions are met (i.e., are true). Only in the situation before the France revolution was (a) true; thereafter it was no longer true. So, only before the French Revolution were the presupposition of either (1) or (2) met and could they have a truth value (be either true or false).

The debate between Russell and Strawson played an important role in launching the research into presupposition. In addition, Levinson (1983: 173) states that by the time linguists became interested in the concept of presupposition

(mostly after about 1969), a set of important distinctions and alternative approaches were thus well-established in the philosophical literature.

Like Givon, as quoted by Brown and Yule (1983, 29), proposes that presupposition is the assumption of the speaker made about what the hearer is likely to accept without challenge. He also states that presuppositions are what is taken by the speaker to be the common ground of participants in the conversation. Thus presuppositions are simply about implicit assumption that accompanies utterances (Fromkin, 1999: 194). The presuppositions of an utterance are facts whose truth is required in order that the utterance be appropriate. For example,

(3) Have you stopped hugging your sheepdog?

This sentence is inappropriate if the person addressed has never hugged his/her sheepdog. In this sentence the speaker is said to presuppose or assume the truth of the fact that the listener has, at some time, hugged his/her sheepdog.

Presuppositions can be used to communicate information indirectly. If someone says '*My brother is rich*' people would assume that the person has a brother, even though that fact is not explicitly stated. Much of the information that is exchanged in a conversation or discourse is of this kind.

Moreover, Grundy (2000: 119) asserts that presupposition is about the existing knowledge common to speaker and hearer that the speaker does not, therefore, need to assert. This presupposed knowledge is then taken together with the presuppositions asserted in the utterance and the addressee's knowledge of the world as the basis on which an inference is drawn to the implied meaning, or implicature, that the utterance conveys. It means that to understand the utterance

conveys the addressee and the speaker must have background or share knowledge or information.

In addition Yule (1985: 100) says that when a speaker uses a deictic expression like *here*, in normal circumstances, she is working with an assumption that the hearer knows which location is intended. In more general way, speakers continually design their linguistic messages on the basis of assumptions about what their hearers already know. These assumptions may be mistaken, of course, but they underlie much of what people say in everyday use of language. What a speaker assumes is true or is known by the hearer, which can be described as presupposition.

If someone says '*Your brother is waiting outside for you*', there is an obvious presupposition that you have a brother. If someone is asked '*Why did you arrive late?*' there is a presupposition that he/she did arrive late. And if you are asked the following question, there are at least two presuppositions involved: '*When did you stop smoking cigars?*' In asking these questions, the speaker presupposes that you used to smoke cigars and that you no longer do so.

The above questions, with built-in presuppositions, are very useful devices for interrogators or trial lawyers. But it is different from the statement of Fromkin (1999: 190) in which he says that the use language in a courtroom is restricted so that presuppositions cannot influence the court or jury. The famous type of question, '*Have you stopped beating your wife?*', is disallowed in court, because accepting the validity of the question means accepting its presuppositions. The question itself imparts information in a way that is difficult to cross-examine

or even be consciously aware of. Presuppositions are so much a part of natural discourse that they become second nature and people don't think of them, any more that they are directly aware of the many other rules and maxims that govern language and its use in context.

Moreover, Stalnaker as quoted by Cummings (2005: 34) says that presupposition is a propositional attitude, not a semantic relation. People, rather than sentences or propositions, are said to have, or make, presupposition in this sense. In line with Stalnaker, Stubbs (1983: 215) says that presupposition is defined as a proposition which remains constant under negation and interrogation.

Yule (1996, 26-27) says that in many discussions of the concept, presupposition is treated as a relationship between two propositions. If someone says that the sentence in [4a.] contains the proposition p and the sentence in [4b.] contains the proposition q , then, using the symbol \gg to mean 'presupposes', the relationship is represented as in [4c.].

- [4] a. Mary's dog is cute. (= p)
b. Mary has dog. (= q)
c. $p \gg q$

Interestingly, when producing the opposite of the sentence in [4a.] by negating it (= NOT p), as in [5a.], people commonly find that the relationship of presupposition doesn't change. That is, the same proposition q , repeated in [5b], continues to be presupposed by NOT p , as shown in [5c.].

- [5] a. Mary's dog isn't cute. (= p)

b. Mary has dog. (= q)

c. NOT $p \gg q$

This property of presupposition is generally described as constancy under negation. Basically, it means that the presupposition of a statement will remain constant (i.e. still true) even when that statement is negated.

In addition Renkema (1993, 154-155) says that a presupposition is the only type of information that is unaffected by denying the original sentence. Look at the following examples:

(6) John is (not) opening the window.

(6a) The window is closed.

(7) Democracy must (not) be restored in Surinam.

(7a) Surinam was once a democracy.

The a-sentence given here are presuppositions because they are also true if (6) and (7) are denied. Of course, the whole sentence has to be denied and not just one or more constituents, for its presuppositions to be maintained. Note that a negative sentence can be denied; the result is a positive sentence.

A presupposition is thus the implicit information which must be true for the sentence to be either true or false and which is not affected by a negation. The implicit information can be derived from the meaning of the words. In (6), use of the verb “to open” suggests the window is now closed, and in (7), the word “restored” can lead to the conclusion that one point or another there was a democracy in Surinam.

Furthermore Yule (1985: 100) says that one of the tests to check for the presuppositions underlying sentences involves negating a sentence with a particular presupposition, or borrowing Stubb's term (1983: 216) "constancy under negation", and considering whether the presupposition remains true. Take the sentence *My car is wreck*. Now take the negative version of this sentence: *My car is not wreck*. Notice that, although these two sentences have opposite meanings, the underlying presupposition, *I have a car*, remains true in both.

Cummings (2005: 31) says that another way of how to test the presence of a presupposition is by a substitution test. A presupposition is tied to a particular lexical item if the inferences that are generated by that item are not subsequently generated item by substituted item. For example, the sentences on the right are a presupposition of the sentences on the left:

She managed to speak	She tried to speak
She didn't manage to speak	She tried to speak.

However, if 'tried' is substituted for 'managed', only the first inference above is presented:

She <i>tried</i> to speak	She tried to speak.
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But this now an entailment, as can be seen from the fact that 'She tried to speak' cannot be inferred from 'She didn't *try* to speak'. The presupposition in this case is tied to the verb 'manage'. Using this substitution test, linguists have been able to identify a number of linguistic expressions that are capable of triggering presuppositions.

2.1.2 Presupposition Triggers

Grundy (2000: 119-120) says that there are two ways of how to spot the existence of presupposition. The First way is by looking the presupposition *triggers*, i.e. a construction trigger or item that signals the existence of a presupposition in an utterance (Levinson, 1983: 179). Furthermore, Levinson lists a number of thirteen such triggers (1983: 181-184), they are:

1. Definite descriptions

In *John saw/didn't see the man with two heads*, the definite description *the man with two heads* triggers the presupposition "There exists a man with two heads." (The unbelievably of the presupposition is what makes the positive utterance unbelievable and the negative one odd).

2. Factive verbs

In *John realized/didn't realize that he was in debt*, both *realize* and *didn't realize that* trigger the presupposition "John was in debt."

Other factives are

- a. *(it) be odd that*
- b. *be sorry/proud/indifferent/glad/sad that*
- c. *know that*, and
- d. *regret that*

3. Implicative verbs

In *John managed/didn't manage to open the door*, both *managed/didn't manage to* trigger the presupposition "tried to," as in "John tried to open the door."

Other implicative verbs are

- a. *avoided (X-ing), which presupposes "was expected to"*
- b. *forgot to, which presupposes "ought to have"*
- c. *happened to, which presupposes "didn't plan/intend to," and*
- d. *intended to.*

4. Change of state verbs

In *Kissinger continued/didn't continue to rule the world*, both *continued/didn't continue to* trigger the presupposition "had been," as in "Kissinger had been ruling the world."

Other changes of state verbs are

- a. arrive
- b. begin
- c. come
- d. enter
- e. go
- f. leave
- g. stop, and
- h. take (X from Y), which presupposes "X was at/in/with Y."

5. Expressions of repetition

In *Carter returned/didn't return to power*, both *returned/didn't return* trigger the presupposition "Carter held power before."

Other such expressions are

- a. *again*
- b. *another time*
- c. *anymore*
- d. *come back*
- e. *repeat, and*
- f. *restore.*

6. Verb of judging

This kind of implication is, arguably, not really presuppositional at all; for, unlike other presuppositions, the implications are not attributed to the speaker, so much as to the subject of the verb of judging. For example, Agatha accused/ didn't accused Ian of plagiarism, presupposes that (Agatha thinks) plagiarism is bad. Another example is Ian criticized/ didn't criticize Agatha for running away, presupposes that (Ian thinks) Agatha ran away.

7. Expressions of temporal relations

In *while Chomsky was revolutionizing linguistics, the rest of social science was/wasn't asleep*, the clause introduced by *while* triggers the presupposition "Chomsky was revolutionizing linguistics."

Other such conjunctions triggering presuppositions are

- a. *after*
- b. *as*
- c. *before*
- d. *during*

e. *since, and*

f. *whenever*

8. Cleft sentences

- a. In *It was/wasn't Henry that kissed Rosie*, the cleft structure triggers the presupposition "*someone kissed Rosie.*"
- b. The pseudo cleft structure in *What John lost was his wallet* triggers the presupposition "*John lost something.*"

9. Stressed constituents

In *John did/didn't compete in the OLYMPICS*, the stressed constituent triggers the presupposition "*John did compete somewhere.*"

10. Returned actions

In *Adolph called Marianne a Valkyrie, and she complimented him back/in return, too*, both *back/in return, too* trigger the presupposition "to call Marianne a Valkyrie is to compliment her."

11. Comparisons

In *Carol is/isn't a better linguist than Barbara*, the comparison triggers the presupposition "Barbara is a linguist."

12. Counterfactual conditions

In *if the notice had only said 'mine-field' in English as well as Welsh, we would/would never have lost poor Llewellyn*, the form of the condition triggers the presupposition "The notice didn't say mine-field in English."

13. Questions

- a. Questions presenting alternatives tend to trigger a presupposition of the truth of one of the alternatives. The utterance *is Newcastle in England or in Australia?* triggers the presupposition "Newcastle is either in England or in Australia."
- b. Questions containing interrogative pro-forms tend to trigger a corresponding presupposition containing an indefinite pro-form. The utterance *who is the professor of linguistics at MIT?* triggers the presupposition "someone is the professor of linguistics at MIT."

The above list contains perhaps the core of phenomena that are generally considered presuppositional. However it is important to bear in mind that any such list is crucially dependent on one's definition of presupposition (Levinson, 1987: 181-184).

Second way of looking at presupposition is to think of them as ways of expressing shared or non-controversial knowledge. Barbara's quotation as Stalnaker makes this clearer that a proposition is a presupposition of a speaker when the speaker assumes or believes that presupposition is true or believe that his addressee recognizes that he is making these assumptions, or has these beliefs.

The person to whom the speaker was speaking when he uttered, '*John is (not) opening the window*, knew or was prepared to accept as non-controversial that the window is closed. In this respect, presupposition can be compared to and contrasted with the use of deictic. In both cases, the speaker intends to refer or denote. But whereas in the case of deixis, it is necessary to identify a

demonstratum in order to effect reference, in the case of presupposition the listener is content to take the existence of the referent on trust.

Cumming (2005:34) states that to explain the presupposition phenomena, notions like speaker, hearer, context, belief, mutual knowledge, and appropriate use are needed to describe. The notions enable presuppositions to be characterized for the first time as a mutual belief state between speakers rather than as a semantic relation between sentences. Grundy gives an example of the sentence “*Tell Madonna I’m at lunch.*”

There would not be much point in saying *Tell Madonna I’m at lunch* unless the speaker was expecting a visit from Madonna, knew that addressee was going to be in when she arrived, expected Madonna to appear soon, and assumed that the addressee knew that she looked like and was willing to pass the message on to her. Unless these conditions are met, there is something wrong with saying it. Thus, when someone says *Tell Madonna I’m at lunch*, they presuppose that the addressee is going to be in when Madonna arrives, that Madonna will appear soon, and the addressee knows who she is and will pass the message on.

It is very convenient that someone can rely on presupposition otherwise he would have to speak in a much more elaborate way. Instead of saying that, he would have to say something like this “I know you’ll be in and I’m expecting Madonna soon and since I know that you know what she looks like and I know that you are willing to pass on the message that I am at lunch, please tell her that I’m at lunch” (Grundy, 2000: 121)

2.1.3 Types of Presupposition

In the analysis of how speaker's assumptions are typically expressed, presupposition has been associated with the use of a large number of words, phrase, and structures. These linguistic forms should be considered as indicators of potential presupposition, which can only become actual presupposition in contexts with speakers (Yule, 1996: 27). It means that presupposition can be divided into an actual presupposition and a potential presupposition.

Gazdar (1979: 124) defines that potential presupposition is a presupposition that is triggered by some part of an utterance (such as a subordinate clause) taken in isolation, but that may or may not be a presupposition of the whole utterance. For example, the utterance *John says that the king of France is bald* has two potential presuppositions: There is someone identified as John. And there is a king of France.

While an actual presupposition is any potential presupposition that is not cancelled by its context. For example, the utterance *John says that the king of France is bald* has two potential presuppositions: There is someone identified as John. And there is a king of France. Of these two, only the presupposition that there is someone identified as *John* is an actual presupposition, because the second presupposition is reported.

In more detail, Yule (1996: 27-30) stated some types of potential presupposition-an assumptions typically associated with use of linguistic form.

They are:

1. *Existential Presupposition*

It is an assumption that someone or something, identified by the use of a noun phrase, does exist. This is not only assumed to be present in possessive constructions (for example, your car >> You have a car), but more generally in any definite noun phrase.

2. *Factive Presupposition*

It is an assumption that information stated after certain words e.g. 'know', 'regret', is true. Those words are also called as factive verbs.

(a) We regret telling him (>> we told him)

Other factive verbs are; (it) be odd that, be sorry/proud/indifferent/glad/sad that, realize that, be aware that.

3. *Lexical Presupposition*

It is an assumption that, in using one word, the speaker can act as if another meaning (word) will be understood.

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. When someone said that he 'managed' to do something, the asserted meaning is that the person succeeded in some way. When someone said that he 'did not manage', the asserted meaning is that the person did not succeed. In both cases, however, there is a presupposition (non-asserted) that the person 'tried' to do that something. So 'managed' is conventionally interpreted as asserting 'succeeded' and presupposing 'tried'.

The word such as managed which presupposes 'tried to' is one example of implicative verbs (Grundy, 2000:122). Other implicative verbs are 'avoid' which presupposes 'was expected to', 'forget to' which presupposes 'ought to have', 'happened to' which presupposes 'didn't plan/intend to', and intended to.

Change of state verbs (Grundy, 2000:123) also trigger this lexical presupposition such as 'continued' which presupposes 'had been'.

(b) Kissinger continued to rule the world (>>Kissinger had been ruling the world).

Other change of state verbs are arrive, begin, come, enter, go, leave, stop, and take (X from Y) which presupposes 'X was at/in/with Y'.

There are some expressions of repetition which trigger the presuppositions such as 'return'

(c) Carter returned to power (>> Carter held power before).

Other expressions of repetition are again, another time, anymore, come back, repeat, and restore.

4. *Structural Presupposition*

It is an assumption that part of a structure contains information being treated as already known. In this case, certain sentence structures have been analyzed as conventionally and regularly presupposing that part of the structure is already assumed to be true. Speakers can use such structure to treat information as presupposed (i.e. assumed to be true) and hence to be accepted as true by the listener., for example wh-question construction in English.

(d) When did he leave? (>>He left)

Someone can also derive the structural presupposition from the expressions of temporal relations

(e) While Chomsky was revolutionizing linguistics, the rest of social science was asleep (>> Chomsky was revolutionizing linguistics).

Other such conjunctions triggering presupposition are after, as, before, during, since, and whenever.

5. *Non-factive Presupposition*

It is an assumption that certain information, as presented, is not true.

(f) I dreamed that I was rich (>>I was not rich).

Other verbs which trigger non-factive presupposition are imagine and pretend.

6. *Counter-factual Presupposition*

It is an assumption that certain information is the opposite of true. In this case, what is presupposed is not only not true, but is the opposite of what is true, or 'contrary to facts'.

(g) If you were my friend, you would have helped me (>>you are not my friend).

A conditional structure of the type shown in (g), generally called a counter-factual conditional, presupposes that the information in the if-clause is not true at the time of utterance.

2.1.4 Projection Problem

According to Yule (1996: 30) there is a basic expectation that the presupposition of a simple sentence will continue to be true when that simple sentence becomes part of a more complex sentence. This is one version of the general idea that the meaning of the whole sentence is a combination of the meaning of its part. However, the meaning of some of presuppositions (as 'parts') doesn't survive to become the meaning of some complex sentences (as 'whole'). This is known as the projection problem.

One of the most well-known sentences in presupposition research, according to Renkema (1993: 157), was originally used in article published at the beginning of this century by the philosopher Bertrand Russell. The sentence reads as follows.

(8) The king of France is bald

This sentence has the following existential presupposition, that is, a presupposition which can be derived from a proper name or a nominal constituent containing a definite article

(8a) There is one and only one king of France

Following the definition, there is an opposite claim with the same presupposition.

(9) The king of France is not bald.

In the case of (9), the same presupposition, (8a), is presumed to be true. These sentences pose a difficult problem for philosophers and logicians. If it is assumed that either a claim or its negation is true (so either (8) or (9) must be true) and if it is also assumed that (8a) can be derived from (8) or (9); then a

presupposition can be deduced which is logical but untrue: France is after all republic.

A half century later, the issue became a topic in presupposition research. In 1950 the philosopher Peter Strawson provided a pragmatic analysis, the gist of which is the following sentences can only be true or false if their presuppositions are met. (i.e. are true). Only in the situation before the French Revolution was (8a) true; thereafter it was no longer true. So, only before the French Revolution were the presuppositions of either (8) or (9) met and could they have a truth value (be either true or false).

Levinson (1983: 191-194) says that there are two sides to the projection problem. In one side, presuppositions survive in linguistic contexts where entailments cannot (i.e. the presupposition of component sentences are inherited by the whole complex sentence where the entailments of those components would not be). In other side, presuppositions disappear in other contexts where one might expect them to survive, and where entailments would. For example where the presupposition survives where the entailments do not is, of course, under negation.

(10) The chief constable arrested three men

(11) There is a chief constable

(12) The chief constable arrested two men

If (10) is negated, as in (13), the entailment (12) does not survive; but the presupposition (11) does; this being of course the initial observation from which presuppositional theories sprang.

(13) The chief constable didn't arrest three men

The second side of the projection problem, namely the way in which presuppositions of lower clauses sometimes fail to be inherited by the whole complex sentence. In other words, presuppositions are sometimes defensible by virtue of intra-sentential context. In an episode of a TV soap opera, for instance, two characters have the dialog in (14). (Yule, 1996: 31)

(14) Shirley: it's so bad. George regrets getting Mary pregnant.

Jean : But he didn't get her pregnant. We know that now.

If two of the utterances from (14) are combined, the sequence is, 'George regrets getting Mary pregnant; but he didn't get her pregnant'. Identifying the different proposition involved, as in (15), it can be seen that the presupposition q in (15b.) does not survive as a presupposition of the combined sentences (15e.)

(15) a. George regrets getting Mary pregnant. (= p)

b. George got Mary pregnant. (= q)

c. $p \gg q$

d. He didn't get her pregnant. (= r)

e. George regrets getting Mary pregnant,
but he didn't get her pregnant (= $p \& r$)

f. $p \& r \gg \text{NOT } q$

One way to think about the whole sentence presented in (15e.) is as an utterance by a person reporting what happened in the soap opera that day. That person will not assume the presupposition q (i.e. that George got Mary pregnant) is true when uttering (15e.)

A simple explanation for the fact presuppositions don't 'project' is that they are destroyed by entailments. Entailment is something that necessarily follows from what is asserted. In example (14), Jean's utterance of 'he didn't get her pregnant' actually entails 'George didn't get Mary pregnant' as a logical consequence. The entailment is simply more powerful than the presupposition.

According to Karttunen (in Watanabe, 1999), the predicates under which presupposition triggers are embedded play a crucial role in determining the projectability of presupposition embedded in them:

a. *Plugs*

It is predicates which block off all the presuppositions of the complement sentence. These predicates do not trigger any presupposition (examples: say, mention, tell, and ask)

b. *Holes*

It is predicates which let all the presuppositions of the complement sentence become presuppositions of the matrix sentence. On the contrary of plugs, these predicates trigger presupposition (examples: know, regret, understand, be possible, not).

c. *Filters*

It is predicates which, under certain conditions, cancel some of the presupposition of the arguments (examples: if-then, either, or, and).

2.2 Advertisement

Advertising is a tool for selling ideas, goods, or services to a group. It employs paid space or time or uses a vehicle to carry its message which does not

disguise or hide the identity of advertiser or his relationship to the sales effort (Gaw, 1961:9).

According to Weilbacher (1984: 8) advertising is a marketing tool that helps sell brands of products and helps to build confidence in companies and institution by conveying accurate information to consumers about the brand or company and institution. Furthermore, Whittier, Charles. L, (1955: 48) defined that advertising is any paid for message that seeks to motivate someone. It is a paid message that seeks to make someone to buy a product, use a service, or embrace and idea.

Advertising as a communication, creates the minds of consumers to believe or to use the products or services. As a matter of fact, advertising is to communicate between an advertisement and consumer or purchaser. The message will be successful, if a communication is made represents a product or service.

The language of advertisement

The language of advertisement is different from most of the other language used in every day life. The good creator of advertising knows how to write his message in words that most people will understand and like. There is more to this than simply being able to write in vivid words and in short “punchy” sentence. The good copy writer uses accessible language, but he uses language that is colorful and likeable. Language that neatly catches a contemporary meaning and that reflects that point in its evolution that most of its audience will understand at once and thoroughly enjoy (Weilbacker, 1984: 193).

In addition Rowse & Nolan (1957: 132) says that advertising is more effective if the choice of words is specific rather than general; concrete rather than abstract; original rather than hackneyed; figurative rather than literal. Therefore,

the copy should be written in clear and simple language. Technical terms, long words, and involved sentences should be avoided. Any construction that requires study or time for comprehension should not be used. This is in order to avoid inefficiency that will result in the failure of advertisements.

The writer should select just those words or clearly related points that will convey the main idea to readers. To do this, the writer should use short sentences, instead of long sentences, that will lead emphasis because short sentences suggest speed, emphasize important words, and are easy to read and seem to give space to the idea. Short sentences may not seem dignified, but they make a popular appeal. At the beginning and at the end of an advertisement, the short sentence is particularly effective.

Kinds of advertisement

According to Gaw (1961: 9-17) there are many kinds of advertisement which are based on who does the advertising or to whom it is directed and sometimes on the ultimate aim or purpose of the advertising.

1) Classified advertising

An individual may place a notice in a newspaper stating that some article of personal property has been lost or found, that he has a used automobile for sale, or that he is seeking a job. In like manner, business firms may advertise employment opportunities that are available in their offices or factories. Such advertising is called classified and appears in special section of newspapers and, to a lesser extent, in some magazine.

2) Classified- display advertising

All advertisements of a given kind are grouped together under an appropriate designating-head or classification. The individual advertisements are relatively small and lack illustrations. Some similar advertisements, placed under classifying heads, carry illustrations and used display type. They called classified-display advertising.

3) *Display advertising*

Advertising which is not placed within classified sections of media and which usually, but not necessarily, is illustrated and placed by business firms is called display advertising such display advertising may be national advertising, or it may be retail or local advertising. The former usually is done by or for manufacturer, while the latter is placed by a retail merchant.

However, the term national advertising is used in more than one sense. It may be employed to distinguish advertising appearing in nationally distributed media-like the big national magazines-from advertising placed in media having more restricted circulation-like metropolitan newspapers. Or still again, it maybe used in connection with the advertising of brand-name product capable of national distribution but not enjoying it currently.

4) *Industrial advertising*

A manufacturer may advertise to other manufacturers, to producers of raw materials, to wholesalers and retailers, or to physicians, dentists, and other professional people, or to schools and colleges as well as to the ultimate consumer. Or he may advertise to such firms or people rather than to

ultimate consumers. In either case his advertising activity outside of the ultimate-consumer-market gives rise to still further classifications of advertising. If his advertising is directed to other manufacturers it is called industrial advertising.

5) *Trade advertising*

If advertising is directed to wholesalers or retailers it is called trade advertising.

6) *Professional advertising*

If advertising is directed to professional people or professional institutions, like schools or hospitals it is called professional advertising.

7) *Consumer advertising*

Advertising that attempts to sell goods or services to the ultimate user is called consumer advertising. Goods advertising is advertising which is intended to offer a certain product, while service advertisement does a public service

8) *Institutional advertising*

Advertising to the ultimate consumer may not have as its goal the immediate sale of goods or services. Rather, it may be designed to increase the prestige of the firm, build customer goodwill, or keep a trademark or brand name before the public. Such advertising is called institutional or public relations advertising. Sometimes the purpose of such advertising is not to sale goods at all, but to win public support for some cause- as in the case of a labor-management dispute or government antitrust action. Sometimes institutional advertising is used to change an incorrect impression that the public has of a business firm or of its product. At other times it may be employed to build a

favorable corporate which will help the advertiser in any or all of his relationships with the public or with any segment of the public in which he may have a special interest.

9) *Public welfare advertising*

Some advertising is created and is placed in media in the interest of public welfare. Examples are found in the many campaigns run through the Advertising Council. Smokey, the bear who works so hard to save our forests from the hazards of fire, is a familiar character across the nation. So well-known was the Advertising Council's safety slogan, "these life you save may be your own", that appeared in such varied forms of paraphrasing as "Drive carefully, the life you save may vote Republican." Public welfare advertising has worked for the benefit of the general public in peace time and in war, and undoubtedly has saved the nation many lives and much money.

Another important factor need to discuss in relation to advertising is classified advertising, especially vacancy advertisement. This includes business firms which advertise employment opportunities that are available in their companies. So that people who are looking for a job can understand the companies, services, and the benefits to join a certain institution advertised.

Functions of advertisement

Advertisings as stated by Gaw (1961: 21) have several functions as follows:

1. As a tool of selling. Advertising is a tool of selling. Its primary function is that of salesman. But informing that function fully, advertising is also an

instrument of edition of molders of public opinion, and a building of public relation.

2. As education. Advertising as educator, speeds the adoption of the new and refined products and, in so doing, accelerates technological advances in industry and hastens the realization of a better life for all. It helps reduce accidents and waste of natural resources, and contribute to building a better understanding on appreciation of ideology.
3. As a molder of ideology. Advertising as a molder of opinion sells goods, but in addition it helps win election, builds faith in democratic way of life, and become the keystone of a free competitive economy.
4. As goodwill. Goodwill has been recognized as very valuable asset and a tremendous aid to sale. A good product at a fair price is important, but so too are the many human relationship which build up to make the corner store or the billion dollar corporation well-thought of or disliked. Consumer relations, labor relations, stock holder relations, and trade relations, are important in many different phases of operation of a business, but every one of them helps or hinders in the making of sales.

2.3 Previous Studies

2.3.1 *The Language of Advertising* (Sells and Gonzales, 2002)

Sells and Gonzales conducted a research over language of advertising in 2002 and wrote their research within “The Language of Advertising”. Their focus

was on print advertising that take the important component of the overall message and used presupposition as the basic analytic concept.

Some advertisements they analyzed were taken from Jane and Glamour magazine and the Apple Computer.

a. Herbal Essences (Jane, August 2002)

“We can’t keep something this juicy a secret”

This sentence presupposes that there is something that is “this juicy”, and then makes an assertion about that thing. One important function of the presupposition here is to promote a kind of ideology within advertising. In this case, the idea that “juiciness” is somehow related to shampoo and hair. Most product ranges have some cultural values imposed on them in this way, and advertising is the main mechanism for achieving this.

b. Riders (Glamour, August 2002)

“Jeans should flatter the leg line Accentuate the curves. Increase the compliment.”

This presupposes that there are leg lines, curves, and compliments, and thereby implicates that these things are related. “Can we find a jeans ad about ruggedness instead?”

c. Apple Computer

“I used to think it was my fault that windows didn’t work properly.”

The words do not directly assert that windows does not work properly, but they presuppose this. And given the negation test, that text had been “It wasn’t my fault that windows didn’t work properly,” the presupposition would still be there.

In the end, they summarize, that presuppositions are crucial part of advertising.

2.3.2 *Presupposition Used in John Grisham's Novel "the Client" (Ulfa, 2007)*

Ulfa analyzed the conversation of the novel and she found out that the most of the characters who tried to interrogate their client use structural presupposition and they tended it to gain the acceptance of the client over proposition presupposed and obtain the information needed. They used presupposition, as the economical principle of Grundy, and also functions as a mean to interrogate and lead the client to the information which is needed by the interrogators.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHOD

This chapter covers the following topics: research design, research data, data sources, research instrument, data collection, and data analysis

3.1 Research Design

To answer the formulated problems, the descriptive-qualitative was used as the method design of this research. This research is classified as a descriptive-qualitative method since the data are in the form of words or utterances rather than numbers. In this case, the data were derived from the words of advertisements in The Jakarta Post. The data were described descriptively based on presupposition theory using discourse analysis approach

3.2 Research Data

The data of this research were the texts of goods advertisement published in The Jakarta Post from 1st to 31st March 2007. Goods advertisements were chosen because they have very attractive colorful pictures or anything which could attract the reader's attention directly to buy the products. The language used in product advertisement is so simple that it suggests speed, emphasizes important words, and is easy to read and seems to give space to the idea. The utterances or words in such advertisements were classified and further analyzed using theory of presupposition.

3.3 Data Source

Since there are several kinds of advertisements that can be found in The Jakarta Post, the data of this research were taken from consumer advertisement which is classified as goods advertisement. The advertisements of The Jakarta Post that were analyzed were those issued in March 2007 because they were the most up to date publication and the language was usually simple but compact.

3.4 Research Instrument

The instrument used in conducting this research was human instrument, i.e. the researcher himself since there was no other instrument or person but the researcher that was possible to collect and analyze the data in accordance with the types of presupposition devices.

3.5 Data Collection

The data of this research were taken from words or utterances in goods advertisement of The Jakarta Post published in March 2007. The procedures of data collecting were as follows: *First*, collecting The Jakarta Post newspaper published from 1st to 31st of March 2007. *Second*, reading carefully and understanding deeply The Jakarta Post advertisements. *Third*, classifying goods and service advertisements. *Fourth*, taking goods advertisement as the data source and the last, choosing ten of the advertisements which represented the whole one-month advertisements. The selection process was based on the product variety offered by the advertisements.

3.6 Data analysis

The data analysis was handled in several steps. The steps of analyzing were organized as follows: *First*, the researcher identified the presupposition in the utterance of goods advertisement in The Jakarta Post based on the common ground and its triggers. Then, the researcher tried to confirm the presupposition identified.

To confirm the presupposition, the researcher tested its nature that was constancy under negation. To accomplish this confirmation, firstly the utterance was negated. When the former presupposition was maintained, the presupposition thus was confirmed. But when it failed, it then would not be included into presupposition. After that, the researcher found out the type of presupposition based on the characteristics indicated. Finally, the researcher made some conclusions of the discussion

CHAPTER IV

FINDING AND DISCUSSION

This chapter will present the data that have been collected and discuss them based on the theory of presupposition. The data are taken from The Jakarta Post published from 1st to 31st of March 2007. The number of the analyzed data is 10. The researcher chose these data because they represent the whole one-month of goods advertisement.

4.1 Finding

4.1.1 Advertisement 1: *The highest in Asia, on every count that matters.*

(The Jakarta Post, Saturday, 24th March 2007)

The advertisement is about the beverage products of Ultramilk and Buavita. Ultramilk and Buavita are very well-known in Asia for their high quality. These two products are mostly consumed by Asians. The good quality of the products is truly proven after they have won superbrand of Asia Platinum Awards. In the people's mind, these products are popular for their well-qualified beverage products.

When people read the advertisement which mentions "*the highest in Asia, on every count that matters,*" the readers understand that 'the highest' refers to Ultramilk and Buavita. The readers understand it because the advertisers and readers share knowledge, the evidence is the two big pictures of Buavita and Ultramilk in the advertisement, the statement '*the highest in Asia, on every count that matters*' can easily stimulate the readers' understanding that it refers to both

product and also the brief description of the product can catch the people's mind in understanding both product.

The noun phrase 'the highest' presupposes that *there is something in the highest position*. This presupposition is triggered by the definite article 'the' in the noun phrase 'the highest'. When the sentence is negated as (*Ultramilk and Buavita are not the highest (product) in Asia*), the presupposition that *there is something in the highest position* is still maintained since whether (Ultramilk and Buavita are) the highest in Asia or not, the true basic assumption is still true that the thing in the highest position really exists. Thus, the presupposition is constant under the negation. Since the trigger of presupposition is the definite noun phrase and it presupposes the existence of something, it can be included into existential presupposition.

This noun phrase 'the highest' also presupposes that *others except Ultramilk and Buavita are lower than these two products*. This presupposition is triggered with the superlative 'highest'. When the sentence is negated as above, the presupposition is still true since Ultramilk and Buavita don't become the focus of the negation. So, whether (Ultramilk and Buavita are) the highest in Asia or not, the fact that others are lower than Ultramilk and Buavita is true. Because the trigger of the presupposition is in the form of superlative degree and other meaning is already understood, it is, therefore, included into lexical presupposition.

The last presupposition is taken from the noun phrase 'that matters'. The super brands council selects the very best Asian brands by using some criteria.

They are market dominance, longevity, goodwill, consumer loyalty, overall market acceptance. Here, anybody knows that 'that matters' refers to these criteria. And from the advertisement above, it can be interpreted that the brand Ultramilk and Buavita fulfill the above criteria. Eventually, people accept that there exist some requirements (matters) to be fulfilled by certain products to reach Superbrand achievement.

From the noun phrase 'that matters', the presupposition which can be derived is *that matters exist*. This presupposition is triggered with the definite noun phrase 'that matters'. When the advertisement sentence is negated as *(Ultramilk and Buavita are not) the highest in Asia, on every count that matters*, the presupposition is still maintained since it does not become the focus of the negation. So, whether or not (Ultramilk and Buavita are) the highest in Asia, on every count that matters, it can not be denied that the matters (the criteria of the best brands) exist. Because the trigger of the presupposition is the definite noun phrase and it presupposes the existence of something, this presupposition is included into existential presupposition.

4.1.2 Advertisement 2: *Indonesia's only English language business*

magazine. (The Jakarta Post, Tuesday, 27th March 2007)

The advertisement is made by Globe Asia, a monthly English magazine. Globe Asia is the world's leading business and financial magazine in Indonesia. It leads the pack in providing unrivalled, in-depth analysis on the Indonesian entrepreneurial and economic landscape.

The word 'Indonesia' presupposes that *Indonesia exists*. The word 'Indonesia' acts as presupposition triggers that can cause the appearance of the presupposition. The word 'Indonesia' can be said presupposition triggers because it is a proper name as it is the name of a country. Thus, if it happens, the addressee must admit its existence in the real world. There is an assumption in the addressee's mind that the existence of Indonesia is a kind of fact.

While, if the sentence is negated as '*Globe Asia* is not *Indonesia's only English language business magazine*', it still shows the acceptance of the presupposition that *Indonesia exists*. From the analysis, we can say that it has already fulfilled the requirement of presupposition. This property of presupposition is generally described as constancy under negation. Basically, it means that the presupposition of a statement will remain constant or survive (i.e. still true) even when that statement is negated. Since the trigger of the presupposition is proper name and it informs the existence of something, it can be categorized, then, into existential presupposition.

The noun phrase '*Indonesia's only English language business magazine*' presupposes that *Indonesia has English language business magazine*. The presupposition comes from the possessive 's'. It is a matter of common knowledge in English that the possessive means belongs to someone or something depending on the noun preceding it. It can be seen here that the possessive 's' preceded the word 'Indonesia'.

Therefore, it can be said that the presupposition *Indonesia has English language business magazine* automatically appears. When the advertisement

sentence is negated as stated above the presupposition is still true. Thus, the presupposition is constant under the negation. Due to the trigger of presupposition is the possessive and it presupposes the existence of something, it can be included into existential presupposition.

4.1.3 Advertisement 3: *New comfort for smart modern living.* (The Jakarta Post, Monday, 12th March 2007)

Nissan Teana in the advertisement presents a new comfort car for people's modern life. Beyond Teana's exquisite appearance, its sumptuous interior boasts utter comfort and relaxed atmosphere. Specious cabin and ergonomic seats amidst soft play of color and textures meet smart features such as intelligent key, memory seat, cruise control and adaptive front lighting system (AFS), promising unforgettable driving experience. We can make people's modernity statement with the amenity of Nissan Teana.

By reading the advertisement, people know that the word 'new comfort' refers to Teanna, the newest product of Nissan. The noun phrase 'new comfort' presupposes that *there is previous comfort*. When the sentence is negated as (*Nissan Teana is not*) *new comfort for smart modern living*, the presupposition that *there is previous comfort* still survives whether or not (*Nissan Teana is*) the pointed product which is called new comfort for smart modern living. Due to the term "new comfort" presupposes the presence of *the previous comfort*, the advertisement is said to contain lexical presupposition.

4.1.4 Advertisement 4: *Wild with seven!* (The Jakarta Post, Tuesday, 27th March 2007)

Through the advertisement, Daihatsu intends to introduce a new product, i.e. Terios (SUV), which is safer to be used during floods than sedans as they are higher off the ground. So, in 2007, automotive players are sure that SUVs will be the prima donnas. The potential is huge and will continue to develop. What makes SUVs more popular this year is the Crossover Utility Vehicle (CUV) label.

Market players are optimistic about CUVs, a combination of an SUV and a hatch back or an MPV sedan. Beside that compact SUV is fun to drive and has a strong and modern character. A vehicle like this is suitable for those who are masculine in spirit, adventurous, and confident. It will be the choice for those who wish to stand apart from routine and the establishment.

The important goodness in term of variations and accessories is that Daihatsu Terios has *seven seats* while others have only five seats like Rush car. Here, the mutual understanding among people's mind is definite. It is the shared assumption that Terios (SUV) has seven seats

The advertisement 'wild with seven' presupposes that *it is with seven*. This presupposition is triggered with the prepositional phrase 'with seven'. When the advertisement sentence is negated as *(Terios) is not wild with seven seats*, the presupposition still survives. So, whether *Terios is wild with seven seats or not*, the true is that *(Terios) is with seven (seats)*. Thus, the presupposition is constant under the negation. Due to the trigger of the presupposition is in the form of

prepositional phrase and is a part of the structure sentence, it can be included into structural presupposition.

4.1.5 Advertisement 5: *A growing kid's best friend.* (*The Jakarta Post, Tuesday, 13th March 2007*)

The advertisement offers the beverage of fresh milk i.e. the product of Greenfields which is useful to the growing children. It is very nice milk that can make children health and always drink it. The noun phrase 'a growing kid's best friend' presupposes that *a growing kid has best friend or best friend belongs to a growing kids*. The presupposition comes from the possessive 's'. It is a matter of common knowledge in English that the possessive means belongs to someone or something, depends on the noun preceding it. We can see clearly here that the possessive 's' preceded the word 'a growing kid'. Therefore, it can be said that the presupposition *a growing kid has best friend or best friend belongs to a growing kids* automatically appears.

When the advertisement sentence is negated as *(Fresh Milk) is not a growing kid's best friend*, the presupposition that *a growing kid has best friend or best friend belongs to a growing kids* is maintained since whether Fresh Milk is a growing kid's best friend or not, the presupposition that a growing kid has best friend is still constant under the negation. Due to the trigger of presupposition is the possessive which presupposes the existence of something, it can be included into existential presupposition.

4.1.6 Advertisement 6: *Nothing is lost with full HD AQUOS* (The Jakarta Post, Monday, 12th March 2007)

Sharp, the advertisement producer, presents a new product i.e. Aquos which is supposed to be the best electronic screen product. The advertisement displays a golf player who is looking for his ball. What is not seen is as crucial as what is noticed. But even the best players in the world don't pick up on everything, seeing the game through 602 million pixels on a large screen Aquos makes that obvious. On an AQUOS, lost balls are found. The line of a putt is right in front of the audience in glorious color & and detail from wide viewing angle. We can see every detail of every hole with full high definition 1080 lines of resolution.

From the noun 'Aquos', the presupposition which can be derived is that *Aquos exists*. This presupposition is triggered with the proper name 'Aquos'. When the advertisement sentence is negated as *something is lost with full HD Aquos*, the presupposition is still maintained that Aquos really exists. So, whether nothing is lost with full HD Aquos or not, it can not be denied that Aquos exists. Because the trigger of the presupposition is the proper name and it presupposes the existence of something, this presupposition is included into existential presupposition.

4.1.7 Advertisement 7: *Indonesia, there's a new way to drive*. (The Jakarta Post, Sunday, 18th March 2007)

The advertisement is offered by Proton. A new product is launched with satisfactory and safety facilities for the driver and passengers. These qualifications

are supported with the Proton's high commitment and quality service. The only way to ensure its quality is by test-driving.

The word 'Indonesia' presupposes that *Indonesia exists*. The word 'Indonesia' acts as presupposition triggers that can show the appearance of the presupposition. The word 'Indonesia' can be said as presupposition triggers because it is a proper name (the name of a country). Thus, if it happens, the addressee must admit its existence in the real world. There is an assumption in the addressee's mind that the existence of Indonesia is fact. If the sentence is negated as 'Indonesia, there is not a new way to drive', it still shows the acceptance of the presupposition that Indonesia exists.

It can be finally said that the above consideration has fulfilled the requirement for a presupposition to be accepted. This property of presupposition is generally described as constancy under negation. Since the trigger of the presupposition is the proper name and it informs the existence of a country (Indonesia), it then can be included into existential presupposition

The next is the noun phrase 'a new way' presupposes that *there is an old way to drive*. When the advertisement sentence is negated as *there is not a new way to drive*, the presupposition remains true, i.e. the presence of an old way of driving. So, whether there is a new way to drive or not, the presupposition that *there is an old way to drive* can be understood by people. It is, therefore, included into lexical presupposition.

4.1.8 Advertisement 8: *Capture Precious Moment Anytime, Anywhere*

With Canon Digital Video Camcorder. (The Jakarta Post, Wednesday, 7th March 2007)

The advertisement, which is issued by Canon, offers a new product, i.e. DC-22 which is believed to have the best quality compared to other Digital Video Camcorder (DVC). This DVC has easy operation, equipped with DIGIC DV image processor, image stabilizer, and true high resolution 16:9 widescreen and flexibility to print with Pictbridge & Exif print.

The noun phrase ‘precious moment’ presupposes that *precious moment exists*. This presupposition is triggered by the definite noun phrase. When the sentence is negated as “Don’t capture Precious Moment Anytime, Anywhere with Canon Digital Video Camcorder,” the presupposition that *precious moment exists* since whether or not to capture precious moment anytime, anywhere with Canon Digital Video Camcorder, the presupposition *precious moment* still exists. Due to the trigger of presupposition is the definite noun phrase and it presupposes the existence of something, it can be included into existential presupposition.

The next noun phrase ‘canon digital video camcorder’ presupposes that *there is a digital video camcorder branded Canon*. This presupposition is triggered by the definite noun phrase. When the sentence is negated as “Don’t capture Precious Moment Anytime, Anywhere with Canon Digital Video Camcorder,” the presupposition that there is a canon digital video camcorder still exists since whether or not to capture precious moment anytime, anywhere with Canon Digital Video Camcorder, the presupposition *there is canon digital video*

camcorder still exists. Due to the trigger of presupposition is the definite noun phrase and it presupposes the existence of something, it can be included into existential presupposition.

4.1.9 Advertisement 9: *Helping others gives success true meaning.* (*The Jakarta Post, Wednesday, 21st March 2007*)

Nicolas Cage and Montblanc writes in the advertisement that they have made a joint commitment to social responsibility. With the purchase of a Montblanc Time Walker, the buyers are supporting a significant donation by Nicolas Cage and Montblanc to the “Heal the Bay” organization. Besides, Montblanc Time Walker chronograph has automatic self winding mechanical movement in a 43 mm steel case with skeleton horns.

The noun phrase ‘success true meaning’ presupposes that *there is success true meaning*. This presupposition is triggered with the definite noun phrase ‘success true meaning’. When the sentence is negated as helping others doesn’t give success true meaning, the presupposition that *there is success true meaning* still exist since whether helping others gives success true meaning or not, the true is that there is success true meaning. Thus, the presupposition is constant under the negation. Due to the presupposition is the definite noun phrase, it can be included into existential presupposition.

4.1.10 Advertisement 10: *Greenfields fresh milk helps you jump higher*

(The Jakarta Post, Tuesday, 27th March 2007)

Greenfields in The Jakarta Post advertises the beverage product of fresh milk. It is mostly consumed by growing kids. This fresh milk has many advantages which can make children healthy.

The noun phrase ‘Greenfields fresh milk’ presupposes that Greenfields fresh milk exists. This presupposition is triggered with proper name *Greenfields fresh milk*. When it is negated as Greenfields fresh milk does not help you jump higher, the presupposition ‘Greenfields fresh milk’ is maintained since whether Greenfields fresh milk helps you jump higher or not, the true is that Greenfields fresh milk exists. Thus, the presupposition is constant under negation. Due to the trigger of presupposition is the proper name and it presupposes the existence of something, it can be included into existential presupposition.

The last presupposition is from the word ‘higher’ in the sentence ‘Greenfields fresh milk helps you jump higher’ presupposes that *you can jump*. This presupposition is triggered with the comparative adjective ‘higher’. When the sentence is negated as *Greenfields fresh milk does not help you jump higher*, the presupposition is still true because whether Greenfields fresh milk helps you jump higher or not, the fact is you can jump. Since the trigger of presupposition is the comparative degree and from this word, other meaning is understood, therefore, it is included into lexical presupposition

4.2 Discussion

Based on the above data findings, some concepts of presupposition are obviously applied in almost any kinds of goods advertisement, i.e. that the presuppositions within the advertisements employ shared or non-controversial knowledge between the advertisers and the addressees, the economical principle of Grundy, and the constancy under negation. Furthermore, it is apparent that existential presupposition becomes very typical and frequently occurs in goods advertisements.

As noted previously, presupposition is about the existing knowledge common to speaker and hearer that the speaker does not, therefore, need to assert. This presupposed knowledge is then taken together with the presuppositions asserted in the utterance and the addressee's knowledge of the world as the basis on which an inference is drawn to the implied meaning that the utterance conveys (Grundy. 2000:119). The concept of presupposition implies on one conclusive idea that a communication process is not necessarily rigid or complicated; it might happen in a simple, moderate, and plain way but still in an understandable mindset. This process is very possible due to the presence of presupposition in which both speakers and addressees convey the same background or shared knowledge or information.

The application of this theory can be found in, for example, the advertisement of Ultramilk and Buavita which contains a phrase 'the highest in Asia, on every count that matters'. At glance, such statement, when it is viewed from the requirements for the construction of good, correct, and understandable

sentence, still contains many unclear possibilities. The statement does not fulfill the requirement of a sentence since it has no clear subject. This 'lack of clarity' might confuse the readers. However, the message of the statement can still be completely caught and understood by the readers when it is presented in the advertisement of Buavita and Ultramilk.

Written above two big pictures of Buavita and Ultramilk, the statement 'the highest in Asia, on every count that matters' can easily stimulate the readers' understanding that it refers to both products. Here, when people read the advertisement which mentions the noun phrase 'the highest', the readers understand that it refers to Ultramilk and Buavita. When the readers have realized that Ultramilk and Buavita are the highest (creamy-beverage) products in Asia, they, in turn, presupposes that others, except Ultramilk and Buavita, are of lower (quality) than these two products.

In this case, the advertiser does not entirely need to state that "any creamy-beverage products in Asia are of the lower quality compared to Buavita and Ultramilk" since the readers themselves can, consciously or not, presuppose it as soon as they read the statement "the highest in Asia." The fact that the advertiser need not to assert explicitly the above 'supplementary' information shows how presupposition, which employs shared knowledge and information between the speaker and the addressees, is well-applied in the advertising area.

That presupposition applies shared knowledge and information between the advertiser and the addressees can also be seen in the advertisement of Greenfields with its persuasive slogan, "a growing kid's best friend." The phrase,

as what has been explained in the previous section of this chapter, presupposes that *a growing kid has best friend*. The presupposition comes from the possessive 's'. Since the possessive 's' precedes the phrase 'a growing kid', readers can easily understand that *best friend belongs to a growing kids*.

Instead of saying "A growing kid has best friend, and his best friend is Greenfields," the advertiser of Greenfields feels sufficient to simply state "Greenfields; a growing kind's best friend" since the readers must have their own presupposition that *a growing kid has best friend*. This shows, once more, how an advertisement contains a commonly-accepted presupposition, with its requirement of the speaker's and addressees' shared knowledge, which has proven to ease an advertiser to offer his/her product. Finally, it is important to be reemphasized here that advertisement language, beyond its simplicity, cannot be separated from the effective use of presupposition.

Another concept of presupposition which is applied in the advertisement is Grundy's economical principle. It is very convenient that the advertiser can rely on presupposition otherwise he would have to write in much more elaborate way. In stead of writing that *there was a previous old-fashioned way to drive and there is a new one for Indonesia*, for example the advertiser of Proton chooses to use a simple sentence, *Indonesia, there is a new way to drive*. The advertiser of Daihatsu Terios also prefers saying only *wild with seven!* to stating that *Terios has seven seats and the driver as well as the passengers feel wild with those seats*.

Both advertisements, and others discussed in this research, applies Grundy's economical principle of presupposition in which they use as simple

language as possible to express their broad ideas and large amount of informative messages. Via presupposition, the advertisers can avoid using complex and complicated languages but still be able to communicate with the addressees understandably and effectively.

Besides applying the concept of shared knowledge or information and the economic principle, presupposition in the advertisement also applies *constancy under negation* which, according to Stubbs (1983: 215), remains constant under negation or interrogation and is unaffected by denying the original sentence. The property of constancy under negation can be found in each of the analyzed data. One of the examples is presented in the advertisement of Greenfields.

The noun phrase 'Greenfields fresh milk' presupposes that Greenfields fresh milk really exists. This presupposition is triggered with proper name *Greenfields fresh milk*. When it is negated as *Greenfields fresh milk does not help you jump higher*, the presupposition 'Greenfields fresh milk exists' is maintained since whether Greenfields fresh milk helps you jump higher or not, the true is that Greenfields fresh milk exists. Thus, the presupposition is constant under negation.

The next example is presented in the advertisement of Proton. It contains a statement *Indonesia, there's a new way to drive*. The noun phrase 'a new way' presupposes that *there is an old way to drive*. When the advertisement sentence is negated as *there is not a new way to drive*, the presupposition remains true, i.e. the presence of an old way of driving. So, whether there is a new way to drive or not, the presupposition that *there is an old way to drive* can be understood by readers.

In this context the presupposition in the advertisement is proven through the concept constancy under negation.

Although the three concepts of presupposition have been applicable to the language of advertisement, only three kinds of presupposition are usually used. Among six of the types, lexical presupposition, structural presupposition, and existential presupposition are the most common. These presuppositions are supported by the certain triggers as the signals of the existence of a presupposition in an utterance.

Lexical presupposition is an assumption that, in using one word, the speaker can act as if another meaning (word) will be understood. Lexical presupposition is used in the advertisement of Buavita and Ultramilk which says 'the highest in Asia, on every count that matters'. The noun phrase 'the highest' presupposes that *others except Ultramilk and Buavita are lower than these two products*. This presupposition is triggered with the superlative 'highest'. When the sentence is negated as *Ultramilk and Buavita are not the highest in Asia*, the presupposition is still true because whether they are the highest (product) in Asia or not, the fact that others are lower than Ultramilk and Buavita is still true. Since the trigger of the presupposition is superlative and that other meaning is already understood, it is included into lexical presupposition. Other lexical presuppositions can also be seen in the third, seventh, and tenth advertisements.

The structural presupposition is apparent in the fourth advertisement. The advertisement sentence 'wild with seven' presupposes *it is with seven*. This presupposition is triggered with the prepositional phrase 'with seven'. When the

advertisement sentence is negated as (*Terios*) *is not wild with seven (seats)*, the presupposition still survives. So, whether *Terios is wild with seven seats or not*, the true is that (*Terios*) *is with seven (seats)*. Thus, the presupposition is constant under the negation. Due to the trigger of presupposition is prepositional phrase and its presupposition becomes part of the structure sentence, it can be included into structural presupposition.

The last kind of presupposition used in the advertisements is existential presupposition. One example is taken from the fourth advertisement which mentions “growing kid’s best friend.”

The noun phrase ‘a growing kid’s best friend’ presupposes that *a growing kid has best friend*. The presupposition comes from the possessive ‘s’. It is a matter of common knowledge in English that the possessive means belongs to someone or something depending on the noun preceding it. Since the possessive ‘s’ precedes the word ‘a growing kid’, it can be said that the presupposition *a growing kid has best friend* automatically appears.

When the advertisement sentence is negated as (*Fresh Milk*) *is not a growing kid’s best friend*, the presupposition that a growing kid has best friend is still maintained since whether *Fresh Milk* is a growing kid’s best friend or not, the true one is that a growing kid has best friend. Due to the trigger of presupposition is the possessive and it presupposes the existence of something, it can be included into existential presupposition.

Furthermore, other types of presupposition that cannot be applied in the data are factive presupposition, non-factive presupposition and counter-factual presupposition.

Another theory that cannot be applied in the data is projection problem. The projection problem is the meaning of some of presuppositions (as 'parts') doesn't survive to become the meaning of some complex sentences (as 'whole'). In the data most of the sentences survive to become the presupposition.

It can be concluded, then, that most goods advertisements presuppose the existence of something. In other word, existential presupposition is mostly used in goods advertisement. It seems that the advertiser's choice to intensify the use of existential presupposition is supported with his purpose to emphasize and implant the existence of an object being offered on the readers' or addresses' mind and to ease the addressees in understanding the content of the advertisement.

The result of this research is quite different from that of Evi Yusnia's one which analyzes the presupposition used in John Grisham's novel *The Client*. She analyzed the conversation of the novel and she found out that most characters who tried to interrogate their client use structural presupposition and they tended to gain the acceptance of the client over proposition and obtained the needed information. They used presupposition to interrogate and led the client to the information needed by the interrogators.

Unlike Yusnia's research which has proven that structural presupposition is commonly used by the characters to interrogate and led the client to the information needed by the interrogators, this research shows that

existential presupposition is generally used by advertisers to offer their products. Their choice of using existential presupposition is reasonable due to their main purpose of emphasizing and implanting the existence of an object being offered on the readers' or addresses' mind.

Another writing related to presupposition is Sells and Gonzales' paper *The Language of Advertising (2002)*. Their focus was on printed advertising that take the important component of the overall message and used presupposition as the basic analytic concept. In the end of their paper, they summarize that presuppositions are crucial parts of advertising.

The result of this research strengthens Sell and Gonzales' idea that presuppositions are crucial parts of advertising. Their significance is supported with the fact that presuppositions within the advertisements can ease the advertisers in expressing their persuasive language "economically." The use of presupposition might also enable an advertisement to be presented in a very simple way.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION

5.1 Conclusion

Presupposition is widely used in advertising since advertisers cannot directly state that their products are of better quality than those of their competitors, but they possibly make indirect assertions via presupposition.

Some concepts of presupposition are applied in the data i.e. shared or non controversial knowledge, the economical principle of Grundy and constancy under negation.

From the analysis it can be seen that goods advertisement usually presupposes the existence of something. It frequently uses existential presupposition and rarely uses lexical and structural presuppositions. In addition, goods advertisement mostly uses definite description as the presupposition triggers.

Existential presupposition is usually triggered with the definite noun phrase, possessive and proper name. Lexical presupposition is triggered with change state verbs and other lexical items. Structural presupposition is triggered with wh-clause and some conjunctions.

Based on the data findings, it can be concluded that most goods advertisements presuppose the existence of something. It seems that the advertiser's choice to intensify the use of the existential presupposition is supported with his purpose to emphasize and implant the existence of an object

being offered on the readers' or addressees' mind and to ease the addressees in understanding the content of the advertisement.

5.2 Suggestion

Advertisement is a means of communicating between the advertiser's idea and the addressee. To get its communication, the advertisers might avoid using long and complicated sentence to offer their products, but they use very simple statement, which is still easily understood, by applying the concept of presupposition.

After conducting this study, the researcher found that goods advertisement usually presupposes the existence of something and also it frequently uses existential presupposition, as the result of this, the researcher expect that there will be other researchers who are interested in conducting research about presupposition. The next researchers are suggested to use different data sources, in this case, daily conversation which can be formal or non-formal dialogue, lyric of song and other objects. Especially for daily conversation, to the next researcher, presupposition gives someone the background of the conversation that assumed to be true either by the speaker or the hearer. Therefore, it will lead to the close interpretation of what being conversed. In concise, people will gain more information when they analyze presupposition. Thus, it is very interesting to be analyzed by using Peter Grundy's theory in semantic presupposition.

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