CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Pragmatics

Pragmatics is the study that investigates "speaker meaning," or what speakers actually mean (Yule, 2017). "Invisible" meaning or how we perceive what's meant even if it's not expressly expressed, is the focus of pragmatics in many cases. Speakers must be able to rely on a large number of common assumptions and expectations in order to communicate effectively. We may learn a great deal about human perception by examining these assumptions and expectations. Pragmatically, more information is conveyed than is expressed.

The study of language in context, according to Birner (2013), may be referred to as pragmatics. Since pragmatic competence is often implicit, it may be claimed that in order to understand the meaning in pragmatics, one needs to understand the context of the conversation or statement. Moreover, one of the elements used to determine the appropriate assumption in communication is considered presupposition in pragmatics. There is a connection between pragmatics and presupposition. The object of this research is presupposition, and it will employ a pragmatic approach. Yule (1996) explained a presupposition is something that the speaker assumes and it is dependent on the context of the dialogue or conversations.

2.2 Presupposition

People engage in communication on a daily basis in order to communicate with others. Two speakers make up a conversation, and each of them will represent their individual assumptions through the use of certain words, phrases, sentences, or grammatical constructions. When humans seek to communicate knowledge with another person or a group larger than two persons, communication is happened. The presupposition would come up in conversations when individuals were speaking with one another. People often speak with presupposition without even realizing it.

Particularly, to put it simply, a presupposition is an assumption made by someone speaking or writing in order to make their point clearer (Yule 2017). Yule (2017) explained that in a general context, we create linguistic messages based on broad assumptions about what our listeners already know. Thoyyibah (2017) highlighted that presupposition is concerned with the implicit meanings transmitted by the speaker via the use of specific words. It is classified into different types. It includes existential, factive, lexical and non-factive presupposition, as well as counter-factual and structural types. Each of them will be discussed in the next paragraph.

2.2.1 Types of Presupposition

There are 6 types of presupposition. The mark ">>" is used to represent "presupposes" in all examples of types of presupposition.

2.2.1.1 Existential Presupposition

This is the assumption that the things the speaker names in the noun phrase actually exist.

Example:

Your car

>> You have a car. (Yule, 1996, p. 27)

The noun "you" indicates the existence of a person who has a car.

2.2.1.2 Factive Presupposition

The assumption that is true and denoted by verbs like know and understand is as a factive presupposition. This type of assumption indicates that the listener should accept the message as true, rather than assuming that the speaker is simply posing a question.

Example:

```
She didn't realize he was ill. (Yule, 1996, p. 28) >> Someone was ill.
```

From the verb *realize*, it is showing the fact that someone was ill.

2.2.1.3 Lexical Presupposition

It is called lexical presupposition when a form is employed and historically understood with the assumption that a different (nonasserted) meaning is recognized for a given word.

Example:

```
He stopped smoking. (Yule, 1996, p. 28) >> Someone used to smoke.
```

The verb *stopped* shows the assumption that someone used to smoke until it finally quit.

2.2.1.4 Non-factive Presupposition

This information is presumed to be false. It is implied that the information that follows is untrue by the use of verbs like "dream," "imagine," and "pretend."

Example:

```
I dreamed that I was rich. (Yule, 1996, p. 29) >> I was never rich.
```

The verb *dreamed* implies the false information that "I" was rich.

2.2.1.5 Counterfactual Presupposition

In this assumption, it suggests that what is assumed is not simply true, but also the exact opposite of what is true or at conflict with the existing evidence. Counterfactual conditionals are a specific kind of conditional construction. This indicates that the presupposed knowledge is false at the moment of utterance and is in an "if-clause."

Example:

If you were my friend, you would have helped me. (Yule, 1996, p. 30) >> You are not my friend.

From the sentence above, the using of "if-clause" shows the opposite assumption. "If you were my friend" shows that "you" is not a friend.

2.2.1.6 Structural Presupposition

This assumption suggests that some sentences presuppose certain elements of the structure in a traditional and regular manner. Instead of assuming that the speaker is only raising a concern, this kind of assumption encourages the audience to accept the information as fact. Words with the "wh" prefix are commonly connected with this type of expression.

Example:

Where did you buy the bike? (Yule, 1996, p. 29) >> You bought the bike.

The using of word *where* shows the information as fact that "you" just bought a bike.

2.2.2 Triggers of Presupposition

There are 13 triggers of presupposition. The mark ">>" is used to represent "presupposes" in all examples of triggers of presupposition.

2.2.2.1 Definite Description

The use of a definite description introduces an assumption that assumes the existence of the reference. A proper and possessive name structure must be used in the description.

Example:

John saw/didn't see *the man with two heads*. (Levinson,1983, p. 181)

There is a definite description "the man" that shows the existence of a man with two heads.

2.2.2.2 Factive Verbs

Factive verbs are verbs that take a sentential complement and assume it. The truth of proportional complement is assumed by the factive verb. Sorry, aware, strange, know, regret that, proud of it, indifferent, happy that, realize and sad are examples of factive verbs.

Example:

Frankenstein was/wasn't *aware* that Dracula was there. (Levinson,1983, p. 181)

The verb aware indicates that Dracula was present.

2.2.2.3 Implicative Verbs

Implicative verbs indicate how something or certain conditions occur without any planning or effort, but were anticipated to, or generally did, or ought to, etc. Implicative verbs include manage, forget, happen, and avoid.

Example:

John *managed/didn't manage* to open the door. (Levinson,1983, p. 181)

The verb *managed* shows that John made an attempt to open the door.

2.2.2.4 Change State of Verb

Change of state verbs describe a transition from one state to another and so assume that the moved-from state was held at some time in the past. This category includes verbs like stop, start, continue, finish, change, stop, come, go, and others.

Example:

John stopped/didn't stop beating his wife.

(Levinson, 1983, p. 181)

The verb *stopped* tells that John was beating up on his wife.

2.2.2.5 Iterative

Iterative means the repetition of some prior action or state, and so assumes that a past action occurred or that a past state survived, much as the word change-of-state does.

Example:

The flying saucer came/didn't come again.

(Levinson, 1983, p. 182)

The word *again* shows that the flying saucer came before.

2.2.2.6 Verbs of Judging

Verb of judging is employed to develop an opinion from an opinion formed as a result of an activity conducted. This presupposition makes no mention of speakers as a subject.

Example:

Agatha *accused/ accuse* Ian of plagiarism. (Levinson,1983, p. 182)

The verb *accused* indicates that plagiarism, in Agatha's opinion, is wrong.

2.2.2.7 Temporal Clauses

Temporal clauses are part of an adverbial clause, which is made up of independent and dependent clauses linked together by connectors. Temporal sentences include before, while, since, after, while, and whenever, as well as the trigger of this temporal phrase.

Example:

Before Strawson was even born, Frege noticed/didn't notice presupposition. (Levinson,1983, p. 182)

The temporal sentence of *before* shows the information that Strawson was born.

2.2.2.8 Cleft Sentences

Clefts are a class of presuppositional syntactic structures that exist in a variety of shapes, the most frequent of which are it-cleft (also known as just cleft), wh-cleft (also known as pseudo-cleft), and reverse wh-cleft (also known as pseudo-cleft). backwards).

Example:

It was/wasn't Henry that kissed Rosie. (Levinson,1983, p. 183)

The cleft *it* shows that Rosie was kissed by someone.

2.2.2.9 Implicit Clefts With Stressed Constituents

This kind appears to be derived from two split sentences and is activated only when the constituents are under a huge stress.

Example:

Linguistics was/wasn't invented by Chomsky!

(Levinson, 1983, p. 183)

Chomsky is the indication that linguistics was created by someone.

2.2.2.10 Comparisons and Contrasts

Stress (or other prosodic methods), particles like "too," or comparative formulations can all be used to define comparison and contrast.

Example:

Carol is/isn't a better linguist than Barbara.

(Levinson, 1983, p. 183)

The stress of "better linguist" shows that Barbara is also a linguist.

2.2.2.11 Non-Restrictive Clauses

A nonrestrictive clause adds more information to a sentence. It usually refers to a specific person, thing, or event with a proper or common noun. It uses commas to show that the information that follows is extra.

Example:

The Proto-Harrapans, who flourished 2800-2650 B.C., were/were not great temple builders. (Levinson, 1983, p. 184)

There is additional information that shows between 2800 and 2650 B.C., The Proto-Harrapans flourished.

2.2.2.12 Counterfactual Conditional

The counterfactual condition assumes a lie. This presupposition demonstrates the reality of an assumption with the opposite connotation. Typically, employ conditions such as the "if" clause, as well as other words such as "imagine" and "dream."

Example:

If the notice had only said 'mine-field' in English as well as Welsh, we would/would never have lost poor Llewellyn. (Levinson, 1983, p. 184)

The word 'mine-field' was not included in the English warning.

2.2.2.13 WH-question

According to Levinson (1983), there are three categories of questions: yes/no questions, which are often seen to be empty or worthless, and open-ended questions. Alternative questions, on the other hand, presuppose the disjunction of their responses, while they are not empty in this case. Finally, the WH question adds the presupposition acquired by replacing the term WH with the applicable existential quantifying variable, such as who by someone, where by somewhere, how by somehow, and so on.

Example:

Who is the professor of linguistics at MIT? (Levinson, 1983, p. 184)

The word *who* shows that somebody at MIT teaches linguistics.

2.3 Previous Study

The first research is done by Tambunan et al., (2019). This paper's research objectives were about the film "Barbie and the Magic of Pegasus" and its presuppositions. This paper's research questions focused on the types and frequency of presupposition found in the film "Barbie and the Magic of Pegasus." To analyze the data, the author utilized Yule's theory, which categorizes presupposition into six distinct categories: existential presupposition, factive presupposition, lexical presupposition, structural presupposition, non-factive presupposition, and counterfactual presupposition. The descriptive qualitative method was applied in this research research. This study's findings revealed that there are nine presuppositions. Two existential presuppositions, or 22.2 percent, one lexical presupposition, or 11.1 percent, two structural presuppositions, or 22.2 percent, three factual presuppositions, or 33.4 percent, and one counterfactual presupposition, or 11.1 percent.

The second research is done Youssef & Albarakati (2020). They studied on presupposition in Arabic political discourse. This study examines the effectiveness of presupposition as a convincing strategy in Arabic political discourse. The researchers employed ideas from Levinson (1983) and Yule (1996) on the types and triggers of presupposition to support their research. The research used the Accommodation Analysis approach, with samples from Saudi King Salman bin Abdulaziz's address on terrorism in 2017 studied from two perspectives: speaker presupposition and utterance presupposition. The findings of the study stress that sharing knowledge, i.e., political beliefs in the context of the study, is vital for a presupposition to pass unblocked.

The third research is conducted by Silaban (2020). Martina Cole's book "The Graft" provided the data for this study. This study seeks to identify presupposition triggers and types in Martina Cole's book "The Graft." The researcher used Leech (1983) and other linguistic experts' pragmatic approaches for this work. Creswell's theory guided this qualitative study (2009). Researchers then collected data using Sudaryanto (2015)'s non-participatory method. For studying presupposition triggers, the researcher used Levinson (1983) and Yule (1996). For explanation, the researcher used Sudaryanto (2015)'s informal way of presenting data in words, sentences, and paragraphs. This study found thirteen presupposition triggers and six types of presuppositions in Martina Cole's novel "The Graft."

The fourth study is conducted by Murillo and Yeh (2021). This paper examined presuppositions in a political speech. The researchers identified the assumption triggers found in Rodrigo Duterte's fifth State of the Nation Address (SONA). In the research, they used theories of Yule (1996) and Levinson (1983) about the using of presupposition. Data were analyzed using critical discourse analysis (CDA), a method that uses assumption triggers to cognitively assess how Duterte conveyed his political goals. The results reveal that Duterte's SONA was full of contradictory and false assertions. He regularly used the vocabulary phrase "rest confident." It is shown in the sentence, "Rest certain that we will not shirk our responsibility to fight for human rights." as an illustration of one of his ideas.

Next, the fifth research is done by Sadiq and Amin (2021). This paper analyzed presuppositions made in a political speech. In the research they aimed to determine lexical assumptions, triggers, and the most prevalent kind of usage in Mr. Masoud Barzani's speech regarding the referendum event. The speech is examined

using a hybrid methodology that classifies types and triggers of presupposition in accordance with Yule (1996) and Levinson (1983). The quantitative technique was utilized in this study to identify the most common application of the presupposition type. The result of this study, it can be concluded the presupposition used in Masud Barzani's address at the press conference for the referendum, "factive" presupposition are used the most frequently. This allows the speaker explain facts directly by using factive verbs to convey his political ideas.

The sixth research is done by Fitriani (2021). The abstract was a synopsis of the author's thesis or other publication research. The researcher analysed at the presupposition triggers utilized in students' thesis abstracts and how writers presume in their abstract writing from motivation in the form of linguistic elements. To support the research, the researcher used Yule (1996)'s theory to explain the types of presupposition. The researcher chose Lambert & Lambert's (2012) qualitative research method to summarize in everyday terms specific events experienced by individuals or groups. The result revealed that the existential type is primarily employed in qualitative research abstracts.

The seventh research is done Saputra et al., (2021). This paper described about the types of presupposition. The researcher's study aim was to determine the sorts of presupposition employed by the film's main character Front of the Class and the interpretation of statements containing presupposition. The researchers used Yule (1996)'s theory of presupposition to address the research questions. The researcher picked qualitative research as the study's approach. The research findings are as follows: all six of Yule's sorts of presupposition are discovered in front of the Class movie. A presupposition might be a factive presupposition, a non-factive

presupposition, a lexical one, a structural one, or a counterfactual one. In pragmatic analysis, the context is critical in determining the inferred meaning of statements including presupposition, as the main character in Front of the Class does. In the movie Front of the Class, Brad Cohen's statements have three different contexts. They are the participants, the situational setting, and the shared information.

The eighth research is done Renaldo (2021). Joe Biden won the presidential election in the United States in 2020. The researcher attempted to investigate into Biden's ideology as it was expressed in his inauguration statement on January 20, 2021. The researcher employed the theory of Yule (1996) to o describe the types of presupposition in order to support the investigation. This research was examined using descriptive qualitative method. The finding of this research showed Biden's inaugural address was found to have lexical, existential and factive presupposition. However, lexical presupposition were found to be the more prevalent. Investigation of the premises also revealed Biden's ideological expressions on immigration, healthcare, racism, democracy, and global warming.

The ninth research is done by Wahana et al., (2022). The different categories of presuppositions found in the media have been listed in this paper. They studied the BBC's reporting on the corona virus in Indonesia for signs of assumption. The researchers used Yule (1996)'s presupposition theory in their investigation. The observational approach and Sudaryanto's (1993) non-participatory methodology were utilized by the researchers to obtain data. The researchers used the pragmatic identity technique and the distributional method to analyze the data. Existential, factive, non-factive, lexical, structural, and counter-factual presupposition were

revealed as a result of this investigation. Existential presupposition is the most common type of presupposition.

2.4 Theoretical Framework

This study begins with a description of pragmatics as an approach. Following that, the researcher divides presupposition as a study object into two sections. As a first step, the researcher will look at the many kinds of presupposition. These include existential, factive, non-factive, lexical, structural, and counterfactual assumptions, to name just a few of the more common forms by the theory of Yule (1996). Second, the researcher will discuss presuppositional triggers as explained by Levinson (1983). These triggers include definite descriptions, factive verbs, implicative verbs, change-of-state verbs, iterative, verbs of judging, temporal clause, cleft sentences, implicit clefts with stressed constituents, comparison and contrast, non-restrictive relative clauses, counterfactual conditionals, and WH questions.

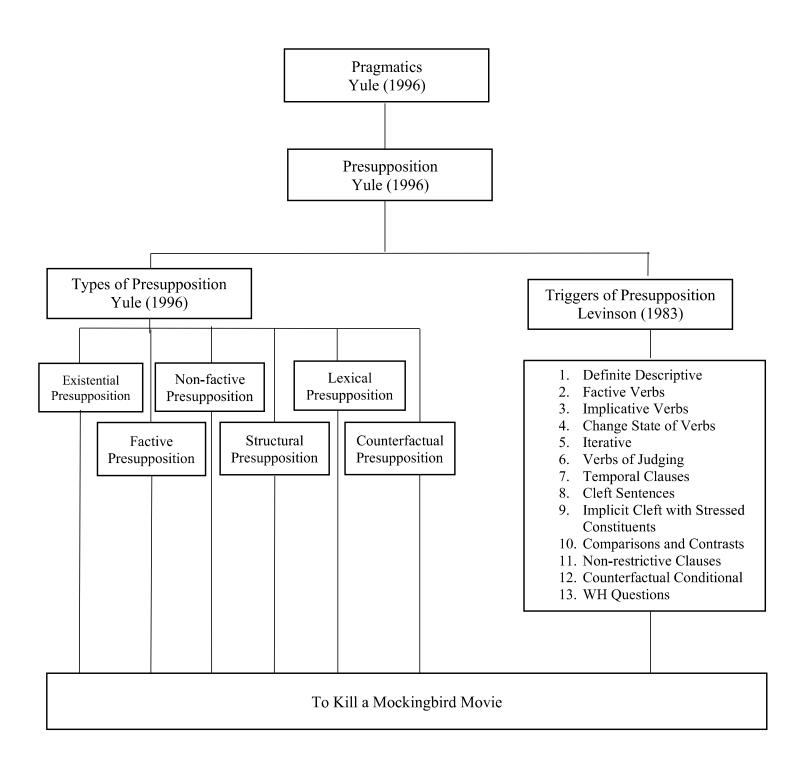


Figure 2.1 Theoretical Framework

From the figure above, it explains about the theories that are going to be used for this thesis. The first layer contains the method known as the theory of pragmatics, which is considered to be the grand theory. The presupposition in communication, which is the focus of this study in the second layer, can be better understood with the help of this great theory, which contextualizes the presupposition. The following are different types of presuppositions and the triggers that exist under the grand theory in the third layer. The researcher makes use of Yule's theory (1996) about types of presupposition in order to answer one of the study topics. In the fourth layer or the first research question in this study is the types of presupposition, which have six different types of presupposition, namely existential, lexical, non-factive, counterfactual, factive, and structural presupposition.

In the fourth layer or the second research question, presuppositional triggers based on Levinson's theory (1983) are considered. The trigger of presupposition consists of thirteen parts: definite description, factive verbs, implicative verbs, change-state of verbs, iteratives, verbs of judging, temporal clauses, cleft, implicit cleft with stressed constituents, comparisons and contrasts, non-restrictive clauses, counterfactual conditional, and WH-questions. Based on the movie "To Kill a Mockingbird," which is situated in the fifth layer of the theoretical framework, the researcher analyzes in this study the types and triggers found in the third layer.