

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Pragmatics

One of the linguistics study that discusses the significance of language is pragmatics. The signification of the language is related to how to establish meaning and assumptions. Therefore, when the speaker speaks and in what context the information is conveyed will affect the cognition of the audience (Yule, 1996). In addition, pragmatics is more inclined to aspects of the meaning of an utterance which refers directly to the condition of the truth of the sentence spoken. Then, the meaning achieved based on general principles will be interpreted as the utterance is spoken (Gazdar, 1979). An essential aspect of pragmatics is studying how language is utilized in communication, especially the relationship between language and context, which sets the foundation for the relationship between sentences and contexts.

The important to study pragmatics is to know a context before there are presuppositions that can lead to misunderstandings. In communicating even though using the right language and speech sometimes people still often misunderstand others because they fail or do not understand the context. The study related to contextual meaning is pragmatics (Yule, 2020). It relates to the meaning that people perceive based on context and how this affects the context in which it is talked-about. Furthermore, Levinson (1983) stated pragmatics explains language

comprehension based on the link between language and basic context. The use of language in a context will have different meanings based on the language used.

Pragmatics is a linguistic science that explains and describes an utterance based on the context, meaning, and purpose of a speaker when saying an utterance. As described above, it can be said that pragmatics is one approach that is often used in studying linguistics. In short, pragmatics is one of the linguistics used when discussing presuppositions based on the context of a speaker.

2.1.1 Presupposition

The speaker's assumption before making his speech and then saying it through an utterance is called as a presupposition. Based on Gazdar (1979) statement that presumption refers to the speaker's assumption that the listener will understand and believe something based on a context. Once the audience accepts and understands the assumption, the listener feels confident in it, and the assumption can be defined (Gazdar, 1979). In addition, Yule (1996) said that presupposition should be described as the assumptions the speaker makes which are prior to the utterance, not a sentence that has a presupposition. A presuppositions refer to the shared knowledge that speakers and speech partners possess that underlies speech actions. When presuppositions are similar, communication will be facilitative, but when presuppositions are different, communication will be hindered. A presupposition is an implicit belief held before an argument or action.

Furthermore, Levinson (1983) stated that presupposition is an assumption that underlies and connects a statement, that its knowledge or assumption must exist jointly by the orator and the interlocutor or utterance so that it can be considered according to the context. Generally, there will still be an assumption required and it can be presented either as a question or as an affirmative rejection. The foundation of thinking is a set of presuppositions, so long as people interpret them correctly. Understanding how people use them also has implications for understanding the nature of truth and communication.

2.1.1.1 Triggers of Presupposition

Presupposition triggers are lexical items or linguistic constructs that are reliable for presuppositions. The following is a selection of presupposition triggers following Levinson (1983) classic textbook on Pragmatics;

1. Definite Descriptions

A definite description is a concrete noun phrase used to refer to precisely one individual and give an account of (someone or something), including all the relevant characteristics, qualities, or events. A definite description conveys the message that the utterance contains a real object; it is basically a word or phrase that indicates a definite meaning.

Example:

Gaston : “Belle! I heard you had trouble with the **Headmaster**. He never liked me either. Can I give you a little advice about the villagers though?”
 Belle : “All I wanted was to teach a child to read.” (Kristy, Deliana, & Harefa, 2020)

The above speech is included in the description category which is triggered by the word 'Headmaster'. The speaker described the existence of a school led by the 'Headmaster'. It is considered to as a definite description.

2. Factive verbs

Factive verbs require their complements to be true in order to be true. The presence of a presupposition in an utterance can be explained by its being true or already occurring. Factive verbs implicitly frame the lead as truth rather than hypothesis. The type of factive verbs such as sorry, aware, strange, know, regret that, proud of it, indifferent, happy that, and sad.

Example:

Kevin : "I'm **sorry**, you wanted a tip."
 Cedric : "That won't be necessary Sir. I still some the leftover." (Helmie & Lestari, 2019)

The word "sorry" in the utterance above means that the speaker expressed his apology. The speaker uses the verb " sorry " to indicate the truth in his actions, which is not a hypothesis. Verbs that are used to express a truth that is still in the presupposition stage are called factive verbs.

3. Implicative verbs

Implicative verbs describe how something or certain conditions occur without any plan or effort, but the avoided situations, was expected to, or usually did, or ought to, etc. Manage, forget, happen, and avoid are examples of implicative verbs.

Example:

T : “. . . I’m glad that you have done the Mickey Mouse from home. That’s what I **expected** without I order you to do the exercise, you have done it before. That’s good” (Tyas, Rukmini, & Fitriati, 2020)

The word "expected" indicates that the situation or action was not planned. The sentence above explains that the speaker has not told them to do the exercise, but the students have done it. The presupposition of the utterance means “Students have done the exercise.” This is a pattern of implicative verbs.

4. Change of state verb

The use change of state verb describes a condition or habit that has undergone a previous shift or is still continuing to be in its position. Stop, start, continue, finish, change, come, go, and other verbs fall into this category.

Example:

Hilary : “The story of America is a story of hard-fought, hard-won progress. And it **continues** today”

The speaker uses verb "continues" to fuel the notion that Americans must continue the arduous journey to ultimate victory. Thus, the presupposition allows the public to be alert and also serves as an encouragement for the public to overcome unknown difficulties in front of them. So the above utterance used change of state verb.

5. Iterative

Iterative implies that a presumption is repeated. There is an assumption that certain conditions or actions have existed previously. Iterative words include phrases like "again," "next time," "restore," "repeat," and "for the next time."

Example:

Hilary : “We will **restore** America to the cutting edge of innovation, science, and research by increasing both public and private investments.” (Liang & Liu, 2016)

The speaker uses the word "restore" to imply that America has previously taken a significant part in scientific innovation and research across the world, but that this is no longer the case. The utterance means that “America had once stood on the cutting edge of innovation, science, and research.” The speaker uses the word repetition to guide the audience to reflect back on the current situation. Therefore, the above utterance is part of iterative.

6. Verbs of judging

Verb of judging is used to form an opinion as a result of an action that has been taken. Verbs of judging are used in presupposition triggers to form opinions after carefully weighing evidence and rationale. This presupposition doesn't really talk about speakers as a subject.

Example:

T : “. . . So I’m **assuming** that with your strategies, I’m **assuming** that you will need at least one minute, two minutes to read the whole text.”

The teacher assumes that the strategy used by the student will need at least one minute or two minutes to read the whole text. From the utterance, it was found that

there was a cause and effect for what the students did, so this type of utterance is a type of verbs of judging.

7. Temporal clause

Temporal clause show when the time happened. Situations that are described in clauses that begin with the constructor of the temporal clause are usually considered as background information. Before, during, since, after, while, and whenever are examples of temporal clauses, as is the trigger of this temporal phrase.

Example:

Alice : “She'll be here any second.”

Mr. Tom : “This is something Doris wrote. Sister Hanna came here from Poland **during the war.**”... (A'la & Zakrimal, 2020)

The use of the word "during" refers to the background of the problem. The presupposition is “the war was still going on when Hanna moved” and “Hanna has moved”. Sentences like this are part of the temporal clause.

8. Cleft sentences

According to Khaleel (2010) based on the Biber et al, (1999) stated that cleft sentences are divided into two, namely it-clefts which consists of pronouns followed by the verb form be and is focused specifically on the types of noun phrases, prepositional phrases, and adverbial phrases, or adverbial. Cleft sentence structure focuses on points in certain aspects of the sentence and considers the surrounding information as background knowledge. Typically, the sentences are not directed at strangers, but rather at someone who knows the current situation.

Example:

Tim : “No, this is so obviously a joke”

Dad : “**It**’s not a joke” (Sari & Afriana, 2020)

Base on two examples above, it can be concluded that the highlight of the utterance is focused on "it" (the situation that happened). So that the presupposition is more focused on the word “it” even though the substitute object has been placed at the end of the sentence. Sentence like this a part of the cleft sentences.

9. Implicit clefts with stressed constituents

Implicit cleft with stressed constituents is a kind of stress constitution that is not shown in sentence structures but in some other stress forms like bold type, underlined type, italic, upper case, etc. This type appears to come from the two split sentences to be triggered only when the constituents are under a lot of stress.

Example:

A : “Let’s get the kids something.”

B : “OK but not **I-C-E C-R-E-A-M**” (Muhammad & Karim, 2019)

The word "ICECREAM" is under-stressed and that triggers the presupposition in the utterance thus the presupposition is " frozen dessert". whether Icecream is a frozen dessert or not, the presupposition would be still the same. This term can be categorized as a implicit cleft with stressed constituents.

10. Comparisons and Contrasts

Comparisons and contrasts may be indicated by stress, by the particle as well, back, in return, or by the construction of comparisons. Generally, presuppositions

trigger stress or the construction in the utterance is prosodic, derived from words such as “too”, “back”, and “in return”.

Example:

Rara : “Who is your favorite group?”

Astra : “Blackpink, how about you?”

Rara : “**Ahh I like blackpink too, but I like BTS more**” (Sari & Afriana, 2020)

The comparative element of the utterance above confirms that the speaker also likes Blackpink but when compared to other K-Pop idols she prefers BTS. “Rara like BTS more, does not mean she does not like Blakpink”. Due to a comparison like this does not change a construct, it can be categorized as comparisons and contrasts.

11. Non-restrictive relative clauses

Non-restrictive relative clauses provide a lot of conditional information in fewer words and spaces. According to Levinson (1983) non-restrictive clauses provide additional information. In contrast, the latter kind is not affected by negating the main verb outside the relative clause, resulting in presuppositions. It can be assumed non-restrictive clause triggers the presupposition from the given information.

Example:

Levinson : “Hillary, who climbed Everest in 1953, was the greatest explorer of our day.” (Levinson, 1983)

The example above are under two statements in positive conditions. Whether the second statement exists or not, the assumption is still the same, which is “Hillary

climbed Everest in 1953.” This is because the presupposition is triggered by the information provided relating to the subject of another clause. The utterances above as an example of non-restrictive relative clauses.

12. Counterfactual conditional

A counterfactual conditional is a presupposition trigger that shows that the situation in the sentence has not occurred before. This presupposition shows the truth of an assumption that has the opposite meaning of the assumption. Usually use conditions such as the use of “if” clause, another word like “imagine” and “dream”.

Example:

Saudi excerpt : “**If** we just had a whole Islamic system, we would resolve today’s problems and bring back our past glories.”
 The UK excerpt : “How boring would the world be if we all kept our New Year’s promises?” (Al-Zubeiry, 2020)

The utterance shows something true or fact, but the assumption obtained has the opposite meaning from what has been said. The "if" clause in the utterance shows a supposition, so the actual meaning of the utterance is “we have not a whole Islamic system”. So this presupposition can be considered as counterfactual condition.

13. Question

According to Levinson (1983) divides questions into three types: **yes/no questions**, which are commonly seen to be empty or useless, and open-ended inquiries. The second type of inquiry, **alternative questions**, presupposes the

disjunction of their replies, although they are not empty in this case. Finally, the **WH-questions** query introduces the presuppositions gained by substituting the relevant existential quantifying variable for the word WH, such as who by someone, where by somewhere, how by somehow, and so on.

Example:

Alice : “**What** was your wife's name?”
Mr. Browning : “ Mary.” (A’la & Zakrimal, 2020)

The example above uses the question word "What" as well as the WH question. Speakers use the WH questions to raise a point from the context that has been discussed. The utterance point out “The name of Mr. Browning’s wife.” Therefore, the utterance can be categorized as a WH question.

2.1.1.2 Types of Presupposition

As claimed by Yule (1996) there are six types of presuppositions items potential to use in linguistic. Namely, existential, factive, non-factive, lexical, structural, counterfactual presuppositions.

1. Existential Presupposition

An existential presupposition is a presupposition that indicates the existence or identity of the referent expressed in words that are definite. In every speech that uses nouns, adverbs of place, and adverbs of time stating an existence, speakers are assumed involved in mentioned entities. This presupposition is based on the speaker's commitment to the presence of an entity name, which is conveyed as a noun phrase.

Example:

Lefou : “Exactly! Who needs her when you've got us!”

Gaston : “Yes... But ever since **the war**, I've felt like I've been missing something. And she's the only girl that gives me that sense of...” (Kristy et al., 2020)

In the above utterances, an existential presupposition is triggered by the noun phrase "the war". The war is a state of armed conflict between different countries or different groups within a country. It proves that the war is an existing entity. Due to the speaker's indication of the existence of the war, it is considered to be an existential presupposition.

2. Factive Presupposition

Factive presupposition arises from information that you want to convey in words that show a fact or news which is believed to exist. This presupposition has used the word has a convincing meaning so that the assumption is believed to be something real. Words that states the facts in the speech or statement is a verb that is can provide the definite meaning of the speech. It can be identified by verbs like ‘know,’ ‘realize,’ ‘regret,’ ‘be,’ ‘aware,’ ‘odd,’ and ‘glad.’

Example:

Brown : “Whoa! If the class is a rockin‘ Imma **glad** I came knockin‘! So, let’s hear what I’m working with this year. Who wants to sing first?” (Melly & Ambalegin, 2022)

Students : [Listen!...]

Brown used the verb “glad” utter in his statement. The verb “glad” implies there is truth in his actions, it is knocking on the door first before entering the class. Therefore, the utterance can be categorized as a factive presupposition.

3. Non- Factive Presupposition

This type of presupposition identifies an assumption which is acknowledged to be untrue. This presupposition still possible wrong understandings because the use of words that are not uncertain or ambiguous. This presumption is meant to show that the statement or speech uttered is a wishful thinking or imagination. 'Dream', 'imagery', and 'pretend' are three of the most commonly used verbs.

Example:

Elinor : “Some people **imagine** that there can be no accommodations, no space in a cottage; but this is all a mistake.” (Cahyani, 2016)

The word "imagine" it can be analyzed that, what some people think or imagine is not true. Because, at the inn there is accommodation and there is also room in the cottages. That is, something they imagined was not true. So, the utterance can be categorized as a non-factive presupposition.

4. Counterfactual Presupposition

This presupposition presupposes what is considered true to be something that is not true. In this case, what's assumed is not only false but also contradictory to what's actually true. This presumption is intended to show that statements or utterances that are uttered may possibly occur. The characteristics of this presupposition are the use of the word "dream", imagined, and the use of the if clause.

Example:

Willy : “**If you don’t know how to play the game** I’m not gonna throw my money away on you!”

Charley : “It was my ace, for God’s sake!” (Al-Aameri, K, & Jamil, F,

2020)

The utterance above uses an "if clause" so that the speaker's intention is the opposite of the utterance. Then the assumption that can be obtained is "You know how to play the game". Therefore, the utterance can be categorized as a counterfactual presupposition.

5. Lexical Presupposition

Lexical presupposition is a markable presupposition with a script whose meaning can be understood lexically and causes the script to give rise to other assumptions that are indirectly mentioned in the script. This presupposition uses one word of emphasis, which is used by the speaker to convey another meaning in order to be understood. Other meanings refer to the condition after or after the word is spoken. Other examples involving the lexical presupposition are, 'stop', 'start', 'again'.

Example:

Sierra : "Let me be the first to say xin xia ji Mitchie. It means happy summer Mitchie. Guess who got an A plus in AP Mandarin? **Me again**. Ah! So, how'd it go this morning?"

Mitchie : "It didn't. Camp Rock is a no go."

The word "again" implies that something has happened before and is happening again. It can be assumed that the speaker got an A+ before and now she also got an A+ in her AP Mandarin. Therefore, the utterance can be categorized as a lexical presupposition.

6. Structural Presupposition

Structural presupposition refers to the structure of certain sentences that have been analyzed as a permanent presupposition and conventional that part of that structure already assumed the truth. This assumption uses WH question words and phrases which are Traditionally, the assumption has been that information after the WH- form is known as true.

Example:

Connie : **“What is wrong with that boy? He has got everything.”**

Mitchie : “except a clue.”

The above statement used the word "what" which the word includes as part of WH question word, which means that any information after the word can be considered true and can be concluded as a presupposition. The presupposition is there was something wrong with the boy so the speaker asked such a question. Thus utterance is included as Structural Presupposition.

2.2 Previous Researches

In completing this research the researcher took many references from previous researchers. Where these references are used as learning materials and comparisons so that this research can produce a good and correct study so that it is easily understood by future researchers. The previous researchers are as follows;

First, Tambunan et al. (2019) identified the presuppositions present in the film “Barbie and the Magic of Pegasus”. The study sought to find out what kinds of presuppositions were employed in film and which ones were the most prevalent. To find out these results the researchers used the theory of Yule (2000). According to

the findings, there are nine assumptions. Two existential presuppositions, one lexical presupposition, two structural presuppositions, three factual presuppositions, and one counterfactual presupposition are among the presuppositions.

Second, Guswita & Widodo (2019) studied the usage of prejudgment triggers in online news from the Washington Post and the Los Angeles Times. The data was evaluated using Levinson's (1983) and Yule's (1996) theory of presupposition triggers. The results of the study discovered that the most dominant type of trigger Presupposition was a definite description in the Washington Post online news, with 29 events or (26 percent), while occurrence was a definite description in the Los Angeles online news, with 37 events or (24 percent).

Third, A'la & Zakrimal, (2020) determine the dominant types of presuppositions in Ouija films as the aims of research. Research data were analyzed using pragmatic qualitative methods. Yule's theory (1996) is used to analyze the types of presuppositions in the Ouija film. The results analysis, the researcher found that there are 6 types of presuppositions according to Yule (1996), namely Existential Presuppositions, Structural Presuppositions, Factive Presuppositions, Non-Factual Presuppositions, Lexical Presuppositions, and Counter-Factual Presuppositions. This type of structural presupposition appears 5 times most often, because one of the main characters of the Ouija film, often uses sentences related to questions in conversations with other people.

Fourth, Al-Zubeiry (2020) investigated the triggers of prejudice in British and Saudi Arabian newspaper opinion. The theory used is Yule's (1996) and Levinson's

(1983) to find the trigger. Findings indicated that the Saudi articles had the greatest number of 556 (56.60%) triggers for presupposition were found, while the British articles received 426 (43.40%). Additionally, the results revealed that 'existential' and 'lexical' were the most widely used presupposition triggers in both cases. On the other hand, 'non-factual' and 'structura' presupposition triggers were least.

Fifth, Murillo & Yeh (2021) identified the presupposition triggers contained in the speech. They used theory from Yule's (1996) and Levinson's (1983) to conclude that presupposition studies improve understanding of what is being communicated, especially in the political speech where failed rhetoric can also reflect failed states. The results showed that the state speech was filled with false and ambiguous propositions.

Sixth, Shamim & Kanwal (2022) explores the types and functions of presupposition triggers used in Pakistani political memoirs. The data is taken from the biographies of two prominent politicians in Pakistan, namely: A personal history by Imran Khan and In the Line of Fire: A memoir by Pervaiz Musharaf, which is explored based on the theory of George Yule (1996). the researcher uses a pragmatic corpus approach in this study, and through Ant Conc 3.5 the type of trigger presupposition is selected. Then this trigger function is analyzed qualitatively. The findings reveal that the two authors point to different political events through different presuppositional triggers. It was also found that the function of triggering this presupposition in political memoirs raises different assumptions. The results of the study also show that existential and factive presupposition triggers are used maximally in both memoirs. Counter factual

conditionals, lexical presupposition triggers, structural presupposition triggers, and inactive items are used in descending order.

Seventh, Melly & Ambalegin (2022) used descriptive qualitative which aims to find various kinds of presuppositions that occur in the Camp Rock film. The researchers used Yule's theory (1996) to sort the data based on the categories of the types of presuppositions. The types are; existential presuppositions, factual presuppositions, lexical presuppositions, structural presuppositions, inactive presuppositions, and counter factual presuppositions are six types of presuppositions. The results of this study found 15 presuppositional utterances in the Camp Rock film. There are 4 data of existential presupposition, 1 data of factual presupposition, 5 data of lexical presupposition, 4 data of structural presupposition, and 1 data of counter factual presupposition. Thus, lexical presupposition is the most dominant type of presupposition that appears in the film.

Based on the research of previous researchers, the researcher found that both previous and current researchers used theory by Levinson's (1983) to study triggers and used theory by Yule's (1996) to study types of presuppositions. Additionally, the current researcher also collects data using the same method as the previous researcher. The differences between the current research and previous research are that some previous researchers only studied triggers of presupposition and only used Levinson's theory. Some of them only examine types of presupposition proposed by Yule's theory. In addition, the previous researchers only reviewed one discussion, namely discussing Triggers of presupposition or discussing types of presupposition. Meanwhile, the current researcher discussing the two discussions

of presupposition, namely triggers and types of presupposition. Then, the main difference between previous researchers and current researchers is the difference in the data sources used. The current research uses novels as a data source, where this data source has never been used by previous researchers.

2.3 Theoretical Framework

This research begins with a discussion of pragmatics as the approach. Next, the researcher discusses presupposition as an object of research by breaking it down into two parts. First, the researcher will be discussing existential presuppositions, factual presuppositions, non-factive presuppositions, lexical presuppositions, structural presuppositions, and counterfactual presuppositions are some of the sorts of presuppositions presented by Yule's (1996). Second, the researcher will go over Levinson's (1983) triggers of presupposition, which 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 question.

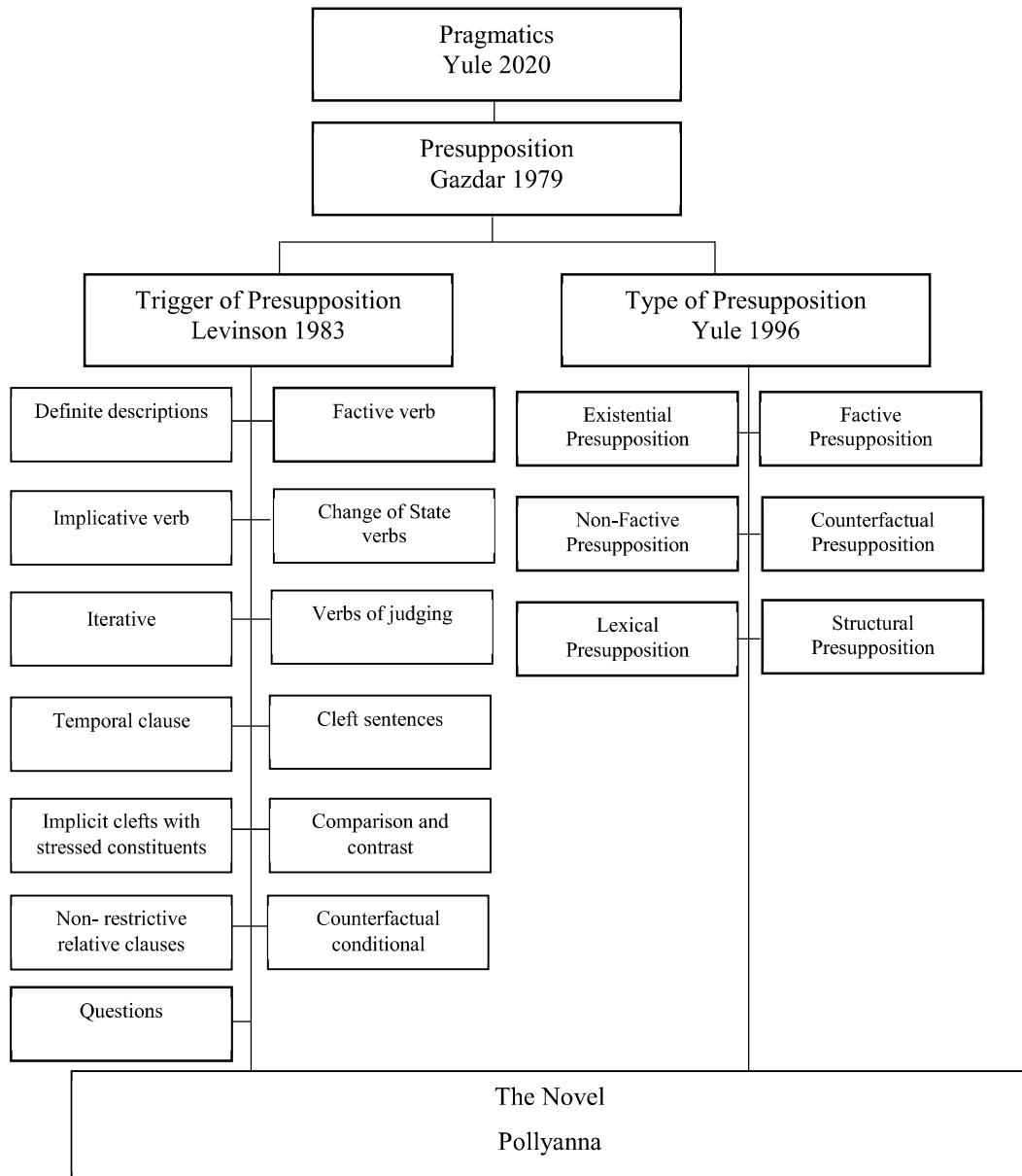


Figure 2.1 Theoretical Framework