

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

Communication has become particularly important for humans as social beings to maintain their survival in society. Communication is the process of exchanging messages or information from one individual to another. By using language as a communication tool, humans can convey each other's messages and intentions. In this communication process, communicators and communicants must have knowledge of language in order to understand the message of the communication.

In communication, humans use a variety of speech patterns to convey their intentions. In terms of speakers, some individuals communicate by stating their messages clearly and directly. However, some individuals also use words or expressions that imply meaning to convey their messages indirectly on purpose and in particular contexts. A message will be easy to understand if the speakers convey their messages directly with clear expressions, but if the speakers use implicit meaning in their expressions, sometimes it is difficult for the listeners or readers to understand what message is being conveyed.

In communication, implicit meaning indicates that something is understood even when it is not communicated or conveyed explicitly or clearly (Merriam-Webster, n.d.) so that is where presupposition takes place. Presupposition is a term that is used to determine what assumptions the listeners may take when the speakers express a statement that contains implicit meaning. Presupposition comes from semantics, the subfield of linguistics. Semantics is the study of how an expression's meaning can be determined from each component, such as a word, phrase, or sentence. Due to its connection to sentence interpretation, presupposition plays a role in semantics. When speakers use presuppositions in their statements, they expect the information will be understood or accepted by the listeners. Later, this supposed information will affect the overall meaning and interpretation of the statements. As semantics only examines the meaning of speech, which is restricted

to the sentences used in the statement, semantic presuppositions are assumptions that can be drawn only through the vocabularies, phrases, or words used in the statement. It is also important for the researcher to investigate the presupposition triggers since specific triggers are thought to be connected to semantic presupposition.

Communication will work effectively if there is a mutual understanding between the sender of the message and the recipient of the message. However, there are occasions when speakers would rather use brief sentences with implicit meaning than use precise and clear words to convey their intentions and aims. The use of implicit meaning in an expression can be caused by several factors such as the speaker's limited time to convey the message, the need or desire to make a short conversation, the possibility that the speaker has a habit of doing so (e.g., they are the type of person who does not talk much), etc. In written communication, expressions that contain implicit meaning are commonly found in text messages, blogs, letters, social media, and others. Whereas in oral communication, expressions that contain implicit meaning are commonly used in official/unofficial forums, daily conversations, interviews, and others.

Expressions that contain implicit meaning may be difficult for certain people to understand because sometimes it takes longer to understand them. Additionally, there is a chance that speakers and listeners will not understand each other so that the speaker's message is not conveyed properly which could lead to ineffective communication. In fact, not everybody is able to fully understand the context or purpose behind someone else's use of implicit meaning in their statements. After observing this phenomenon, the researcher is interested in analyzing presuppositions.

However, in this research, the researcher's limited focus in this study is on presupposition analysis that occurs in oral communication in the form of interviews. The researcher is interested in analyzing the presuppositions discovered in one of the interviews on Oprah Winfrey talk show entitled Oprah's 2020 Vision Tour Visionaries: Michelle Obama Interview. The researcher prefers to use a talk show

as it is an oral conversation and unscripted, so the language used sounds natural. The researcher also interested in this one episode—which had Michelle Obama as the guest star and Oprah Winfrey as the interviewer— because the researcher believes that women tend to imply meaning in speaking. STEM Women Community in their website also stated that to avoid coming out as abrupt or unpleasant, women prefer speaking "less directly" (*The Language Women Use in the Workplace and What It Means*, 2021). Hence, these facts support this research since the researcher analyzes presuppositions.

1.2 Theoretical Framework

1.2.1 Semantics

According to Yule (1985), semantics is the study of the meaning of words, phrases, and sentences. Linguistic semantics deals with the conventional meaning conveyed by the use of words, phrases, sentences of a language. From Yule's statement, it could be concluded that semantics is a subfield of linguistics that deals with the study of meaning in language. It is concerned with comprehending the meaning that words express, independently and in combination, to produce logical and significant conversation. Semantic studies how language users create and understand meaning in context, taking into account discourse, pragmatics, and the use of language in communication. It focuses on how words, phrases, sentences, and discourse convey meaning and how language users interpret meaning. Thus, semantics is an essential field of study in linguistics that is vital to comprehending the ways in which people use language to express and interpret meaning.

1.2.2 Presuppositions

According to Yule (1996), presupposition is something that is assumed by the speaker before making a statement. In other words, presupposition is a term that is used to determine what assumptions that listeners may take when the speakers express a statement that contains implicit meaning. Statements that contain implicit meaning may be difficult for certain people to understand because sometimes it

takes longer to be understood. Therefore, the listeners must be able to make assumptions from the speaker's statements in order to fully understand what the speaker is trying to say. When speakers use presuppositions in their statements, they expect the information to be already understood or accepted by the audiences. Later, this supposed information will affect the overall meaning and interpretation of the statements. As semantics only examines the meaning of speech which is restricted to the sentences used in the statement, semantic presuppositions are assumptions that can be drawn only through the vocabulary, phrase, or word used in the statement.

When people communicate, they often convey more than simply the literal meaning of their words, and it is called the implicit meaning. Implicit meaning in communication refers to the messages or information that are stated indirectly. Implicit meaning can be conveyed through various linguistic and non-linguistic aspects, such as tone of voice, facial expressions, body language, choice of words, cultural references, and shared information. To understand the implicit meaning beyond what is explicitly stated, the reader or listener must be aware of the context, social cues, and shared knowledge. Understanding implicit meaning is important because it enables deeper and more nuanced communication. Failure to recognize implicit meaning can lead to misunderstandings or misinterpretations.

In conversation, there is a particular type of implicit meaning that exists within sentences and is logically assumed for the sentence to be meaningful which is known as presuppositions. Presuppositions is a subsection of semantic meaning that deals with the assumptions or background beliefs that are implied or presupposed by a specific linguistic expression (I. Beaver et al., 2021). These assumptions go beyond what is explicitly stated and are part of the shared knowledge or information assumed by the speaker and the listener. They represent background information that is assumed to be true or known by both the speaker and the listener. The implicit meaning in presuppositions can be powerful because it affects how we interpret and understand the intended message in conversations. If the listener does not accept the presupposition, it may lead to confusion or

miscommunication. Acknowledge presuppositions and their implicit meanings is important in order to fully understand what the intended message behind a statement is.

In this study, the researcher focuses on presuppositions under the scope of semantics. Semantic presuppositions are assumptions that are implied by the meaning of a statement and are considered to be the speaker and the listener's shared understanding in a conversation. These presuppositions are not explicitly stated in the sentence, but rather implied by the choice of words or sentence structure. Presuppositions might be helpful in understanding the implicit meanings as they often reveal the shared assumptions and knowledge that speakers rely on in communication. However, presuppositions can occasionally lead to communication problems as they can assume knowledge or understanding that are not shared by all participants in a conversation.

1.2.3 Types of Presuppositions

In conducting this research, the researcher uses George Yule's theory (1996) to analyze the presuppositions found. According to George Yule, presupposition is something that the speaker assumes as a phenomenon before making an utterance. From Yule's statement, it can be concluded that presuppositions are assumptions that can be made by listeners from speakers' utterances that can be indirectly understood by listeners. In his theory, George Yule categorizes presuppositions into six categories, which are as follows:

1) Existential Presuppositions

According to Yule (1996), the existential presupposition 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. It indicates that existential presuppositions could be used to determine the existence of a thing through presuppositions taken from a statement. The examples of existential presuppositions can be seen as follows:

Utterances	Presuppositions
The girl next door	>> There is a girl
The cat	>> There is a cat

The Examples of Existential Presuppositions by George Yule (1996)

The presuppositions in the example above can be referred to as existential presuppositions because they use words that indicate the existence of something. The word "girl" in example (a) indicates the existence of a human (a girl), and the word "cat" in example (b) indicates the existence of an animal (a cat). With the use of the words in examples (a) and examples (b), the speaker is considered to be committed to the existence of the entity named.

2) Factive Presuppositions

According to Yule, the presupposed information following a verb like "know" can be treated as a fact and is described as factive presupposition. From Yule's statement, it can be said that the use of certain verbs in an expression can prove that an assumption is a fact, where the assumption which is a fact is called a factive presupposition. Yule (1996) also mentions that other verbs such as "realize," "regret," as well as phrases involving "be" with "aware," "odd," "glad," in an expression also refer to factive presuppositions. Factive presuppositions can be illustrated in the following examples:

Utterances	Presuppositions
She did not realize that he was ill	>> He was ill
I was not aware that she was married	>> She was married

The examples of Factive Presuppositions by George Yule (1996)

The presuppositions in the example above can be referred to as factive presuppositions because they use verbs/phrases that can be treated as a fact. As in example (a) there is the word "realize" and in example (b) there is a phrase involving "be" with "aware" which refers to facts. From the expressions above, it can be seen that the fact from example (a) is "he was ill" and the fact from example (b) is "she was married."

3) Lexical Presuppositions

According to Yule (1996), in the case of lexical presupposition, the speaker's use of a particular expression is taken to presuppose another (unstated) concept. It could be said that the affirmation of an idea using particular words in an expression can produce other presuppositions that are not even mentioned in the statement. For instance, adding the word "stop" in a statement creates the assumption that something has already been started/began to be done before and now it is no longer be continued. Examples of lexical presuppositions include the following:

Utterances	Presuppositions
(a) They started complaining	>> They were not complaining before
(b) You are late again	>> You were late before

The examples of Lexical Presuppositions by George Yule (1996)

The presuppositions in the example above can be referred to as lexical presuppositions because the use terms like "start" and "again" refer to the affirmation of something. As seen in the table above, the word "start" is used in example (a), and as it indicates that something has just begun, it may be concluded that it has never been started or done before and was only just beginning at that moment. Likewise in example (b), the word "again" in the utterance indicates that something has been done before and it is likely that something was done again.

4) Structural Presuppositions

According to Yule (1996), in the case of structural presuppositions, certain sentence structures have been analyzed as conventionally and regularly presupposing that part of the structure is already assumed to be true. From Yule's statement it can be understood that structural presuppositions are presuppositions taken from the existence of words that refer to interrogative sentences such as "what," "when," "where," "who," "why," and "how" (WH-questions) in an expression. If a statement contains one of the WH-questions, then the statement itself can be used to determine whether the presuppositions within it are true. Here are some instances of structural presuppositions:

Utterances	Presuppositions
(a) When did he leave?	>> He left
(b) Where did you buy the bike?	>> You bought the bike

The examples of Structural Presuppositions by George Yule (1996)

The presuppositions in the example above can be referred to as structural presuppositions because it contains WH-questions "when" and "where" in the statements. When the WH-question "when did he leave?" is used in clause (a), the structural assumption is "he left," because the speaker would not ask that question if he or she did not believe that "he left" had happened. The same logic applies to example (b), where the speaker asks, "Where did you buy the bike?" This implies that the structural assumption is "you bought the bike," since the speaker would not ask this question if he or she did not believe that "you bought the bike" was true.

5) Non-Factive Presuppositions

According to Yule (1996), a non-factive presupposition is one that is assumed not to be true. Presuppositions of the various kinds previously mentioned are always presumed to be true, but this does not apply to non-factive presuppositions. As the name implies, "non-factive", refers to things that are not true or factual. Yule also added, the usage of verbs like "dream," "imagine," and "pretend" can be used in situations where assumptions are false or fake. Following are some examples of non-factive presuppositions:

Utterances	Presuppositions
I dreamed that I was rich	>> I was not rich
He pretends to be ill	>> He is not ill

The examples of Non-Factive Presuppositions by George Yule (1996)

The presuppositions in the examples above can be referred to as non-factive presuppositions. The usage of verbs in the statements above indicate that anything in the statements did not truly happen. As shown in the table, expression (a) contains the word "dream" where the speaker is only "dreaming" about being rich, so the assumption taken from the expression is "I was not rich." A similar thing occurs in

expression (b), which contains the word "pretend" where the speaker is only "pretending" to be ill, so the assumption taken from the expression is "he is not ill."

6) Counterfactual Presuppositions

Yule (1996) explains that what is presupposed is not only not true but is the opposite of what is true. Yule further stated that counterfactual presuppositions are marked by the existence of an expression that uses an if-clause. It implies that all assumptions drawn from an if-clause-accompanied statement are not only false but also the exact opposite of the realities. Take a look at the samples in the following table for further information.

Utterances	Presuppositions
If you were my friend, you would have helped me	>> You are not my friend
If I were not ill	>> I am ill

The examples of Counterfactual Presuppositions by George Yule (1996)

The presuppositions in the example above can be referred to as counterfactual presuppositions because the utterances contain if-clauses. As in expression (a) which clearly begins with an if-clause, it means that the speaker is "assuming", then the assumption implied by the statement is supposed to be the exact opposite of what is true, which is "you are not my friend." Likewise with expression (b), which similarly employs an if-clause to indicate that the speaker is "assuming," statement (b) is supposed to imply the opposite of what is true, which is "I am ill."

1.2.4 Presupposition Triggers

According to Stalnaker (1973), since specific triggers are thought to be connected to semantic presupposition, it is important for the researcher to investigate the presupposition triggers. Presuppositions can occasionally be difficult to notice since they are sometimes subtle and easily overlooked, but being aware of common presuppositional triggers may help listeners/readers to recognize

and identify the implicit meaning conveyed through presuppositions. Presupposition triggers is a term in linguistics that is used to indicate the existence of certain information indirectly in a statement. The form of presupposition triggers could be in the form of words or phrases that indirectly provide "additional information" that is not explicitly stated in the statement. When people communicating, speakers who use presupposition triggers in their utterances normally assume that the presuppositions have been understood or accepted by the listeners. For this reason, it is important that speakers and listeners have the same understanding so that the message will be effectively delivered.

According to Karttunen (1971), presupposition triggers are classified into three major types such as existential, lexical, and structural, they are as follows:

1) Existential

a. Definite Descriptions

A word or phrase that refers to an object or event that indicates the existence of something. Keenan (1972) provides following example:

“John saw **the man with two heads.**”

The definite description “**the man with two heads**” triggers the presupposition, presupposes that “There is a man with two heads.”

2) Lexical

The items below serve as examples of how specific verb tenses or lexical elements lead to presuppositions.

a. Implicative Verbs

The use of verbs that carry asserted meaning and presuppose meaning in a statement, such as “manage,” “try,” “forgot,” etc. Karttunen (1971) proposes the following instance:

“John **managed** to open the door.”

The implicative verb “managed” carries the asserted meaning that “John succeeded in doing something (open the door)” and presupposes meaning that “John tried to do something (open the door).”

b. Factive Verbs

The use of verbs that presuppose the truth of something in a statement such as “realize,” “tell,” “regret,” “aware,” etc. The example of factive verbs (George Yule 1996: 28) is as follows:

“She didn’t **realize** he was ill.”

The factive verb “realize” presupposes the truth that “he was ill.” Other classes such as adjectives and noun constructions may also indicated as factive predicators as shown in George Yule (1996) following example:

“I wasn’t **aware** that she was married.”

The adjective “aware” presupposes the truth that “she was married.”

c. Change of State Verbs

Change of state verbs are verbs that trigger the presupposition in a statement using verbs like “start,” “stop,” “take,” “leave,” “enter,” “come,” “begin,” “continue,” “finish,” etc. Saeed (1997) proposes the following instance:

“Michelle **stopped** seeing werewolves.”

The verb “stopped” presupposes that the person called “Judy is used to see werewolves.”

d. Verbs of Judging

According to Karttunen (1971), verbs of judging or also called implication in a statement is unrelated to the subject of the verbs of judging itself, it is because these verbs refer to actions or events affiliated with making opinions or evaluating someone or something. Wilson and D. Sperber (1979) propose the following instance:

“Agatha accused Ian of plagiarism.”

The statement above presupposes that “Agatha thinks plagiarism is bad.”

e. Counterfactual Verbs

Crystal (1997) stated that counterfactual verbs are used to express actions, events, or situations that are not true. As a result, what is presupposed is wrong or contrary to fact. The verb “pretend” conveys a counterfactual presupposition, as shown in McCawley (1976) following example:

“Max is **pretending** that he is sick.”

The verb “pretending” in the statement presupposes that “Max is not sick” so it is contrary to facts because Max pretends as if he is sick when the fact he is not.

f. Conventional Items

In the context of conventional items, presupposition triggers could be words or phrases that indicate the existence/awareness of generally known or accepted objects/concepts. Karttunen (1971) argues that sentence presuppositions can be considered as a part of the conventional meaning of expressions, which is related to lexical items. Lexical items such as “another,” “still,” “replace,” “again,” etc., can presupposed conventional meaning. Consider these following examples:

“Cassey bought **another** book.”

The word “another” in the statement above refers to the existence of at least one previous book. Therefore, it presupposes that Cassey already has at least one book.

“Chris is **still** using his old phone.”

The word “still” in the statement above refers to the continuity or an ongoing situation. Therefore, it presupposes that Chris has an old phone in the first place.

“John needs to **replace** her broken chair.”

The word “replace” in the statement above refers to the existence of the original item. Therefore, it presupposes that John already has a chair.

“Lily lost her keys **again**.”

The word “again” in the statement above mentions that someone is doing something again. Therefore, it presupposes that Lily has lost her keys before.

g. Iteratives

Iteratives are linguistic elements that indicate repetition or multiple occurrences of an action or event. In the context of presupposition triggers, iteratives can imply the existence of previous instances of an action or event, thus presupposing certain information. According to Crystal (1997), the word "iterative" is used to describe an action that repeats continually. Iterative presupposition is associated with certain words, such as "another," and "again." Other words or phrases such as "once more," "another time," "repeatedly," etc., also indicated as iteratives. Consider these following examples:

"Bill ate doughnut **again**."

The word "again" in the statement above means that the action or event has occurred at least once before. Therefore, it presupposes that Bill has eaten pizza on previous occasions.

"Let's watch the movie **another time**."

The phrase "another time" in the statement above means that the action has been done previously. Therefore, when someone mentions doing something as in the example, it presupposes that they have watched the movie before.

"The lecturer has to explain the lectures **once more**."

The phrase "once more" in the statement above implies repetition and presupposes prior instances of the action or event. Therefore, when someone mentions doing something as in the example, it presupposes that the lecturer has explained the lectures before.

"Joe **repeatedly** made the same mistake."

The word "repeatedly" in the statement above explicitly indicates repetition and presupposes multiple occurrences of the action or event. Therefore, it presupposes that Joe made the mistake multiple times.

3) Structural

Structural presupposition triggers are linguistic items that indicate particular information or assumptions based on the structure or form of a statement. In order

to convey presupposed information, these triggers rely on the syntactic or grammatical structure of a sentence.

a. Cleft Constructions

According to Biber et al. (1999), a clause can be divided into two parts, each with its own verb. He also states that clefting can be used to highlight specific components. He divides the two main categories of cleft constructions into:

(1) It-clefts

"It-cleft" construction is a specific sort of cleft sentence that employs the pronoun "it" as the subject of the main clause, the verb "be," and then an additional clause that begins with the word "that." The aim is to highlight particular information inside the statement. An "it-cleft" construction has the following structure:

It + be + X + that + Y

In the structure, X represents the highlighted information, and Y represents the rest of the sentence or the comment about X. The "it-cleft" form enables the speaker to highlight particular information and make it the main focus of the statement. Consider the example below to illustrate the "it-cleft" construction:

"Chloe ate the cake."

It-cleft construction: "It was Chloe who ate the cake."

In this example, the "it-cleft" construction emphasizes and highlights "Chloe" as the subject who performed the action of eating the cake. The remaining part of the sentence, "ate the cake," becomes the comment or further information about Chloe.

(2) WH-clefts

A "WH-cleft construction" is a type of cleft sentence that uses a WH-word as the focus of the sentence. The aim is to highlight the particular information represented by the WH-words. A "WH-cleft" construction has the following structure:

WH-words + be + X + subordinate clause.

In the structure, X represents the highlighted information, and the subordinate clause provides additional information related to the focused element. Here is an example to illustrate the WH-cleft construction:

“Chloe ate the cake.”

WH-cleft construction: “What Chloe ate was the cake.”

In this example, the “WH-cleft” construction highlights "the cake" as the object that John ate. The WH-word "what" acts as the sentence's focus, and the following phrase, "Chloe ate was the cake," adds details or commentary about the focused element.

b. WH-questions

The “WH-questions” constructions interpreted with the presupposition that the information after the WH-questions is already known to be true. WH-questions can also trigger presuppositions even when they are replaced with alternative variables.

- (1) Questions containing WH-questions tend to trigger a corresponding presupposition containing an indefinite pro-form. Consider the following example:

“**Who** is the professor of linguistics at MIT?”

The information after the word “who” in the statement above can be assumed as information that is known to be true. Therefore, it presupposes that someone is the professor of linguistics at MIT.

- (2) Questions presenting alternatives of WH-questions tend to trigger the presuppositions of the truth of one of the alternatives. Consider the following example:

“**Is** Newcastle in England or in Australia?”

The replacement of the WH-questions to related variable trigger the presuppositions which presupposes that Newcastle is either in England or in Australia.

c. Adverbial Clauses

Adverbial clauses are adverbials that are used in the main clause that trigger presuppositions to provide additional information about how an activity or event occurred in the statement. Biber et al. (1999) stated that these clauses can be positioned in several ways; typically, they can be found in the beginning position, in the middle, or in the end position. Consider the example below:

“Joe wrote the book **when** he lived in Boston.”

The placement of adverbial clause “when” in the middle of the statement presupposes that Joe lived in Boston.

d. Comparative Constructions

According to Karttunen (1971), comparisons and contrasts can trigger the presuppositions in statements. As seen in the following instances, the comparison formulations (Adjective-er + than) and (As + adjective + as) indicate the presence of a presupposition:

(1) Adjective-er + than

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

The comparison in the statement above presupposes that Barbara is also a linguist.

(2) As + adjective + as

“Jimmy is/isn't as unpredictably gauche as Billy.”

The comparison in the statement above presupposes that Billy is unpredictably gauche.

e. Counterfactual Conditionals

Counterfactual conditionals are conditional sentences that address what would be considered true in different situations and intended to convey an assumption while also conveying the reality of the situation. According to Lakoff (as cited in McCawley 1976), in comparison and contrast, sentences are distinguished by stress, comparison constructions, or other prosodic markers. As shown in Yule (1996) following example:

“If you were my friend, you would have helped me.”

The conditional structure in the statement above presupposes that “you” are not my friend.

f. Non-Restrictive Clauses

In English, there are two types of relative clauses: restrictive (those that limit or define noun phrases) and non-restrictive (those that deliver additional contextual information). Although there are two main categories of relative clauses—restrictive and non-restrictive clauses—Karttunen argues that only non-restrictive clauses can be presupposition triggers. He argues that non-restrictive clauses withstand the negative test because the additional contextual information is unaffected by the negation of the main verb outside of the relative sentence, so it creates presupposition. Consider the following example:

“The Proto-Harrappans, **who flourished 2800-2650 B.C.**, were/were not great temple builders.”

The non-restrictive clause “**who flourished 2800-2650 B.C.**” in the statement above provides additional information which presupposes that The Proto-Harrappans flourished 2800-2650 B.C.

1.2.5 Context

Context significantly influences how people understand and interpret the meaning of a language. In linguistics, context assumes that the linguistic, social, and cultural context of where events or communication take place affects the meaning of words, phrases, or sentences in a statement. According to Leech (1983), context examines relevant elements of an utterance's physical or social environment. Therefore, the social setting in this case comes from the speaker and the listener. Furthermore, Yule (1996) also states that context simply refers to the actual setting in which a term is being used. Thus, it could be concluded that knowledge and the environment might affect how someone uses and understands a language. For this reason, in understanding the meaning of a language, it is

important to consider how the circumstances around it, background information, and other relevant factors that might influence its interpretation and significance.

Communication interpretation is significantly influenced by context. Thus, communication cannot be accomplished solely by words and sentences. Nothing could illustrate how important context is than the various definitions of words in dictionaries. In communication, context can be important in assisting listeners to understand the speaker's intentions and messages. Things like gestures, voice intonation, existing cultural norms, and prior interactions can contribute to conversational context. As a result, it is important to correlate the use of words or sentences with the existing context. If the communication does not consider the existing context, there will be misunderstandings between listeners and speakers.

In context, it is assumed that language is not a system that can function independently but is interconnected with the environment, leading to the possibility that the significance of an event may change over time and in different contexts. As a result, historical, social, and cultural aspects may also have an impact on human interpretation or comprehension of an event.

1.2.6 Constancy Under Negation

In particular, the idea of constancy under negation on presupposition often appears in the area of linguistics and semantics. It concerns the behavior of presuppositions when a sentence is negated. According to Yule (1996), this feature of presupposition is commonly known as Constancy Under Negation, which simply states that the presupposition of a statement will be true even if it is negated. R. Horn & Wansing (2020) also stated that the idea behind the constancy under negation is that when a statement is negated, the presuppositions are supposed to remain the same. Negating a statement may result in various impacts on its presuppositions depending on the context and structure of the statement. In certain situations, a presupposition that is included in a sentence that is negated can yet "project" or continue to be active. In other words, even though the utterance is negated, the original statement is still true or valid. In conclusion, the idea of

constancy under negation concerns the behavior of presuppositions in statements when those statements are negated. The answer can change based on the particular linguistic theory or framework being applied.

1.2.7 Oprah's 2020 Vision Tour Visionaries: Michelle Obama Interview

The talk show started with the discussion of Michelle Obama's recently published book entitled "Becoming" which at the time (2020) was one of the best-selling autobiographies of the year. "Becoming" is an exploration of Michelle Obama's life beginning with her childhood and concluding with her legacy as First Lady. Michelle Obama also discusses the highs and lows of her personal life as well as how she handled them after leaving the White House.

1.3 Review of Previous Studies

For the purpose of writing and analyzing this research, the researcher compares her work to previous studies, since research procedures and research outcomes are conducted can be learned from previous studies. As a linguistics student, presupposition has become a common topic in numerous studies, such as journals and theses. Thus, as a result, there are several research publications for linguistic students on the same issue as this research and those literature reviews from some earlier studies that are relevant to the research issue may be used in this research. The researcher found some accredited journals and theses to be investigated such as; a Sinta 2-accredited journal article entitled "The Analysis of Presuppositions in the Short Stories of Silverter Goridus Sukur" by Erwin Oktoma and Styfanus Mardiono; a Sinta 4 accredited journal article entitled "The Problem of Presupposition in George Orwell's Novella Animal Farm" by Faizal Risdianto, Noor Malihah, Agung Guritno; and a Sinta 4-accredited journal article entitled "Presuppositions as Found in the Tagline of Horror Movie Posters" by Yelmi Roza and Ayumi.

Firstly, the researcher came upon a Sinta 2 accredited journal article entitled "The Analysis of Presuppositions in the Short Stories of Silverter Goridus Sukur"

by Erwin Oktoma and Styfanus Mardiono where the writers also used presuppositions as the topic of this research. Nevertheless, the subject of this research is the short stories of Silverter Goridus Sukur. The researchers tried to describe the types of presuppositions and their meaning. In doing the research, the researcher used descriptive qualitative method. George Yule's (1996) theory is used by the researchers to analyze the types of presuppositions. The result of this study, the researchers found 6 out of 6 types of presuppositions, which are existential presuppositions, lexical presuppositions, structural presuppositions, factive presuppositions, non-factive presuppositions, and counterfactual presuppositions. Furthermore, the similarities between Erwin Oktoma and Styfanus Mardiono's research and this research is that they both use George Yule's theory of presuppositions. The dissimilarity between this article and the researcher's research is that the writers used short stories as the subject and focuses on pragmatic presuppositions while this research focuses on presuppositions under the scope of semantics.

Next, the researcher came to a journal article entitled "The Problem of Presupposition in George Orwell's Novella Animal Farm" which the journal has been accredited to Sinta 4. In this research, the writers Faizal Risdianto, Noor Malihah, and Agung Guritno also investigated presuppositions. The subject used is the conversation in George Orwell's Novella Animal Farm and in this article the writers tried to classify and identify the types and functions of presuppositions found in the data. In doing the research, the writers used descriptive qualitative methods. The writers used George Yule's (1996) theory to classify the types of presuppositions and Jakobson's (1960) theory to identify the function of the presuppositions. The results of their research, the researchers only found 4 out of 6 types of presuppositions, which are existential presuppositions, lexical presuppositions, factive presuppositions, and non-factive presuppositions. The writers also found 5 out of 6 presupposition functions such as referential, emotive, conative, poetic, and phatic, which referential functions are the dominant presupposition functions. Additionally, the similarities between "The Problem of

Presupposition in George Orwell's Novella Animal Farm" and this ongoing research is that they both use George Yule's theory of presuppositions. What makes this article different from the researcher's ongoing research are that the writers used conversation in George Orwell's novella as the subject and focuses on pragmatic presuppositions while this research focuses on presuppositions under the scope of semantics.

Afterwards, the researcher also came to a Sinta 2 accredited journal article entitled "Presuppositions as Found in the Tagline of Horror Movie Posters" by Yelmi Roza and Ayumi where they also mentioned presuppositions as the subject of this research. However, the subject of this research is taglines of horror movie posters. The purpose of the study itself is to discover presupposition triggers and categorize the different types of presuppositions that can be found in the taglines of horror movie posters. In this article, they used a descriptive qualitative method. The researchers discovered the presupposition triggers using Karttunen (1971) theory and categorized the types of presuppositions by using George Yule's (1996) theory. In doing this research, the researchers found that there are 42 presupposition triggers in 14 taglines of horror movie posters which definite descriptions are the most dominant presupposition triggers. The researchers also found 4 out of 6 types of presuppositions, which are existential presuppositions, lexical presuppositions, factive presuppositions, and counterfactual presuppositions. In addition, the similarities between Yelmi Roza and Ayumi's research and this ongoing research is that they both use George Yule's theory of presuppositions and also discover the presupposition triggers. What makes this article different from the researcher's ongoing research are that the writers use taglines of horror movie posters as the subject and focuses on pragmatic presuppositions while this research focuses on presuppositions under the scope of semantics.

In a thesis entitled "Presupposition Used in the Oprah Talk Show About J. K. Rowling's Life and Career," the writer, Ranny Lestari, a student from Universitas Islam Negeri Syarif Hidayatullah Jakarta, also discusses the same topic. The writer also chose one of Oprah's Talk Show as the subject of her research. Ranny Lestari

conducts her research using a qualitative study with a descriptive research method. Further investigation reveals that Ranny Lestari's research tries to determine what forms of presuppositions may be found in J. K. Rowling's interview on the Oprah Talk Show. The writer of "Presupposition Used in the Oprah Talk Show About J. K. Rowling's Life and Career" employs Huang's nine sorts of presuppositions which are Definite Description, Factive Predicates, Aspectual/change of State Predicates, Implicative Predicates, Iteratives, Quantifiers, Temporal Clauses, Cleft Sentences, and Counterfactual Conditional. In her research, Ranny Lestari discovered all types of Huang's presuppositions where the Definite Description is the most-used type of presupposition and Aspectual/Change of State Predicates is the least-used type of presupposition in the talk show. The similarities between Ranny Lestari's research and the researcher's ongoing research are that they both use Oprah's Talk Show as the subject. But although researching from the same talk show, Ranny Lestari uses Huang's theory of presuppositions while the researcher uses George Yule's theory of presuppositions.

Other works on the same topic were discovered in a thesis published by Ayu Puspita Sari, a student of Universitas Muhammadiyah Sumatera Utara, entitled "A Pragmatics Analysis of Presupposition in Mata Najwa 'Politik Sarung Ma'ruf Amin'." This thesis also focuses on examining several sorts of presuppositions found in the interview of Ma'ruf Amin in Mata Najwa Talk Show. In the research, Ayu Puspita Sari explained the data by using qualitative study with a descriptive research method. She also used George Yule (1996) idea of presuppositions to identify several forms of presuppositions found in the talk show. In her research, Ayu Puspita Sari discovered all types of George Yule's presuppositions where the Structural Presupposition is the most-used type of presupposition and Lexical Presupposition is the least-used type of presupposition in the Mata Najwa talk show. The similarities between Ayu Puspita Sari's research and the researcher's ongoing research are that they both use talk shows as the subject and rely on George Yule's theory of presuppositions to identify the presuppositions found. However, despite using talk shows and George Yule's idea, Ayu Puspita Sari uses an Indonesian

television program as the subject of her research, in which they use Indonesian throughout the conversation.

Based on all the previous studies above, the researcher determines that the research above has the following strengths: all the research objects are quite clear, the theories used are appropriate, the language used are easy to understand, and the researcher believes that the results of the research above could enrich the repertoire of presuppositions research. The researcher has not discovered any weaknesses in all of the previous research above.

After reviewing all of the previous research above, the researcher came to the conclusion that this research could potentially use as a guide for the researcher in order to improve the theory used in conducting this research. The research above also helps the researcher to determine systematic steps in conducting this research in terms of theories and concepts.

1.4 Research Questions

This research aims to provide the answers to the following questions using George Yule's (1996) presuppositions theory. The research questions are:

- (1) What types of presuppositions are found in Oprah Winfrey talk show entitled Oprah's 2020 Vision Tour Visionaries: Michelle Obama Interview based on George Yule's (1996) Presuppositions Theory?
- (2) What are the presupposition triggers are found in Oprah Winfrey talk show entitled Oprah's 2020 Vision Tour Visionaries: Michelle Obama Interview based on Karttunen's Presupposition Triggers Theory?

1.5 Objectives

Due to the questions listed above, there are two objectives in this research. They are as follows:

- (1) To analyze what types of presuppositions found in Oprah Winfrey talk show entitled Oprah's 2020 Vision Tour Visionaries: Michelle Obama Interview.

- (2) To investigate what are the presupposition triggers found in Oprah Winfrey talk show entitled Oprah's 2020 Vision Tour Visionaries: Michelle Obama Interview.

1.6 Scopes

Presupposition comes under the branch of linguistics both in pragmatics and semantics. However, in this research, the researcher only focuses on analyzing the semantic presuppositions found in Oprah's 2020 Vision Tour Visionaries: Michelle Obama Interview. Despite the fact that all statements containing presuppositions will be examined, only 5 utterances from each type of presupposition will be included in the data analysis. Following that, the Appendix will gather all remaining data. In conducting this research, the researcher uses George Yule's (1996) Presuppositions Theory to analyze the types of presuppositions and also Karttunen's (1971) Presupposition Triggers Theory to investigate the presupposition triggers.

