Pragmatic Presupposition and Its Function in Advertisements: a Case Study of Lancôme

Xinyun Tang
Fujian Academy of Social Sciences
Fuzhou, China

Abstract—The paper aims to discuss the pragmatic presupposition and its function in advertisements. In order to illustrate this, 9 pieces of print advertisements of Lancôme are selected for analysis. The main findings are: first, the employment of presupposition may make the advertisements more persuasive and convincing; second, presupposition in the advertisements serves the purpose of praise or flattery; third, the employment of presupposition makes the language of advertisements more concise but rich in content, hence saving the costs for the advertisers.

Keywords—presupposition; advertisements; function

I. INTRODUCTION

The concept of presupposition originates from the philosophical work of Frege (1892) and in the 1960s it became an essential topic in the field of linguistics (Chomsky, 1965; Stalnaker, 1970; Karttunen, 1973). Substantial studies on presupposition have been conducted by linguists, mainly from the perspective of semantics and pragmatics.

Advertisements aim to stimulate the customers’ desire to purchase the relevant products without using the obvious language, and the proper employment of presupposition could be seen as a linguistic strategy to fulfill this demand (Zeng, 2012, pp. 41). Therefore, the study of the application of presupposition in advertisements will not only promote the theoretical analysis of presupposition, but also benefit the development of advertisements. Currently, there are many studies on this topic from a diverse range of aspects, providing a dependable theoretical background for further analysis (Tanaka, 1994; Peccei, 2000; Wang, 2007).

The purpose of this paper is to investigate the role presupposition plays in advertisements. The following section mainly discusses the controversial definition of presupposition as well as its existing classification and triggers in the prior studies. In addition, a brief overview of relevant research on advertisements and data utilized in the work will be provided. The following part will focus on the detailed analysis of presupposition in the chosen advertisements and its practical function; this is followed by a critical review of the difficulties in defining presupposition during the analysis process. A brief summary will be given in the final section of the thesis.

II. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

A. Varying Definition of Presupposition

After Chomsky (1965, pp. 148-160) added the concept of semantics to his grammar theory, presupposition, an important branch in semantics, has attracted great interest from linguists, thus becoming the focus of linguistic theory from 1969 to 1976 because it put forward a set of practical questions relating to diverse linguistic theory at that time (Levinson, 1983, pp. 167).

Broadly speaking, presupposition is acknowledged by many scholars (Yule, 1996, pp. 26) as the link between two propositions. To illustrate presupposition, assuming that the symbol >> presents ‘presupposes’, proposition p is included in the sentence [a] and proposition q is included in the sentence [b], the connections between the two propositions could be explained as in [c]:

[a]. Mary’s dress is beautiful. (= p)
[b]. Mary has a dress. (= q)
[c]. p >> q (ibid)

However, when it comes to practical cases, problems may arise if the definition of presupposition is simply restricted to the layer of logic and semantics. Another example may help to illustrate this:

[d]. Tom: Mary, where is the apple juice I bought yesterday?
[e]. Mary: Well, Tim is seemingly content today.

Although there seems to be no connection between Tom’s and Mary’s words from the semantic meaning, it can still be inferred from Mary’s words that ‘Tim may drink the apple juice Tom bought yesterday’ when the context of this dialogue is taken into consideration. Therefore, attention should be paid to pragmatic meaning in the analysis of presupposition.

Stalnaker (1970) proposes the concept of presupposition in the pragmatic sense, which was further defined by Keenan (1971) as pragmatic presuppositions. In his opinion, semantic presupposition and pragmatic presupposition are not controversial, and presupposition could be seen as the relationship among sentences, propositions and utterances or the connections between the mental attitude of speakers and
listeners (Stalnaker, 1970; Keenan, 1971). However, the
notion of semantic presupposition is seen as problematic and
some linguists suggest it should be abandoned (see
277-278) takes an in-between position and puts forward that
presupposition should be studied from both the angle of
semantics/logic and pragmatics since it not only has
something to do with lexical items and sentence structures
but also will be restricted to certain contexts. Sharing similar
ideas, Gazder (1979) proposes the notions of potential
presupposition and actual presupposition. He holds the view
that the presupposition in the semantic sense is simply
potential when it is employed in real communication – some
may be deleted while some may become actual due to the
complex contexts.

TABLE I. THE TYPES OF PRESUPPOSITION FROM YULE’S WORK
(1996, pp. 30)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Example</th>
<th>Presupposition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Existential</td>
<td>The X</td>
<td>&gt;&gt;X exists</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factive</td>
<td>I regret leaving</td>
<td>&gt;&gt;I left</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-factive</td>
<td>He pretended to be happy</td>
<td>&gt;&gt;He wasn’t happy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lexical</td>
<td>He managed to escape</td>
<td>&gt;&gt; He tried to escape</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Structural</td>
<td>When did she die?</td>
<td>&gt;&gt; She died</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Counterfactual</td>
<td>If I weren’t ill,</td>
<td>&gt;&gt; I am ill</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Recent studies switch more focus to the employment of
presupposition under the umbrella of pragmatics. Meyer
(1993, 2001) argues that presupposition is owned by
speakers, but its realization largely depends on the attitude of
the listeners, hence offering the theoretical background for
analyzing some properties in presupposition, such as its
defeasibility. In addition, Yule (1996, pp. 29) also holds the
view that presupposition should be described as the
assumptions the speaker makes which are prior to the
utterance. More importantly, speakers rather than the
sentences have the presupposition, which is widely accepted
by pragmatic researchers (Stalnaker, 2011, p. 70). From
another perspective, Peccei (1999) defines pragmatic
presupposition as an inference which is supposed to be true
instead of asserting to be true, and it originates from the
knowledge background which language users share together
to illustrate the lexical items or syntax in the utterance.

Above all, there exists disagreement in giving a clear and
complete concept of presupposition, which could be
attributed to the different cultural backgrounds and
competency of literacy between speakers and listeners as
well as the relatively vague boundary between semantics and
pragmatics (Zeng, 2012, pp. 25). These conflicts may
contribute to some difficulty for the analysis in specific cases,
because the characteristics and triggers of presupposition
depend heavily on the selected definition of presupposition
(Levinson, 1983, pp. 184).

Considering the purpose of this study and in order to
facilitate the research, this essay intends to adopt the
definition that Yule (1996, pp. 26) proposes in his analysis,
which has been employed in some previous studies that
focused on the analysis of presupposition in the genre of
advertisements (Wang, 2007).

B. Presupposition Triggers and Presupposition Types

Presupposition triggers refer to particular ‘lexical items or
linguistic constructions’ that evoke presupposition (Huang,
2007, pp. 65). So far, many efforts have been made to
classify the presupposition triggers. Karttunen (cited in
Levinson, 1983, pp. 181) collected thirty-one types of
presupposition triggers, and Levinson (1983, pp. 181-184)
selected thirteen representative kinds as examples. Based on
Levinson’s study, He provided detailed explanations for the
classification of those triggers (2000, pp. 289-296). In a
recent study, Huang (2007, pp. 65-66) identified eight types
of presupposition trigger. In addition, some linguists also
focus on the functions of presupposition triggers in particular
contexts (Kang, 2012).

From the perspective of semantics and logic, Allwood et
al. (1977) classified presupposition into three types:
existential presupposition, factive presupposition, and
generic presupposition. By comparison, Yule (1996, pp. 27)
categorized the presupposition in terms of the way language
is expressed and its indicators. He identified six types of
presupposition: existential, factive, lexical, structural, non-
factive, and counter-factual.

TABLE II. THE TYPES OF PRESUPPOSITION TRIGGERS FROM
LEVINSON’S WORK (1983, PP. 181-184)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Presupposition triggers</th>
<th>Descriptions or Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Definite descriptions</td>
<td>John saw/didn’t see the man with two heads.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Implicative verbs</td>
<td>regret, be aware, realize, know, be proud that</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Change of state Verbs</td>
<td>Begin, stop, happen, forget</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iteratives</td>
<td>Restore, repeat, again, return</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verbs of Judging</td>
<td>accuse, criticize</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Temporal clauses</td>
<td>before, after, since, during</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cleft sentences</td>
<td>It was/Harry that kissed Rosie.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Implicit clefts with stressed consituents</td>
<td>Linguistics was/wasn’t invented by CHOMSKY. John did/didn’t compete in the OLYMPICMICS.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comparisons and Contrasts</td>
<td>(a) Marked by stress/other prosodic means</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(b) Marked by particles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(c) Marked by comparative constructions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-restrictive relative clauses</td>
<td>Hillary, who climbed Everest in 1953, was the greatest explorer of our day.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Counterfactual conditionals</td>
<td>If the notice had only said ‘mine-field’ in English was well as Welsh, we would/would never have lost poor Llewellyn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Questions</td>
<td>(a) yes/no questions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(b) alternative questions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(c) WH-questions</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As mentioned earlier, the types of presupposition and
their triggers depend heavily on the definition of
presupposition. Therefore, the types and triggers I select for
the analysis should be compatible with the definition of Yule.
Based on this consideration, this research selects six types of
presupposition Yule proposed which were further explained in Huang’s work (2007, pp. 65-66) for the analysis in this study. Their definition and examples will be shown in appendix I. In terms of presupposition triggers, I adopt the key 13 presupposition types (see appendix II) Levinson identified (1983, pp. 183-184), because all the relevant theory about presupposition should address the majority of the presupposition triggers listed in it (ibid, pp.185), and they are also partially discussed in Yule’s explanation of presupposition types.

C. The Review of the Presupposition in the Analysis of Advertisements

The language of advertisements plays an important role in promoting the advertised products, and thus become the focus in the diverse studies of linguistics. (Leech, 1966; Geis, 1982; Cook, 1992; Tanaka, 1994; Peccei, 1999) From the perspective of pragmatics, advertising could be seen as a directive speech act to persuade the consumers to purchase the relevant goods. In the construction of advertisements, the ads producers have to take the psychological need of the customers into considerations, such as respect, flattery and entertainment, and should follow the principle of politeness. Geis (1982) argues that the language of advertisements are supposed to be concise, real, clear, relevant, and convincing on the basis of the cooperative principle proposed by Grice. Tanaka (1994, pp.12-34) adopts the framework of Relevance Theory (RT) to explain the communication in advertisements. Advertisers convey the information of the products by means of linguistic devices, and at the same time, consumers could understand the genuine purpose of the advertisers via the discursive strategies or background knowledge, which could be regarded as the process of seeking the relevance.

Presupposition, an essential topic in the study of pragmatics, has been applied in the analysis of the genre of advertisements in recent 20 years. Goddard (1998) briefly discusses the importance of presupposition in advertisements. Sharing the similar idea, Peccei (1999) points out that presupposition would serve the purpose of advertisement, and he gave a specific example for illustration. In more recent studies, Wang (2007) discusses the function of the employment of presupposition in advertisement at length via some examples written in English and Chinese. Similarly, Ge (2011) emphasis the language of advertisements will be more persuasive and acceptable with the tactical use of presupposition.

III. EMPIRICAL FOUNDATION AND DATA COLLECTION

This paper adopts the method of textual analysis to discuss the employment of presupposition in the genre of advertisement and further investigate its functions. Besides, the work involves some quantitative as well as qualitative analysis of data. On the basis of the relevant theory discussed in the Section II, the following part will first identify the presupposition types and triggers in the corpus selected for the study and analyze the context at length. The deeper analysis of the functions will then be shown. Furthermore, the usefulness and problems of the notion of presupposition in this study will be discussed in the final part of next section.

The data utilized in the study are chosen from the print advertisements of Lancôme during the period of 1988 to 2015. Lancôme is a celebrated French luxury cosmetic and perfumes brand, and it enjoys great popularity by women throughout the world, English-speaking countries in particular. More importantly, Lancôme is known as one of the best advertisers on the earth for its great fame and high-quality advertisements, which are certainly worthwhile for researching. With the computer-assisted technique, the top 25 print advertisements were downloaded with the heaviest traffic on the official website. On the consideration of the consistency and representativeness of the data, this research excludes those ads that were not mainly written in English or contain too little verbal language in order to facilitate the study. Finally, 9 print advertisements were selected as the analysing data.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

As can be found in appendix II and appendix III, a variety of presupposition types and triggers exist in the selected 9 advertisements. In this section, I will identify and analyze typical examples of them in detail. The followings are the advertisements I select for analysis.

1. Lancôme invents our first skincare that boosts the activity of genes…See visibly younger skin in just 7 days. Clinically proven, Powerful skin results in 7 days.
2. Reveal your true lips-your true mood-more naturally than ever before. Only Lancôme could create such lipsticks-such pure beauty, such pure, pure caressing care.
3. Lancôme, the number one beauty brand in the world, is proud that we welcome Julia Roberts as our new ambassadress…
4. Hold the line on shine. The innovative Dual Polymer system of ultra-absolute micro-power keeps skin flawlessly matte with no dryness. Matte Finish makes pores look smaller while improving skin’s clarity and condition. Believe in Beauty.
5. Turn up Your Lips With GLIDING Sensual Shine! Sensual sheer color vibrant lipshine.
6. “Yes, I realise there’s been a dramatic climb of problems related to negative body image in the general public, but I need to be a hypo crite in order to pay my mortgages.” — Julia Roberts
7. …The 1st show-stopping mascara. Lancôme reveals the secret to show-stopping eyes. Betty Boop originated the look and now supermodel Daria recreates it. Lashes are dressed with intense volume at the lash line and sensuous curve from root to tip. Never overdone…
8. …Is there really such a thing, or is it just that European women have learned that good skin requires ongoing, daily care? Lancôme care. Precisely
formulated, precisely balanced, hard-working skin care products.

- 9. Feel the vibration...See the growth. The first vibrating primer to boost the appearance of natural lash growth....First apply Oscillation Powerbooster to prepare and improve the lash surface followed by your favorite mascara to maximize your makeup result...Results are spectacular: visibly stronger, fuller, longer day after day. They lose less lases during makeup removal.

Firstly, existential presupposition, usually a most common type in the communication, can also be found throughout all the advertisements. For instance, existential presupposition, which is triggered by definite description can be seen in some phrases such as “the secret to show-stopping eyes” (in advertisement 8), presupposing a secret exists prior the utterance; “intense volume at the lash line and sensuous curve” (in advertisement 9) presuppose that a lash line exists. Many similar cases are easily identified, including “the genes... specific proteins” (in advertisement 1), “the face and skincare” (in advertisement 1), “the line on shine” (in advertisement 4) and etc.

Apart from definite noun phrase, existential presupposition is presented in possessive construction as well, which is generally triggered by possessive pronouns. For instance, “our first skincare” and “our first Youth Activator” in advertisement 1 presuppose that the existence of first skincare and first Youth Activator. And it suggests that it is “we (Lancôme)” that possess the first skincare or first Youth Activator, emphasizing the value of the brand and strengthening the psychological connection between the product and the advertisement producer. Also in advertisement 1, “your skin’s youth” presupposes that you (the targeted consumer) own the skin’s youth, narrowing the distance between the writer and the reader by the employment of the second person pronouns. Similar cases such as “your lips...” and “your star lash look” are presented in advertisement 5 and advertisement 7. Just as the speakers prefer to frequently employ the second person pronouns in their speech to draw the attention from the listeners, so the advertisements producer make the advertisements more attractive and eye-catching to the readers by doing so.

According to the relevant law and regulation, advertisements should aim to present the genuine information of the advertised product without false or wildly exaggerated content. From the perspective of audience, they also prefer the advertisements, which could offer the reliable introduction based on the facts. Therefore, some true background knowledge could be embedded in the advertisements with the employment of factive presupposition. Generally speaking, factive presupposition is presented in the subordinate clause led by factive predicates. There are mainly two sub-types of factive predicates, including epistemic or cognitive factives and emotive factives. For instance, the employment of epistemic or cognitive factive can be found in advertisement 6, and it is triggered by the verb ‘realize’ in the sentence “I realize there’s been a dramatic climb of problems related to negative body image”, presupposing the existence of a dramatic climb of problems related to negative body image. In terms of emotive factives, it can be seen in “Lancôme... is proud that we welcome Julia Roberts as our new ambassadress”, which is triggered by “is proud that”, presupposing the warm attitude Lancôme holds for the fact that Julia Roberts becomes its new ambassadress. Moreover, this presupposition is also built on the background knowledge that Julia Roberts is a celebrated American actress; otherwise, the audience may feel puzzled about the truth the advertisements producers intend to deliver. Additionally, it is worth mentioning that sometimes the factive presupposition will be triggered by factive NPs such as “the fact/knowledge that” (Huang, 2009, pp.66), although it is not spotted in the chosen data for this analysis.

As Yule (1996, pp. 28) points out, the difference between lexical presupposition and factive presupposition lies in the fact that the linguistic expression that employed in the former intend to presuppose another new concept or idea while the expression that employed in the later tend to presuppose the truth that is just described after it. In the chosen data of 9 advertisements, lexical presupposition is employed frequently as well. Lexical presupposition is usually triggered by implicative verbs/adverbs, change of state verbs and iteratives. However, pitifully, few implicative verbs or implicative adverbs are obviously identified in the chosen data, and one of those ambiguous in advertisement 8 is the verb “maximize” in “Oscillation Powerbooster to prepare and improve …your favorite mascara maximize your makeup result”, presupposing that the makeup result is enhanced with the help of Oscillation Powerbooster.

Despite the fact that there are not much implicative verb/adverbs in the selected advertisements, lexical presupposition, which are triggered by change of state verbs are easily identified. For instance, in advertisement 1, “Lancôme invents …skincare boosts the activity of genes” presuppose that Lancôme designs a new type of skincare that boosts the activity of genes at the first time and didn’t make such skincare before, which emphasizes the originality and innovativeness of the Lancôme. Also, it suggests the vital importance of this skincare among varieties of products, which may draw the audience attention.

In addition, there exist some examples to prove that iteratives can trigger lexical presupposition. In advertisement 1, ‘its youthful quality returns: cushiony softy and velvety to the touch’ presuppose that its youthful quality had existed before, which is triggered by iterative verb “return”. The employment of lexical presupposition also implies that it (the skin) no longer owns its youthful, successfully evoking strong eagerness of audience to win back their lost beauty. In this way, the potential or targeted consumers may have great interested in the advertised products and hence purchase them finally.

Structural presuppositions can also be found throughout the chosen advertisements. For example, in advertisement 9, structural presuppositions are triggered by the temporal clause “After one month, the feelings they have...”, presupposing that they have such feelings for the product
have created. Also in advertisement 9, “when you look sensational…” presupposes your sensational look. Besides temporal clause, comparison and contrasts are also employed to trigger the structural presuppositions. For instance, in advertisement 2, “reveal your true lips more naturally than ever before” offers the presupposition that your lips are revealed naturally in the past days. And in advertisement 4, “Matte Finish makes pores look smaller while improving skin’s clarity and conditions” presuppose that pores look small before. It can be inferred that the employment of comparative construction not only presupposes the existed condition, but also conveys the future belief to the audience. More importantly, it highlights the effects of advertised products, but also implicitly praise the potential customers, thus making the advertisements more easily acceptable to the audience.

Additionally, in advertisement 8, structural presupposition is triggered by alternative questions. ‘Is there really such a thing, or is it just that European women have learned that good skin requires ongoing, daily care?’ presupposes that there is such a thing or it is just…requires ongoing daily care. Different from the alternative questions in people’s daily communication, the alternative questions in advertisement usually do not expect from the reply from the audience, but offer the answer just following the question, and thus attract people’s attention.

Nevertheless, although many presupposition types and triggers are discussed so far, there is no evident sign for the presupposition that is triggered by non-factives and counterfactual conditional. A non-factive presupposition refers to one that is ‘assumed not be true’ (Yule, 1996, pp.29), and it is not usually seen in the genre of advertisement because it often carries negative meaning and attitude in context. (Zeng, 2012, pp.41) Sharing the similar structure and potential meaning, counter-factual presupposition does not appear frequently in the advertisements either, but sometimes it will be adopted by the advertisers to stress the ability of their product and belittle other competitors via implicit comparison.

In the previous part, the different types of presupposition and its triggers were analyzed in the selected advertisements, and this section will mainly focus on the functions of presupposition in advertisements.

To begin with, presupposition has the orienting function in the advertisements. (Wang, 2007) For the advertisers, it is important to guide the audience to capture the key information embedded in the advertisements. However, whether a piece of print advertisement or Television advertisement often contains much irrelevant content in order to make the advertisements more eye-catching and attractive, under this circumstance, the attention of the potential customers may be distracted from the core information the advertisers intend to deliver. With the employment of presupposition, this problem could be relieved to a large extent. For example, as the case that is mentioned in the previous part, the structural presupposition that is triggered by alternative question (in advertisement 9) presupposes a fact that there is an answer in the given two choices, which limits the audience’s mind and makes them focus on the question. And then the immediate answer “Lancôme cares” stress the important role Lancôme plays in the cosmetic brand, and leave the audience a deep impression as well. Moreover, from the perspective of the audience, they could also easily concentrate on the essential parts of the advertisement and consider whether to purchase the products in terms of their demanding. On the other hand, the customers may make an unwise decision under the guidance of the advertisers, which may lead to impulsive purchase occasionally.

Secondly, the employment of presupposition may make the advertisements more persuasive and convincing. Advertisement is a type of one-way communication (Vestergard & Schroder, 1985, pp.14). Although advertisers create the advertisements on the basis of the common knowledge shared by both language producer and audience, they do not negotiate with the targeted reader prior to the advertisements. Therefore, the communicative intention of the speakers/advertisements plays a vital role in both presupposition and advertisements. And the advertisers could guide the audience to believe some truth. For example, as I have discussed briefly before, in advertisement 9, ‘apply Oscillation Powerbooster… the lash surface followed by your favorite mascara to maximize your makeup result’ presupposes that Oscillation Powerbooster could enhance the makeup result, hence implicitly guiding the audience to believe the existence of the effect of “Oscillation Powerbooster” as well as the added function of mascara. Therefore, with the employment of presupposition, the advertisements may be more persuasive, thus publicising the advertised products in a more convincing way.

Thirdly, the employment of presupposition makes the language of advertisements more concise but rich in content, hence saving the costs for the advertisers. During our daily communication, presupposition could enhance the efficiency of communication (Stalnaker, 2011, pp.70), and this function is also fulfilled in the genre of advertisements. According to America’s Marketing Manager’s Handbook, a qualified advertisement should possess five qualities as follows: Attention, Interest, Memory and Action, and they are generally abbreviated to AIDMA functions. In order to draw the attention of the readers and make the advertised products stay longer in the memory of potential customers, the frequent uses of possessive pronouns, such as “our first skincare” and “our first Youth Activator” in advertisement 1, (presupposing that the first skincare/first Youth Activator exist,) could not only help to set up the close relationship between the advertisers and the readers, but also stress the identity of Lancôme. More importantly, it only takes one or a couple words to achieve this goal, which proves to be cost-effective for the advertisers.

Finally, presupposition in the advertisements serves the purpose of praise or flattery. In the discourse of
advertisement, it is essential for the advertisers to follow the principles of politeness. (Geis, 1982) However, if a piece of advertisement directly points out that the readers have some shortcomings, it will be judged as rude and offensive. More importantly, in the cases of Lancôme the potential customers for the cosmetic products are almost women with desires for beauty, and therefore it may result in unpleasantness and have negative effect on the image of the company if the wording of the advertisement is not appropriate. With the employment of presupposition, this problem could be tackled in a certain sense. For example, in advertisement 4, “Matte Finish makes pores look smaller…” presuppose that pores look small before, without directly pointing that the readers have the pore trouble, and avoid causing offence. In this the way, the advertisement is more acceptable to the audience. Furthermore, in some cases such as advertisement 1, the use of “returns” in “its youthful quality returns” praises the skin for its youthful quality before, and under the influence of presupposition, the readers may possibly have stronger desire to regain their beautiful skin and develop interest in the serum that Lancôme aims to publicize in this example.

V. CRITICAL EVALUATION

This paper adopts Yule’s definition for the discussion and analysis, and mainly follows three rules: first, presupposition should be described as the assumptions the speaker makes which are prior to the utterance; second, speakers rather than the sentences have the presupposition; third, potential presuppositions can become actual presupposition only when they are placed in the contexts with speakers. However, although it helps to analyze the chosen data to a large extent, some problems still arise. Firstly, the advertisements producers and their readers usually have no chance to form a close contact, and as a result, researchers have no idea about how the readers will respond to the advertisers and lack the understanding of the whole context. Furthermore, sometimes it is ambiguous to identify triggers and types in the chosen data, because some sentences may involve more than one possible trigger, and some verbs in particular, cannot match the existed presupposition types perfectly.

In terms of other limitations, the absence of the discussion of cultural presuppositions (Nida, 1981, pp.14) should be paid attention to. Since the cultural presupposition may involve a large amount of analysis of stylistics, customs, beliefs and so on, it is not included in the study this time, and further efforts in this aspect are expected in the future analysis. Moreover, the data selected for the study is insufficient, which probably results in the lack of two types presupposition that Yule proposes in the 9 advertisements. Moreover, they make efforts to establish a close relationship with the readers, which could be seen from the employment of gaze and social distance. In particular, they are trying to win back the trust of shareholders by using a series of linguistic devices like personal pronouns to show their enthusiasm, determination, and unity. In the meantime, they still lay great emphasis on the support of their customers and their employees, which can be seen through their salience in the pictures or the usages of personal pronouns in Dave Lewis’ letter. What they imply is that with the help of shareholders, customers and all staff, they exist as a united team to go through the crisis together even in this troublesome condition.

VI. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the thesis finds out the frequent use of presupposition in the genre of advertisements. Through a brief discussion about the previous studies on the presupposition and its application in the genre of advertisements, the particular presupposition types and its triggers are identified in the selected 9 advertisements. Based on the detailed analysis of the chosen data and relevant prior studies, 4 different functions that presupposition performs are presented in the following part. Finally, the problems exist in defining the presupposition and weakness of the essay is briefly discussed. In the future analysis, the study about presupposition in advertisements can be conducted from an integrated or broader perspective, and more robust conclusions may be drawn in this way.

REFERENCES