

A Study of American Presidential Inaugural Speeches



— From the Perspective of Presupposition

By

Yuan Tanghui

Supervised by Professor Wang Xiangyun

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论文作者签名：李彦慧 导师签名：王加云 日期：2010年6月6日

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Abstract

The inaugural addresses are made every four years by all the American presidents before they take the office. Though they are not required by the Constitution, it has already become a tradition for the newly-elected president to give an inaugural speech since the first president George Washington. Inaugurals mark the end of the presidential election campaign and the beginning of a new administration. They provide the newly-elected president with a good chance to state his political values, his principles and his policies for the coming administration, to win the favor of the common public and to persuade them to change their mind. The common public in the meanwhile gets an opportunity to have a better understanding of their new president, his views, his values and his policies closely related to their future life.

The inaugural speeches have involved numerous aspects of American society and thus lead to various types of studies at home and abroad. In this thesis, they will be studied from the perspective of presupposition which is still rare at present. The concept of presupposition was first put forward by Frege in 1892 in the field of philosophy and later came into linguistics. With the deepening understanding of the concept of presupposition, researchers apply it to more and more practical studies in various registers, such as advertisements, humors, courtroom inquiries, debates and so on. Presupposition can reveal more than what is said, which will contribute to a much deeper and more thorough understanding that how the presidents achieve their purposes and impose influence on the decision of the common public sneakingly.

This thesis is intended to figure out two questions: what presuppositions there are in the inaugural speeches and what functions these presuppositions have. As for research subjects, 18 inaugural speeches of 6 different periods in American history are selected as the sample. As methods, the qualitative analysis and the quantitative method are combined. Then through close reading, typical presuppositions are identified and reclassified according to the three variables of a linguistic situation into field presuppositions, tenor

presuppositions and mode presuppositions. These presuppositions are further processed by AntConc 3.2.1 and Excel 2003. Then, all data are analyzed and their functions are investigated. Moreover, it is found that the use of presuppositions has a certain relationship with time.

With the analysis and findings, audience may have a more profound understanding of the inaugural speeches and a more sound knowledge of presuppositions. Thus, they could increase awareness of presuppositions in various discourses and try to reduce the possibility to be manipulated by others. Also presuppositions can be used to create some interesting conversations and add charm to life.

As for the organization of this thesis, it is made up of 6 chapters.

Chapter 1 is the literature review. First, some related concepts are explored, such as speech, public speech, political speech and the presidential inaugural speech. Second, the situation of American presidential inaugural speech (APIS) studies at home and abroad is reviewed. Third, it is decided to study APIS from the perspective of presupposition in this thesis.

Chapter 2 is the theoretical framework. First is the literature review of the presupposition theories. Then practical studies drawing upon presupposition theories are briefly introduced. The third part is the application of presuppositions in this thesis where they are classified into three groups: field presuppositions in Chapter 3, tenor presuppositions in Chapter 4 and mode presuppositions in Chapter 5.

Chapter 3 discusses the presuppositions relating to field, to be specific, the presuppositions of the religious belief, various values, the ideologies towards other nations and the psychology of the audience. These presuppositions not only reveal values, beliefs and attitudes of the American people but also are utilized as a device by the president to win the favor of the common public and impose his power implicitly on the decision of the common public.

Chapter 4 deals with the interpersonal relationships between different parties. Both division and commonness are presupposed in order that the president may take measures and be cautious about diction to get rid of or reduce or at least avoid intensifying confrontations and pursue identification.

Chapter 5 handles the mode elements both nonlinguistic and textual. The textual presupposition is further categorized into intra-textual presupposition and inter-textual presupposition. The most important are the inter-textual presuppositions of the three bible textual features.

Chapter 6 is the conclusion. Discoveries are summarized; implications drawn; limitations pointed out and suggestions put forward for future improvement.

Keywords: American presidential inaugural speech; field presupposition; tenor presupposition; mode presupposition

摘 要

美国总统就职演说四年一次。虽然宪法未作要求,但是自从第一任总统华盛顿发表就职演说,这一程序就沿袭下来。就职演说标志着总统竞选结束,新一届领导正式开始。对新当选的总统而言,就职演说是一个表明其政治价值、执政原则和具体措施,赢得民众支持,促使民众转变观念的大好机会。广大民众也可借此更好地了解新总统和新总统的价值、观念以及与他们未来息息相关的具体政策。

就职演说内容涉及美国社会的方方面面,因此国内外各领域对美国总统就职演说都颇感兴趣。本论文将试从预设角度对其进行研究。从这一角度出发的研究目前并不多见。预设的概念首先是由德国哲学家弗雷格于 1892 年提出的,后来渐渐进入到语言学领域。随着对预设理解的深化,这一概念被逐渐应用到各种语域当中,比如广告、幽默、法庭询问、辩论等等。预设可以揭示出文章背后更多的东西,因此可以帮助读者更深刻更全面地理解总统就职演说,理解总统是如何实现其目的并对公众无形中施加影响的。

本论文主要探索两个问题:总统就职演说中有哪些预设以及这些预设都发挥了什么作用。研究对象上,本论文选择了美国历史上 6 个不同历史时期的 18 篇就职演说。研究方法上,定性和定量相结合。程序上,作者首先对 18 篇就职演说进行细读,找出其中有代表性的预设;然后对这些预设进行分类,分类标准依据语境的三个变量,语场、语旨和语式;在此基础上,作者对这些预设利用 AntConc3.2.1 和 Excel2003 进行进一步处理;最后对这些数据进行分析,并讨论这些预设在总统就职演说中的作用,而且通过分析发现预设的使用与时间有一定的关系。

基于本论文的分析以及所得结果,读者既可加深对美国总统就职演说的理解,同时对预设也会有一个更好的把握。而且有助于读者增强预设意识,尽量减少被他人操纵的几率。当然,预设不仅仅可以用来暗地操纵他人达到某种目的,也可以为日常说话制造生趣,增添生活魅力。

结构上,本文分为六章。

第一章为文献综述,首先介绍了言语、公众演讲、政治演讲以及总统就职演说等相关概念,进而回顾了美国总统就职演说在国内外的研究状况,最后提出本论文将从

预设角度研究美国总统就职演说。

第二章为本论文的理论框架,首先简单回顾预设理论,进而介绍了预设理论的应用研究,最后一部分为该理论在本论文中的应用。本研究将预设分为三类:第一类为语场预设,见第三章;第二类为语旨预设,见第四章;第三类为语式预设,见第五章。

第三章讨论语场预设,即宗教信仰预设、价值预设、意识形态预设、心理预设等。这些预设不仅揭示美国人的价值、信仰以及态度等等,而且经常被总统用作一种策略来博得民众的好感和支持,不知不觉中对民众的判断及决定施加影响。

第四章针对各方关系,进而把语旨预设分为分歧预设和同一预设。基于这些预设,总统可以采取相应措施,注意言辞使用,以便消除分歧,寻求同一团结,至少避免矛盾激化。

第五章中,语式预设分为非语言预设和文本预设。文本预设又进一步分为篇内文本预设和篇际文本预设。本研究着重探讨美国总统就职演说中对圣经三种文本特征的篇际预设。

第六章为结束语。该章总结了研究中的发现,并得出一些启示,同时也指出本研究中的不足,以期在以后的研究中得以改进。

关键词:美国总统就职演说;语场预设;语旨预设;语式预设

List of Abbreviations

APIS	American Presidential Inaugural Speech
LP	Logical Presupposition
SP	Semantic Presupposition
PP	Pragmatic Presupposition

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Introduction

In this introduction, there are two parts: research background and significance and research design.

Background and Significance

Public speaking has a long history, which can date back to the ancient Greece. Today it is so popular that it can be found everywhere. As a sub-genre of public speech, political speech plays a considerable role in society. It is an essential tool for the political leaders to carry out their work. The inaugural speech, as a typical example of the political speech, is addressed every four years by all the American presidents before they take office. Though it is not required by the Constitution, it has already become a tradition for the newly elected president to give an inaugural speech since the first president George Washington. Inaugurals mark the end of the election campaign and the beginning of a new administration. In the inaugural speech, the newly elected president presents situations at home and abroad, analyses them, puts forward fundamental political principles and policies for the next four years, sets the objectives for the new government, promises a bright future to the public, projects America's place in the world, recalls the past achievements and traditional values and incorporates them into what he calls on American citizens to do. With the contents of the inaugural speech so comprehensive and time-related, the form so carefully trimmed, and the role it plays so influential, it attracts the interest of scholars in various fields, such as history, politics, literature, linguistics and so on.

In the field of linguistics, the studies of the inaugural speeches are usually conducted from perspectives of genre, stylistics, functional grammar, discourse analysis (DA), critical discourse analysis (CDA), and cognitive linguistics. This thesis attempts to analyze the inaugural speeches from the angle of presupposition, which is still rare at present.

Presupposition is drawn upon for it can reveal more than what is said. If what is said were the small evident tip of the iceberg that is above the ocean surface, presuppositions would be that larger but hidden part in the water.

Research Design

Research Questions

This thesis will try to answer the following two questions:

- (1) What presuppositions are there in the inaugural speeches?
- (2) What functions do these presuppositions have in the inaugural speeches?

Data Collection

18 inaugural speeches make up the sample, which can be seen in the appendix. The former 17 are the five-star speeches according to Xiao Fushou (2009) while the last one is the most recent inaugural address of Obama. These 18 inaugural speeches come from six different periods in American history, which are also shown in the appendix. In this way, presuppositions collected may be more comprehensive than those within one period.

Methods

Qualitative analysis and quantitative method are combined together in this thesis. Besides the traditional qualitative analysis, this thesis tries to apply AntConc3.2.1 and Excel 2003 to collect and process data.

Data Processing

First, close reading is conducted to identify presuppositions.

Second, these presuppositions are sorted into three groups according to the three aspects of situation, to be specific, field, tenor and mode. Within each group, those presuppositions are sub-categorized.

Third, with all categories established, some of them are further processed by AntConc3.2.1 and Excel 2003.

Lastly, all data are analyzed and the functions of those presuppositions then investigated.

Chapter 1 Literature Review

1.1 Speech

In daily life, everyone needs to speak. Teachers talk in class; students answer questions; bosses speak in a conference; salesmen introduce their products; politicians argue for a policy; and so on. In brief, speech is the vocalized form of human communication.

1.2 Public Speech

1.2.1 Basic Concepts

What's the difference between public speech and the above-mentioned speech? Public speech is more advanced, more perfect, more artistic, more formal, etc. That's the common sense. Are there any scientific definitions for it? "Speech is usually considered as a unified strategy aimed to achieve a specific effect, informative, persuasive, or other, to the extent that it is clear, interesting, credible and appreciate for the audience within a given time limit." (Wilson, 1994: 5-6) In fact, there is no unanimous agreement on the definition of public speech. It's more practical to present some basic principles for it among which Andrews's are most frequently quoted.

Andrews (1991: 9) offers six rhetorical principles in public speech: (1) a speech is designed for an audience; (2) a speech promotes identification between the audience and the topic; (3) a speech promotes the identification between the audience and the speaker; (4) ideas and evidence in the speech must withstand the careful scrutiny of reasonable men; (5) the speech follows a pattern suitable to all audience, occasion and topic; (6) the speech employs a clear and appropriate style.

1.2.2 Significance

Public speech as a social activity is widely and frequently required nowadays when mutual understanding and cooperation have become far more important than ever before. Being able to speak clearly, convincingly and articulately is highly desirable to all. Many careers demand some ability in public speaking. Scholars present their research achievements at a seminar or symposium; tour guides give a welcome speech to a group of tourists at the airport or hotel; government officials deliver a certain report, etc.

Public speech has considerable functions. For speakers, public speech helps to establish their confidence and courage, make themselves known, etc. For listeners, they can get power and inspirations from the speech to do a better job, to live a better life, to enrich their knowledge and so on. For the whole society, for example, Queen Elizabeth II give Christmas greetings to all Commonwealth nations every year; Chairman Mao declared the establishment of the People's Republic of China, etc. In other words, just as the Speech Act theory holds, saying something is doing something.

1.2.3 History of Public Speaking

In the Western world, the very earliest written instructions for speaking date back to approximately 2500 BC, which are known as the *Maxims of Ptah-Hotey*. (Sproule, 1997)

1.2.3.1 Beginnings in Sicily

All Western scholars agree that the formal study of rhetoric began in the Sicilian city of Syracuse. The Greeks had controlled Sicily for centuries and when Thrasybulus, the last ruler, was overthrown the courts were flooded with competing claims for valuable property seized by the invaders. The judicial system of the time required a litigant to represent himself in court; no hired advocates were permitted. (Sevith, 2005)

In order to instruct citizens in the practice of public speaking in the courtroom and assembly, Corax of Sicily composed *Techne*, sometime after 467 BC, which is the oldest academic textbook in the Western world. The first written manual is attributed to Corax and his pupil Tisias. Their work, as well as that of many of the early rhetoricians, grew out

of the courts of law; Tisias, for example, is believed to have written judicial speeches that others delivered in the courts

1.2.3.2 Greek Rhetoricians

Teaching in oratory was popularized in the 5th century BC by itinerant teachers known as sophists, the best known of whom were Protagoras (c.481-420 BC), Gorgias (c.483-376 BC), and Isocrates (436-338 BC). Their central focus was on *logos*, its functions and powers. They defined parts of speech, analyzed poetry, parsed close synonyms, invented argumentation strategies, and debated the nature of reality. They claimed to make their students better, or in other words, to teach virtue.

Socrates (459-399 BC) taught by the technique of a question and answer aimed at arriving at truth.

Plato (427-347 BC), Socrates' pupil, famously outlined the differences between true and false rhetoric in a number of dialogues, especially the *Gorgias* and the *Phaedrus*.

Plato's student Aristotle (384-322 BC) wrote *the Rhetoric*, which McCroskey (1993) has called "the most influential work on the subject". His *Rhetoric* is divided into three books, of the speaker, of the audience, and of the speech. He distinguished rhetoric from dialectic and proposed three kinds of artistic proofs consisting of *logos* (appealing to reason), *pathos* (appealing to the emotions of the audience) and *ethos* (source credibility). He also advised on metaphors, style, etc.

1.2.3.3 Rhetoric Studies in Rome

In the 2nd century BC, the ancient Rome became dominant in the Mediterranean area. The art of oratory developed into the second "Golden Age". Cicero (106-43 BC) and Quintilian (35-100 AD) were chief among Roman rhetoricians. Cicero studied the great orators' speeches, summarized the successful experience of speeches on various occasions and wrote *De Oratore* and *Orator* in 55 BC and 46 BC.

The prosperity of oratory in ancient Greece and Rome was a wonder in human history, and helped propel the society and civilization forward. Speech was an integral part of Athenian democracy. The Romans refined the Greek rhetorical tradition and

reached a new height in training orators.

1.2.3.4 Rhetoric in Middle Ages

After the breakup of the Western Roman Empire, like other civilizations, the study of the verbal arts was in decline for several centuries, followed eventually by a gradual rise in formal education, culminating in the rise of medieval universities. But rhetoric changed into the arts of letter writing and sermon writing during this period.

1.2.3.5 English Rhetoric

Scholars (Kennedy, 1999; McCrosky, 1993) credit Thomas Wilson's *The Arte of Rhetorique* (1553) as the first complete classical treatment of the subject in English. There were three significant trends in rhetorical theory in the eighteenth century. One trend was the Elocutionary Movement putting undue emphasis on the delivery of speech, such as the speaker's stand, gesture, voice, etc. Thomas Sheridan (1719-1788) was considered as the founder and his *Lectures on Elocution* (1762) was very influential at that time. Joshua Steele's *Prosidia Rationalis* (1725) and John Walker's *Elements of Elocution* (1781) echoed Sheridan's emphasis on delivery. The second trend was the Belletristic Movement emphasizing a sense of beauty in words with leading representatives of Lord Kanes (1619-1782) and Hugh Blair. The third trend was in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries focusing on reasoning over delivery and style, represented by George Campbell's (1719-1796) *The Philosophy of Rhetoric*.

Since the late 19th century, with the great development of capitalism, employees in corporations, government, academics and mass media, etc. are all required to be good speakers. Therefore, speeches penetrate into every part of social life. Based on the previous achievements, the art of public speaking absorbs new ideas in philosophy, aesthetics, political science, psychology and behavioral science, etc.

The twentieth century witnessed a flourishing oratory study. In the second decade, speech (later called communication) department started to appear in American colleges. With the development of technology and information explosion, speech and speech studies spread all over the world. The oratory has reached its heyday in modern times.

1.2.4 Classification of Public Speeches

According to different standards, public speeches can be classified into different types.

In terms of field, speeches can be sorted into academic speech, political speech, religious speech, etc.

In terms of formality, speeches range from formal speech to informal speech.

In terms of genre, speeches can be grouped into narrative speech, expository speech, argumentative speech, lyric speech and so on.

In terms of style, speeches fall into passionate speech, serious speech, animating speech, etc.

In terms of delivery, speeches can be categorized as speeches read from the manuscript, speeches recited from memory and speeches spoken extemporaneously based on a manuscript prepared in advance and partially completed at the time of delivery.

In terms of purpose, they vary from informative speech, entertaining speech to persuasive speech.

The presidential inaugural address belongs to political, formal and persuasive speech and the speaker prepares his speech in advance and makes full use of all kinds of linguistic vehicles to expound his political opinions, stir the mass' passion, gain their support and achieve the persuasive and stimulating purposes.

1.3 Political Speech

As mentioned above, in terms of field, public speeches can be sorted into academic speech, political speech, religious speech, etc. Therefore, political speech is a sub-category of public speech.

1.3.1 Definition

Many scholars make definitions on it among which Lucas' is more authoritative.

“A political speech is one that the speaker, usually on behalf of a certain class, society, or party, makes to audiences on some important matters and relationships home and abroad.” (Lucas, 1995:53)

1.3.2 Features

The most important feature of the political speech is its strong association with power and purposes.

1.3.2.1 Power

According to Fairclough (1989:54), power is a prominent feature that deserves our attention. An ability to speak effectively in public is one of the oldest and most powerful weapons in the armory of professional politicians. Leaders of nations, political parties and mass movements have traditionally been those who emerged as the most convincing spokesmen for their cause. Obvious examples from the last century include Lenin, Churchill, de Gaulle, Castro, J.F. Kennedy and Martin Luther King.

In order to impose the power upon the audience or hearers, the speakers often try to present themselves as an authority; on the other hand, they also have to establish a kind relationship with the audience or hearers. This two-sidedness often forms a sharp contrast in political speeches. This thesis will analyze how the speaker employs power and deals with the relationship with the audience from the perspective of presupposition.

1.3.2.2 Purposes

Political speech has its own aims and ends, which can be both between and behind the lines of the utterances. In addition to the intention of expressing certain thoughts and communicating ideas, there can be very complex intentions to influence the public opinion and their acts. Political speech often pays tribute to a person, a group of persons, a group of people, institutions or the event and shows the past, present and future significance of the event to the group. (Lucas, 1995:47) This is the declared purpose in a speech. However, there are several other aims in a speech. Or rather, there are both explicit and implicit aims in a speech, since politicians would not give up any chance when they may deliver their

political opinions to and enforce their attitudes upon the audience.

In order to achieve these aims, implicit or explicit, to persuade people to take action as the speaker wishes, to change their attitudes or beliefs or to weaken their present attitudes or beliefs, all kinds of devices are put to use, among which presupposition is an important strategy as will be investigated in this thesis.

1.4 American Presidential Inaugural Speech

APIS is a subcategory of political speeches. Besides its common features with political speech, it has its own characteristics.

1.4.1 Significance of the American Presidential Inaugural Speech

APIS is made every four years by all the American presidents before they take office. Though it is not required by the Constitution, it has already become a tradition since the first president George Washington. Inaugurals mark the end of the election campaign and the beginning of a new administration.

1.4.1.1 Significance to the President

In APIS, the newly-elected president attempts to persuade the citizens of the nation that he is fit for the role and that he is competent to achieve his administrative objectives and calls for support and loyalty to his government from both other power-holders in the political system and the public at large during his following administration. He describes situations home and abroad, analyses them, puts forward fundamental political principles and policies for the next four years, sets the objectives for the new government, promises a bright future to the public, projects America's place in the world, recalls the past achievements and traditional values and incorporates them into his justification for what he calls on American citizens to do. All in all, the inaugural enables the new president to convince the audience of his appropriateness, mould public opinion, inspire public action, present the new government in a favorable light and win the largest amount of applause

and support. It is even argued that a president is judged as much by what he says as by what he does, and his words delivered at that moment can shape his image forever.

1.4.1.2 Significance to American Citizens

Hart (1984: 58) says that when delivering an inaugural address, the president speaks not for himself but for his people and he borrows his lexicon from his predecessors to represent the people's interests.

Inaugurals not only reveal to American citizens the fundamental political values, political principles and general or specific policies for the coming administration, which may have close relationship with their future life, but as well enables them to get a further understanding of the newly elected president himself. The addresses cast much light on the legitimacy of political power and also the worldviews of the new president.

1.4.2 Studies of the American Presidential Inaugural Speech

As mentioned above, APIS is one type of political speech. It has its own features besides the common ones with other political public speech. It has involved numerous aspects of American society and leads to various types of studies home and abroad.

Regarding methods, there are qualitative studies under a certain theoretical framework and quantitative studies (e.g. Miao *et al.*, 2005) by means of WordSmith, SPSS, etc. Regarding subjects, there are studies based on one inaugural only and comparative studies (e.g. Bradley, 1983; Phifer, 1983) based on many inaugurals or by comparison with political speeches on other occasions, by other persons or in other countries.

This thesis will classify the inaugural studies, according to their relationship with linguistics, into linguistic studies, interdisciplinary studies and studies conducted in non-linguistic fields such as politics, sociology, history, religion, psychology, mass media communication, etc. Within each classification, there are studies conducted from different perspectives. For example, within linguistics, the inaugurals may be studied from different divisions of paralanguage (body language, appearance of the speaker, etc.), phonology, lexicon, syntax, semantics, pragmatics, stylistics, DA, CDA, PDA and so on. Within each division, there are studies focusing on different topics and drawing upon various theories.

It is the same with studies in other fields.

These inaugural studies are so abundant both at home and abroad that it is hard to exhaust all of them. Thus, the author lists only some of them.

First of all, in non-linguistic fields, the political studies of the inaugurals are the most. These studies (e.g. Erickson, 1997) focus mainly on the content of the inaugural addressed and discuss the administrative policies of the new government and their effects on the future. The background, the theme of the speech and responses to the speech are often probed into. In sociology, these studies (e.g. Evered, 1983; Barrie, 2008; Zi Zhongjun, 2005) explore the social significance of the inaugural. There are also studies (e.g. Coe & Domke, 2006; Fairbanks, 1981) investigating the relationship between religion and the inaugural. Presidential inaugural studies also find themselves in magazines like *Presidential Studies Quarterly*, *Leadership Quarterly*, etc. which contribute to the improvement of the presidency and charismatic leadership.

Inaugural studies are also plentifully researched from interdisciplinary approaches, that is, from the interface of language and other subjects such as politics, philosophy, psychology, etc. For instance, Barber (1977), who is famous as a political scientist, studies presidential inaugural addresses from the perspective of the relationship between language and the president. He indicates that through the analysis of language, we can know the speaker's individual identity and character. Edelman (1988) makes use of deconstructionist and social constructionist views of language emphasizing the gestural and compensatory aspects of this type of language.

King and Ragsdale (1988) study presidential inaugural addresses from the perspective of whether an inaugural address modifies or abandons a centered and unified self. They maintain that such a self has been plural, inconsistent and at times contradictory by the emergence of several factors.

In the scope of linguistics, APIS are mostly discussed from the angle of genre, rhetoric or stylistics which can be found in books like *The Moral Rhetoric of American Presidents* (Shogan, 2007), *Deeds Done in Words: Presidential Rhetoric and the Genres of Governance* (Campbell & Jamieson, 1990). Other influential scholars in this area include Bruce E. Gronbeck, Roderick P. Hart and Halford Ryan. There are also plenty of special

articles in journals, such as *The Rhetoric of Ideological Consensus in the United States: American Principles and American Pose in Presidential Inaugurals* (Beasley, 2001). In China, these kinds of studies are bountiful too, for example, by Wang Zuoliang & Ding Wangdao (1987).

Today with the development of linguistics, researcher deal with APIS from more perspectives, such as functional grammar, DA, CDA, pragmatics, cognitive linguistics, etc. and have made tremendous achievements. To catch up with this trend, this thesis intends to investigate APIS from the perspective of presupposition, which is still rare and expected to reveal more about APIS and in the meantime deepen the understanding of presupposition.

Chapter 2 Theoretical Framework

This chapter will briefly review presupposition, the theoretical instrument for the APIS study, generally introduce its application and present the framework of the study in this thesis.

2.1 Theoretical Research of Presupposition

Presupposition is often studied from three dimensions which are also the three stages of presupposition research. To be specific, with the development of philosophy, semantics and pragmatics, presupposition study transfers from logic truth speculation, to semantic description and then to pragmatic analysis.

2.1.1 Logical Presupposition

2.1.1.1 Theoretical Background

The earliest presupposition study was based on analytic philosophy and used mathematical logic as the analysis instrument. So presupposition in this period can be called philosophical presupposition or logical presupposition (LP). What it concerned were truth relations between propositions and the focus dwelled on the truth value of the presupposed proposition. And in the opinion of analytic philosophers, meaningfulness or the existence of things is the truth value of propositions. Therefore, LP or philosophical presupposition can also be called existential presupposition.

2.1.1.2 Points of Views

Presupposition was first studied by philosophers such as Frege, Russell, Strawson, and so onl.

In 1892, Frege put it forward in his paper *On Sense and Meaning*. He said, "If anything is asserted, there is always an obvious presupposition that the simple or compound proper names used have a reference. If one therefore asserts 'Kepler died in misery', there is a presupposition that the name 'Kepler' designates something...That the name 'Kepler' designates something is just as much a presupposition of the assertion 'Kepler died in misery', as for the contrary [*i.e.* negative] assertion." (Frege, 1948)

Inferred from this, negation can be a test of presupposition and entailment, under which the first can survive while the latter can't. To be specific, (1) entails that someone died but (2) doesn't entail that someone died, while both (1) and (2) presuppose that there exists someone called Kepler.

(1) Kepler died in misery.

(2) Kepler didn't die in misery.

Similarly, Frege realized that the meaning of temporal clauses has the same special status as that of the referring phrases.

'After the separation of Schleswig-Holstein from Denmark, Prussia and Austria quarreled.' ...It is surely sufficiently clear that the sense is not to be taken as having as a part the thought that Schleswig-Holstein was once separated from Denmark, but that this is the necessary presupposition in order for the expression 'After the separation of Schleswig-Holstein from Denmark' to have any reference at all. (Frege, 1948)

Frege thus sketched a theory of presupposition with the following propositions:

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

Frege's ideas were challenged later by Russell especially in the truth of presupposition failure, *i.e.* the problem of how to account for the sentences like (3), where the presupposition lacks proper referent. (Levinson, 1983: 170)

(3) The King of France is wise.

Frege made a distinction between sense and reference and held that such sentences

retain their sense and meaning and merely lack referent and thus fail to have a truth value, while Russell considered, in his well-known theory of descriptions, that (3) is false. In Russell's opinion, definite descriptions occur in natural language as subjects, but in logical form as propositions rather than logical subjects. So (3) can be considered as a composite proposition: there is one king of France, and there's no one else who's the king of France, and he is wise. By the rules of logic, a proposition is false as a whole if any of its components is false. Since the existential claim of the sentence is false, the sentence itself is also false.

Russell's theory dominated in this field for forty-five years until Strawson put up a different opinion in 1950. Strawson (1950) claimed that Russell failed to distinguish sentences from statements, since sentences aren't true or false; only statements are. Thus (3) may well have been true in A.D. 1670 and false in A.D. 1772, but neither true nor false in 1970 with regard to the non-existence of a king of France in 1970. There is a truth value gap or he gave one kind of three-value logic to example (3). (Levinson, 1983: 172)

Since Strawson, the studies of presupposition have gradually turned into the field of semantics, and later the field of pragmatics. According to Levinson (1983: 167), presupposition was a focal area in linguistic theory during the period 1969-76 and it raised substantial problems for almost all kinds of (generative) linguistic theories then available. Xiong Xueliang (1999: 63) listed the major representatives: Keenan (1971), Kiparsky & Kiparsky (1971), Lakoff (1971), Kats (1972), Garttmen (1973), Stalnaker (1974), Leech (1974), Kempson (1975), Wilson (1975), Lyons (1977), Prince (1977), Sadock (1977), Wilson & Sperber (1979), Gazdar (1979), Karttunen & Peters (1975, 1979), Atlas & Levinson (1981). Because of their different understandings toward presupposition, there appear mainly two different approaches to presupposition research: semantic approach and pragmatic approach. (Levinson, 2001: 168-225)

2.1.2 Semantic Presupposition

2.1.2.1 Theoretical Background

Semantic presupposition (SP) is closely related to the development of formal

semantics. In the 1960s and 1970s, presupposition became the focus of debate among linguists. TG grammar, Case grammar, Montague grammar, DRT theory, etc., which are important theories of syntactic processing, were all put into presupposition analysis. Phonological studies also contributed to presupposition analysis.

SP concerns relations between sentences or propositions from the perspective of lexicon and syntactic structure. Same with LP, SP also survives under negation. The differences between them consist in that SP emphasizes the linguistic structure of the presupposed proposition. Thus linguistic triggers become the focus of SP studies.

2.1.2.2 Presupposition Triggers

Verschueren (1999: 27) holds that languages provide numerous conventionalized carriers of implicit meaning and tools for linking explicit content to relevant aspects of background information. A first category of such tools is presupposition carrying expressions and constructions. That is to say, some words, phrases and structures give rise to presupposition. Chomsky, Fillmore, Kiparsky, Karttunen point out that some lexical and structural items can trigger presupposed propositions. These items are called presupposition triggers.

With presupposition becoming a hot debate, more and more scholars try their best to collect and prove more expressions and structures which can be used as presupposition triggers. On the basis of Karttunen's thirty-one kinds of presupposition triggers, Levinson (1983: 181-184) selects thirteen types of them which are the most frequently quoted. These triggers include

1. Definite descriptions

John saw/didn't see the man with two heads.

>> There exists a man with two heads.

2. Factive verbs/predicates (e.g. know, regret, realize, be sorry that, be proud that, be indifferent that, be glad that, be sad that, etc.)

Martha regrets/ doesn't regret drinking John's home brew.

>> Martha drank John's home brew.

3. Implicative verbs (e.g. manage, forget, happen to, avoid, etc.)

John managed / didn't manage to open the door.

>> John tried to open the door.

4. Change of state verbs (e.g. stop, begin, continue, start, finish, carry on, cease, take, leave, enter, come, go, arrive, etc.)

John stopped / didn't stop beating his wife.

>> John had been beating his wife.

5. Iteratives (e.g. again, not... any more, return, another time, come back, restore, repeat, for the nth time, etc.)

The flying saucer came / didn't come again.

>> The flying saucer came before.

6. Verbs of judging (e.g. accuse...of, criticize, charge...with, etc.)

Agatha accused / didn't accuse Ian of plagiarism.

>> (Agatha thinks)plagiarism is bad.

7. Temporal clauses (e.g. before, after, while, during, whenever, as, since, etc.)

Before Strawson was even born, Drege noticed / didn't notice presupposition.

>> Strawson was born.

8. Cleft sentences

It was / wasn't Henry that kissed Rosie.

>> Someone kissed Rosie.

What John lost/didn't lose was his wallet.

>> John lost something.

9. Implicit cleft with stressed constituent

Linguistics was / wasn't invented by CHOMSKY.

>> Someone invented linguistics.

10. Comparisons and contrasts

Marianne called Adolph a male chauvinist, and then HE insulted HER.

>> For Marianne to call Adolph a male chauvinist would be to insult him.

11. Non-restrictive relative clauses

The Proto-Harrappans, who flourished 2800-2650 BC, were/were not great temple builders.

>> The Proto-Harrappans flourished 2800—2650 B.C.

12. Counterfactual conditionals

If Hannibal had only had twelve more elephants, the Romance languages
would/would not this day exist.

>> Hannibal didn't have twelve more elephants

13. Questions (e.g. yes-no questions, alternative questions, WH-questions)

Is there a professor of linguistics at MIT?

>> Either there is a professor of linguistics at MIT or there isn't.

Is Newcastle in England or is it in Australia?

>> Newcastle is in England or Newcastle is in Australia.

Who is the professor of linguistics at MIT?

>> Someone is the professor of linguistics at MIT.

Although presupposition triggers listed by Levinson include most presupposition carrying expressions as Levinson holds that "the list contains perhaps the core of the phenomena that are generally considered presuppositional" (Levinson, 1983: 184), his list does allow room for addition and supplement still. Of course, there are also other kinds of classification, such as that of Yule (1996: 30), Verschueren (1999: 27-29), He Ziran (2001: 149-151), which will not be reviewed here.

In this sense, presupposition is semantic since the presupposed assumptions are triggered by lexical or structural items. Both entailment and presupposition are a type of semantic relation: with fixed truth relations between sentences, which hold regardless of the empirical truth of the sentences. (Saeed, 2000: 90) However, the semantic notion of presupposition merely links sentences together on the basis of what is true or false. According to Mey (2001: 184), such a strictly truth-conditional definition of presupposition fails on several counts: first, there is more to sentences than the abstract truth-value they carry, when viewed as logical propositions; second, sentences, when spoken, cannot be considered in isolation from the speaker and the listener(s), who are relevant factors in any situation of language use; third, we do not live our lives, or speak, by truth conditions alone; 'truth' is at best one among many other concerns that people have. For example, "The dog is behind the tree." Listeners or readers can understand that there is a dog and the dog is behind a tree, but what's the intension of saying this? The speaker may have extra intentions to warn the listener to be careful, tell the location of the

dog and emphasize what is behind the tree or something else. They concern the relationship between the speaker and the hearer or the appropriateness of a sentence in a context. Stalnaker (1974) and Keenan (1971) called this kind of independent and context-sensitive class of inferences pragmatic presupposition.

Moreover, some SP triggered would be cancelled, which is called defeasibility. For example, (4) presupposes (5), but on some occasion, people can say sentences like (6).

(4) John wasn't worried by his wife's infidelity.

(5) John's wife was unfaithful.

(6) John wasn't worried by his wife's infidelity, as John's wife had never been unfaithful.

Such examples are numerous. Therefore, most linguists believe that presupposition can't be independent of context, social culture, speaker beliefs, etc. so that it is a pragmatic notion rather than semantic.

2.1.3 Pragmatic Presupposition

Pragmatic presupposition (PP) concerns presupposition in use and is influenced by factors of context, speakers, etc. It deals with the relationship of proposition, sentence, speaker and context. Therefore, PP involving the latter two variables is dynamic while SP involving the first two is relatively stable.

With the development of pragmatics, various kinds of pragmatic theories have been drawn upon as the foundation for PP studies. There are mainly four approaches to PP studies from the perspectives of the formal pragmatics, pragmatic rules, cognitive pragmatics and cultural pragmatics.

Formal pragmatics is the interface of semantics and pragmatics and thus PP studies explore the ternary relation of proposition, sentence and context. Representatives in this area include Karttunen, Stalnaker, Heim, Soames, van der Sandt, von Stechow, among whom Stalnaker's Common Ground theory is the most popular. He argues that PP is mutual knowledge or common ground between the speakers and the hearers (Stalnaker, 1974). Some sharing of information is necessary if communication is to be achieved or otherwise people will get stuck in understanding. Besides, as the communication process carries on, the common ground shifts. In other words, some new information can automatically

become then the shared information. For instance, in (7), both the speaker and the listener know what the gift refers to and the fact that the listener has given the speaker a gift. That's the presupposed information and forms the common background of the conversation. Then as the conversation goes, the common ground shifts. In B1, that Lily has come back from abroad is the new information to A and then in A2 it has become the common background for their plan to visit Lily.

(7) A1: I love the gift you gave me very much.

B1: I'm glad to hear that. By the way, will you visit Lily this afternoon? She's come back from abroad.

A2: Really? Great! When shall we start? ...

PP studies from the approach of pragmatic rules concern the ternary relation of proposition, sentence and pragmatic rules, e.g. felicity conditions, cooperative principles, etc. Representatives include Austin, Grice, Horn, Atlas, Levinson, Simons, etc. Austin is the first person to formulate a theory of presupposition in terms of felicity conditions. He (1962: 136) takes the view that if the presuppositions of a sentence are not satisfied, speech acts can't be performed by uttering that sentence. Fillmore also considers PP to be felicity conditions that are used to perform some speech acts effectively (He Zhaoxiong, 2000; He Ziran & Ran Yongping, 2002). For example, in conversation (8), that B helped A with his or her homework is the presupposed proposition and also the felicity condition which is necessary for A to perform the speech act of thanking successfully.

(8) A: Thank you for helping me with my homework.

B: My pleasure.

Grice's Cooperative principles are often used to explain the mechanisms of presupposition, too. For example, in (9) the interviewee lied, on the one hand because he was dishonest; on the other hand because he was governed by the cooperative principle of quality that what the boss said must be true and so there was no doubt about the existence of the mat although he didn't see it.

(9) Boss: You are going to work here, young man, one thing you must learn that is that we are very keen on cleanness in this firm. Did you wipe your feet on the mat as you came in?

Interviewee: Oh, yes, sir.

Boss: And another thing we are very keen on is truthfulness. There is no mat.

(Li Yanhong, Ren Peihong, 2007: 80)

Cognitive studies of PP focus on the analysis of speaker's beliefs or assumptions and add theories of Common Ground and Cooperative Principles to their own theoretical framework. Representatives include Stalnaker, Schlenker, etc. Stalnaker (1978: 473) claims that it is persons rather than sentences, propositions or speech acts that have or make presuppositions and that presupposing is something that people do and it is not necessarily verbal behavior, although it may be that it is typically expressed by linguistic means. A typical definition of speaker presupposition, according to this notion, is put forward by Soames (1983:483-545) that an utterance U presupposes P(at t) iff one can reasonably infer from U that the speaker S accepts P and regards it as uncontroversial, either because (a) S thinks that it is already part of the conversational context at t, or because (b) S thinks that the audience is prepared to add it, without objection, to the context against U is evaluated. For example, in conversation (10), B's answer is already part of the conversation as a refusal to A's invitation and it doesn't matter whether A knows the presupposition (11) or not. B thinks A will accept (11) as the background for his or her refusal.

(10) A: Will you go shopping with me?

B: I'm waiting for my brother.

>> (11) B has a brother.

Cultural studies of PP deal with the ternary relation of proposition, sentence and cultural context rather than linguistic context. Representatives include Baker (1992), Nida (1993), etc. These studies are often conducted in translation and cross-cultural communication. Cultural presupposition acquirement is necessary for cross-cultural activities. For example, quite a lot of Chinese people like to say 'ne ge' (dialectic pronunciation for '那个') when they pause while speaking. However, this is quite offensive to Americans because 'ne ge' sounds quite similar to 'nigger' which is a derogative name to call black slaves who were once looked down upon in American history.

There are also other perspectives of PP study, such as studies on presupposition and

assertion, old information and new information, background and focus, theme and rheme, etc.

To summarize, all the mentioned studies are not isolated from others. They have their strong points and weak points as well. Presuppositional phenomenon study needs collaboration from various fields.

2.2 Applied Research of Presupposition

2.2.1 Applied Research of Presupposition

Studies mentioned above are theoretical. However, with the furthering comprehension of the concept of presupposition, researchers began to apply this concept more frequently to practical analysis of various registers such as humor, news, advertisement, political discourse, courtroom inquiry, etc. Let's look at some examples as below.

(12) Teacher: In this box, I have a 10-feet snake.

Sammy: You can't fool me, teacher...snakes don't have feet.

(Wang Hua, 2008: 164)

This humor arises from different presuppositions of the meaning of *feet* where the teacher presupposes it as a unit of length while Sammy a kind of organ used to walk. Two different presuppositions clash and this often triggers humor.

(13) Eiffel Tower Loses Weight

(*Xinmin Evening News*, May 9th, 1996)

This is a news headline. It is rather arresting. Why? 'Lose weight' is often associated with human beings, especially women and that's the presupposed and customized common sense. A tower also loses weight? It is abnormal and triggers the curiosity of readers to read on. In this manner, news writer achieves his or her purpose.

(14) Why are more and more men turning to Flora?

This is an advertisement for air-conditioner. Flora is the brand. Presupposition is employed here as a strategy to persuade people to buy air-conditioner of this brand. First,

'more and more' is a presupposition trigger and it triggers that in the past there were a lot of people who bought their product and now more people buy their product. This makes the advertisement quite persuasive and more concise. Second, the why-question leads the audience to infer the presupposed reason that Flora air-conditioner is of high quality and adequate price or something like this. In this way, the advertiser enables to make the audience dwell longer on the advertisement and also avoid the imposing preach that Flora air-conditioner is customers' satisfactory choice. Third, as the why-question switches audience's attention to pondering on the reason, it successfully presupposes a fact that more and more people buy their product. But in fact, whether the fact is a fact or not still needs to be questioned. That's the artfulness of the advertisement to escape questioning and prove convincing.

From the examples mentioned above, it can be seen that presupposition is intriguing and powerful. Therefore, more and more interest falls into the systematic applied research of presupposition, to identify the presuppositional phenomena, to categorize them, to describe their properties, to investigate their functions and contributions, and so on. These applied studies greatly broaden the dimension of presupposition which has gone beyond its technical sense. According to Levinson (1983: 168) the technical use of presupposition is restricted to certain pragmatic inferences or assumptions that seem at least to be built into linguistic expressions and which can be isolated using specific linguistic tests (especially, traditionally, constancy under negation). But now presupposition is more widely used as an ordinary notion to describe any kind of background assumption against which an action, theory, expression or utterance makes sense or is rational. In this thesis, presuppositions include those both in the technical and ordinary sense and they are not distinguished.

In China, there is a proverb that is to let hundreds of flowers blossom and hundreds of schools of thought contend. This is just the case of the present situation of applied presupposition studies. Researchers are encouraged to form their individual theoretical framework, to classify presuppositions in terms of criteria adequate to their own purpose and to delve into how presuppositions serve a certain discourse to achieve its goal from various points of view.

2.2.2 Classification of Presupposition in Applied Research

The first and most important thing in the applied research is how to classify presuppositions. There are a great variety of classifications of presuppositions, among which that of Chen Xinren (1998) is often quoted.

From the angle of social psychology, Chen Xinren in his article *Pragmatic Presupposition in Verbal Advertising* groups the pragmatic presuppositions into four categories: fact presupposition, belief presupposition, state presupposition, and behavior presupposition. Similarly, Yule (2000) sorts presuppositions in advertisements into existential presupposition, factive presupposition, state presupposition, belief presupposition and behavior presupposition. Researchers also make adjustments in view of their own needs, such as supplementing several types of atmosphere presupposition, personality presupposition, concept presupposition, etc. Sometimes, these types are not in accordance with the same criteria and thus seem confusing, which needs researchers' attention.

Other classifications of presuppositions also exist considering other criteria. For instance, according to functions, there are presuppositions for economy, for coherence, for trapping, etc.; in the light of that whether presuppositions are used on purpose or not, conscious presupposition and unconscious presupposition; with view to the truthfulness of the presuppositions, true presupposition and sham presupposition. More can be found in the works of Leech (1987), Levinson (1983), Kempson (1975), Yule (2000), Li Xiyin (2001), Xu Shenghuan (2005), Zhou Liquan (1994), Xu Liejiong (1995), Xu Jun (1996), Chen Zhong (1999), Guo Yukai & He Yingyu (2002), Shen XiaoLong (2003), He Xiangdong (2004), Huang Huaxin (2005), Wu Tieping (2006) and Liu Senlin (2007).

2.3 Research in This Thesis

Just as mentioned in 2.2.1, presupposition has been applied into many registers, like advertisements, courtroom inquiries, etc. In this thesis, it will be applied to analyze another

type of register – the APIS.

Similar to all the other applied research of presupposition, here is a problem of the classification of presuppositions. Different from all the above classifications, the criteria are decided to be the three variables of a situation, to be specific, field, tenor and mode. Thus, presuppositions in this thesis fall into field presupposition, tenor presupposition and mode presupposition.

As for the reason to classify presuppositions in this way, there are two points. First, there is a close relationship between situation and register of which the inaugural speech is a typical one. Second, there is a close relationship between situation and presupposition. As stated in 2.1.3, presupposition deals with relationship among proposition, sentence and context. It can be seen that register and presupposition have the same determinant of context which can be particularized as various situations. According to Halliday's register theory, there are three variables of situation, namely, field, tenor and mode. Thus, presuppositions in the inaugural speeches in this thesis are grouped according to the three variables of situation. Within each group, there are also sub-types of presupposition.

2.3.1 Register and Situation

There are many definitions for register. This thesis adopts that of Halliday's. Halliday defines register as "function variety of language" (1964). It refers to the fact that the language we speak or write varies according to the types of situation.

It is known that when people use language to express meanings, they do so in specific situations, and the form of the language that they use is influenced by the complex elements of those situations. According to Halliday (2001: 31), types of linguistic situation differ from one another, broadly speaking, in three respects: first, what actually is taking place; secondly, who is taking part; and thirdly, what part the language is playing. These three variables, taken together, determine the range within which meanings are selected and the forms which are used for their expression. In other words, they determine the register. The three aspects mentioned above are also called respectively the three dimensions of register, namely, field, tenor and mode.

2.3.2 Presupposition and the Three Variables of Situation

According to Halliday (*ibid*: 110), as mentioned above, field, tenor, and mode are determinants of register. They compose a conceptual framework for representing the social context as the semiotic environment in which people exchange meaning. And they find themselves explicit or implicit in the linguistic discourse. That is to say, some of them are said while some of them are hidden for various reasons. Presupposition closely related to context or situation, may be used as a useful device to reveal the implicit information which are shared and omitted for economy or consciously hidden for some other goals. This kind of information may help a lot with the profound understanding of the APIS.

In the following, how presupposition operates in terms of the three variables respectively in the inaugural speeches will be explored. Also attention needs to be paid to a point that the three variables are discussed separately only for convenience, but they function collectively with presupposition in actual discourses.

2.3.2.1 Field and Presupposition

According to M.A.K Halliday and R. Hasan (1976), field refers to the total event, in which the text is functioning, together with the purposive activity of the speaker or writer. It includes two aspects: one is the subject matter; the other is the nature of the social action that is taking place. In other words, it refers to what is happening and what's the nature of the activity it is. As for the inaugural speech, the event is the inaugural ceremony which, according to Kennedy in his inaugural, symbolizes an end, as well as a beginning and signifies renewal, as well as change. The speech is thus very important for the new president to establish a good public image, to transcend division, to gain identification, to induce cooperation, to lay out a supportive foundation for his coming administration. In order to achieve these goals, the president must be familiar with the present situation at home and abroad, know what his people hate and thirst for, make certain that the cause he will advance is just and right in people's mind and so on. These are often presupposed and this thesis intends to reveal what are presupposed in the speeches and how they help the new president to achieve his motives. And presuppositions relating to these elements in the

field are called field presupposition in this thesis and will be researched into in chapter 3.

2.3.2.2 Tenor and Presupposition

Tenor refers to the type of role interaction, the set of relevant social relations, permanent and temporary, among the participants involved. (*ibid*) That is, who is taking part, or what the nature of the participants, their statuses and roles. It affects the intimacy of language people in communication. The interpersonal relationship in the inaugural ceremony is between the new president and his audience which may include the officials, common citizens and even the whole world. Some relationship needs consolidation, some establishment, some change. With these in mind, the new president is quite cautious about using words in his speech. This thesis will attempt in chapter 4 to show what interpersonal presuppositions are used, how they affect the president's use of words and what contributions they make to the relationship adjustment.

2.3.2.3 Mode and Presupposition

Mode is the function of the text in the event, including both the channel taken by language, spoken or written, extempore or prepared, and its genre, rhetorical mode, as narrative, didactic, persuasive, phatic communion, etc. (*ibid*) With view to the inaugural speech, it is delivered orally in front the of the Capitol. Today, with the development of the communication, the whole world can watch this ceremony and listens to the speech. So not only the content of the speech is very important, but the paralanguage like the appearance of the speaker, body language, voice, etc. also has considerable effect on the audience. Moreover, it is prepared in advance by the new president himself or more often now by a special group of writers. This allows the writer to put enough effort into the form of the inaugural speeches which is often handed down from history as classic samples of public speech. Chapter 5 will present how these are presupposed and influence the effect of the inaugural speech.

Chapter 3 Field Presupposition in the 18 APISes

As mentioned in 2.3.1, field refers to what is happening and what's the nature of the activity it is. According to Osborn (1982: 11), "speech is value-embodied activity: we can hardly open our mouths without projecting and revealing our attitudes towards the world around us and within us." Political speeches usually attempt to persuade people to take action as the speaker wishes, to change their attitudes or beliefs or to weaken their present attitudes or beliefs. Therefore, in this chapter, what beliefs, values or attitudes are presupposed and how these presuppositions are used by the president to achieve his purposes will be investigated.

3.1 Belief Presupposition

The most prominent belief presupposition in the inaugural speeches is the presupposition of the existence of God. To non-believers, God is nonsense. However, for most Americans, God is omnipresent and omnipotent. In this thesis, first of all, different names of God are identified. Second, the names are then retrieved by means of AntConc3.2.1. Third, the retrieved results are modified to get the exact frequency of each name in each speech. At last, all the data are illustrated in Table 1 in the following.

Table 1 Frequency of Words Referring to God

Inaugural Speech of	Words Referring to God
George Washington, 1789	1that Almighty Being, 1the Great Author, 2 Heaven, 1 He, 2 His..., 1 the Invisible Hand, 1 the benign Parent of the Human Race , 2 providential ...
Thomas Jefferson, 1801	1 that Infinite Power, 1an overruling Providence,
Andrew Jackson, 1833	1 that Almighty Being, 1 He, 1 His...
James K. Polk, 1845	1 the Almighty, 1 that Almighty Ruler of the Universe, 1 that Divine Being, 2 Heaven, 2 His..., 1 Omnipotence,
Abraham Lincoln, 1861	1 the Almighty Ruler of Nations, 1 heaven, 1 Him, 1 His...
Benjamin Harrison, 1889	1 God, 1 Almighty God, 1He
Theodore Roosevelt, 1905	1 the Giver of Good
Woodrow Wilson, 1913	2God (God's ...)
Franklin D. Roosevelt, 1933	2 God, 2 He
Harry S. Truman, 1949	3 God (God's...), 1 the Almighty
Dwight D. Eisenhower, 1957	1 Almighty God,
John F. Kennedy, 1961	2 God (God's...), 1 Almighty God, 2 His...
Richard M. Nixon, 1969	6 God (God's...)
Ronald Reagan, 1985	8 God , 1 the Author , 2 He
George Bush, 1989	3 God (God's...), 3 Your..., 1 You, 1 Heavenly Father, 1 Lord
William J. Clinton, 1997	1 God
George W. Bush, 2005	3 God, 1 the Author of Liberty, 2 He, 1 the Maker of Heaven
Barack H. Obama, 2009	3 God (God's...)

It can be seen that the existential presupposition of God finds itself in every inaugural speech. Altogether, 'God' and 'God's...' are used 35 times; 'He', 9; 'His...', 8; 'Him', 1; 'Almighty', 9; 'Heaven' and 'heaven', 6; 'Author', 3; and other rarely used. It is obvious that 'God' is the most frequently and more recently used name. It is simple and conforms to the simplifying trend of the inaugural speeches. Moreover, it is less formal than the

names of 'the Invisible Hand', 'the benign Parent of the Human Race', 'Omnipotence', 'that Almighty Ruler of the Universe', and so on which may seem too emotionally loaded in the eyes of people in the modern and secular world.

What are the functions of the existential presupposition of God in the inaugural speeches? Some examples will be analyzed to answer this question.

3.1.1 Good Wish

People like good wishes rather than evil ones. Good wish can on the one hand display the good will of the speaker and on the other hand make the listeners feel warm and loved. According to Maslow, an American philosopher, human beings have five levels of needs among which to love and to be loved are the needs of the third level.

(15) And may *that Infinite Power* which rules the destinies of the universe lead our councils to what is best, and give them a favorable issue for your peace and prosperity. (Thomas Jefferson, 1801)

Most American people believe in God. God is almighty and omnipotent enough to help people realize all their dreams. Therefore, Jefferson wished that Infinite Power to give the people blessings. Such kind of wishes can be found at the end of almost every inaugural speech.

(16) *God* bless you and *God* bless the United States of America. (George Bush, 1989)

With God as the protector, all difficulties would be conquered and all happiness can be achieved. Thus people would feel secure and hopeful about their future. God bless them with a peaceful mind.

3.1.2 Identification

(17) In this dedication of a Nation we humbly ask the blessing of *God*. May *He* protect each and every one of us. May *He* guide me in the days to come. (Franklin D. Roosevelt, 1933)

At the end of the inaugural speech, this form of prayer is familiar to all believers of God and establishes a common identity for the president and the audiences that they are all God's people and belong to one family.

(18) Well, with heart and hand, let us stand as one today: One people under *God* determined

that our future shall be worthy of our past. (Ronald Reagan, 1985)

Reagan explicitly said that they were one people under God, which built up a common identity for them. This shared identity united all to get rid of divisions, work at the same cause and strive for the common future.

3.1.3 Construction of Personality

All American presidents believe in God. This indicates they accept God and the supreme good and supreme benevolent personality of God. This personality of God projects itself on the sincere believers. Take Washington for example.

From the plentiful mention of God in his inaugural speech shown in Table 1, it can be seen that Washington is a passionate and pious believer in God.

(19) ...it would be peculiarly improper to omit in this first official act my fervent supplications to *that Almighty Being* who rules over the universe, who presides in the councils of nations, and whose *providential aids* can supply every human defect, that *His* benediction may consecrate to the liberties and happiness of the people of the United States...

(George Washington, 1789)

The excerpt demonstrates that on the one hand Washington believed in the might and goodness of God and on the other hand he made supplications to God for his administration suggesting that he was modest about his ability. In China it is usually considered that man's will, not Heaven, decides. Man can conquer nature. However, in Washington's eyes, all were out of the will of God and he was the subject of God and needed God's help.

3.1.4 Persuasion

One purpose of the inaugural speech is to persuade the common public to do what the president wants. One way to achieve this is that the president usually summons people to take action in the name of God or by saying that it is God's will.

(20) There is no story more heartening in our history than the progress that we have made toward the "brotherhood of man" that *God* intended for us. (Ronald Reagan, 1985)

American people believe that they are elects of God and all their blessings no matter

material or spiritual are granted by God. So if God called them to do something, it must be willingly and readily done. Reagan on the one hand expressed his gratefulness to God and on the other hand encouraged American people to continue the brotherhood of man which was the intention of God. The summoning of the God is more powerful and effective than Reagan's appeal.

(21) History has an ebb and flow of justice, but history also has a visible direction, set by liberty and *the Author of Liberty*. (George W. Bush, 2005)

Bush Junior wanted to promote freedom or liberty throughout the world. He needed to justify liberty and so that he said it was set by God. God granted them liberty and this liberty was then endangered. Therefore, the people of God had the obligation to defend it. This was more persuasive than Bush's own words.

3.2 Value Presupposition

3.2.1 Presupposition of the Supremacy of Constitution

(22) These great objects are necessarily connected, and can *only* be attained by an enlightened exercise of the powers of each within its appropriate sphere in conformity with the public will *constitutionally* expressed. To this end it becomes the duty of all to yield a ready and patriotic submission to the laws *constitutionally* enacted... (Andrew Jackson, 1833)

'Only' triggers that no other ways can be used to attain the two great objects of the preservation of the rights of the several States and the integrity of the Union except an enlightened exercise of the powers of each within its appropriate sphere in conformity with the public will constitutionally expressed. Moreover, to submit to the laws constitutionally enacted was considered patriotic and the duty of all. Why did Jackson speak so? Here the supremacy of the Constitution was presupposed.

3.2.2 Individualism Presupposition

(23) It does not force reform on the States. It leaves individuals, over whom it casts its protecting influence, entirely free to improve their own condition by the legitimate exercise of

all their mental and physical powers. (James K. Polk, 1845)

'It' refers to the Federal Government of America. The Constitution stipulates that the powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution nor prohibited by it to the States are reserved to the States, respectively, or to the people. It can be seen that the Constitution both demands powers for the United States and values the powers for the states and people, which is to respect individualism and the worth of the individual person and states. Individualism is a heritage of the puritans who promote the exercise of one's goals and desires through self-reliance. Reflected in politics, it opposes most external interference upon people's own interests, whether by society, or any other group or institution. With individualism presupposed in mind, Polk, as the spokesman for the Federal Government, assured the respective states and all individuals their freedom to exercise their own rights and manage their own affairs.

(24) We need a new government for a new century, a government humble enough not to try to solve all our problems for us, but strong enough to give us the tools to solve our problems *for ourselves*. (William J. Clinton, 1997)

American people encourage self-reliance and individualism. They want to have freedom to solve problems themselves and do not want to be interfered. In the establishment of the united states, powers were separated for the federal government and the states governments. So individualism has a long history. Based on the presupposition of this, Clinton gave autonomy to the individual capacity to solve problems for themselves.

3.2.3 Idealism Presupposition

(25) Happiness lies not in the mere possession of money; it lies in the joy of achievement, in the thrill of creative effort. The joy and moral stimulation of work no longer must be forgotten in the mad chase of evanescent profits. (Franklin D. Roosevelt, 1933)

American people are realistic in pursuing material wealth, but in the meanwhile they also have spiritual pursuit. In other words, both realism and idealism are cherished by American people. With these presupposed in mind, presidents not only emphasize the importance of material wealth but also that of spiritual treasure.

(26) We have found ourselves rich in goods, but ragged in spirit; reaching with magnificent

precision for the moon, but falling into raucous discord on earth. (Richard M. Nixon, 1969)

'Rich in goods' and 'reaching with magnificent precision for the moon' mean that America in the 1960s enjoyed the material prosperity and technological advancement which belong to the real world. 'But ragged in spirit' and 'but falling into raucous discord on earth' mean that America then wanted spiritual things which belong to the ideal world. People pursue both material prosperity and spiritual wealth. Thus the presupposition of these pursuits could account for the dissatisfaction of the American people at that time.

(27) My friends, we are not the sum of our possessions. They are not the measure of our lives.

In our hearts we know what matters. We cannot hope only to leave our children a bigger car, a bigger bank account. We must hope to give them a sense of what it means to be a loyal friend, a loving parent, a citizen who leaves his home, his neighborhood and town better than he found it. (George Bush, 1989)

According to George Bush, possessions were not the measure of people's lives, such as cars and bank account. What mattered were loyalty, care and contribution to a better and more ideal world. These virtues were the spiritual needs and values of life. The pursuit of idealism was presupposed here and was intended to lead the values of the common public.

3.2.4 Presupposition of Other Values

(28) Let us *restore* to social intercourse that harmony and affection without which liberty and even life itself are but dreary things. (Thomas Jefferson, 1801)

'Restore' triggers that harmony and affection used to exist but later were lost. Why did Jefferson call on his fellow citizens to restore to harmony and affection? Harmony and affection must be in line with values of American people and in necessity at that time, which is verified by the restrictive clause. It can be inferred that all that are called on to do must have been presupposed to be right and just and accord with the values of most people.

(29) ...and should we wander from them in moments of error or of alarm, let us hasten to *retrace* our steps and to *regain* the road which alone leads to peace, liberty, and safety.

(Thomas Jefferson, 1801)

Similar to 'restore', 'retrace' and 'regain' both presuppose that American people once were on the way to peace, liberty and safety. These were presupposed precious values and

the way was presupposed as the right way. So when they should wander from it, Jefferson said that would be in the moments of error or alarm.

(30) If there be any among us who would wish to dissolve this Union or to change its republican form, let them stand undisturbed as monuments of the safety with which error of opinion may be tolerated where reason is left free to combat it. (Thomas Jefferson, 1801)

Although Jefferson encouraged tolerance, in the end of the sentence 'combat' still came on the stage. The only difference is that usually people combat the error of opinion, or rather, the dissolution of the Union, while here Jefferson let reason to combat it. No matter people or reason combats the dissolution of the Union, it is to be combated. 'Combat' presupposes that the combated is often something unwanted, unfavorable, bad, negative, such as disease, the enemy, etc. Therefore, the value orientation is evident that unity is cherished and dissolution is to be combated and banished.

(31) Without union our independence and liberty would never have been achieved; without union they never can be maintained. (Andrew Jackson, 1833)

This sentence, on the one hand emphasized the importance of the union, on the other hand it presupposed that independence and liberty were desired by the common public. This could also be verified through the use of the word 'achieve', for 'achieve' is often associated with something positive and wanted.

(32) In exercising a sound discretion in levying discriminating duties within the limit prescribed, care should be taken that it be done in a manner not to benefit the wealthy few at the expense of the toiling millions by taxing lowest the luxuries of life, or articles of superior quality and high price, which can only be consumed by the wealthy, and highest the necessities of life, or articles of coarse quality and low price, which the poor and great mass of our people must consume. (James K. Polk, 1845)

In China, it is considered as a virtue to rob the rich to feed the poor. In America, sympathy for the poor is also presupposed as noble and encouraged. Levying discriminating duties was not merely a human action to maintain the basic life of the poor but also essential to the stabilization and safety of the whole society. Levying more from the rich would also benefit the society by restricting the few from accumulating wealth that could give birth to power which is dangerous to the whole society. The task for a

government is to realize the common prosperity and struggle against inadequate polarization between the rich and the poor.

(33) I do not offer a life of uninspiring ease. I do not call for a life of grim sacrifice. I ask you to join in a high adventure - one as rich as humanity itself, and as exciting as the times we live in. (Richard M. Nixon, 1969)

'A life of uninspiring ease' and 'a life of grim sacrifice' are against the values of the president and American people while 'high adventure' is worshipped. These values are essential to the understanding of discourses but since they are rooted in the mind of the people, they are often presupposed without awareness and taken for granted.

(34) Apprehension seems to exist among the people of the Southern States that by the accession of a Republican Administration their property and their peace and personal security are to be endangered. (Abraham Lincoln, 1861)

It is often regarded naturally that property, peace and security are desired which in fact involve value judgments. Without these value judgments, it can't be understood why the endangering of the property, peace and security would cause apprehension. Only when things considered congruent to one's values or interests are threatened, would apprehension be caused. However, more often than not, these values are presupposed unconsciously and therefore are often ignored. Speakers need to know what values the audience has so as to avoid conflicts and show empathy between the audience and themselves. Lincoln had identified these values and the apprehension before his administration. Therefore, in the beginning of his inaugural speech, he devoted to removing that apprehension which otherwise would impede his administration.

3.3 Self-orientation Presupposition

3.3.1 Self-centeredness Presupposition

(35) We have become a great nation, forced by the fact of its greatness into relations with the other nations of the earth, and we must behave as beseems a people with such responsibilities. (Theodore Roosevelt, 1905)

Did other nations ask America to help them, to lead them and to take responsibilities for them? America often makes foreign policies regardless of the situation and willingness of other nations. They believe America's will is the universal will. Self-centeredness is presupposed unconsciously.

(36) And yet the same revolutionary beliefs for which our forebears fought are still at issue around the globe — the belief that the rights of man come not from the generosity of the state, but from the hand of God. (John F. Kennedy, 1961)

Kennedy, as a believer in God, believed that the rights of man come from the hand of God. But to others who do not have the existential presupposition of God, how can they agree that the rights of man come from Him? Self-reference is presupposed again.

(37) *This most admirable and wisest system of well-regulated self-government among men ever devised by human minds* has been tested by its successful operation for more than half a century, ..., will, I fervently hope and believe, endure for ages to come and dispense the blessings of civil and religious liberty to distant generations. (James K. Polk, 1845)

How did Polk know others admired the federal system? Egocentrism was presupposed, which is the tendency to perceive, understand and interpret the world in terms of the self. Polk believed that American system was the most advanced, most perfect and most ideal and people all over the world would have the same belief with him. Although it had to be admitted that America had achieved unparalleled success, yet it was a little of narcissism for Polk to say that the system was the wisest ever devised. The national pride was overwhelming between the lines of the speech.

3.3.2 Superiority Presupposition

(38) Fellow citizens, without solicitation on my part, I have been chosen by the free and voluntary suffrages of my countrymen to *the most honorable and most responsible* office on earth. (James K. Polk, 1845)

Polk said that the office of the American president was the most honorable and most responsible office on earth. On the one hand this was to glorify the sacredness of the position as a president and extend his thanks to the citizens for choosing him; on the other

hand the racial superiority or ethnocentrism that America was the best and more elevated than all other countries was presupposed.

(39) *Nowhere else* in the world have noble men and women exhibited in *more* striking forms the beauty and the energy of sympathy and helpfulness and counsel in their efforts to rectify wrong, alleviate suffering, and set the weak in the way of strength and hope. (Woodrow Wilson, 1913)

'Nowhere else...more...' presupposed that America exhibited those virtues in the most striking forms. With the sense of superiority and righteousness presupposed in mind, Wilson glorified these virtues, which would invoke the people's national pride and confidence and appeal to people's love for the whole country.

3.3.3 Self-importance Presupposition

(40) Great is the stake placed in our hands; great is the responsibility which must rest upon the people of the United States. (Andrew Jackson, 1833)

From the very beginning, American citizens considered themselves as God-chosen people and America as the nation under God. Moreover, economic prosperity and territory expansion encouraged the confidence of American people and their self-importance as well, which prevails everywhere in the inaugurals. The sentence mentioned above is a case in example. This idea has rooted in their mind and is often presupposed unconsciously when they speak and behave in intercourse with other nations.

(41) If we fail, the cause of free self-government throughout the world will rock to its foundations, and therefore our responsibility is heavy, to ourselves, to the world as it is today, and to the generations yet unborn. (Theodore Roosevelt, 1905)

In Roosevelt's opinion, Americans play so important a role that without them, the cause of self-government in the world will collapse. As the chosen people by God, Americans should set a good example for other countries and future generations. It can be seen how deeply the presupposition of self-importance is rooted.

(42) The peoples of the earth face the future with grave uncertainty, composed almost equally of great hopes and great fears. In this time of doubt, they look to the United States as never

before for good will, strength, and wise leadership. (Harry S. Truman, 1949)

First, did the peoples of the earth look to the United States for good will, strength and wise leadership? It had to be admitted that in the two world wars, America played an important role, but this added to the self-importance of America. Second, did the United States offer help out of good will? Truman's assertion transformed the question into unquestioned facts. The presupposition that America has responsibility to lead and help the world makes all these words sound natural to its own people no matter how they may sound to other nations.

3.3.4 Justice Presupposition

(43) New communities and States are seeking protection under its aegis, and multitudes from the Old World are flocking to our shores to participate in its blessings. (James K. Polk, 1845)

Polk justified the annexation of the new states by saying that the new states willingly sought its protection. America posed itself as the benevolent protector and was extremely confident in its charm to attract multitudes from the Old World. The presupposition of America's justice displayed ostensive.

(44) We have not sought to *dominate* or to *absorb* any of our weaker neighbors, but rather to *aid* and *encourage* them to establish free and stable governments resting upon the consent of their own people. (Benjamin Harrison, 1889)

In Harrison's mind, America was the symbol of justice. The domination and absorption of other countries were justified as aid. Regardless of other countries' will to manage their own country, America wanted to establish a world according to its own ideology which was presupposed to be righteous. This can be found abundant in America's policies towards foreign nations.

(45) All who live in tyranny and hopelessness can know: the United States will not ignore your oppression, or excuse your oppressors. When you stand for your liberty, we will stand with you. (George W. Bush, 2005)

Bush regarded America as a protector who had sympathy for the weak and oppressed. The justice presupposition of all its causes covered its hegemonism and interventionism

with righteousness and humanitarianism.

3.3.5 Positive Presupposition of America and Negative Presupposition of Other Nations

(46) A rising nation, spread over a wide and fruitful land, traversing all the seas with the rich productions of their industry, engaged in commerce with *nations who feel power and forget right*, advancing rapidly to destinies beyond the reach of mortal eye--when I contemplate these transcendent objects, and see *the honor, the happiness, and the hopes of this beloved country* committed to the issue, and the auspices of this day, I shrink from the contemplation, and humble myself before the magnitude of the undertaking. (Thomas Jefferson, 1801)

There are value presuppositions here that 'power' is hated and often associated with political control and 'right' favored and often connected with people and freedom. So nations who feel power and forget right are against the mainstream values and obviously evil. The restrictive clause triggers that such nations exist, who are commerce partners of America. In contrast, look at the image of America construed by words of 'honor', 'happiness', 'hope' and 'beloved', which are all favorable, pleasant and commendatory terms. Do the images conform to the reality? Jefferson presupposed them so. Were that other nations are miserable and America is all right told again and again, they would gradually shape the value of the common public.

(47) Kindly separated by nature and a wide ocean from the exterminating havoc of one quarter of the globe; too high-minded to endure *the degradations of the others...* (Thomas Jefferson, 1801)

The 'of' phrase presupposes that others are degraded and 'others' refer to nations except America. 'Endure' is often linked with something painful or unfavorable. It means here that America suffered from the degradations of others, so that America was in the opposite position against degradation. Again, others were marked evil and America branded righteous. According to Sapir-Whorf's Linguistic Relativity that the way we think about the world is determined by our cultural and linguistic background, it can be conceived that how the political language influences the judgments of the common public and mould their values.

(48) No treason to mankind since the organization of society would be equal in atrocity to that of *him* who would lift *his* hand to destroy it. *He* would overthrow the noblest structure of human wisdom, ...let *him* remember that nothing human can be perfect, and that under no other system of government revealed by Heaven or devised by man has reason been allowed so free and broad a scope to combat error. (James K. Polk, 1845)

In the inaugural speeches, what are just, right, noble, etc. are associated with 'self', 'we', 'ours' while what are evil, mistaken, wrong, negative, etc. are connected with 'others', 'he', 'they'. The audiences are always in the right side with the speaker, the president, as 'we', while 'others', 'some', 'he', 'they' are excepted as the enemy, as the personification of all that are destructive and evil. In this way, the president and the audiences, symbolizing justice, unify against the common enemy.

(49) It is a source of deep regret that in *some* sections of our country misguided persons have occasionally indulged in schemes and agitations whose object is the destruction of domestic institutions existing in other sections — institutions which existed at the adoption of the Constitution and were recognized and protected by it. (James K. Polk, 1845)

'Regret' presupposes that there existed some misguided persons who were indulged in the destruction of domestic institutions protected by the Constitution which is the symbol of justice in people's mind. This just cause to combat the presupposed destructive common enemy prepared a foundation for the president and the audience to form a united battlefield which is always presupposed just and right.

(50) Communism is based on the belief that man is so weak and inadequate that he is unable to govern himself, and therefore requires the rule of strong masters.

Democracy is based on the conviction that man has the moral and intellectual capacity, as well as the inalienable right, to govern himself with reason and justice.

Communism subjects the individual to arrest without lawful cause, punishment without trial, and forced labor as the chattel of the state. It decrees what information he shall receive, what art he shall produce, what leaders he shall follow, and what thoughts he shall think.

Democracy maintains that government is established for the benefit of the individual, and is charged with the responsibility of protecting the rights of the individual and his freedom in the exercise of his abilities.

Communism maintains that social wrongs can be corrected only by violence.

Democracy has proved that social justice can be achieved through peaceful change.

Communism holds that the world is so deeply divided into opposing classes that war is inevitable.

Democracy holds that free nations can settle differences justly and maintain lasting peace.

(Harry S. Truman, 1949)

This excerpt makes an excellent case to demonstrate how American president described other nations and how he constructed the image of his own country. From the excerpt it can be seen that communism was described as a system tolerating no individualism or freedom, violent and anti-peace while the system of America was the most advanced, most ideal and always right. How many of the common public know directly about Communism? Most of them get the knowledge from second resources. However, a considerable part of these indirect resources has been intentionally processed and seriously distorted. The high officials make use of their speech privilege to mislead the common public the way they intend. Truman made use of these ungrounded presuppositions to lead the values, attitudes and behavior of the common public.

(51) The designs of that power, dark in purpose, are clear in practice. It strives to seal forever the fate of those it has enslaved. It strives to break the ties that unite the free. And it strives to capture--to exploit for its own greater power - all forces of change in the world, especially the needs of the hungry and the hopes of the oppressed. (Dwight D. Eisenhower, 1957)

It is encountered with again that Communism was depicted as against human rights, freedom and oppressing. The evil of Communism presupposition was in a sharp contrast with the justice presupposition of America.

3.4 Presupposition of the Audience's Psychology

3.4.1 Truth Presupposition

(52) We will persistently clarify the choice before every ruler and every nation: The moral choice between oppression, which is always wrong, and freedom, which is eternally right.

(George W. Bush, 2005)

The non-restrictive clauses presuppose that oppression is always wrong and freedom is eternally right. Truth or the right is to be supported and the wrong to be fought against. This prepared the foundation for Bush's advocating of freedom throughout the world.

3.4.2 Sham Presupposition

(53) ...but this being now decided by the voice of the nation, announced according to the rules of the Constitution, *all* will, of course, arrange themselves under the will of the law, and unite in common efforts for the common good. *All*, too, will bear in mind this sacred principle, that though the will of the majority is in all cases to prevail, that will to be rightful must be reasonable; that the minority possess their equal rights, which equal law must protect, and to violate would be oppression. (Thomas Jefferson, 1801)

Would all obey the rules of Constitution and bear in mind that sacred principle? It is not true. It is a sham presupposition. Jefferson just intended to guide the value orientation of the common public and reduce dissention as possible as he could. If there were someone who wouldn't obey the Constitution, he would be isolated from others. Moreover, people are apt to follow the crowd.

(54) The inestimable value of our Federal Union is felt and acknowledged by *all*. (James K. Polk, 1845)

It is sure that not all agreed to the Federal Union. So it was an untruthful presupposition here that all upheld the Union. The purpose is obvious that it was intended to guide the people to support the Federal Union.

(55) The sound moral and honorable feeling of the people of the indebted States can not be questioned, and we are happy to perceive a settled disposition on their part, as their ability returns after a season of unexampled pecuniary embarrassment, to pay off all just demands and to acquiesce in any reasonable measures to accomplish that object. (James K. Polk, 1845)

Was it real that the sound moral and honorable feeling of the people of the indebted States can not be questioned? Polk flattered those indebted States so that if they wouldn't return the debts, they would be immoral and shameful. This presupposition was intended to give trust to, save the face and direct the behavior of the indebted states.

3.4.3 Needs Presupposition

3.4.3.1 Basic Needs Presupposition

(56) The masses of our people are better fed, clothed, and housed than their fathers were.

(Benjamin Harrison, 1889)

It is known that food, clothes and houses are the fundamental needs of people's life and basis of people's happiness. Harrison made use of the better satisfaction of these needs to stimulate the audience's gratefulness to live an improved life and strengthen their love of the country.

(57) Values have shrunk to fantastic levels; taxes have risen; our ability to pay has fallen; government of all kinds is faced by serious curtailment of income; the means of exchange are frozen in the currents of trade; the withered leaves of industrial enterprise lie on every side; farmers find no markets for their produce; the savings of many years in thousands of families are gone. (Franklin D. Roosevelt, 1933)

All those presented by Roosevelt were closely related to the people's livelihood. When people's basic interests were threatened, they would rise to actions. With the presupposition that people were unsatisfied with the present living conditions and anticipated a better living, Roosevelt provoked people's desire to change the present living state and called them on to join in his administration to strive for a bright and happy future.

(58) Our aim should be to help the free peoples of the world, through their own efforts, to produce more food, more clothing, more materials for housing, and more mechanical power to lighten their burdens. (Harry S. Truman, 1949)

The needs of other nations were presupposed, and the help to satisfy these basic needs seemed humane. America's intervention with other countries was justified.

(59) The question we ask today is not whether our government is too big or too small, but whether it works - whether it helps families find jobs at a decent wage, care they can afford, a retirement that is dignified. (Barack H. Obama, 2009)

It is presupposed that 'Jobs at a decent wage', 'care they can afford' and 'retirement that is dignified' are all basic needs of the common people. Therefore, any government that

can help families satisfy these needs would not be difficult to gain the support of the common people.

3.4.3.2 Self-actualization Need Presupposition

(60) Utterly, indeed, should I despair did not the presence of many whom I here see remind me that in the other high authorities provided by our Constitution I shall find resources of wisdom, of virtue, and of zeal on which to rely under all difficulties. (Thomas Jefferson, 1801)

The presupposed fact was that now Jefferson didn't despair. But why did Jefferson use a counterfactual sentence here? The counterfactual sentence was used to emphasize how important his audience was in giving him confidence and support. According to Maslow, human beings need to realize their values. Jefferson had to rely on the support, wisdom, virtue and zeal of his audience, which satisfied their needs of self-actualization. When the audiences are satisfied, they would feel happy and much easier to accept what the speaker says to them. This is more favorable for the president to gain acceptance and support for his administration.

(61) In your hands, my fellow citizens, more than in mine, will rest the final success or failure of our course. (John F. Kennedy, 1961)

As mentioned above, human beings pursue to realize their values. Kennedy noticed this and gave the common public the initiative to shoulder the responsibility of their course in order that the common public would feel self-important and respected to complete the common course.

3.4.4 Reason Presupposition

It is presupposed that the audiences have reasoning ability, and with this in mind the president often appeals to the reason of the audience to persuade them to support or oppose to some policies, views, persons or organizations.

(62) *The circumstances* under which I now meet you will *acquit* me from entering into that subject further than to refer to the great constitutional charter under which you are assembled, and which, in defining your powers, designates the objects to which your attention is to be

given. (George. Washington, 1789)

According to common sense, the president often states his policies for the following administration, but Washington didn't. He needed to explain the reason rather than be arbitrary to omit these measures because more often than not the audience prefers the speaker to be reasonable and objective rather than be arbitrary and subjective. With this reason presupposition, let's look at how Washington masterly dealt with the problem. 'Acquit' means 'to declare somebody to be not guilty (of a crime, etc.); free or clear somebody (of blame, responsibility, etc.)'. (OALD, 1997: 13) It can be inferred that the actor of 'acquit' is a conscious human being, which may cause a sentence to appear subjective. Washington used 'the circumstances', a material entity, as the subject, rendering the sentence to be more objective. It was not he that didn't want to enter into the specific measures for the coming administration but it was the circumstances that made it more reasonable to refer to the great constitutional charter. Moreover, the rhetoric of personification made the language much livelier.

(63) Sometimes it is said that man can not be trusted with the government of himself. Can he, then, be trusted with the government of others? Or have we found angels in the forms of kings to govern him? Let history answer this question. (Thomas Jefferson, 1801)

Jefferson refuted that some men had no confidence in America. Instead of using declarative sentences, he drew upon rhetorical questions which would involve the audience in the reasoning. Reason appeals and reason convinces.

(64) I shall often go wrong through defect of judgment. When right, I shall often be thought wrong by those whose positions will not command a view of the whole ground. I ask your indulgence for my own errors, which will never be intentional, and your support against the errors of others, who may condemn what they would not if seen in all its parts. (Thomas Jefferson, 1801)

To err is human and human is inevitable to err. Jefferson appealed to the understanding of the audience. He admitted that he might go wrong subjectively because of his own defect; however, he was also candid and confident that when he was right, sometimes he still might be thought wrong by others. He didn't pretend that all others were totally right for the sake of their face. He presented both the subjective and objective

causes for being wrong. The audiences were reasonable enough to understand him.

3.4.5 Celebrity Charm Presupposition

(65) I know, indeed, that some honest men fear that a republican government can not be strong, that this Government is not strong enough...I believe this, on the contrary, the strongest Government on earth. I believe it the only one where every man, at the call of the law, would fly to the standard of the law, and would meet invasions of the public order as his own personal concern. (Thomas Jefferson, 1801)

'Know' is a factive verb and triggers that there exist someone and some one fear that America is not strong enough. Jefferson refuted this fear as theoretic and visionary. How did he prove to the audience that America was strong enough? He expressed his own firm belief. How could his belief defeat some honest men's fear? He utilized the celebrity charm. The audience knew Jefferson's achievements and believed in his insight. Thus, although Jefferson used a subjective phrase 'I believe', the audiences were still prone to trust him rather than some honest men.

(66) My experience in public concerns and the observation of a life somewhat advanced confirm the opinions long since imbibed by me, that the destruction of our State governments or the annihilation of their control over the local concerns of the people would lead directly to revolution and anarchy, and finally to despotism and military domination. (Andrew Jackson, 1833)

In the 1930s, there was an intensive conflict over the relationship between the federal government and state governments between the northern and southern part of America. Adams passed a protective tariff act in 1828 and intrigued strong objections among several states in the south. Jackson modified this act by making some compromises in 1832, but Carolina state was still against it, declared void the two acts and threatened to break away from the federal State. Jackson took lots of measures and eventually eased this crisis. Therefore, in his second inaugural speech, Jackson spoke the above words. The audience knew what Jackson had achieved in his former administration and they believed in his capability and his insight. Jackson took advantage of his charisma and gained confidence of the common public.

(67) One of the most distinguished of my predecessors attached deserved importance to "the support of the State governments in all their rights, as the most competent administration for our domestic concerns and the surest bulwark against antirepublican tendencies," and to the "preservation of the General Government in its whole constitutional vigor, as the sheet anchor of our peace at home and safety abroad." (James K. Polk, 1845)

With the expansion of the territory before the civil war, collisions occurred over the problem of slavery between the newly added states and the southern states. The Union was faced with serious crisis of dissolution. Presidents in that period all emphasized the importance of the Union as well as the rights of the states as a compromise. Polk also devoted to this issue. He quoted the words from Thomas Jefferson's inaugural speech to gain people's support both for the State governments and the General Government. It is known that the founding fathers are deeply adored and their talents are appreciated by all. Thus, their words are considered golden sayings. That Polk drew upon Thomas Jefferson's words on the one hand displayed his respect towards the founding fathers which was also the psychology of the audience and on the other hand enabled him to benefit from the great influence of Thomas Jefferson on the audience on the maintenance of harmony between the states and the Union.

(68) In one of those letters exchanged in the sunset of their lives, Jefferson wrote: "It carries me back to the times when, beset with difficulties and dangers, we were fellow laborers in the same cause, struggling for what is most valuable to man, his right to self-government. Laboring always at the same oar, with some wave ever ahead threatening to overwhelm us, and yet passing harmless... we rode through the storm with heart and hand." (Ronald Reagan, 1985)

Reagan told the story of the relationship between the two founding fathers, Adams and Jefferson, who once were political rivals in the Presidential election of 1800 but reestablished a bond with each other in years later. Then he quoted one of the two fathers' letters to call on the people to stand as one. Those founding fathers set good examples of unity for American people.

Chapter 4 Tenor Presupposition in the 18 APISes

As mentioned in 2.3.2, tenor refers to the interpersonal relationship. With regard to the inaugural speech, the president needs to get rid of or reduce divisions and pursue identification so as to get the support for his following administration.

4.1 Division Presupposition

4.1.1 Presupposition and the Relationship between the President and the People

4.1.1.1 Presupposition and Self-Image Construction

(69) Among the vicissitudes incident to life no event could have filled me with greater anxieties than that of which the notification was transmitted by your order, and received on the 14th day of the present month. (George Washington, 1789)

This is the first sentence of Washington's inaugural speech. He put 'event' in the place of the subject and 'me' the object instead of saying, "I'm filled with anxieties by the event which the notification was transmitted by your order..." where 'I' is put in front of 'event'. The theme, topic of a sentence, is different in the two voices of the sentence. In the active original sentence, 'the event' is the theme while in the passive rewritten sentence, 'I', Washington, is the topic. It is considered that on this special occasion, the event that the people summon someone to be the president is more sacred than 'I', the elected individual. To put 'event' as the theme presupposes both that Washington respected people and the high officials who summoned him to be the president and that he himself was modest. Thus it can be seen that word order can also be presupposition trigger. The psychological presupposition triggered can help Washington project his virtues of other-respect and self-modesty and promote his interpersonal relationship with the audience.

'Anxieties' is also an artful word in the inaugural speeches for a president to express

his feelings to be a president. More often than not when one is summoned as the president he would feel honored, excited rather than anxious. Why was Washington anxious?

(70) On the one hand, I was summoned by my Country, whose voice I can never hear but with veneration and love, from a retreat which I had chosen with the fondest predilection, and, in my flattering hopes, with an immutable decision, as the asylum of my declining years--a retreat which was rendered every day more necessary as well as more dear to me by the addition of habit to inclination, and of frequent interruptions in my health to the gradual waste committed on it by time. On the other hand, the magnitude and difficulty of the trust to which the voice of my country called me, being sufficient to awaken in the wisest and most experienced of her citizens a distrustful scrutiny into his qualifications, could not but overwhelm with despondence one who (inheriting inferior endowments from nature and unpracticed in the duties of civil administration) ought to be peculiarly conscious of his own deficiencies. (George Washington, 1789)

It can be seen that Washington was anxious because of two points: his disinclination and his incapacity. How many people dream to be the president! Washington's dream didn't lie in that. His predilection was a retreat. He was indifferent to fame. Moreover, if he was not wise, not experienced enough to be a president, who was? However, Washington said he was overwhelmed by his deficiencies. His personality and his modesty were well displayed through 'anxieties', the existential presupposition trigger. Not only reason and emotion appeal to audiences, personality of the speaker has considerable effect on the audience as well. Well-chosen referring phrases can not only presuppose something, but also improve the president's public image. However, the inaugural speech is a special type of communication and should comply to the cooperative principle of quantity, too. Presidents know words uttered during the inaugural speech had better be based on truth and sincere feelings move while pretentious emotions annoy. Washington delivered the speech from the bottom of his heart and moved the audience deeply.

(71) When I was first honored with a call into the service of my country, then on the eve of an arduous struggle for its liberties, the light in which I contemplated my duty required that I should *renounce* every pecuniary compensation. From this resolution I have in no instance departed; and being still under the impressions which produced it, I must *decline* as

inapplicable to myself any share in the personal emoluments ...(George Washington, 1789)

'Renounce' and 'decline' presuppose that something is given or offered but now is refused. In this speech, they refer to that Washington was offered money for his commitment to the whole country, but he turned down and determined to work for free as the president. Compared with those who's enthusiastic for wealth and profit, how selfless he was. If people wouldn't choose him to be the president, who else could be more qualified? Both his contributions and his personality earned him "father of the nation".

(71) Honored with this distinguished consideration at an earlier period of life than any of my predecessors, I can not disguise the diffidence with which I am about to enter on the discharge of my official duties. (James K. Polk, 1845)

Polk was born in 1795 and when he was elected as the president, he was fifty years old, much younger than his predecessors when they became the president. With this presupposed in mind, on the one hand he expressed modestly his diffidence at his young age to be the president; on the other hand he implied he was gifted and energetic and could make a promising successful leader. American people could trust and support him.

4.1.1.2 Presupposition and Other-respect

(72) Such being the impressions under which I have, *in obedience to the public summons*, repaired to the present station, it would be peculiarly improper to omit in this first official act my fervent supplications to that Almighty Being... Besides the ordinary objects *submitted* to your care, it will remain with your judgment to decide how far an exercise of the occasional power delegated by the fifth article of the Constitution is rendered expedient... (George Washington, 1789)

In public opinion, it is supposed that the president is the leader of a country and thus more authoritative, superior to the common people. However, from the words used above in italics and bold type, it is obvious that Washington put people first and himself in a subordinate place. He redefined his role from a leader to a servant. This caters to the presupposed psychology of the common people that they hate tyrants and want to be respected and treated as equal. Washington did more than that by subjecting himself to the common public.

(73) Without pretensions to that high confidence you reposed in our first and greatest revolutionary character, whose preeminent services had entitled him to the first place in his country's love and destined for him the fairest page in the volume of faithful history, I ask so much confidence only as may give firmness and effect to the legal administration of your affairs. (Thomas Jefferson, 1801)

Both Jefferson and the audience knew whom 'our first and greatest revolutionary character' referred to. They shared the same knowledge and the same feelings towards George Washington, the first great president. Therefore, Jefferson didn't challenge the presupposition, instead, he made use of the common psychology by sharing this feeling, approbating the great figure and candidly admitting his own inferiority. On the one hand, he respected the "father of the nation"; on the other hand, he demonstrated his modest estimation of himself.

4.1.2 Presupposition and Relationship Between the Two Parties

(74) It means much more than the mere success of a party. The success of a party means little except when the Nation is using that party for a large and definite purpose. (Woodrow Wilson, 1913)

It is known that in America, two major parties, the Democratic Party and the Republican Party, compete for the presidential election. The success of one party means the failure of the other who may be unwilling to support the winner. The president as a representative of the successful party of course needs to unite the two parties. With the presupposed broken relationship in mind, Wilson tried to make it up by switching attention from the division of the two parties to a united purpose to establish a better America which was developed in the following of his speech.

(75) ...we observe today not a victory of party, but a celebration of freedom--symbolizing an end, as well as a beginning — signifying renewal, as well as change. (John F. Kennedy, 1961)

Kennedy won the presidential election by a narrow margin. That means almost half supported him and almost half were against him. With this presupposed in mind, Kennedy avoided mentioning the victory of his party and called the victory of one party by a good name of a celebration of freedom.

4.1.3 Presupposition and the Relationship Between the Government and the People

(76) What has to be done, has to be done by government and people together or it will not be done at all. The lesson of past agony is that without the people we can do nothing; with the people we can do everything. (Richard M. Nixon, 1969)

It is usually considered that the government is the ruler and the people are the ruled who subject to the government. Nixon instead put the government and the people in an equal place and gave great emphasis to the importance and powerfulness of the people. This affirmation of the role of the people would gain for him the support of the audience.

(77) And once again, we have resolved for our time a great debate over the role of government. Today we can declare: Government is not the problem and government is not the solution. We, the American people, we are the solution. (William J. Clinton, 1997)

Traditionally, government played a leading role in dealing with affairs at home and abroad. It was regarded that the performance of the government mattered greatly in the situation of a country. It could be the cause of problems and also solutions of problems. This point of view took little of the role of the people into account. Clinton gave up this view and attached the emphasis to the function of the people and thus would activate the participation of the common public.

(78) At these moments, America has carried on not simply because of the skill or vision of those in high office, but because We the People have remained faithful to the ideals of our forbearers, and true to our founding documents. (Barack H. Obama, 2009)

It is often conceived that heroes make history while the contributions of the masses are often backgrounded. If one expects the active participation of the masses, their worth must be affirmed. With these presupposed in mind, Obama, as an example in whom the American dream comes true, identifies himself with the masses by the use of 'we' and foregrounds the value of the people. The common public may feel themselves respected and in the meanwhile Obama might establish an amiable image and gain the favor of the masses of the people.

4.1.4 Presupposition and the Relationship Between the Federal Government and the State Governments

(79) In proportion, therefore, as the General Government encroaches upon the rights of the States, in the same proportion does it impair its own power and detract from its ability to fulfill the purposes of its creation. (Andrew Jackson, 1833)

In 1930s, there was a tension over the powers of the General Government and the state governments. Jackson as the president on the one hand had to defend the power of the General Government and on the other hand had to take into account the rights of the state governments so as to maintain the Union. With these presupposed in mind, he equated the rights of the States with the power of the General Government and the purpose of the Union. The states were parts of the body of the federal State. Thus if the federal government hurt the states, it would hurt itself. As the representative of the federal government, Jackson tried every means to relax the tension.

4.1.5 Presupposition and the Relationship with the Third Party

The third party usually refers to people except the speaker and the audience.

(80) During the contest of opinion through which we have passed the animation of discussions and of exertions has sometimes worn an aspect which might impose on *strangers* unused to think freely and to speak and to write what *they* think... (Thomas Jefferson, 1801)

It is commonly presupposed that during contest of opinions, confrontations are inevitable and also unfavorable to unification. So the president needs to lessen the conflict and reduce division. Jefferson met this problem, too. He was quite cautious about diction. 'Impose on' implies the forcefulness of the agent and the unwillingness of the patient, which vividly spoke out the voice of the strangers. Moreover, Jefferson added a mild 'might', an auxiliary word of possibility, which to some extent could ease the tension of clash.

(81) Texas was once a part of our country -- was unwisely ceded away to a *foreign power* - is now independent, and possesses an undoubted right to dispose of a part or the whole of her territory and to merge her sovereignty as a separate and independent state in ours. (James K.

Polk, 1845)

Texas was a republic at that time after it separated itself from Mexico. But Mexico didn't recognize the sovereignty of the republic of Texas and wanted to reincorporate Texas into its territory. It threatened that if America interfered in the issue, it would wage a war towards America. With these presupposed in mind, Polk used a vague expression 'a foreign power' to refer to Mexico rather than state it explicitly as the political relationship between America and Mexico was very sensitive.

(82) *Some*, I know, have questioned the global appeal of liberty - though this time in history, four decades defined by the swiftest advance of freedom ever seen, is an odd time for doubt.
(George W. Bush, 2005)

'Some' is a vague word to trigger the presupposition of those who have questioned the global appeal of liberty. There was no necessity to state explicitly who these people were. Moreover, 'Some' would be polite and avoid intensifying conflicts.

(83) Our economy is badly weakened, a consequence of greed and irresponsibility on the part of *some*, but also our collective failure to make hard choices and prepare the nation for a new age. (Barack H. Obama, 2009)

Criticism and accusation would harm relationships. With this presupposed in mind, 'some' is used to alleviate the severe tone by saving the face of those accused.

4.2 Commonness Presupposition

4.2.1 Common Country Presupposition

(84) Called upon to undertake the duties of the first executive office of *our* country, I avail myself of the presence of that portion of *my fellow-citizens* which is here assembled to express my grateful thanks... (Thomas Jefferson, 1801)

At the beginning of the inaugural speech, Jefferson constructed a common identity between himself and the audience by presupposing via 'our' and 'fellow' that they were members of the same country. In the following example, Jefferson drew upon the cultural presupposition of Noah's Ark and compared their mother country of America to a vessel.

Thus all American people were in the same boat. They had the same journey, the same cause and the same fate.

(85) To you, then, gentlemen, who are charged with the sovereign functions of legislation, and to those associated with you, I look with encouragement for that guidance and support which may enable *us* to steer with safety the vessel in which we are all embarked amidst the conflicting elements of a troubled world. (Thomas Jefferson, 1801)

4.2.2 Common Belief Presupposition

(86) ...since *we* ought to be no less persuaded that the propitious smiles of *Heaven* can never be expected on a nation that disregards the eternal rules of order and right which Heaven itself has ordained...(George Washington, 1789)

By use of 'we', Washington on the one hand built up an intimate relationship with and reduced distance to the audience; on the other hand 'we' is not only the voice of Washington himself but that of the audience. They shared the same belief. In a word, here Washington presupposed that they all embraced God and the eternal rules ordained by God.

(87) ...possessing *a chosen country*, with room enough for our descendants to the thousandth and thousandth generation ... (Thomas Jefferson, 1801)

It is known that the early colonists of America came from England just because of religious persecution. They had firm belief that they were elects of God and were chosen to set up a new Eden in the new land of America. This common knowledge and belief presupposition established identification and reduced the distance between the president and his audience.

4.2.3 Common History Presupposition

(88) For us, they packed up their few worldly possessions and traveled across *oceans* in search of a new life.

For us, they toiled in sweatshops and settled *the west*; endured the lash of the whip and plowed the hard earth.

For us, they fought and died, in places like *Concord* and *Gettysburg*; *Normandy* and *Khe*

Sahn.(Barack H. Obama, 2009)

The audience knew what these presuppositions referred to, the establishment of their new country, the westward movement, the Independence War, World War II and Vietnam War. These were their common knowledge, common history and common elements which shaped their common identity and distinguished themselves from others.

4.2.4 Common Enemy Presupposition

(89) After the shipwreck of communism came years of relative quiet, years of repose, years of sabbatical and then there came a day of *fire*. (George W. Bush, 2005)

The fire referred to the September 11, 2001 attacks of the Pentagon. This was the common knowledge shared by all the audience as a community. This presupposition triggered by a simple word 'fire' on the one hand made the expression very concise and on the other hand established them as a common whole whose safety was threatened and endangered by their common enemy of terrorism.

Chapter 5 Mode Presupposition in the 18 APISes

According to Halliday, field, tenor and mode respectively correspond to the experiential world, the interpersonal world and the textual world. So mode not only refers to whether one discourse is in the spoken form or the written form or non-linguistic form but it also relates to the textual form of the discourse. Therefore in this chapter, mode presupposition is divided into non-linguistic presupposition and linguistic presupposition, or rather textual presupposition.

5.1 Non-linguistic Presupposition

Non linguistic presuppositions include the paralinguistic and extralinguistic presupposition in this thesis. Paralanguage refers to the non-verbal elements of communication used to modify meaning and convey emotion. Paralanguage may be expressed consciously or unconsciously, and it includes the pitch, volume, and, in some cases, intonation of speech. For example, body language is a form of non-verbal communication, consisting of body pose, gestures, and eye movements. Humans send and interpret such signals subconsciously. With these presupposed in mind consciously or subconsciously, presidents often pay attention to the rhythm, gestures or appearance. For example, before the inaugural speech there was a debate over which color of a tie Obama would wear, red, blue or black. Obama chose red, which is inspiring and stimulating, so as to cater to the public's strong desire to get rid of the economic recession. In comparison, blue is much milder and makes people feel resting and peaceful. Thus it doesn't conform to the mental state of that situation.

5.2 Textual Presupposition

Presupposition can not only presuppose something or some facts in the real world, the idea world, but the world of words as well. (Li Xiyin, 2001: 365-376) According to Li Xiyin, the world of words mainly refers to the linguistic context. In this thesis it is called the textual world. Then presupposition in the textual world can be divided into intra-textual presupposition and inter-textual presupposition. The former refers to textual presupposition within one text while the latter between two texts.

5.2.1 Intra-textual Presupposition

(90) *Such being the impressions* under which I have, in obedience to the public summons, repaired to the present station, it would be peculiarly improper to omit in this first official act my fervent supplications to that Almighty Being...

Besides *the ordinary objects* submitted to your care, it will remain with your judgment to decide how far an exercise of the occasional power...

To *the foregoing observations* I have one to add, which will be most properly addressed to the House of Representatives.

Having thus imparted to you *my sentiments* as they have been awakened by the occasion which brings us together, I shall take my present leave; but not without resorting once more to the benign Parent of the Human Race in humble supplication... (George Washington, 1789)

There are six paragraphs in Washington's inaugural speech. The four sentences listed above are respectively the first sentence of paragraph two, four, five and six. All the referring phrases in italics and bold type can find their referent in the former paragraphs. This is called intra-textual presupposition. It can be seen that these intra-textual presuppositions play a very important role in the cohesion of a discourse.

(91) ... with *all these blessings*, what *more* is necessary to make us a happy and a prosperous people? Still one thing more, fellow-citizens--a wise and frugal Government, which shall restrain men from injuring one another, shall leave them otherwise free to regulate their own pursuits of industry and improvement, and shall not take from the mouth of labor the bread it has earned. *This* is the sum of good government, and *this* is necessary to close the circle of our felicities. (Thomas Jefferson, 1801)

'More' presupposes that there were already something necessary to make America a

happy and prosperous country and these blessings had been mentioned in the speech. What 'this' presupposes can be found in the former text, "a wise and frugal Government, which shall... and shall not take from the mouth of labor the bread it has earned". These presuppositions make the speech concise and cohesive.

(92) *These* are the indicators of crisis, subject to data and statistics. (Barack H. Obama, 2009)

What 'these' refers to exist in the foregoing part of the speech where they are asserted as new information. However, with the development of the speech, they become the old information and presupposition of the new sentence. In this sense, presuppositions help the progress of information in discourses.

The above analysis can find support in van der Sandt (1992: 333-377). According to him, presuppositional expressions are anaphoric expressions, similar to pronouns and other anaphors.

5.2.2 Inter-textual Presupposition

In the inaugural speeches, much of the bible style is presupposed. It is known that most Americans including the presidents are religious believers among whom Christians have the largest population. Bible, as the classic of Christianity, has big influence on the discourses of American people including the inaugural speeches. The bible elements in the inaugural speeches are the common knowledge shared by the presidents and the audience. They may unify the president and the audience, establish a common identity between them and make the speeches more sacred, more solemn and more appealing.

5.2.2.1 Presupposition and Sentences Beginning with Conjunctions

The most prominent bible feature in the inaugurals is the use of conjunctions at the beginning of sentences. The most frequently used conjunctions are 'and', 'but' and 'for'. In this thesis, AntConc3.2.1 is used to count up the numbers of all sentences and sentences beginning with 'and', 'but' and 'for' in each inaugural speech. The speeches are serially numbered according to the time of their delivering which are listed in the appendix. Then,

Excel is utilized to make a statistical table for these data. From Table 2, it can be seen that sentences beginning with conjunctions of 'and', 'but' and 'for' account for 8.98% of all sentences on average. That is to say, nearly one out of ten sentences begins with conjunctions of 'and', 'but' and 'for', which is rare in other discourses. This shows that the bible feature of sentences beginning with conjunctions is plentifully inter-textually presupposed in the inaugural speeches. These conjunctions on the one hand make the speeches sound coherent and on the other hand connect the president and the audiences with the common religious background.

Table2

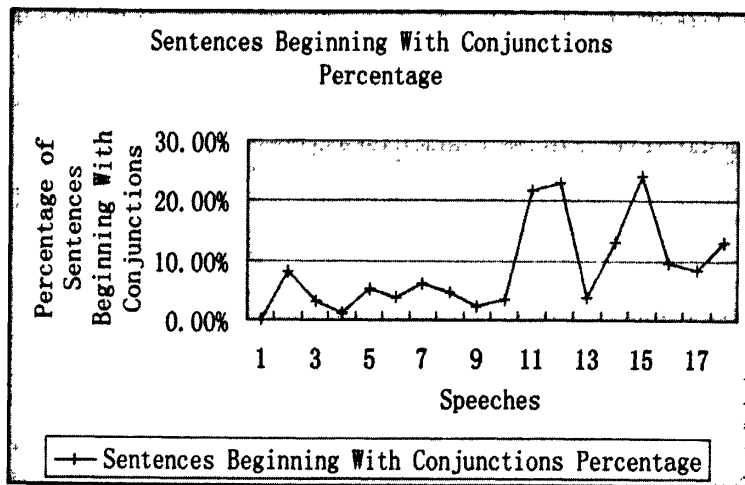
Number and Percentage of Sentences Beginning With Conjunctions

Speech No.	SN	And	But	For	ABF	Percentage
1	23	0	0	0	0	0.00%
2	37	2	1	0	3	8.11%
3	30	0	1	0	1	3.33%
4	153	1	1	0	2	1.31%
5	133	4	3	0	7	5.26%
6	157	1	5	0	6	3.82%
7	33	0	2	0	2	6.06%
8	66	1	2	0	3	4.55%
9	84	0	2	0	2	2.38%
10	116	2	2	0	4	3.45%
11	92	14	1	5	20	21.74%
12	52	4	5	3	12	23.08%
13	103	0	4	0	4	3.88%
14	123	10	6	0	16	13.01%
15	141	15	11	8	34	24.11%
16	114	10	1	0	11	9.65%
17	96	7	0	1	8	8.33%
18	106	6	3	5	14	13.21%
Total	1659	77	50	22	149	8.98%

(SN= sentence number; ABF= frequency of 'and', 'but' and 'for' altogether)

From Table 2, it also can be seen that the frequency of conjunctions at the beginning of sentences presents an increasing trend as a whole which is showed by Line Graph 1 in the following. It is especially so if speech 13 is excluded.

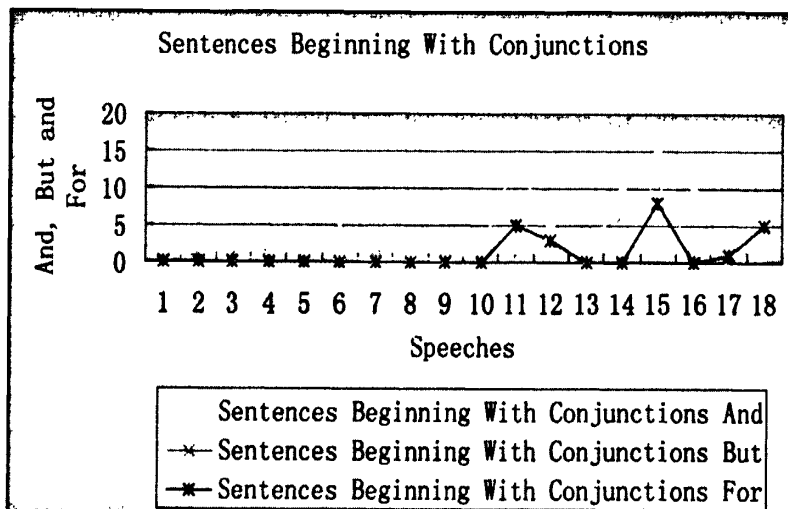
Figure 1 Percentage of Sentences Beginning with Conjunctions



The use of conjunctions is associated with personal style, background of the inaugural speech writer, the content of the speech and many other factors which will not be investigated in this thesis. However, as a whole, there is an increasing use of conjunctions at the beginning of sentences. It can be interpreted that this bible feature is employed more and more consciously as a strategy to establish identification between the president and the audience, which is one purpose of the inaugural speech.

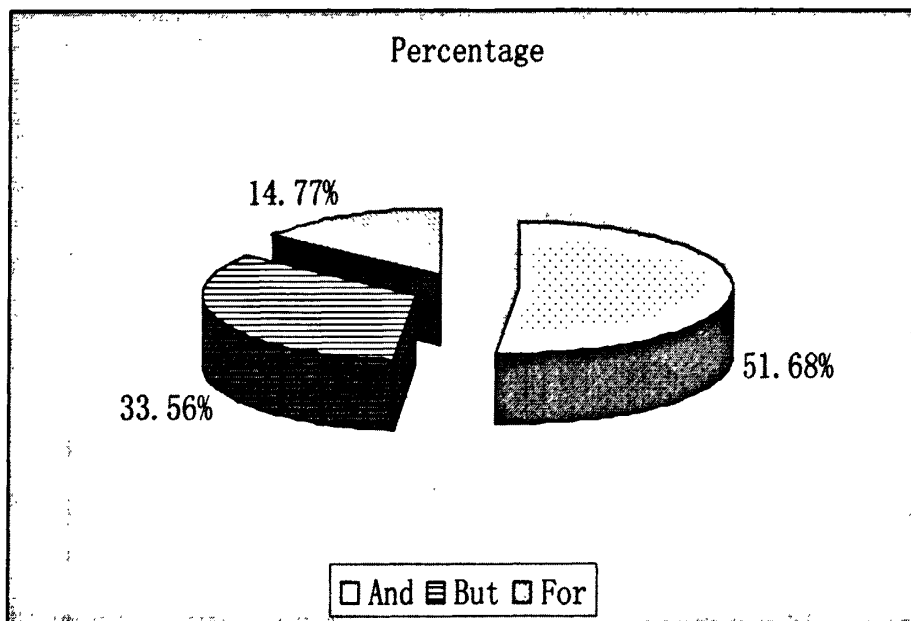
Moreover, the frequency of each conjunction presents a generally increasing tendency, which can be seen in Figure 2 in the following.

Figure 2 Number of Sentences Beginning with Each Conjunction in the 18 Inaugural Speeches



From the three lines representing the number of sentences beginning with each conjunction in the 18 inaugural speeches, it can be seen as a whole there are more use of 'and' than 'but' and more 'but' than 'for', which is clearly shown in Figure 3.

Figure 3 Proportions of 'And', 'But' and 'For' in the 18 Inaugural Speeches



From this pie graph, the habits of mind can be inferred. American people are most inclined to the coordinating or progressive relation, less the adverse relation and lest the cause-and-effect relation. Therefore, it can be seen the logical habits of the American speakers are reflected in the different frequency of these conjunctions.

5.2.2.2 Presupposition and the Number and Length of Paragraphs and Sentences

Another bible feature is that there are a great number of paragraphs and these paragraphs are usually short in one article. This thesis utilizes Microsoft Word getting the word and paragraph number, AntConc3.2.1 sentence number and Excel 2003 the average Length of sentences and paragraphs, which can be seen in Table 3 in the following.

Table 3

Number and Length of Sentences and Paragraphs

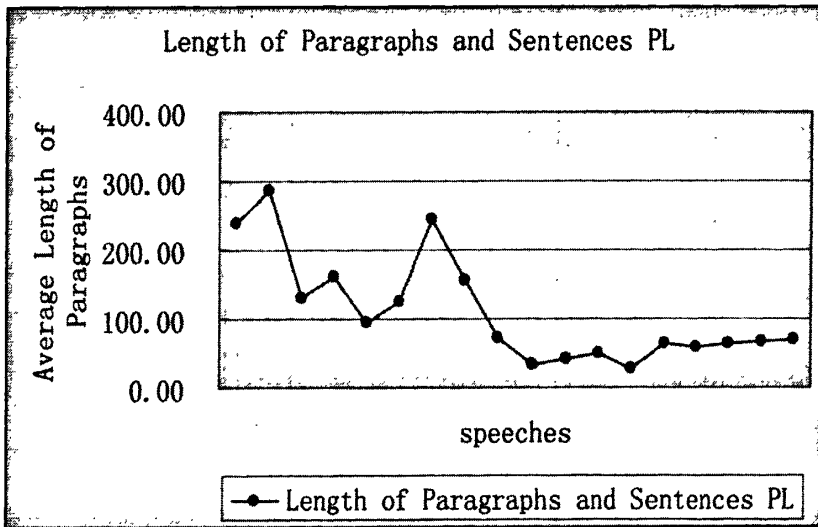
Speeches	WN	SN	PN	SL	PL	Sn
1	1428	23	6	62.09	238.00	3.83
2	1720	37	6	46.49	286.67	6.17
3	1173	30	9	39.10	130.33	3.33
4	4802	153	30	31.39	160.07	5.10
5	3633	133	38	27.32	95.61	3.50
6	4393	157	35	27.98	125.51	4.49
7	983	33	4	29.79	245.75	8.25
8	1699	66	11	25.74	154.45	6.00
9	1879	84	26	22.37	72.27	3.23
10	2273	116	71	19.59	32.01	1.63
11	1655	92	40	17.99	41.38	2.30
12	1364	52	27	26.23	50.52	1.93
13	2123	103	78	20.61	27.22	1.32
14	2564	123	41	20.85	62.54	3.00
15	2326	141	40	16.50	58.15	3.53
16	2158	114	34	18.93	63.47	3.35
17	2083	96	31	21.70	67.19	3.10
18	2397	106	34	22.61	70.50	3.12
TN & AL	40653	1659	561	24.50	72.47	2.96

(WN= word number; SN= sentence number; PN= paragraph number; SL=sentence length; PL= paragraph length; Sn= number of sentences in one paragraph; TN= total number; AL= average length)

From the PN column in the above table, it can be seen most speeches have more than 26 paragraphs except speech 1, 2, 3, 7, 8. Moreover, the paragraphs are not very long counting 72.47 words on average. In speech 13 of Nixon, there are only 27.22 words on average in one paragraph as short as a sentence. These bible features set a common religious background for the inaugural speech for the president and the audience.

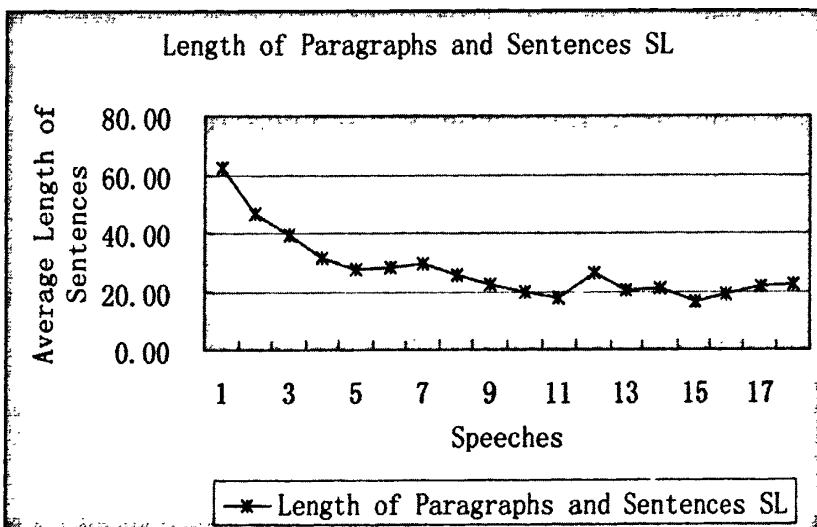
Also it can be seen from the table that the paragraph length demonstrates a shortening tendency as time goes on which is displayed by Figure 4.

Figure 4 Average Length of Paragraphs in the 18 Inaugural Speeches



The shortening of paragraph length attributes to both the shortening of the sentence length shown in Figure 5 and the decreasing of the sentence numbers per paragraph illustrated in Figure 6. Or rather, it can be expressed by this formula: $PL = SL * Sn$.

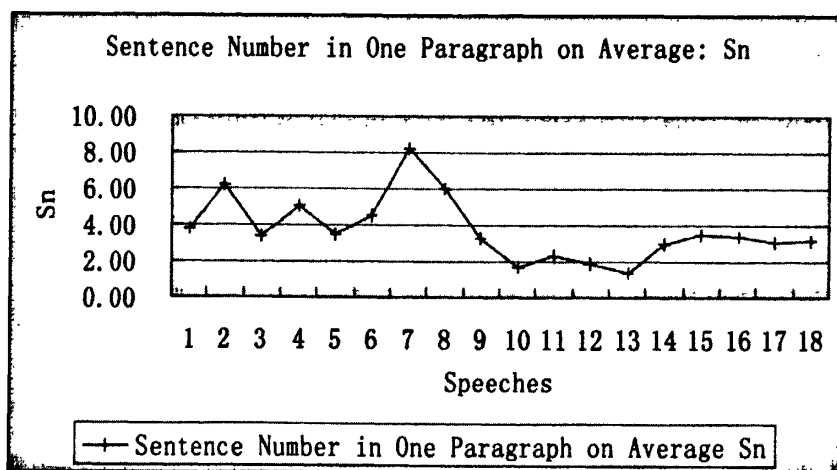
Figure 5 Average Length of Sentences in the 18 Inaugural Speeches



First, it is obvious that the length of sentences become shorter. Why is it so, from a sentence of 62.09 words on average in Washington's inaugural speech in 1789 to 16.50

words in that of Bush Senior in 1989? It is known that sentence length is one indicator of sentence difficulty. When words are of the same difficulty, generally speaking, the shorter one sentence is, the easier it is for the sentence to be understood. In the inaugural speeches, not only the sentences become shorter but also the words get simpler. Consequently, the inaugural speeches become easier. What underlies this phenomenon? The audiences change from the elite few to the masses of the common public especially when the mass media telecasts live to all corners of the world the inaugural speeches. The presidents no longer speak to the members of the Senate and of the House of the Representatives like Washington but now speak to all the masses of people in America and even to the whole world. When these changes of mode are presupposed, there is no wonder why sentences become shorter, words get simpler and the complex structures turn fewer.

Figure 6 Average Sentence Number per Paragraph in the 18 Inaugural Speeches



Second, it can be seen that in general there are fewer sentences in a paragraph. This is one factor contributing to the shortening of paragraph length besides the shortening of sentences. Why does the paragraph have fewer sentences? Reasons are similar to those for the shortening of sentence length. With the development of the mass media and the widening of the scope of the audience, the presidents don't dwell on complex reasoning or statements any more which lead to lengthy paragraphs but get to simplify what they will present to the audience and make sure almost all can understand them. Another reason is

that presidents no longer restrict to one paragraph stating or explaining one point but scatter one point into many paragraphs and naturally the paragraphs becomes shorter avoiding making the audience tired and rendering the speeches more powerful and emphatic.

These two factors together cause the shortening of the length of paragraphs.

5.2.2.3 Presupposition and Repetition at the Beginning of Paragraphs

Plentiful repetitions at the beginning of paragraphs are also a bible feature, which can be found in large numbers in APIS, which can be seen in Table 4.

Table 4 Repetitions at the Beginning of Paragraphs

Inaugural Speech of	Repetitions
James K. Polk, 1845	2 'to'
Benjamin Harrison, 1889	2 'it' and 'we'; 3 'it'
Woodrow Wilson, 1913	3 'we have'
Franklin D. Roosevelt, 1933	2 'we'
Harry S. Truman, 1949	4 'Communism' and 'democracy'; 4 'we have'; 5 'we are aided by'
Dwight D. Eisenhower, 1957	4 'may we'; 4 'we'
John F. Kennedy, 1961	6 'to sb'; 5 'let'
Richard M. Nixon, 1969	2 pairs of 2 'we'; 2 'to'; 2 'those'; 7 'I'
Ronald Reagan, 1985	4 'we'
George W. Bush, 2005	2 'we will'; 3 'in America's ideal of freedom'
Barack H. Obama, 2009	2 'on this day'; 3 'for us, they'; 2 'to'; 3 'this is'

It can be seen from the above table that as time goes on there is more use of repetitions at the beginning of paragraphs. Why? An example will be analyzed to interpret the reason. For instance, Kennedy made 6 pledges in 6 successive paragraphs beginning with the same word 'to' to tackle the relations with 6 various bodies in his inaugural speech.

(93) To those old allies whose cultural and spiritual origins we share, we...

To those new States whom we welcome to the ranks of the free, we ...

To those peoples in the huts and villages across the globe struggling to break the bonds of mass misery, we ...

To our sister republics south of our border, we...

To that world assembly of sovereign states, the United Nations, our last best hope in an age where the instruments of war have far outpaced the instruments of peace, we ...

Finally, to those nations who would make themselves our adversary, we ... (John F. Kennedy, 1961)

With regard to the organization, there are 6 separate paragraphs and each paragraph deals with the relationship with one group, which makes the speech systematic and in order rather than confusing and in mess. It's not rare to discuss things in classification. The beauty lies in that the common word 'to' integrates the 6 separate paragraphs into a unified whole.

Moreover, common structure benefits the audience with more economical understanding than many different structures. Bible is intended for the common people, so that the easier it is, the more people may be able to read and remember it. As mentioned above, with the development of the mass media, the inaugural speech can be heard almost by any one. Thus, like the Bible, the inaugural speech needs to be simple enough for as many people as possible to understand it. Therefore, it is not difficult to understand why the bible feature of repetition at the beginning of many paragraphs is inter-textually presupposed in the inaugural speech.

Thirdly, repetitions form rhythm which makes the speech musical and easy to remember. Repetitions in the Bible are intended for reciting since they can consolidate remembrance. The presidents also want their inaugural speech to be impressive.

Fourthly, repetition of the same word or structure at the beginning of several paragraphs makes the speech cohesive and coherent.

Fifthly, as a rhetorical device, it renders the argument more powerful and the prose more appealing. It is known that one stick is easy to break but many sticks bound together are much stronger. Similarly, the power of one sentence may be limited but when many

sentences of the same structure are accumulated one by one, their power will multiply. The inaugural speech is planned to persuade and stimulate the audience so that repetitions fall into their place to strengthen the convincing force and emotional might of the speech.

As most audiences are familiar with the Bible, it is easy for them to recognize the inter-textual presupposition of the bible feature of using repetitions at the beginning of successive paragraphs. With those functions figured out above, repetitions prevail in the Bible. Also they apply to the inaugural speech which add extra religious atmosphere to the inaugural speech. This religious atmosphere binds the president and the audience together who share the common belief in God. In this manner, the distance between them is reduced and the intimacy established. Also the speech with the presupposition of that bible feature is more credible, more persuasive and more touching like the compassionate and loving words of God in the Bible.

Chapter 6 Conclusion

This paper mainly focuses on two questions: First, what are presupposed in the inaugural speeches? Second, what functions do these presuppositions have? Based on the selected 18 inaugural speeches, presuppositions are identified through three aspects: field, tenor and mode. With regard to each aspect, the specific presuppositions are grouped into subcategories and in the meanwhile the functions of these presuppositions are investigated. After the whole research, discoveries are made and also there are limitations. This chapter will give a general demonstration of these results and put forward some suggestions for improvement.

6.1 Findings

6.1.1 Types of Presupposition in the 18 APISes

Presuppositions in the inaugural speech are identified by close reading and then sorted into three groups according to the three aspects of field, tenor and mode.

With regard to the aspect of field, presuppositions are subcategorized into belief presupposition, value presupposition, self-orientation presupposition and the presupposition of the psychology of the audience. Concerning the belief presupposition, the presupposition of the existence of God is the most prominent. Table1 is presented to show how prevalent this presupposition is in APIS. Concerning the value presupposition, the supremacy of the Constitution, the individualism, the idealism, the value judgments for harmony, affection, peace, liberty, safety, common good, independence, prosperity, sacrifice and so on are presupposed implicitly which are often unnoticed by the audience and taken for granted. However, experienced speech writers may use them to manipulate the mind of the audience intentionally. Concerning the self-orientation presupposition, they reveal how America uses self-criteria to measure other nations, how America shows its

superiority, self-importance towards other countries and how America constructs a positive image for itself and an evil image for others. Concerning the presupposition of the psychology of the audience, truth presupposition, sham presupposition, needs presupposition, reason presupposition and celebrity charm presupposition are figured out, which are often unnoticed by the audience but may be consciously drawn upon by some to sneakily impose influence on the decision of the audience. Thus, it is necessary to have a conscious knowledge of these presuppositions and reduce the possibility to be led by the nose by those in power. This is one manner to guarantee people's free will.

With regard to the aspect of tenor, presuppositions are subcategorized into division presupposition and commonness presupposition. Concerning the division or conflict or discrepancy presupposition, the complex relationships between the president and the audience, between the two competing parties, between the General government and the state governments and between the 'we' side and the third party are revealed, which are unsatisfied and need the president to improve. Concerning the commonness presupposition, there are common country presupposition, common belief presupposition, common history presupposition and common enemy presupposition, which establish a common identity for the president and the audience and make it easier for the president to win the favor and support of the common public.

With regard to the aspect of mode, presuppositions are subcategorized into nonlinguistic presupposition and textual presupposition. Concerning the nonlinguistic presupposition, the non-verbal elements are taken into account. The selection of the color of a tie is taken for example. As for the textual presupposition, they are further divided into intra-textual presupposition and inter-textual presupposition. Concerning the intra-textual presupposition, they are numerous in the inaugural speeches and thus only some of them are listed for examples. Concerning the inter-textual presupposition, it is probed into from three features of the Bible. First, the bible textual feature of sentences beginning with conjunctions is presupposed in the inaugural speech. Three most frequently used conjunctions are selected and Antconc3.2.1 and Excel are utilized to get statistics and graphs which demonstrate how frequently this bible feature is presupposed, how the presuppositions change with time and the proportions of these presuppositions. Second, the

bible feature of many short paragraphs is presupposed, which is shown by statistics. Tables and graphs also display how this kind of presupposition changes with time. Third, repetition at the beginning of many successive paragraphs is another bible feature presupposed in the inaugural speeches which is demonstrated by Table 4.

6.1.2 Functions of These Presuppositions in the 18 APISes

As mentioned in 1.3.2, the most important feature of the political speech is its strong association with power and purposes. On the one hand, in order to enforce the power upon the audience or hearers, the presidents often try to present themselves as an authority; on the other hand, they also have to establish a kind relationship with the audience. Presuppositions provide a useful device to achieve these purposes.

In the aspect of field, the religious presuppositions help the president to express good wish, call on people to do things or change their attitudes in the name of God, establish an image of a pious believer and the most important to build up a common identity for himself and the audience. The value presuppositions implicitly sway the value judgments of the common public and lead them to the way as the presidents want. The self-oriented presuppositions reveal the ideologies presupposed in American people's mind when they get along with foreign countries. The presuppositions of the psychology of the audiences enable the president to gain the favor of the public and persuade them more easily to change minds or take actions as he wants.

In the aspect of tenor, both discrepancies and commonness are presupposed. With discrepancy presuppositions in mind, the presidents are cautious about diction and take measures so as to reduce the disagreements, divisions and conflicts. They raise the status of the people and lower that of themselves and the government; they don't treat the two parties competing for the presidential election as winners and losers but set them in one patriotic united front; and they say polite and vague words to the third party. As for the commonness presuppositions, they bring the president and the audience into one community sharing the same country and belief, fighting against the same enemies and working for the same cause.

In the aspect of mode, both the nonlinguistic and the textual elements are presupposed.

Since the inaugural speech is delivered in front of the common public, the nonlinguistic elements do influence the impressions of the people on the president. Respecting the intra-textual presuppositions, they make the speech cohesive and more concise and play an important role in the progress of information. Respecting the inter-textual presuppositions of the bible features, they associate the audience with their religion and thus establish a common identity for the president and the audience which makes it easier for the president to win the support of the common public.

In brief, the presuppositions reveal the ideologies of the American people and enable the new president to convince the audience of his appropriateness, mold public opinion, inspire public action, present the new government in a favorable light and win the largest amount of applause and support.

To summarize, the discoveries are the answer to the two research questions. The extra achievement is in chapter 5 which shows that the use of presuppositions has some relationship with time.

6.2 Implications

For APIS studies, this thesis experiments in the perspective of presupposition which is still rare at present. Besides the theoretical significance, practically, it may enable the readers to have a much deeper understanding of the inaugural speeches and how the presidents achieve their purposes.

For the presupposition studies, this thesis tries a new classification method from the three aspects of situation, which may widen the horizon of presupposition studies. Practically, the common people may increase consciousness of presuppositions and reduce the possibility to be manipulated by others especially those in power. Also they can make use of presuppositions in their daily speech to persuade others or create interesting discourses.

6.3 Limitations and Suggestions

Regarding the sample, this thesis only selects 18 speeches. Therefore, the presuppositions may not be comprehensive enough to include all. So it is suggested if time allows, all the 56 speeches be selected to make a more thorough study. Also comparative studies can be conducted with speeches from other fields or by leaders in other countries. What's more, the variable of time can be included not only in the study of the mode presuppositions but also in that of field and tenor presuppositions.

Regarding the researching method, close reading is used to identify the presuppositions, which are mainly pragmatic rather than semantic. Thus there is no established standard to identify these presuppositions so that subjectivity to some extent can't be avoided. As for the classifications of presuppositions, there is subjectivity, too. Moreover, the author's knowledge of computer software is limited. There may be more advanced tools to assist the study. However, with the development of presupposition theories and linguistic software, problems put forward above may be solved.

Regarding the analysis of the presuppositions and their functions, restricted by the knowledge of the author, they are not insightful enough and in lack of sound theoretical ground. Therefore, it is suggested researchers read more on free days and pick up materials relating to one certain topic in the usual time.

Appendix

Speech No.	President's Name	Time of Inauguration	Period
1	George Washington	Apr. 30, 1789	Founding period
2	Thomas Jefferson	Mar. 4, 1801	
3	Andrew Jackson	Mar. 4, 1833	Eve of Civil War
4	James K. Polk	Mar. 4, 1845	
5	Abraham Lincoln	Mar. 4, 1861	Period of Civil War
6	Benjamin Harrison	Mar. 4, 1889	
7	Theodore Roosevelt	Mar. 4, 1905	Period of Progressive Reform
8	Woodrow Wilson	Mar. 4, 1913	
9	Franklin D. Roosevelt	Jan. 20, 1933	
10	Harry S. Truman	Jan. 20, 1949	Period of Cold War
11	Dwight D. Eisenhower	Jan. 20, 1957	
12	John F. Kennedy	Jan. 20, 1961	
13	Richard M. Nixon	Jan. 20, 1969	
14	Ronald Reagan	Jan. 20, 1985	
15	George Bush	Jan. 20, 1989	
16	William J. Clinton	Jan. 20, 1997	
17	George W. Bush	Jan. 20, 2005	Post-cold-war Period
18	Barack H. Obama	Jan. 20, 2009	

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