

## Chapter 2

### Related Literature

#### Advertising

##### 1. Definition of Advertising

The meaning of 'advertising' has gradually developed into its current semantic denotation since the fourteenth century. According to Kleppner, et al. (1983 : 25), the word "advertising" comes from Latin "ADVERTERE" which means "to turn (the mind) toward." During the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, "advertise" meant almost the opposite of what it does today. Weilbacher (1979 : 11) explains this semantic shift as follows:

'to advertise' was something that a person did for himself and had nothing at all to do with what someone else was trying to do to or for him. Later 'to advertise' came to mean to call the attention of another, or to notify someone else about something.

Historically, the verb "to advertise" was an intransitive mode. In the 1700s, the word became more general in meaning with little sense of commercial usage. By the late 1700s or early 1800s, the verb "to advertise" has settled into its contemporary meaning.

Many notable scholars have given various definitions of the word "advertising". As such, it is particularly hard to come to a single definition of "advertising". Specially, the meaning of "advertising" depends on the individual and the way in

which his or her own life has been affected by advertising. The most widely known definition is given by the AMA (American Marketing Association). AMA defines advertising as "...any controlled form of non-personal presentation and promotion of ideas, goods, or services by an identified sponsor that is used to inform and persuade the selected market" (Bolen, 1984 : 4-5). However, other scholars have defined advertising variously as shown below:

Bivins (1989 : xvii) states that "[a]dvertising is the controlled use of media ensuring that your message reaches your public in exactly the form you intended and at the same time you want. It can take the form of print or broadcast."

Kleppner, et al. (1983 : 25) defines advertising as "a method of delivering a message from a sponsor, through an impersonal medium, to many people."

Jefkins (1982 : 3) gives a definition of advertising as "...the means by which we make known what we have to sell or what we want to buy." He adds that "advertising presents the most persuasive possible selling message to the right prospects for product or service at the lowest possible cost."

Weilbacher (1979 : 20) observes that advertising can have a variety of meanings to the same person at a given point of time. However, he concludes that advertising consists of media messages paid for and signed by a business firm or institution that wishes to increase the probability that those reached by these messages will behave or believe as the advertiser wishes them to behave or believe. This definition of advertising is, in the customer's perspective, a form of salesmanship or persuasion.

In conclusion, the major points related to advertising many scholars agree upon are as follows:

- 1) Advertising is the act of presenting or imaging products, services or institutions.
- 2) Advertising is controlled and non-personal.
- 3) Advertising is intended to inform and persuade people to behave or believe as the advertiser wishes.

## 2. Advertising Objectives

In order to draw attention and eventually to encourage the audience to buy the product or service or even to promote a positive image, copywriters must define their particular piece of advertisement's objective clearly. Good advertising objectives provide the advertiser with guidance and direction for the development of a campaign. There are a number of advertising objectives. Bolen (1984 : 161-163) lists eleven popular advertising objectives:

- 1) Inducing trial: introducing new products in order to get people to try them
- 2) Intensifying usage: encouraging people to use products more and often
- 3) Sustaining preference: upholding customers' preference for the products
- 4) Confirming imagery: confirming what the customer already thinks about the products
- 5) Changing habits: changing people's habit and thought by letting them try the new product
- 6) Building line acceptance: building sales for the total line as opposed to sales for a specific item alone
- 7) Breaking the ice: waving the product's name just enough to provide brand recognition

8) Building ambiance: creating a positive feeling about a business or product

9) Generating sales leads: obtaining the names of prospective customers

10) Increasing awareness: building awareness of the problems addressed in the advertisement

11) Increasing sales: calling for an increase in sales, which is most desirable in advertising

The objectives of advertising are also perceived by its orientation (Runyon, 1984 : 100). One objective is to define the target group(s) in terms of who they are and where they are. The other is to provide specific, measurable communication goals, such as awareness of the product or the advertising knowledge of the product, or the attitude toward the product. On the other hand, Bivins (1989 : 73-74) states three advertising objectives which are mainly related to the promotion of a positive image of the product or service. The first one is to sell public services. To do this, the advertiser needs to provide information of interest to the public such as health care, safety, and environmental awareness. The second objective is to promote public images of an organization such as caring about its employees, the environment, the community, and its customers. The third objective is to position the company, not its products, as the major reason for customer patronage. The company wisely paints itself as innovative, conveniently located or historically secure. Jefkins (1982 : 3-12) lists as many as twenty-two advertising objectives that can be grouped into three main categories: to draw the attention of the readers; to announce a product or service to the public, and to maintain sales. Moreover, the ultimate aim of advertising is to persuade the people to buy a product or service. In order to achieve such a resultant goal, an

advertisement should create product recognition, distinguish it from its competitors, and encourage customers to buy the product (Jameison and Campbell, 1992:179).

To recapitulate, the objectives of different types of advertising vary according to their orientation: whether they are product-oriented or target-oriented, and what types of sale they are aiming for: product, service or image. All objectives of advertising mentioned above stimulate the copywriter to specially choose words, phrases, or sentences for a piece of advertisement which will be eye-catching and easily recognized by the audience.

### **3. Classification of Advertising**

Advertising can be classified into many types, depending on how the advertisements are perceived. According to Jefkins (1982 : 13-22), there are ten classes of advertisements. They are listed as follows:

- 1) Persuasive or hardsell advertising persuades or urges customers to buy products or services.
- 2) Informative or softsell advertising gives information about each product and contributes to the customers' decision making.
- 3) Institutional or prestige or corporate advertising aims to present the company's image.
- 4) Financing advertising announces trading results and encourages an investment.
- 5) Classified advertising deals with job vacancies, house sales, and offices to rent.
- 6) Retail advertising mostly sells other people's goods.

7) Cooperative advertising refers to advertising undertaken by a group of trade-associated business or cooperative society.

8) Industrial advertising offers raw materials, components and services to manufacturers and users who convert these technical goods into finished products which, in return, are advertised to the end users or final consumers.

9) Government advertising seeks staff, suppliers, contractors, or promotes the products and services of state-owned or state-financed industries.

10) Trade advertising urges distributors – agents, wholesalers, retailers, mail order houses, servicing firms – to buy stocks by offering discounts and displaying materials.

To sum up, these ten classifications fall into four major classes : 1) persuasive, 2) informative, 3) image and 4) classified advertisements. However, advertisements are also classified according to the kind of sale the advertisements are promoting as mentioned by Jamieson and Campbell (1992 : 162-168) who classify advertisement into seven types.

#### 1) Product advertisement

The advertisement is intended to market a material product. It previews the product's name to familiarize the customers with it.

#### 2) Service advertisement

It advertises the service of a particular business. The advertisement might show the readers what it is like without, and then with, the service.

#### 3) Goodwill or image advertisement

This type of advertisement is sometimes called "image advertising". It sells a positive image of a product or service.

#### 4) Advocacy advertisement

Advocacy advertisement is concerned with the propagation of ideas and clarification of social issues of public importance in a manner that supports the position and interests of the sponsor.

#### 5) Infomercials advertisement

It is a TV commercial that is very long, ranging from several minutes to an hour. Infomercials are designed to provide consumers with detailed information about a product or service.

#### 6) Public service advertisement

This conveys non-controversial information to the public.

#### 7) Political advertisement

The advertisement urges the audience to elect one person over another or encourages the reader to vote a specific way on a resolution or referendum.

### 4. Advertising in Newspapers

In newspaper advertising, generally only three major categories are found: classified advertising, display advertising, and reading notice advertising. (Kleppner, et al., 1983; Runyon, 1984). These three types can be characterized as below:

#### 1) Classified advertising

Classified advertising mostly deals with employment, real estate, sale of automobiles and marketing of services. It is arranged by subject matter for the convenience of the reader, and generally does not include headlines or illustrations. However, classified advertising sometimes uses simple illustrations with different type sizes which are known as classified display.

## 2) Display advertising

Display advertising utilizes illustrations, colors, typefaces and various decorations and typography. Normally, it is designed to promote a product, service, or positive image of an institution. Newspaper display advertising falls into two classes. The first one is local or retail advertising, which refers to advertisements posted by local businesses, organizations, or individual persons. The second class is national or general advertising, which refers to the advertising done by any marketers who seek to send readers a brand of product or identified service at any stores, showrooms, or agency offices dealing with such products or services.

## 3) Reading notice

A reading notice is an advertisement designed to resemble editorial material. To differentiate reading notices from news stories, the word 'advertisement' must appear at the top of the notice.

## 5. Elements of a Print Advertisement

According to Jefkins (1976 : 23-28) and Stovall (1990 : 181), a piece of advertisement comprises some or all of the following elements.

1) Headlines are words in the leading position of the advertisement. Normally, the headlines will be read first and are positioned to draw the most attention.

2) Sub-headlines are secondary headlines in print advertisements that also summarize what the text elaborates.

3) Text or body copy is the main text portion and it is to satisfy the reader's curiosity after reading the headlines.



4) Captions contain photographs, drawings, maps, charts or illustrations.

Captions also explain the illustrations.

5) Coupons offer products that are redeemable on purchase of another product. Coupons can be triangular; edged with dotted lines and with a picture of a pair of scissors.

6) Price is normally a number showing the cost of products.

7) Name and address including logo and signature slogan. Slogans are short phrases that become identified with products, while signatures generally refer to the name and address of the company. The logo is the name or symbol of a company, store, or brand. It is often designed in a recognizable pattern.

8) Admonition refers to the promotion of action, a good example being the one that begins with a free offer or announces a bargain.

9) Closing summarizes what the body copy has mentioned. Sometimes it gives a direct command to the readers; at other times, it only suggests that the reader act in a particular way.

10) Mandatories and legalities are details required by law to be in an advertisement. For instance, all cigarette advertisement must carry the Surgeon General's warning.

## **6. Advertising Language**

Language is an important tool of communication in conveying ideas from the speaker to the hearer. In addition, advertising language is unlike daily spoken language, because it not only informs the reader but it also persuades the audience to buy the product, service or promotes positive image of the product or service. As

Biagi (1993 : 162) says, the main strategy of advertising is to create desire, to motivate demand for a product.

Advertising is based on the assumption that words have the power to produce a change – a change in thinking, attitudes, beliefs, and ultimately, behavior (Stovall 1990 : 162). Based on this assumption the copywriter carefully selects words in order to produce such changes. A word expresses more than the name of an object, person or situation; it also conveys the feelings of the speaker and affects the beliefs and attitudes of the audience (Dyer, 1982 : 139).

Advertising language is a loaded language confined within a limited space. Its primary functions are to catch attention and imagination, and to aid memory (Dyer, 1982 : 140). So the copywriter has to carefully balance them. In the process of choosing the most powerful and attractive words to be placed on a piece of advertisement, one needs a skilled copywriter. Advertisers are well-known for playing with words and manipulating or distorting their everyday meanings. They might break the rules of language for effect, use words out of context and even make up new ones (Dyer, 1982 : 139).

Several word choice strategies are applied in advertising language. Dyer (1982 : 140) suggests a number of ideas. They are as follows:

- 1) Imperative mode is commonly found in advertising language. For example, phrases such as 'Buy this', 'Don't forget...', can push the reader favorably towards the product or service on offer.

- 2) Using adverbs and adjectives can stimulate envy, dreams and desire by evoking looks, touch, tastes, smells and sounds without actually misrepresenting a product. These words are a matter of opinion rather than a fact. The most common

adjectives used in advertising are 'good', 'better', 'best', 'free', 'fresh', 'delicious', 'full', 'sure', 'clean', 'wonderful', 'special', 'fine', 'big', 'great', 'real'. 'easy', 'bright', 'extra', 'rich', and 'golden'.

3) Unfamiliar adverbs and adjectives create a uniqueness and add vigor to the product or service. However, Jewler (1995 : 103) encourages using familiar words because it seems the advertisement speaks the same language as the audience's.

Powerful and emotional words are commonly used in advertising language (Ogilvy, 1988 : 104-107). The most powerful words are 'free' and 'new'. Emotional words give emotion to the advertisement copy. These words include 'how to', 'suddenly', 'now', 'announcing', 'introduce', 'it's here', 'just arrived', 'important development', 'improvement', 'amazing', 'sensational', 'remarkable', 'revolutionary', 'starting', 'miracle', 'magic', 'offer', 'quick', 'easy', 'wanted', 'challenge', 'advice to', 'the truth about', 'compare', 'bargain', 'hurry', 'last chance'.

Some words can convince us that all members of the group to which we belong accept a single idea and that we must follow the crowd and 'jump on the band wagon' Severin and Tankard (1992 : 103) call this idea "band wagon". For example, the phrase "the Pepsi Generation", suggests that a whole younger generation is drinking the product. After the reader reads these words, he wants to follow the crowd and 'jump on the band wagon'.

The personal pronouns 'we' or 'our' are very important in involving the readers. These lead the reader to understand that he or she is one of the group (Bivin, 1989 : 77).

Names of celebrities, authorities, historical persons, and events are often mentioned in an advertisement (Jameison, et al., 1992 : 198-199). They are somehow

related to the product or service. They not only tell the reader why they use a product or service but they also hint that if the reader wants to be like them, he or she ought to use or buy the product or the service as well.

Word repetition ensures that the advertisement reaches the customers with a message that creates product recognition. Comparison can be used in advertising language. The product might be compared to 'unidentified' others or compared to its earlier form by informing audiences that the product has been improved (Jameison, et al., 1992 : 188).

Playing on words, more specifically punning, is one strategy in which the advertiser "attempts to improve social relations with his audience" (Tanaka, 1994 : 59). According to *NTC's American English Learner's Dictionary* (Spears, 1998 : 714) a pun is "a play on words; the use of a word that has two different meanings in order to be funny". Punning is one of the main advertising strategies. Tanaka (1994 : 64) claims that the "pun requires greater processing efforts than straightforward words", but they are "highly economical because they have two meanings for the price of one word or phrase". He cites an advertisement for London Transport that says "Less bread. No jam". On reading this, the readers may probably think of 'bread' and 'jam' as food items. However, 'bread' is also a slang for 'money' while 'jam' can also mean 'traffic jam'. The actual meaning of the above advertisement is "Less money, no traffic jam".

Sometimes the copywriter associates something with a word that is intended to make the reader accept and approve of the product or service advertised without fully examining the claim. For example, United Airlines invite people to "fly the friendly skies" of United, but they do not offer any evidence that the skies of United

are any more friendly than the skies of any other airlines (Severin and Tankard, 1992 : 96).

With regard to advertising language at the sentence level, Jewler (1995 : 118-124) suggests that the present tense should be used in advertisements because it keeps the message active. Singular nouns and verbs give customers the impression of being addressed as an individual rather than as a group. The use of active voice constructions is encouraged because they imply active and lively actions. However, Flanagan (1967 : 95) suggests that “junk” phrases or dead similes and metaphors should not be used because they have lost their communication force. Proper punctuation is important even in headlines because it signals readers to pause and collect their thoughts. On the other hand, advertising language should avoid boasting, vague words, and unbelievable facts.

When people read an advertisement, they tend to read the headline more than the other parts or elements. Rein (1982 : 76) claims that 80% to 90% of readers never read beyond the headline. Therefore, if the headline fails to draw their interest immediately and forcefully, they will not read the text.

The advertising headline, according to Jefkin (1976 : 37-71), can be divided into 27 types as listed below:

1) Declarative is the headline that gives an explanation as to how a product may be used or what special benefits it possesses, e.g. Drive one. Then you'll understand why we're No.1 in Germany. (Opel)

2) Interrogative headline posts questions, and normally needs only one response – the desired response, e.g. What happens when you boil an oyster. (Rolex)

- 3) Commanding headline is an action-urging headline which aims to get the reader closer to the action, e.g. Get your Coke now! (Coke)
- 4) Challenging headline is similar to the commanding headline, but it is livelier, more inviting and provocative, e.g. If you can find a man as faithful as these Longines Selfwinding watches, marry him. (Longines)
- 5) Testimonial headline associates the product with either a famous name or a satisfied customer because a familiar name or face will immediately attract attention, e.g. "I had a touch of the multiples," says Patrick Campbell. "Sparkling Marimont put them to flight." (Marimont wine)
- 6) Indirect headline is hardly action compelling, e.g. "Day to remember". (Knight's Castile soap)
- 7) Association headlines associates ideas with words or expressions that have familiar links with the reader's existing knowledge or experience, e.g. Give and take. (Kodak)
- 8) News headline announces news or associates the product or service with something current or seasonal, e.g. The new face of Daimler. (Daimler cars)
- 9) Emotional headline appeals to emotions and sentiment, e.g. Could you care for a mum who's unable to care? (Dept. of Health and Social Security)
- 10) Incongruous headline is something that is odd or out of place but can challenge belief, e.g. Listen to breakfast. (Kellogg)
- 11) Identification headline marks the identity of the product, e.g. Moulinex electric caring knife. (Moulinex)

12) Curiosity headlines ask questions whose answers become clear after the

whole advertisement has been read, e.g. Why don't we do this more often? (Martell brandy)

13) Bargain headline unveils a lower price, e.g. Cut your motoring costs.

Here's how: Michelin radials save up to 10% on petrol. (Michelin)

14) Humorous headline seeks humorous sense from the audience, e.g. How

to stop your husband disturbing you in bed. (Dunloppillo)

15) Picture and caption headline uses pictures or any illustrations with a

short explanation related to the pictures, e.g. A little gold is no handicap. (Benson and Hedges). This headline is linked to a packet of cigarettes with a full color picture of a golf trolley and clubs.

16) Topical headline relates to an event that is in the news, related to the

season of the year or maybe the weather if one is fortunate enough to forecast it correctly, e.g. The morning after the vote before. (Prudential Insurance) (The headline appeared the day after the General Election of February 28, 1974.)

17) Slogan headline shows the recognized slogan of the product as a

headline, e.g. Top people Take THE TIMES. (The Times Magazine)

18) Play on words headline normally has multiple meanings, e.g. Christmas

Tip. (Parker Tip pens)

19) Alliteration headline plays on the sound of words, e.g. Wheels in your

wallet. (Budget Rent a car)

20) Gimmick headline is a device to gain attention, e.g. To all lovers. (Soap)

21) Throw away headline is a recoiling modest set of words, e.g. When did

you last look at your motor insurance policy? Perhaps you should do so today. (AA Insurance Services)

22) Negative headline uses negative words, but it might be used to evoke a

positive reaction to the message, e.g. If you speak more than 4 languages, don't read this. (Linguaphone Institute)

23) Displayed sentence or copy headline shows a whole sentence or a string

of sentences, e.g. The Japanese word for 'passenger' also means 'guest'. Not surprisingly, the word for 'cargo' also means 'your possession'. (Japan Airlines Air Cargo)

24) TV-tie-up headline refers to a TV advertisement.

25) Quotation headline gives a famous quote to describe a product, e.g. "Her

voice was ever soft, gentle, and low, an excellent thing in woman." Shakespeare (Singapore Airlines)

26) Split headline leaves the headline unfinished, maybe with dots or

pictures, e.g. The Romans introduced property development to Scotland... (followed by a line drawing of a Roman stone carving) Lyon perfected it (Lyon Group (Scotland) Ltd.)

27) Intriguing headline appeals to the reader's ever-willing curiosity, e.g.

Until a while ago, my wife had never suspected me of seeing another woman. (Slumberland)

Headlines are usually short. Rein (1982 : 76) suggests a headline should be

composed of one to six words on a single line, because a few words stand out in a limited space better than a lot. Readers can easily grasp a few words at one glance.



In fact, there are a number of techniques for writing headlines. Ogilvy (1988 : 105 – 107) states that good headlines should not exclude any reader, but should (1) appeal to the reader's self-interest, (2) inject news, perhaps through most powerful words like 'free' and 'new', (3) use emotional words and contain the brand name, (4) arouse the audience's curiosity. To capture interest, (5) a headline should be made "tricky" by employing puns, literary allusions and other obscurities. (6) Negative and "blind" headlines are shunned because they fail to arrest the audience's interest from the outset. Rein (1982 : 76-77) also suggests some basic techniques for writing headlines. The headline should (1) describe a product benefit. The comparison headline contrasts the company's brand and competitors' brands. (2) Some headlines tell the audiences how to do something. Commanding and questioning are widely used. He concludes that direct headlines contain the advertising message, but indirect headlines carry the reader to the text.

From the study of Limkulacomn (1991) on "The Strategies of Words Use in Thai Television and Magazine Advertising", copywriters prefer to use various linguistic strategies; namely rhyming which includes alliteration, repetition, slang, and incongruity of collocative meaning. In addition, Sommai (1997) also concludes in his study that the advertising language in newspapers should be concise. However, exaggeration is considered an inappropriate use of language in newspaper advertisements. He suggests that the advertising language should be persuasive and yet informative, polite, impartial, straightforward, and humorous. Wichatrong (1981) claims that lexical and structural ambiguity are employed by the copywriter as well.

## Speech Act Theory

In a communication situation when the speaker chooses some ideas he wants to convey to the listeners, he encodes a phonetic representation of an utterance. The hearer picks up the utterance and decodes the message that the speaker originally conveyed. The hearer recognizes what the speaker intends to communicate; so the communication is completed and successful. In other words, communication is successful when the hearer decodes the same message that the speaker encodes; at the same time it predicts that communication breaks down if the decoded message deviates from the encoded message (Akmajian, et al., 1990 : 309-311).

According to Austin (1978 : 109-110), saying an utterance involves performing three most important acts. The first one is the **locutionary act** or an utterance act, which is simply an act of uttering sound or producing a recognizable grammatical utterance in the language. The second act is the **illocutionary act** which is an act of saying something. Promising, warning, greeting, reminding, informing, and commanding are all distinct illocutionary acts. Most importantly, once the hearer recognizes the illocutionary intention, the communication is performed successfully. The last act is the **perlocutionary act**. It is an act of uttering something to achieve a certain consequential response from the hearer, for example to frighten, to amuse, or to get him to do something. In addition, a perlocutionary act seems to involve the effects of the utterance act or locutionary act and it can be represented as the illocutionary act of the speaker plus the effects on the hearer.

When the word or utterance is pronounced, the utterance is doing an action which is not only describing or just saying something (Austin, 1978 : 5). Austin cites the example, "I bet you sixpence it will rain tomorrow." In this example it is clear

that the sentence is not just to describe or report that it will rain tomorrow. It is obvious that the speaker is betting. Austin (1978 : 6) calls such a sentence **performative**: “the utterance is the performing of an action.” From the above example it is an explicit performative sentence because of the word ‘bet’.

From Austin’s performative theory, Searle (1978 : 22-23) develops the idea by studying the actual intention of an utterance, not just focusing on a particular word in the utterance. He explains in “Speech Acts: An Essay in the Philosophy of Language” (1978 : 22-23) that when a speaker says an utterance, he is not only uttering a sentence formed of words but he is also making some kind of act: assertive, order, or question. He calls these acts **speech acts**.

### 1. Classification of Speech Act

Speech acts are classified according to the illocutionary force. Austin (1978 : 151-164) divides performatives into five classifications. They are 1) verdictives -- giving a judgement, 2) exercitives -- exercising a power, 3) commissive -- declaring an attention or giving a promise, 4) behabitives -- dealing with attitudes and social behavior, and 5) expositives -- clarifying reasons, arguments and communication.

The second linguistic philosopher, J.R. Searle (quoted in Miller and Eimas, 1995 : 373 – 374) divides speech acts into six main classifications as follows:

1) Assertive or representative: utterances that represent a state of affairs such as asserting, hypothesizing, describing, predicting, telling, insisting, and swearing that something is the case. Assertives range from simple assertions to predictions.

2) **Directive:** utterances designed to get the addressee to do something, such as requesting, pleading, inviting, questioning, daring, and suggesting that someone do something. Directives range in force from mild hints to commands.

3) **Commissive:** utterances that commit the speaker to do something in the future such as, promising, threatening, and vowing. The very common commissive is a promise.

4) **Expressive:** utterances that express the speaker's psychological attitude or feeling toward some state of affairs such as congratulating, thanking, deploring, condoling, welcoming and greeting. Certain psychological feelings are directed toward the addressees.

5) **Declarative:** utterances that bring about the state of affairs they refer to such as blessing, firing, baptizing, bidding, passing sentence, arresting, and marrying. Declarations take place within institutions such as law, church, and organized games, simply by saying the right words at the right time.

6) **Verdictive:** utterances that deliver a finding as to value or fact, and thus rate some entity or situation on a scale such as assessing, ranking, estimating, and all other judgmental acts.

## **2 Felicity Conditions**

Before an utterance can be classified into any particular speech act mentioned above, felicity, or appropriate conditions, need to be fulfilled. Felicity conditions are those that must be met in order for a speech act to be satisfactorily performed or realized (Richards, et al., 1985 : 265-266). According to Searle (1978 : 54 –67) the felicity conditions of speech acts include:

1) **The propositional content condition** This condition expresses the actual meaning or semantic deep structure of an utterance. In other words, the propositional content condition explains the speaker's intended meaning or what the speaker intends to get the hearer to recognize in his utterance. Therefore, an utterance such as "I will return the book tomorrow" denotes the promised act, and the actual content of the act is the returning of the book tomorrow.

2) **The preparatory condition** It expresses the contextual background required for a particular utterance. Before an utterance is voiced, there is a certain background extended to the speaker. For example, in a Christian wedding ceremony, the bride will respond "I do" for the question "Will you, Anne, take this man John to be your lawful wedded husband?" Actually, "I do" constitutes a marriage vow and a speaker making this assertion must have evidence to support the assertion.

3) **The sincerity condition** It requires that the speaker be sincere about what he says. For example, the promiser must willingly intend to keep the promise, the speaker who gives an assertion must believe what he asserts. In short, the speaker believes that the proposition of his utterance is true.

4) **The essential condition** It means that the speaker intends the utterance to have a certain force, such as to state, assert, warn, comment, promise etc. The one who says "I promise to return the book tomorrow" must intend this utterance to be a commitment to return it tomorrow.

Sometimes in our daily communication when an expression is uttered, it means something other than what the words literally mean. When an utterance performs one speech act with the intention of performing another, it is called an "indirect speech act". (Searle, 1975 : 59-82) Thus, the information an addressee must

recognize in order to make an indirect speech act successful relates to the fact that the addresser does not mean what he has said, but rather something related to his utterance. (Akmajian, et al., 1990:313) For example, “*My car has a flat tire*” is not merely a report on the state of the car, but the speaker is performing a request for the hearer to do something: the speaker wants a gas station attendant to repair the tire. Sometimes, we perform indirect communication in our daily conversation.

In short, in an indirect speech act the speaker utters a sentence in a certain form of proposition but actually the utterance contains another proposition.