

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter presented the review of literature which included discourse, discourse analysis, information structure in discourse which included of thematisation and *staging* (*foreground* and *background*, *theme* and *rheme*), advertisement (the definition of advertisement, kinds of advertisements, the purposes of advertisement, the structure of advertisement, television advertisement), slogan in advertisement, and previous research.

A. Discourse

There were many experts who give the definition of discourse. But actually, the definitions of them were almost same. According to Brown and Yule (1989:26) discourse could be defined as “a dynamic process in which language was used as an instrument of communication in a context by a speaker / writer to express meaning and achieve intentions”. Gee (2011: 30) defined that a “discourse is a characteristic way of saying, doing, and being. When you speak or write anything, you use the resources of English to project yourself as a certain kind of person, a different kind in different circumstances.” If you have no idea what you are doing, then you can’t make sense of what you have said, written or done. An oral or written utterance has meaning, then, only if and when it communicates a who and a what.

In linguistic, discourse is language larger than sentence. We could also interpret that discourse is an extension of the language (especially oral) wider than a sentence, or a coherent unit, such as an argument or narrative.

Longman (1977) states as follows:

Discourse is what we get when language is used in communication between people. Usually we do not consider communication that does not involve competent linguistic speech as discourse, even if the communication is successful. If a child stamps his foot and starts crying when he is told to come in for supper, the meaning I don't want to may be inferred, but it has not yet been expressed in discourse.

However, Johnstone (2002) stated that "sign language is also discourse and so are text messages." Discourse then consists of larger linguistic units than those dealt with in traditional linguistic analysis, and involves issues of linguistic performance and sociolinguistics. By communicating in linguistically competent speech, the speaker places himself in a particular society with its cultural norms, values and symbols. Topics usually considered under discourse analysis include: appropriateness, cohesiveness, rhetorical force, topic/subtopic structure, differences between written and spoken speech, register, metaphor and so on.

Based on the explanation above, it could be concluded that discourse could be defined in three ways:

- ◆ Language beyond the level of a sentence.
- ◆ Language behaviors linked to social practices.
- ◆ Language as a system of thought.

B. Discourse Analysis

What is discourse analysis? According to Celce & Olshtain (2000:4), “discourse analysis is the study of language in use that extends beyond sentence boundaries.” Discourse analysis is concerned with the study of the relationship between language and the contexts in which it is used. Michael (2000:5) said that “discourse analysts study language in use: written texts of all kinds, and spoken data, from conversation to highly institutionalized forms of talk.” Another definition mentioned that discourse analysis is a general term for a number of approaches to analyze written, spoken, signed language use or any significant semiotic event. The objects of discourse analysis are discourse, writing, conversation, communicative event. As an addition Harry (2012) stated that “discourse analysis is not only study language use “beyond the sentence boundary”, but also prefer to analyze “naturally occurring” language use, and not invented examples.”

Discourse analysis considered how language, both spoken and written, enacts social and cultural perspectives and identities. Discourse analysis is based on the details of speech (and gaze and gesture and action) or writing that are arguably deemed relevant in the context and that are relevant to the arguments attempting to make.

James (2011:117) stated about discourse analysis as follows:
A discourse analysis is not based on all the physical features present, not even on all those that might, in some conceivable context, be meaningful, or might be meaningful in analyses with different purposes. Such judgments of relevance (what goes into a transcript and what does not) are ultimately theoretical judgments, that is, they are based on the analyst’s theories of how language, contexts, and interactions work in

general and in the specific context being analyzed. In this sense, a transcript is a theoretical entity. It does not stand outside an analysis, but, rather, is part of it.

Related to the definition of discourse above, it could be taken that discourse was related with many disciplines. The main concern of discourse analysis was to test how the language produced by a given participants whether spoken or written is used in communication for a given situation in a given setting. Because of that, discourse analysis was focused with written and spoken forms. Discourse devices also help to string language elements.

As Fine (1988: 1) stated that:

The organization of stretches of language greater than a sentence [It] can focus on conversation, written language, when searching for patterning of the language. Discourse analysis must determine the units of these larger stretches of language, how these units are signaled by specific linguistic markers, and/or the processes involved in producing and comprehending larger stretches of language.

Yule (1996) asserted that discourse structure is very important. It focused on the main elements that could form a well-stretched text. The structural connections between sentences create cohesion. Besides, the study of discourse especially is based on a pragmatic background where knowledge, beliefs and expectations are taken into consideration; for example: what the speakers think about something that she/he sees/hears. Another definition of discourse analysis is quoted from Allen and Corder (1974: 200) “discourse analysis is taken to be the investigation into the formal devices used to connect sentences together”.

C. Information Structure in Discourse

The main concern of discourse analysis referred to information structure. Language used grammatical and discourse features in order to indicate which bits of information are known and which are new. Halliday (1967), and Vallduví (1992, 1993) stated that “*information structure* is a sentence-level structure.” Information structure in discourse meant how the information is presented in discourse. It means that how the variation in sentences with certain parameters to modulate the presentation of information given by the sentence such as how the sentence related with previous context. There are some factors in relationship of that information which is presented. That information is characterized in terms of primitive functional roles, such as theme/rhyme, focus/background, topic, etc.

Those primitives/conditions and correlated information structure of sentences were used to explain the roles of into national focus and of particular syntactic focus constructions, of topicalization and other displacement transformations, and of a fairly wide range of other phenomena, including, for example; word order in relatively free word order languages such as German, the functions of distinguished structural positions in Catalan or Hungarian, definiteness in Slavic languages, specificity in Turkish, use of specific affixes such as Japanese *-wa*, etc.

There were some discussions about how the information was presented in discourse or how the information structure of discourse. Those discussions include staging and perpectivization. By knowing the staging and

perspectivization, we could be able to analyze the discourse from the perspective of how the information is presented. In information structure, it covers about thematisation and “staging”, theme and rheme, and the representation of it in discourse structure.

1) Thematisation and “Staging”

Brown and Yule (1983:133-134), “Thematisation is a discourse rather than simply a sentential process. What the speaker or writer puts first would influence the interpretation of everything that follows.” Thus, a title would influence the interpretation of the text which follows it. The first sentence of the first paragraph would constrain the interpretation not only of the paragraph, but also the rest of the text. That is, we assumed that every sentence forms part of a developing, cumulative instruction which told us how to construct a coherent representation.

“Staging” was a more general, more inclusive, term than *thematisation* (which refers only to the linear organization of texts). Every clause, sentence, paragraph, episode and discourse was organized around a particular element that is taken as its point of departure. It was as though the speaker presents what he wants to say from a particular perspective. Clements (1979: 287) suggested that “staging is a dimension of prose structure which identifies the relative prominence given to various segments of prose discourse.” This definition opened the door to far more than processes of linearization, and permits the inclusion within “staging”

of rhetorical devices like lexical selection, theme and rheme, alliteration, repetition, use of metaphor, markers of emphasis, etc. It meant different structure or word construction would determine what the word which has prominent position in a sentence. We should use “staging” not as a technical term, but as a general metaphor to cover the exploitation of such varied phenomena in discourse.

The notion of “relative prominence” arising from processes of *thematization* and “staging” devices has led many researchers, particularly in psycholinguistics, to consider staging as a crucial factor in discourse structure, because they believe, the way a piece of discourse is staged, must have a significant effect both on the process of interpretation and on the process of subsequent recall (Yule, 1983: 134). Regarded with this, staging is the sentence arrangement that signals how the word, sentence is arranged in clause. The arrangement would influence the intended meaning of sentence. As Davidson states in Brown and Yule (1986), “the more marked the construction, the more likely that an implicated meaning will be intended utterance to convey.”

In discourse analysis, the term of staging is used to show how an idea is represented. The first sentence of a text or the first word of a sentence will influence the interpretation of everything that follows. Actually in a sentence there is a particular word that called as foregrounded and another one is back-grounded. Other terms used in staging were theme and rheme.

a) Foreground and Background

a. Fore-grounded

Fore-grounded is the part of sentence or representation that is nearest to and in front of spectator. It means that the position of the word in a sentence is more prominent. Fore-grounded is used to make something more important than other. It used to give prominence or emphasis to something important.

b. Back-grounded

Back-grounded means that the part of sentence becomes second emphasizing. It is less prominent than fore-grounded.

For example: *Change, We Believe in.*

This sentence put change as the first sentence. Whereas the right construction of words should put change in the last of sentence, it becomes we believe in change. It is the right construction of syntax rule. But the speaker/writer did not use this arrangement. He chose change as the first word of that sentence. It because of the writer wants to emphasis the word “change”. The word “change” is as fore-grounded of that sentence and “we believe in” as back-grounded of that sentence.

Sentence construction is not without any intention. As Davidson states in Brown and Yule (1986), “the more marked the construction, the more likely that an implicated meaning will be that which the utterance is intended to convey.” To discourse analysts,

each sentence construction basically has different effects because each construction has different assumption.

On the basis of the above explanation, consider the following sentences, both of which are the slogans of presidential campaign.

1) *Change, we believe in*

(Obama's presidential campaign)

2) *Bersama kita bisa*

(Susilo Bambang Yudhoyono's presidential campaign)

Based on the example above, we could see those sentences had word's constructions that different with right sentence construction commonly. Sentence (1) signaled that *Change* was the emphasis of that sentence. Sequencing the words in that sentence affected the meaning of the sentence. The sequence of words in that sentence in that way led readers or listeners to interpret that the change of citizens' life was the main goal. As such, the sentence promised many things. Prosperity, democracy, job provision, among other things, was the changes promised by the sentence. It would lose emotional effect if it is written *We believe in change*. Likewise, sentence (2) suggested that togetherness and unity among Indonesian citizens are the main concern of the presidential candidate. It also pointed out that sectarian politic, which was believed to be the source of nation disintegration, could be put aside. Besides, it also indicated that togetherness was a

determinant circumstance to solve all of the nation's problems. The series of words would have different effect if they are arranged in an ordinary arrangement *Kita bisa bersama* (Chojimah, 2015:18).

Regarding such examples, Brown and Yule pointed out that what the speakers or writers put first will influence the interpretation of everything that follows (1987:133). Another case revealed another effect of sequencing words in sentences as seen in below:

a) *He goes to a college and gets a job.*

b) *He gets a job and goes to a college.*

Two sentences above had different sequences. The difference affected the meaning of two sentences. Despite the uniform number of words and lexical choices, sentence (a) and (b) might have different interpretation among readers or listeners. Levelt (1981) in Brown and Yule (1987) explained that there is a common assumption saying that if there is no cue to the contrary, the first-mentioned event happens first and the second-one follows it. On the basis of this, sentence (a) is different from (b) in terms of the order of two events: going to college and getting a job. Sentence (a) shows that before getting a job, the subject (he) goes to college first. On the contrary, sentence (b) suggests that prior to going to college, the subject (he) has already got a job (Chojimah, 2015:19).

In discourse level, sequence is also prominent. Compare the following discourse, all of which are taken from Renkema (1993:142).

- a) ***I am against an expensive overseas vacation.*** *We have already spent so much money on special things this year. And after all, there are so many fun things we can do in our country.*
- b) *We have already spent so much money on special things this year. And after all, there are so many fun things we can do in our country. That is why, **I am against an expensive overseas vacation.***
- c) *We have already spent so much money on special things this year. That is why, **I am against an expensive overseas vacation.** And after all, there are so many fun things we can do in our country.*

The most important message in the above discourse is disagreement over an expensive overseas vacation. Therefore, the sentence containing the message holds the most prominent position; (a) is at beginning, (b) at the end. The middle position is the least conspicuous; thus, (c) seems to be less cohesive (Chojimah, 2015:19). Based on those examples, both sentence and discourse levels; it could be underlined that sequencing words in a sentence and sentences in a discourse is a good strategy to bring some items into greater prominence than others. The initial information or the last information will refer to the more important event, idea, item, etc. than others (Chojimah, 2015:19).

In staging, there is also technical-term that well known as head-tail principle. This principle is applied in the arrangement of words in a sentence and the one of sentence in a discourse. The head-tail principle is good starting point for analyzing the presentation of information. The more to the left (head) or right (tail) the information is presented, the more important, prominent and in the foreground it becomes. The phenomenon of foreground and background information is called, using a theater metaphor, staging (Renkema, 2004:124).

b) Theme and Rheme

Each sentence had structure that gave the different interpretation of the listeners or readers to the sentence. As Brown and Yule (1985:126) stated that each simple sentence has a **theme**, that is “the starting point of the utterance” and a **rheme**, which means everything else follow in the sentence which consists of “what the speaker states about, or in regard to, the starting point of the utterance.” In this meaning, it could be explained that **theme** determined the meaning of that sentence itself. What came first in a clause expressed an important and separate kind of meaning. Butt (2001:135) called the first element of a clause as a **theme** and the rest of the clause as a **rheme**. In *An Introduction to Functional Grammar* (1994:38), Halliday characterizes **theme** as “what the message is concerned with: the point of departure for what the speaker is going to

trait. Other languages have different ways of marking the Theme of a clause.

The theme was divided into three identifications. Butt (2001:136-139) identified theme into some identifications below:

1. Topical theme

Topical theme is theme preceded by participant, process or circumstances. It is, of course, the whole nominal group, verbal group, adverbial group or prepositional phrase filling the first participant, process or circumstance slot that functions as topical theme.

For example:

The man in the moon **came down too soon**

Theme	Rheme
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2. Interpersonal theme

Interpersonal theme is theme preceded by finite. The most common interpersonal theme is the finite in interrogative clauses where it precedes the subject and immediately signals that the speaker is demanding information. Other interpersonal themes include initial Vocatives, and Mood, and Comment Adjuncts.

The following examples have an interpersonal theme combined with a Topical theme:

Could the team have beaten the grand finalists?
Jennifer, come here

Interpersonal	Topical	
Theme		Rheme

3. Textual theme

Textual theme is theme preceded by conjunctions. For example:

But the pig would not
And Jill came tumbling after

Textual	Topical	
Theme		Rheme

Halliday (1994:37) stated that “*rheme* is everything that is not *Theme*: it is the part of the clause where the Theme is developed.” A message structure in English was comprised of a Theme plus a Rheme. There is an order to the structure: Theme came first, followed by Rheme, and whatever was placed in initial position is Theme. In many instances Rheme was related to *New Information*, while Theme was related to *Given Information*. *Given* refers to what was already known or predictable, while *New* refers to what was unknown or unpredictable.

Different sequence of word in a sentence would influence the emphasis of the sentence. Despite there were many sentences have

different structures but the meaning was same. The speaker or the writer might give different way to deliver the message through his/her utterance by different ways (different sequence of words) to make the different emphasis of the sentence. He/she might want to give difference of the prominence of the sentence. It could be seen by the following declarative sentence below:

- a. Mark loved Suzy.
- b. Suzy was loved by Mark.
- c. It was Mark who was loved Suzy.
- d. It was Suzy who was loved by Mark.
- e. What Mark did was loved Suzy.
- f. Who Mark loved was Suzy.
- g. Suzy, Mark loved her.

As we could see to the different sequence of sentences above, actually the meaning was same, that is “Mark loved Suzy”. But the way to utter or deliver the message was different. It was absolutely gave the different prominent of each sentence above. In *Discourse Analysis* by Brown and Yule (1983:127), Alice Davidson (1980) suggested that “the more marked the construction, the more likely that an implicated meaning will be that which the utterance is intended to convey”, where her own sentence nicely, iconically, demonstrates the deliberate way in which she is manipulating the syntax to make her point.

A speaker produced those utterances above would have different assumptions about the state of knowledge of his hearer that is about his hearer's presuppositions. Thus, the explanation of those different utterances above could be: utterance or sentence (a) might answer the question of "*What did Mark do?*" It also seems to be possible same for point sentence (e), but the rest seem less appropriate; (b) seems to be about *Suzy* rather than Mark; (c) seems to imply that the hearer already knows that someone loved Suzy and identifies *Mark* as the individual who did it; (d) seems to imply that the hearer knows that someone loved by Mark was Suzy. (f) Similarly assumes the hearer knows that Mark loved somebody; (g) seems more appropriate as an answer to the question *what happened to Suzy?*

With simple examples above, it seems reasonable to suggest that what is primarily at issue is the judgment that the speaker makes about what the hearer believes to be the case with respect to what he wants to talk about.

D. Advertisement

1. The Definition of Advertisement

What is advertisement? If we heard the word related to advertisement, we absolutely related it to something which was advertised. Actually there were many sources that interpret what advertisement is. Based on *Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary 3rd Edition*,

“advertisement is a picture, short film, etc. which tries to persuade people to buy a product or service.” Monle (2007: 3-4) said that “advertising is a commercial and non personal communication about an organization and its products are transmitted to the target audience through the mass media such as television, radio, newspapers, magazines, direct mail (direct mailing), outdoor billboards, or public transport. In the new global communication, advertising messages could be transmitted via the new media, especially the internet.”

Gilson and Berkman (1980) mentioned that “advertisement or advertising is persuasive communications media designed to produce the response and help to achieve the goal of objectivity or marketing.” It means that advertisement is used to persuade the consumers to buy something which is advertised. In order to make the people interested in their product the advertiser should make the advertisement as attractive as possible. Most commonly, the desired result is to drive consumer behavior with respect to a commercial offering, although political and ideological is also common. Advertising messages were usually paid for by sponsor and viewed via various traditional media; including mass media such as newspaper, magazines, television commercial, radio advertisement outdoor advertising or direct mail; or new media such as websites and text messages. Furthermore, Crabbtree, et al (1991:237) said that: “Advertising is a business in which language is used to persuade people to do things, for examples, that someone corporation is trustworthy or some political

philosophy is good one". Hence, the choice of language used in advertisement must be chosen by carefully to attract the community's interest or mind set.

Advertising is one form of communication, it means that someone or a company want to introduce something or brand for example to larger community. There is advertisement which delivery spoken orally, such as through radio and other electronic media, and there is also emerging in writing, such as in newspapers, magazines and billboards. Advertisement contains a notice that was broadcast to the public so that the public readers interested in the contents of the notice. In general, the advertisement contains something that is presented, offered, or to be sold. The offer in order to attract the attention of readers, the disclosure in the advertisement made such that enticed readers want to purchase goods and services on offer (Arifin, 1992:3).

Many definitions mean that advertising is as a means of disseminating information. However, not all the information is advertising. Thus, Jefkins (1996:16) said that "the advertising was a continued communication process that brought the audience to which it is the most important information they need to know." Advertisers also must be able to distinguish where the name of the product, where the name of the company, and where the name of type of goods. Although a product can be named the same as the company name, the name of advertising activities must be able to sort it out. Moreover, advertisement must be simple but

can describe the necessary information properly. Because of that, not all information can be spread out to all people or public. It means that just important information that represent the product or something which is advertised can be called as advertisement.

Advertisement could be delivered by various media. One of the most widely used media in spreading a product through advertisement is television. Why? It is because most of people or citizens in all country have television in their home. The people can watch easily all of the products which are advertised or introduced by the company. Suyanto (2005: 137) classified television advertising purposes according to the target, which is to provide information, persuasion, reminding buyers, adding value and helping other activities of the company. It can be concluded that advertising is a means to inform something in order to attract the attention of the people. Advertising is also a means for informing a product or service that people or the general public are interested and want to use the product or service being offered.

2. Kinds of Advertisements

According to Jefkins (1996:39) in broad outline, the advertisement could be classified into six main categories, namely:

a. Advertising of consumers (Consumer Advertising)

Every community in general had their own interest in buying an item.

There were two kinds of items commonly purchased by the public,

consumer goods like groceries shampoo, soap, etc. as well as durable goods, such as residential buildings, cars, jewelry, and so on. Together with consumer services, all kinds of goods are advertised through social media in accordance layer (social grades) certain to be targeted.

- b. Advertising business to business or between businesses (Business-to-business advertising)

The purposes of advertisement between businesses are promoting goods and services of non-consumers. That is, both advertisers and advertising goals are equally firm. The products advertised are among the items that have to be processes or be an element of production, will include the advertising of raw materials, component parts and accessories, factory facilities and machinery, as well as services such as insurance, office stationery supplies, and others.

- c. Advertising Trade

Specifically, this advertisement is addressed to be distributors, large wholesale merchants, agents, exporters and importers, and large and small traders. The purpose of advertising the trade is encouraging the shopkeepers (either in the form of networks and personal efforts) to make products such as stocks (especially for creating an adequate distribution network in order to support the advertisement campaign consumers). The emphasis is advantages that can be achieved by that way.

- d. Advertising Retail (Retail Advertising)

Type of this advertising is unique characteristics among trade advertising and advertising consumer goods. For example, the advertisement launched by supermarkets or convenience stores. This advertisement is created and distributed by the company or manufacturer of the product, and the advertisements are usually placed at all locations that sell the product to consumers earlier.

e. Advertising Finances (Financial Advertising)

Advertising finances include advertisements for banks, savings services, insurance, and investment. As a complement to advertising aimed at consumers, also included the company's financial statements are concerned, a record investment in bonds, as well as notices on various matters concerning finance. This advertisement is more tangible. Essentially, this advertisement focused on services to be advertised, so the people would be interested in using the services of the company or the bank.

f. The Job Vacancy Advertisement

This advertisement aims to recruit employees (such as members of the police, armed forces, private companies, and other public bodies) and forms, among others, advertising columns promising confidentially ordinary applicants or advertising leaflets. Other media such as radio and television are also used to advertise vacancies. This advertisement is to provide information to the general public on a matter related to employment. This advertisement is usually common in print media

such as newspapers. This advertisement used language that is also very attractive to readers, because this advertisement is really highly anticipated by readers of print media that need work.

3. The Purposes of Advertisement

According to Shurter (1971:239), he said little about advertising as a form of trade that aims letter:

- a. Conduct direct sales.
- b. Ask the demand for services production.
- c. Provide and test the reaction to the production.
- d. Reaching the company's prospects.
- e. Maintain and grow the agency.
- f. Has good faith.

Each purpose has different meaning. Here, the explanation of each purpose of advertisement:

- a. Conduct direct sales.

This form of advertising allowed business with a way to communicate directly to consumers through various media including telephone, email, websites, online advertisements, brochures, catalogs, television, or newspaper. Conduct direct sales focused on marketing, data, and accountability. Therefore, in addition to the communication is done directly, direct marketing campaign will also be continued and

analyzed after the campaign has been conducted to determine and review the final results.

- b. Ask the demand for services production.

This purpose is to ask the service production of a company. This purpose is different with previous purpose, because there is no direct object of this purpose. As we could see that the purpose is just for services production.

- c. Provide and test the reaction to the production.

After an advertisement is launched, the advertiser or company might await how the result of the advertisement, how the public's responses of that advertisement. Will they receive or reject the product of that advertisement? So, advertisement can be used as a tool to test the reaction of the production.

- d. Reaching the company's prospects.

After the company got the reaction of public to the production, they would see, is the reaction and response of the public to the production achieve the prospect of the company or not. If the advertisement could achieve or even exceed the target, the company would maintain the advertisement. On the contrary, if the advertisement could not attract the public's interest, the company should make or revise the advertisement as attractive as possible.

- e. Maintain and grow the agency.

If the advertisement could attract the public's interest, the agency or company would maintain the advertisement or even grow up the agency larger than before.

f. Has good faith.

As we knew, that good advertisement should have good faith to the public's believe. So that an advertisement can be long staying in the heart of the people, an advertisement must be trustworthy. That is, what is written in the advertisement must be equal to the quality of the goods or services advertised. These advertisements are not allowed to deceive the public. If this tills the case, then a company will lose the trust of the public related to the goods or services advertised. Therefore, an advertisement must be trustworthy and has good faith.

4. The Structure of Advertisement

The structure of an advertisement basically relied on four elements, namely: interests, desires, beliefs and actions. The structure was designed to cause a reaction of readers. The structure according to Shurtes (1971:243) arranged for:

- a. Stimulate interest in reading.
- b. Cause the desire for production.
- c. Convince the reader that the production or service is the best.
- d. To encourage the reader to act.

E. Television Advertising

Television advertisement was capable of presenting an attractive spectacle, fantastic, and repressive. Various demonstrations of products on display were really into people's lifestyles syndrome. Various colors of life offered by a "hoax" or "trick" the image presented that unwittingly lead the viewer to a new life as the excesses of advertising exposure adaptations that have been witnessed in television media. Bungin (2001: 39) stated that "television advertising is media products created by the owner of an advertising agency, and then broadcast television with a variety of purposes, such as product information and drive sales." Therefore, the television advertisement should have a segment by segment product selection, to select media strategy, so that the advertisement was up to the mark.

Through a combination of sight, sound, motion, and color, television was the medium number one for the national advertisers but somehow no one medium was appropriate for all advertisers because each medium had its advantages and disadvantages to be used as media in advertising, as well as television. Here were the advantages and disadvantages of television as an advertising medium.

According Kleppner there are some advantages and that obtained when using television as a medium to advertise. The advantage in using television as an advertising medium, among others:

1. Television provides a lot of flexibility to advertisers.

2. Penetration audience reached by this medium television unlike other media.
3. Coverage is high and the creative possibilities that the maximum has established television as a medium number one among national advertisers.

F. Slogan (Tagline) in Advertisement

1. Definition of Slogan

In advertisement, the advertiser absolutely made sentence that could persuade the consumer to buy it. That it call as slogan or tagline. Slogan is part of advertisement that used to make the advertisement easy to be memorized by the consumer. Slogan or tagline in advertisement has important role. Nuradi et al (1996: 56) stated that “slogan (tagline) is short sentence as closing of the main text that concluded shortly the purpose of an advertisement.” This tagline is a short expression contains of dense message and easy to memorize. The use of slogan is to strengthen the power of advertisement in executing (persuading the consumer to use the product advertised).

According to Ismiati (2000: 230), “the role of slogan in advertisement is the important point to help in investing a product to consumers. By having slogan or tagline in an advertisement, it will help the community to remember the brand of offered product.” Therefore, a slogan or tagline is sentence or creative expression that is easy to

remember and able presented producer's entire message. The slogan is also should attract the public to buy or use the good and service of a company.

Suyanto (2005: 139) argues that the slogan or theme line or tagline contained in an early television advertising messages advertising success. The slogan became a standard statement that readily accepted the minds of consumers. The slogan has two main functions, namely to sustain a series of advertisements in the campaign and to simplify an advertising message strategy on positioning statement to be succinct, repeatable, attract attention, and easy to remember. If ordinary hearing figuratively "a picture is worth a thousand words", the opposite applies in designing slogan "words (slogan) is a thousand pictures".

Slogan is sentence that differentiates one advertisement and another advertisement. Slogan could be compared with *headline* of an article. A slogan must be short, striking, easy to memorize, and absolutely different with another advertisements. Slogan is usually placed above advertisement to attract the consumer. Based on many definitions above, it could be concluded that slogan is a phrase, sentence, or short memorable utterances typically used in commercial or political context as a looping expression of an idea or goal that is already known that is owned by a particular group. Slogan advertising is a phrase, sentence, or even a brief speech that distinguishes advertising from one another and other texts that are used as the most effective tool in describing the best focus of a product.

2. Characteristics of Slogan

According to Foster (2001: 2) “The purpose of the strap line (slogan, claim, end line, signature, etc.) is to leave the key brand message in the mind of the target. It is the sign-off that accompanies the logo. To achieve it, there are some characteristics of slogan that must be fulfilled.

Table 2.1 Characteristic of Slogan

Characteristics of Slogan	
a.	It should be memorable.
b.	It should recall the brand name.
c.	It should include a key benefit,
d.	It should differentiate the brand.
e.	It should impart positive feelings for the brand.
f.	It should reflect the brand’s personality.
g.	It should be strategic.
h.	It should be campaign able.
i.	It should be competitive.
j.	It should be original.
k.	It should be simple.
l.	It should be neat.
m.	It should help in ordering the brand.
n.	It should be believable.
o.	It should not be in current use by others.
p.	It should not be bland, generic or hackneyed.
q.	It should not prompt a sarcastic or negative response.
r.	It should not be pretentious.
s.	It should not be negative.
t.	It should not be corporate waffle.
u.	It should not make you say “so what?” or “hah hum”.
v.	It should not make you say “oh yeah??”
w.	It should not be meaningless.
x.	It should not be complicated or clumsy.
y.	It should you should like it.

By knowing the characteristics of slogan above, the advertiser could take many considerations how to make good and attractive slogan.

To make the people are attracted to the good or service of advertisement, the slogan must be fulfill the characteristic of slogan as mentioned above. If those characteristics are fulfilled, the slogan could be stay for long time. Slogan that could stay along in heart's people is a good slogan and it is will always be remembered by the people.

G. Previous Research

Actually, the research about staging was very often founded. Most of research just about style of language used in slogan or the meaning of slogans used in advertisement. The previous research about “staging” was conducted by Tanti Praningrum in 2011. The title of her research was “*Word Sequence in Jakarta Post Headline*”. She had conducted her research about “staging” or here, she called as word-sequence on the headline of Jakarta Post. She analyzed the Jakarta Post Headline about word-sequence including of *foreground* and *background*, *theme* and *rheme*, and the sequence of the sentence.

The second research about staging was conducted by Judith Lenchner in 2009. His research was about “Staging Hitler Myths”. He conducted the research about the depiction of Adolf Hitler in the contemporary *German movies Der Untergang* (2004) and *Mein Fuhrer-die wirkliche wahrste Wahrheit uber Adolf Hitler* (2007). In his research, he focused on analysis of the Hitler depiction, the representation of the historical facts and the role of the eyewitness in Eichinger's movie. A similar structure was used for the

analysis of the Dani Levy movie. His analysis proved that both films provide the audience with their own interpretation of the Hitler figure – they both create a Hitler myth.

Another research related with discourse was conducted by Asih Ratnasari (2010). The title of her research is *An Analysis of Cigarette Advertisement Slogans*. In her research, she studied about the features of meaning build the characteristics in cigarette advertisement slogans and what the effects are made in cigarette advertisement slogans through slogan language. In her research, she said that advertisement language is one of the linguistic phenomena, in this case slogans or taglines that have differently unique in their structures and dictions. By using good and effective language, the consumers will comprehend the delivered message of the product offered.

Absolutely, my research was different with previous researches in term of title, the year in conducting the research, the data source, the reference, and absolutely the result. The data were also different with previous research. Actually, this research would give many benefits for the readers and especially for students. Why? Because by reading the result of this research, the readers would know the meaning of word-sequence (staging) in advertisement. It was often that people might not understand about what the meaning of the slogan used in advertisement.

The main benefit was also for students. By reading this research report, the students could learn about staging used in slogan of advertisement. They would get easiness in learning about staging. They could also start with

analyzing the simple slogan of advertisement. We knew that slogan is very interesting to read, because the word construction is also interesting. Because of that, many benefits that would be gotten by analyzing staging used in advertising slogan of some selected advertisements on television.