



An Investigation of Presupposition in Rainbow Rowel's novel "Fangirl"

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Abstract

This study investigates the types of presuppositions employed in Rainbow Rowell's novel Fangirl and identifies the most and least frequently used types. The research is based on Yule's classification of presupposition, which includes Existential, Factive, Lexical, Structural, Non-factive, and Counterfactual types. The data were collected from selected utterances in the novel and analyzed qualitatively and quantitatively to determine frequency and implied meaning. The findings reveal that five types of presuppositions are used in the selected data, while Non-factive presupposition does not appear. Existential presupposition is the most dominant type, occurring 29 times, which indicates that the narrative heavily depends on assuming the existence of people, objects, and situations. Factive presupposition appears 18 times and reflects the psychological and emotional states of the characters. Lexical presupposition occurs 16 times and is mainly triggered by words such as "still," "already," and "again," showing repetition or continuation of actions. Structural presupposition appears 9 times, mostly in WH-questions, expressing uncertainty and anxiety. Counterfactual presupposition is the least used type among those found, occurring 7 times, and is associated with hypothetical or unreal situations. The study concludes that presupposition plays an important role in conveying implied meanings and revealing character relationships and emotional development. The dominance of Existential presupposition highlights the importance of shared background knowledge in constructing the novel's social and psychological context.

Key terms: *existential, lexical, structural, Presupposition, Presupposition triggers,*

فانغيرل" دراسة حول الافتراضات المسبقة في رواية راينبو رويل

قسم اللغة الإنكليزية: علم اللغة

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ملخص



تبحث هذه الدراسة في أنواع الافتراضات المستخدمة في رواية راينبو رويل "فانغيرل"، وتحدد أكثرها استخدامًا وأقلها. يستند البحث إلى تصنيف يول للافتراضات، والذي يشمل الأنواع الوجودية، والواقعية، والمعجمية، والبنوية، وغير الواقعية، والافتراضية المضادة للواقع. جُمعت البيانات من عبارات مختارة من الرواية، وحُللت نوعيًا وكميًا لتحديد التكرار والمعنى الضمني. تكشف النتائج عن استخدام خمسة أنواع من الافتراضات في البيانات المختارة، بينما لا يظهر الافتراض غير الواقعي. يُعد الافتراض الوجودي النوع الأكثر شيوعًا، إذ ورد 29 مرة، مما يشير إلى أن السرد يعتمد بشكل كبير على افتراض وجود الأشخاص والأشياء والمواقف. يظهر الافتراض الواقعي 18 مرة، ويعكس الحالات النفسية والعاطفية للشخصيات. أما الافتراض المعجمي، فيظهر 16 مرة، وينشأ بشكل رئيسي من كلمات مثل "ما زال" و"بالفعل" و"مرة أخرى"، مما يدل على تكرار أو استمرار الأفعال. ويظهر الافتراض البنوي 9 مرات، غالباً في أسئلة تبدأ بـ "ماذا" أو "أين" أو "متى" أو "لماذا"، معبراً عن عدم اليقين والقلق. أما الافتراض المضاد للواقع، فهو الأقل استخداماً بين الأنواع التي تم رصدها، إذ يظهر 7 مرات، ويرتبط بمواقف افتراضية أو غير واقعية.

تخلص الدراسة إلى أن الافتراض يلعب دوراً هاماً في نقل المعاني الضمنية، وكشف العلاقات بين الشخصيات وتطورها العاطفي. كما أن هيمنة الافتراض الوجودي تسلط الضوء على أهمية المعرفة الخلفية المشتركة في بناء السياق الاجتماعي والنفسي للرواية.

المصطلحات الرئيسية: الافتراض المسبق المعجمي، الوجودي البنوي، محفزات الافتراض المسبق.

Background of the study:

People interact with each other using language to express themselves and convey messages. This language consists of codes or keys used by humans for this purpose. Language is also linked to and influenced by many factors, including social, geographical, and other factors. Therefore, we can say that language is a multi-purpose tool when used, as it can be used for interaction, entertainment, conveying ideas, expressing our needs, or revealing identity (Crystal and Robins 2024). All of these elements contribute to a shared culture assumed by its speakers or users when they interact with each other. Therefore, it can be said that communication can occur verbally (orally), such as in conversations, meetings, and speeches. There is also another type of communication, which is non-verbal but written, such as that found in literary (plays, poetry, and novels). In both types (read and written), the writer or speaker does not always express their opinions explicitly and clearly. To understand the views of the speaker or writer, we must take the context into



account. In this regard, there is one thing which makes spoken or written context more effective and understood. This is called presupposition.

Presupposition gives us the chance to communicate without being completely explicit (Finch, 2000:165). presupposition is the act of assuming something to be true in the absence of evidence. Presupposition can appear in both spoken and non-spoken language.

Presupposition is something the speaker believes to be true before making an utterance, Yule (1996: 23). " As a verb, "presuppose" denotes presuming or assuming in advance. Initially, Gottlob Frege could be considered as the first who used the term "presupposition" in 1892. It was first used in the language from a philosophical point of view and then in linguistics. Grundy states that there are two ways to identify presupposition. In the first, when the presupposition triggers are employed; in the second, are viewed as a way to demonstrate shared or uncontroversial understanding. We can use the presupposition trigger as a hint to identify a presupposition in a sentence or utterance. Accordingly, presupposition can be defined as a linguistic philosophical logic of linguistics that requires a fulfilled prerequisite for an offered statement to be true or false.

As a result, research on presupposition progressively changed, and new discoveries were revealed, and it has been found that presuppositions are produced when specific lexical items or linguistic constructions are used. These linguistic presupposition triggers are lexical items or constructions (Levinson,1983:167). By employing presupposition triggers, the writer or speaker can influence how the reader or listener interprets the facts and events, creating a bias that is either favorable or unfavorable throughout the text (Zare, 2012:29).

Research Questions

The following are the questions that the current study aims to address:

1. What are the types of presuppositions employed in **Rainbow Rowel's novel "Fangirl"**?
2. Which type of Presuppositions most common used in the novel "Fangirl"?
3. Which type of Presuppositions used less than other types?
4. What are the presuppositions that the characters assume in each utterance?
5. What is the implied meaning of the characters through the conversation?



Objectives of the study

The goals of this study are summarized as follows:

1. Investigating the utterance to identify the types of Presupposition.
2. After examining the utterance, to identify and determine which type was used and employed most.
3. After examining the utterance, to identify and determine which type was used and employed least.
4. To refer to what the characters presuppose in each utterance.
5. To refer to the implied meaning the characters used in their conversations

Significance of the study

Starting and going into every study, there must be meaningful benefits, whether it is theoretical or practical. It is possible from this study that it will be a source for future research in linguistics in particular (presupposition) that some students or readers develop and expand this field. It may also contribute to understanding the triggers of presupposition in literature, including the novel. Therefore, researchers can expand and develop their understanding of pragmatics specially (Presupposition).

The scope of the study

This study will adopt Yule's classification of presupposition triggers as a model for this research to examine the utterance in the novel "**Fangirl**" which is written by **Rainbow Rowel's**. Two chapters will be as a sample for this purpose.

Pragmatics

When people interact through conversations or written communication, there is no absolute, literal understanding of the text. Even when speakers use the same language, they sometimes encounter challenges and difficulties in understanding the intended meaning. To overcome these difficulties and achieve a simpler and easier understanding of the intended goal and message, it is necessary to delve into the science of pragmatics. Therefore, pragmatics is necessary to comprehend people's linguistic behavior in interpersonal communication. Pragmatics is required because individuals who comprehend pragmatics will comprehend not just both an utterance's explicit and implicit meanings. Assumptions, objectives, and purposes make up implicit meaning. Because pragmatics can analyze how language is used in a particular context, it is crucial



to study it. In this regard, Leech sees pragmatics as the study of meaning in light of the situational context; accordingly, pragmatics enables the recipient to deduce the changing meanings of a single utterance according to the circumstances surrounding the communication process (Leech: 1983).

Actually, pragmatics practitioners have distinct perspectives on the idea. So, there are different definitions were introduced by pragmatic theories.

For instance, some theories define it as the study of communication, while others define it as the study of language in general. Furthermore, some theories view pragmatics as a method focused on the study of language and its role in communication. The general consensus on what lies at the core of pragmatics is reflected in the questions concerning the meaning of a speaker and how individuals communicate. So, there are three approaches to pragmatics. According to the first method, pragmatics is seen as a component of philosophy. According to this interpretation, "pragmatic" refers to an effort to address some questions about meaning, specifically the relationship between the meaning of the sentence and the speaker's meaning at the time of utterance. The second method, pragmatics, is a branch of grammar that considers how sentence meaning and context interact. This method views pragmatics as a component of linguistics. Finally, the third pragmatics approach describes it as "an attempt to integrate pragmatics into cognitive science by providing a psychologically realistic explanation of human communication (Allott, 2010:1).

Yule defines pragmatics as the study of the interaction between language forms and their users (Yule, 1996: 4). According to Yule, pragmatics is the study of how language is used to communicate in particular contexts. The study of meaning as conveyed by a writer or speaker and understood by a reader or listener is the focus of pragmatics. Consequently, it has more to do with analyzing what people mean when they speak. According to (Yule 1996: 3), pragmatics addresses four key areas. Firstly, it involves the study of speaker meaning, which focuses on how meaning is expressed by a speaker (or writer) and interpreted by a listener (or reader). This approach allows for a deeper analysis of what individuals convey, aiming to uncover the exact meaning behind their statements instead of just their literal interpretation. Second, Pragmatics is the study of meaning in context. What individuals express is often tied to the situation in which the conversation occurs. This field of study inherently requires interpreting what people intend to convey in a specific context and examining how that context shapes their words. It involves understanding how speakers arrange their messages based on who they are



addressing, when they are speaking, where the conversation takes place, and under what circumstances it unfolds. Third, Pragmatics is the study of how additional meanings are conveyed beyond what is explicitly stated. Fourth, Pragmatics studies how we convey relative distance. This perspective looks into what factors influence the choice between spoken and unspoken communication, as both forms are connected to the idea of distance.

Similarly, Trudgill asserts that pragmatics is a field of linguistics focused on the meaning of utterances within social contexts (Trudgill: 1992: 61). In short, there are social factors and conditions surrounding the linguistic context that produce an understanding and perception of mutual meaning (Mey 1993: 42).

Subfields of pragmatics

A. Utterance

Utterance can be defined by Finnegan as the application of a sentence in a certain context. He elaborates, "The utterance is a sentence on a certain occasion or in a certain context." Furthermore, he explains that an utterance is a sentence spoken, written, or signed by someone in a specific situation with the aim of impacting the listener (Finnegan 1997: 162).

B. Context

Language differs depending on how it is used, who is using it, where it is used, and to whom. People are unable to fully understand an utterance if there is no explanation of the context of communication. It demonstrates unequivocally the significance of context in communication since it provides the addressee with information that enables them to comprehend the speaker's words and react appropriately. Nunan clarifies that context as the circumstances that give rise to the discourse and are embedded in it. Therefore, he mentioned two kinds of contexts which are linguistic and Non-linguistic context (Nunan (1993:8).

C. Inference

It is the linguistic and non-language keys that the writer or speaker can do in order for the reader and the listener to adopt them to achieve the understanding of the context (Yule 1996).

D. Implicature



Implication is the hidden, unstated meaning that a writer or speaker includes in a text, different from what is said or written. Yule explains that implication carries more nuances and variations than the literal meaning of words (Yule 1996).

E. Presupposition

In some situations, people must use indirect communication to express their intentions. The best way to start a productive conversation is to do the presumption. Presupposition is crucial to the creation and understanding of the speech act. It is defined from a variety of perspectives, all of which share some similarities. Thus, the utterance context loses its significant core in the lack of shared knowledge and mutual background.

(Potts 2015: 3) defines presuppositions as “the information that the speaker supposes is necessary for their utterance to be significant or expressive in the actual context.” Similarly, (Karttunen 1973:169) argued that presupposition does not introduce new information; rather, it consists of the background knowledge shared by the interlocutors. It means that presupposition can be described as “beliefs that are mutually accepted by the speaker or writer and are assumed to aid in interpreting the message.” It is also said that presuppositions do not have to be true (Griffiths 2006: 83).

According to Hudson, a presupposition refers to an assumption that is accepted as true within a sentence that makes additional claims. It may be associated with a specific lexical item or grammatical feature in the statement and generally remains a required assumption, regardless of whether the statement is presented as an assertion, denial, or question (Hudson 2000: 321). Finch also clarified that the presuppositions are the prerequisites that must be met for a statement to be true. Presupposition is the term used to describe implicit assumptions made by speakers and listeners that are required for accurate interpretation of spoken words. It is something that the speaker believes to be true before speaking (Finch 2000: 173).

Similarly, Yule claims that presupposition addresses the relationship between two dimensions, providing a prerequisite for a statement to be true even though it is refuted. For the utterances to be taken into consideration, the speaker and address must both know or assume the presupposition within the context. For a sentence to be felicitous, a presupposition must typically be a part of the utterance context's common ground. However, sentences can occasionally be felicitous despite having presuppositions that are not part of the common ground (Yule 1996: 173). He observes that the use of numerous words, phrases, and



structures has been linked to presupposition. These linguistic forms are thought to be as indications of possible presupposition, which can only be realized as actual presupposition when speakers are involved.

F. Presupposition triggers

Presupposition relates to the use of specific words, structures, and phrases. Linguists have identified these linguistic constructions as sources of presuppositions. These linguistic elements and constructions are termed triggers. In essence, the term 'triggers' denotes those "linguistic items that generate presuppositions." In other words, a presupposition trigger indicates the presence of a presupposition (Levinson, 1983: 179).

Yule contends that certain words and structured phrases are linked to the concept of presupposition. These linguistic elements are seen as indicators of potential or implicit presupposition; however, this potential only becomes a true presupposition when a speaker employs it in context. Therefore, when a reader engages with a text, they do not simply read it; they also grasp the truth value and meaning of the implied context and recognize the unstated information that these cues suggest (Yule (2000:27). Consequently, Yule lists six categories of existential, factual, non-factive, lexical, structural, and counterfactual presuppositions.

1. existential presupposition

This type of presupposition derives its name or content from the use of certain linguistic structures such as the possessive's, possessive adjectives, and the noun phrase preceded by the definite article "the". All these structures or elements serve as symbols or triggers for the presupposition. It was stated that the existential presupposition known to be dedicated to the entities named by the speaker proposed to be included in the noun phrase. For example:

Ali's father is old.

Ali exists.

Ali has a father.

This trigger cannot be the only one that is used for this type, but also exists in another linguistic form such (your, my, his, her.....etc) and in definite noun phrases.

2. Factive presupposition



This kind of presupposition is linked to the use of verbs that can be regarded as facts, such as "know, realize, regret, be, aware, odd, and glad." These verbs are typically employed by speakers or writers to persuade the hearer or reader that the statement's facts are accurate. For example:

Ali knows that Ahmad is a teacher.

Another example is provided by (Huang 2014), who claims that factive verbs are regarded as indicators of factive presupposition. He divides factive verbs into two subcategories: the first category consists of verbs that employ epistemic or verbs that are generated by emotional factives, such as regret, which are concerned with an emotional attitude toward fact, and cognitive factives, such as the verb know, which concerns knowledge of fact.

3. Lexical Presupposition

This type refers to understanding the assumption resulting from a particular phrase or single word; the speaker can act as if another meaning will be understood. It means that certain words serve as triggers or indicators for lexical presupposition. These words are (stop, start, begin, managed, again). For example:

Ali stopped playing tennis.

Ali was playing tennis.

In this case, if we negotiate the utterance and state that 'Ali didn't stop playing tennis'. It is still understood that Ali played tennis before. In both situations, whether assertive or non-assertive assumptions, it was assumed that Ali used to play tennis.

4. Structural Presupposition

The use of specific phrases and sentences is linked to structural presupposition. In other words, certain sentence structures are examined as assuming that a certain aspect of the structure is already known to be true.

The listener accepts the presupposed information as true because the speakers use these structures to make it true. For example, in a sentence where the speaker employs the wh-question construction, as It will be interpreted in a way that implies the information comes after the wh-form (i.e., "When" and "Where") is already known to be true if it is depicted in the example below.

Where is your book?

You have a book.

When did he buy?



He brought.

5. Non-Factive Presupposition

It is a presupposition which relates to the opposite or non-factive condition because its triggers are not confirmed or assured as true. Thus, certain words such as dream, imagine, pretend are assigned to this kind. For example,

I dream that I was a pilot.

In fact, I am not a pilot.

Of course, we can say there are some words that can work in multi-type assumptions such as the word "claim". It can be lexical or non-factive presupposition, both types can interfere with each other. However, context can solve this problem. Furthermore, Palmer (1976: 67) refers to the word "likely" as a non-factive presupposition.

6. Counter-Factual Presupposition

A counterfactual presupposition is one in which the information assumed is false and the opposite is true. For instance, certain conditionals, commonly referred to as counterfactual conditionals, assume that the an if-clause does not contain information at the time of utterances. For example,

If Ali had enough money, I would buy a car.

In this instance, some counterfactual constructions specify that the falsity of the complement clause is presupposed. It is not true because Ali did not have money to buy it.

G. Previous studies

The author cites a few earlier studies to bolster this investigation. The first study the author found is "The Analysis of Presupposition in George Orwell's Novella Animal Farm," is taken from Risdianto. In order to recognize and categorize the presupposition used in conversation in Orwell's novella, the study focuses on types. Presupposition triggers are used for identification, and six different types of presuppositions are used for classification. The 180 utterances were discovered in this study.

The second study that the researcher reviewed is "The Analysis of Presupposition in the Short Stories of Silvester Gordius Sukur," Erwin Oktoma and Styfanus Mardiyono (2013). Their study focuses on the short stories of



Gordius Sukur, aiming to identify the various types of presuppositions and determine which type is most prevalent in these narratives.

Research design

The researcher believes that the most appropriate method for this study is the descriptive method, through which the samples are examined and analyzed in a descriptive manner. In qualitative research, the investigator usually looks at insights and contents in a particular situation (Strauss & Corbin, 2008:45; Levitt et al., 2017:2-22). It is focused on giving an explanation of the natural occurrences that take place without the help of a tentative treatment.

Data source

The title of this study identifies the source type. Since its aim is to investigate the triggers of presupposition, the source type is in the form of words. These words and phrases are taken from **Rainbow Rowel's novel "Fangirl"**.

Data instrument

Instruments are facilities or tools utilized by researchers to gather information in order to produce quality findings. Accordingly, the tools you use to gather information (data) to address your research questions are known as research instruments. Thus, the researcher is the instrument in this study since the researcher needs to confirm that he is capable of conducting research.

Data collection technique

The title of this study identifies the source type. Since the study aims to investigate the triggers of presupposition, the source type is verbal. These words and phrases are found in a narrative. The researcher read the narrative several times to identify words containing presuppositions, excluding those unrelated to the study model. Furthermore, the author lists these words in a table to classify them according to the types of presuppositions they contain.

Analysis

According to Table 1-1 below, the researcher analyzed two chapters of Rainbow Rowell's novel *Fangirl*, adopting George Yule's theory of presupposition. The researcher read the two chapters twice. He then extracted sentences relevant to the study's title, focusing on the dialogues between the novel's characters. The



researcher found 100 utterances or samples. These samples or utterances are listed below for classification into types of presupposition: existential, lexical, factive, unfactive, and counterfactual. The researcher also indicated the triggers that led to these types of presuppositions. Furthermore, the researcher included two fields in the table to list the characters' presuppositions and the implied meaning of these sentences.

Results

According to Table 1.1 below, which analyzes the narrative based on the types and motivations behind presuppositions, all types of presuppositions were employed in the dialogues by the characters, but with varying degrees of frequency. These frequencies are shown as percentages in Table 2.

4.1. Data analysis of the novel "Fangirl"

No .	Utterance	Presupposition Trigger	Presupposition Type	Presupposition	Implied Meaning
1	"There was a boy in her room."	boy/her room)	Existential	A boy and a room exist.	Establishes the setting and the initial conflict.
2	"Cath looked up at the number painted on the door."	Definite noun phrase(the number)	Existential	A number exists on the door.	Verification of spatial location.
3	"Pound Hall, 913."	Proper Name (Pound Hall)	Existential	A building named Pound Hall exists.	Identifying the institutional setting.
4	"Maybe it wasn't Pound Hall."	Proper Name (Pound Hall)	Existential	Pound Hall is a specific place.	Reflects Cath's internal doubt and anxiety.



5	"You must be Cather."	Proper Name (Cather)	Existential	Someone named Cather exists.	Levi's assumption of her identity.
6	"The boy took the box out of her hands."	Definite Description (The boy)	Existential	The boy exists; she has hands.	An invasive physical action.
7	"Do you have more stuff downstairs?"	Adverb (more)	Lexical	She already has some stuff.	Presupposes an ongoing move-in process.
8	"We just finished."	Verb (finished)	Lexical	There was a task being performed.	Indicates a prior action of moving in.
9	"Have you been to Pear's yet?"	WH-Question	Structural	A place called Pear's exists.	Levi assumes she is a stranger to the area.
10	"Burgers the size of your fist."	Possessive (your fist)	Existential	She has a fist.	A physical comparison for emphasis.
11	"Make a fist."	Imperative Verb (Make)	Factive	She is capable of making a fist.	A social command to prove a point.
12	"Bigger than your fist."	Comparative (Bigger than)	Lexical	A comparison is being made to a known size.	Reconfirming the scale of the burger.



13	"Do you have more boxes?"	Quantifier (more)	Lexical	She has at least one box already.	Assumption of more luggage.
14	"Are you hungry?"	Yes/No Question	Structural	Hunger is a possible state for her.	A social invitation.
15	"Was this Reagan?"	Proper Name (Reagan)	Existential	A person named Reagan exists.	Cath trying to identify her roommate.
16	"Look, your roommate's here."	Possessive (your roommate)	Existential	She has a roommate.	Announcement of a new relationship.
17	"I took this side."	Verb (took)	Factive	There are sides to the room.	Reagan asserting dominance over space.
18	"If you've got feng shui issues..."	Conditional (If)	Counterfactual	She might have issues with the layout.	Reagan acknowledging potential future conflict.
19	"She just needed to settle her nerves."	Verb (needed)	Factive	She currently has unsettled nerves.	Identifying an internal emotional state.
20	"The anxiety she felt like black static."	Relative Clause (she felt)	Factive	She feels anxiety.	Metaphorical description of mental health.
21	"Her dad and Wren would be up	Possessive/Names (Her dad/Wren)	Existential	A dad and Wren exist.	Anticipation of family arrival.



	any minute."				
22	"Cath didn't want them to know."	Verb (know)	Factive	There is something to be known.	Cath hiding her vulnerability .
23	"If Cath melted down, her dad would melt down."	Conditional (If)	Counterfactual	Neither has melted down yet.	Predicting a chain reaction of panic.
24	"You're going to thank me for this."	Verb (thank)	Lexical	Something was done that requires thanks.	Wren justifying her decision to separate.
25	"The first time she'd said it was back in June."	Adverb (first time)	Lexical	She said it more than once.	Indicates a repetitive argument.
26	"Cath had already sent in her forms."	Adverb (already)	Lexical	There were forms to be sent.	An action that cannot be undone.
27	"The two of them had shared a room."	Perfect Tense (had shared)	Factive	They shared a room in the past.	Establishing long-term habits.
28	"Why stop now?"	WH-Question (Why)	Structural	They are currently sharing/doin g something.	Questioning the logic of change.
29	"This is	Definite Description	Existential	College is a specific	Defining the current



	college."	(This)		social entity.	environment
30	"The whole point of college is meeting new people."	Definite Description (The whole point)	Existential	College has a 'point.'	Asserting a social philosophy.
31	"The whole point of having a twin sister."	Definite Description (The whole point)	Existential	Having a twin sister has a specific purpose.	Cath's counter-philosophy of safety.
32	"Remember when we went on the freshman tour?"	Verb (Remember)	Factive	They went on a tour.	Recalling a shared experience.
33	"I don't need new people."	Adjective/Noun (new people)	Existential	'New people' exist.	Rejection of social expansion.
34	"It'll be four years before anyone can tell us apart."	Temporal Clause (before)	Factive	People cannot currently tell them apart.	Assumption of their identical nature.
35	"Cath touched the scar on Wren's chin."	Definite Description (the scar)	Existential	A scar exists on Wren's chin.	Physical evidence of a shared past.
36	"Please don't make me do this	Verb (make)	Factive	Doing 'this' (college) is required.	Admission of lack of independence



	alone."				e.
37	"This is really nice."	Pronoun (This)	Existential	The room has a quality of 'niceness.'	Dad's forced optimism.
38	"My room faces a parking lot."	Possessive (My room)	Existential	Wren has a room.	Comparing her situation to Cath's.
39	"How do you know?"	WH-Question (How)	Structural	Wren knows something.	Questioning the source of information.
40	"Courtney and I have been talking."	Proper Name (Courtney)	Existential	Courtney exists.	Establishing a new social circle.
41	"Next stop, Schramm Hall."	Proper Name (Schramm Hall)	Existential	Schramm Hall exists.	Planning the next destination.
42	"I think I saw a Chipotle."	Verb (saw)	Factive	Chipotle exists.	Attempting to find a familiar food chain.
43	"You like Chipotle."	Verb (like)	Factive	Cath has a preference for Chipotle.	Dad asserting knowledge of Cath's tastes.
44	"Where are all the old people?"	WH-Question (Where)	Structural	Old people exist somewhere.	Cath noticing the age segregation of college.



45	"The other guys my age..."	Definite Description (The other guys)	Existential	There are other guys of the same age.	Social comparison by the father.
46	"You've never fought like this before."	Adverb (never... before)	Lexical	They are fighting now.	Identifying a change in the twins' relationship.
47	"Wren just wants more independence."	Adverb (more)	Lexical	Wren already has some independence.	Analyzing Wren's motivation.
48	"I still wish you'd get a dog."	Verb (wish)	Counterfactual	He does not have a dog.	Desiring a different reality for the father.
49	"I'd never remember to feed it."	Modal +(never)	Counterfactual	Feeding a dog is a required action.	Predicting failure based on character.
50	"Before Wren cut her hair."	Temporal Clause (Before)	Factive	Wren cut her hair at a specific time.	Marking a point of divergence.
51	"Abel always looked kind of bored."	Adverb (always)	Lexical	Abel exists and has a specific look.	Identifying a habitual trait of the boyfriend.
52	"Cath probably should have texted"	Modal (should have)	Counterfactual	She hasn't texted him yet.	Reflecting on a missed social obligation.



	Abel."				
53	"At the bottom of the box were Simon and Baz posters."	Proper Names (Simon and Baz)	Existential	Simon and Baz exist (as icons).	Identification of Cath's interests.
54	"The two of them walking together."	Participle (walking)	Factive	They are walking together in the image.	Describing the content of a poster.
55	"I'm Tyrannus Basilton Pitch."	Proper Name (Tyrannus Basilton Pitch)	Existential	A person with this name exists.	Introduction of a character.
56	"We're going to be roommates."	Future Tense (going to be)	Factive	They will share a room.	Establishing a fictional premise.
57	"Same-old alarm going off."	Adjective (Same-old)	Lexical	There is a recurring alarm.	Indicates a repetitive, familiar routine.
58	"I still hadn't texted Abel."	Adverb (still)	Lexical	She was supposed to text him.	Continued failure of an action.
59	"Maybe Reagan would spend all her time..."	Modal (Maybe/would)	Counterfactual	Reagan has 'time.'	Cath's hopeful speculation.
60	"Reagan could walk	Modal (could)	Counterfactual	Reagan is currently	Fear of a



	in at any minute."		al	out.	future event.
61	"In new situations, all the trickiest rules..."	Definite Description (the rules)	Existential	New situations have rules.	Generalization about social anxiety.
62	"Where does the line start?"	WH-Question (Where)	Structural	A line exists.	Functional anxiety about dining.
63	"Why is everyone watching you?"	WH-Question (Why)	Structural	Everyone is watching.	Cath's perception of social scrutiny.
64	"Cath broke open a box of protein bars."	Noun Phrase (box of protein bars)	Existential	Protein bars exist in a box.	Establishing her 'survival' plan.
65	"Sorry about yesterday."	Noun (yesterday)	Factive	Something happened yesterday.	Apologizing for a past absence.
66	"Neglecting your fans already."	Adverb (already)	Lexical	She has fans and is neglecting them.	Wren teasing Cath about her fame.
67	"Walking to class..."	Noun (class)	Existential	A class exists.	Moving into the academic setting.
68	"Why are you reading	WH-Question (Why)	Structural	She is reading something	Wren noticing a change in



	that?"			specific.	Cath's behavior.
69	"Baz will hear you."	Modal (will)	Factive	Baz is capable of hearing.	Treating fiction as reality.
70	"I really like Cather."	Verb (like)	Factive	Cather is a name/person.	Levi expressing a personal preference.
71	"If Reagan were here..."	Conditional (If... were)	Counterfactual	Reagan is not here.	Explaining a current situation.
72	"This whole situation is too rapey."	Definite Description (This whole situation)	Existential	A 'situation' exists.	Categorizing an uncomfortable moment.
73	"Where are your pillowcases?"	WH-Question (Where)	Structural	She has pillowcases.	Levi assuming ownership of domestic items.
74	"Why do we write fiction?"	WH-Question (Why)	Structural	We (humans) write fiction.	A philosophical academic inquiry.
75	"To leave our mark."	Definite Description (our mark)	Existential	We have a 'mark' to leave.	Assuming a desire for leg

4.2 The percentages of the types of presupposition in the novel

Type of deixis	Frequency	Percentage
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Existential	29	38.7%
Factive	18	24%
Lexical	12	16%
Structural	9	12%
Counterfactual	7	9.3%
Non-factive	0	0%
Total	75	100%

Discussion

After analyzing the novel *Fangirl* in the aforementioned tables according to the types of presuppositions, this section provides answers to the research questions that initiated the study, as will be explained below. The answer to the initial question, "What types of presuppositions were employed in Fangirl?". These types appeared unevenly, as follows: The first type of presupposition which is existential, it appeared 29 times (38.7%). This suggests that the novel heavily relies on presumptions about people, places, and relationship. Since the events of the story relies on Cath's transition to university environments, several statements normally assume the presence of roommates, family members, university environments, and social situations. The second is factive presupposition, it was used 18 times (24%). This kind is as a reflection of psychological states which is triggered by emotional awareness such as (know, remember, realize.... etc.). This is consistent with the novel's emphasis on internal feeling and personal development. The third type which is lexical presupposition, it was employed 12 times in 16% which suggests repetition or continuation. The structural presupposition was the fourth type; it was employed 9 times (12%). It reflects the state of an anxiety and uncertainty through wh-questions. The fifth type was counterfactual presupposition; it was employed 7 times (9.3%). It is as reflection of imaginations and unreality of situations that linked or related to Cath's fears. Whereas non-factive presupposition was not used in the two chapters of the novel. The lack pf non-fatctual presupposition implies that the story emphasizes more on real emotional states over imagined ones. Thus, there are five out of six types of presupposition are found. This means not all types of presupposition are used. This relates to the first question.



Regarding the second question, the study demonstrated that the most frequently used type was the existential presupposition, which appeared more frequently than the other types. It appeared 29 times. As for the third question, which seeks the least used type, the study proved that the least used is the non-factive presupposition. It was not used through the two chapters.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the study demonstrates that Fangirl contains five main types of presuppositions, with Existential presupposition being the most dominant type. This dominance highlights the importance of assumed existence in building the narrative world and social relationships. Factive and Lexical presuppositions also play significant roles in expressing emotional depth and psychological tension. Structural and Counterfactual presuppositions appear less frequently but contribute to portraying anxiety and hypothetical thinking.

The absence of Non-factive presupposition indicates that the characters' conversations are grounded in real experiences rather than imagined or unreal events. Overall, presupposition plays a vital role in revealing character relationships, emotional states, and implied meanings in the novel.

Suggestions

For students

The research's conclusions may be one of the sources taken into account during the teaching and learning process. People who study language or linguistics are advised to learn more about pragmatics, particularly presupposition, since presupposition deals with implied meaning that is more difficult to comprehend than literal meaning.

For researchers

It would be preferable for the next researcher to analyze the next presupposition thesis using a different corpus. As a result, the researcher anticipates that another researcher will carry out additional research concentrating on the premise.

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