

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

Language is a way of communication for transferring information to others. The language remained a set of traditional symbols, whether spoken, written, or manual, which people used to express themselves as members of a social group and participants in its culture (Henry & Crystal, 1999). As an international language, English continued to be widely used to communicate with people from different countries in various fields, such as technology, education, politics, and economics. Due to the significance of English in the future era of globalization, it continued to be necessary for individuals to acquire proficiency. In Indonesia's curriculum, English continued to be taught as a foreign language, and it remained a subject that must be taught in junior high school based on the Merdeka curriculum. *Merdeka Curriculum* actualizes the concept of innovative and creative critical thinking, followed by the ability to collaborate and communicate (Yamin, 2020).

In the process of learning English, students need to master four skills, one of which is writing. Writing involves communicating thoughts and ideas in a written form. Writing is an intellectual process of generating ideas and considering how to effectively articulate and structure them into a coherent

statement or paragraph that can be easily comprehended by the readers (Nunan, 2003).

Writing and text are closely linked since writing involves creating a text (Wijayanti & Fatmawati, 2019). A text is any written or spoken word that communicates a message or information, whether it is a single sentence, a paragraph, an article, a book, or any other type of written or spoken word that conveys meaning. Texts can be created for various purposes, including informing, entertaining, persuading, or educating. This study focused on analyzing descriptive text made by junior high school students.

This study was conducted at SMP 1 Susut Kintamani and SMP 6 Kintamani, two different junior high schools in the Kintamani area. The main purpose for choosing these specific schools is to examine the habits and lifestyles of the locals, particularly the students, who live both close to and far from the lake, which is an essential source of water for the Kintamani community. It's essential to emphasize that SMP 6 Kintamani is quite closer to the lake than SMP 1 Susut Kintamani. People who live in the area near SMP 6 Kintamani are significantly impacted by this geographic proximity in their daily lives. Since the lake covers the area around the school, some of the local population works as fishermen or maintains fish ponds. Students at SMP 6 Kintamani are significantly influenced by their close connection to nature, which fosters a deeper awareness of how important nature is to support their lives. In contrast, the community around SMP 1 Susut Kintamani is primarily engaged in agriculture, with orange farming being the dominant occupation in the area.

Descriptive text is one of the types of text that is used to describe a person, place, or thing. A description paragraph is a particular type of text that is written paragraph to describe a thing to the reader, whether it be either alive or non-living (Sharndama, 2013; Pardiyono, 2007). To make the descriptive text more understandable, and between the different sentences and paragraphs connected discourse markers are needed as the connector between the ideas or the topic of a person, place, or thing.

The phenomenon of junior high school students when students are required to submit a descriptive text of the nature in Kintamani, students require creativity and abilities in this scenario to produce high-quality work. To portray the ideas or thoughts about the place, nature, and things in Kintamani. This process may be challenging for undergraduate students who don't have sufficient writing abilities or who are still learning how to write well, this process may be rather challenging. Therefore, discourse markers will need to make the descriptive text easier and well connected between the sentences and the phrases.

Discourse markers are linguistic devices used to hang the piece of language or expression together. They are utilized in writing and speaking to show the relationship between ideas or information in a given text. It is different from content words because discourse markers do not convey the meaning of their own nor change the meaning of a sentence. According to Maschler & Schiffrin (2015), discourse markers are defined as sequentially dependent elements that bracket units of talk. There are six types of discourse markers such

as markers of information management “oh”, markers of responses “well”, discourse connectives for example “and”, “but”, “or”, markers of cause and results such as “so” and “because”, temporal adverb for example “now”, “than”, information and participation such as “you know” and “I mean” based on (Schiffrin, 1987).

Understanding a language is essential since interaction and communication depend on language, and people should also think about understanding the culture. This is in line with the (Hymes, 1974) theory, which says that no one type of communication works for everyone. Setting and scene (S), participants (P), ends (E), act sequence (A), key (K), instrumentalities (I), norms of interaction and interpretation (N), and genre (G) are the elements of the mnemonic "SPEAKING," according to (Hymes, 1974). The eight elements are based on culture and can facilitate speaking up in any social setting and navigating cross-cultural communication. This study tries to connect the analysis of DMs and the descriptive text as written works to deliver ideas and thoughts.

Specifically, this study examined to gain insight into how well these students understand and apply DMs to exhibit their creativity. In essence, the study aims to uncover the extent to which junior high school students are adept at using DMs as a linguistic tool to enrich their writing and showcase their imaginative thinking. The study seeks to determine whether these students are capable of employing DMs to establish smooth transitions and connections

between different pieces of information, ideas, or concepts, resulting in a descriptive text that flows logically and captivates the reader.

1.2 Problems of the Study

Based on the background above, the problems of the study analyzed by the researcher:

1. What discourse markers are found in the descriptive text made by junior high school students in SMP 1 Susut Kintamani and SMP 6 Kintamani?
2. What is the function of each discourse marker and the social context in the descriptive text made by junior high school students in SMP 1 Susut Kintamani and SMP 6 Kintamani?

1.3 Objectives of the Study

Based on the problems above, the objectives of the study established as the aims of this research, which are:

1. To find out types of discourse markers in the descriptive text made by junior high school students in SMP 1 Susut Kintamani and SMP 6 Kintamani.
2. To analyze the function of each discourse marker and the social context in the descriptive text made by junior high school students in SMP 1 Susut Kintamani and SMP 6 Kintamani.

1.4 Limitations of the Study

Based on the study's background and problem, this study required problem limitations to be effectively defined. For the first problem, this study was carried out by categorizing types and using discourse markers in Descriptive Text about nature, place, and things in SMP 1 Susut Kintamani and SMP 6 Kintamani environment based on Schiffrin's (1987) theory. While, the second problem used the "SPEAKING" model based on (Hymes, 1974) to analyze the data. This study focuses on two schools such as SMP 1 Susut Kintamani and SMP 6 Kintamani because around these schools areas are familiar with "*Subak*" which is a world cultural heritage environmental awareness.

1.5 Significance of the Study

The result of this research could be divided into theoretical and practical significance which will explained as follows:

1.5.1 Theoretical Significance

Theoretically, the result of the study hopefully expand knowledge and bring new insights by combining applied science and writing, especially in the context of comprehending discourse markers.

1.5.2 Practical Significance

Practically, the findings of the study are poised to furnish insights into discourse markers. This content can serve as a resource for readers

seeking to enhance their proficiency in utilizing discourse markers. Furthermore, the study offers benefits and can be assessed in various contexts, such as essays, articles, or other forms, to gain a deeper understanding of discourse marker usage.



CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE, CONCEPTS AND THEORIES

This chapter discusses the theory of relevant studies that are used to gain an in-depth understanding of this research discussion. It describes discourse markers, the nature of discourse markers, descriptive writing, types of discourse markers, and the function of discourse markers. Furthermore, it also discusses previous studies related to this study to obtain information and provide a comparison of the similarities and differences between this study and previous studies.

2.1 Review of Related Literature

This study was investigated several types of discourse markers and students' challenges when using them in the descriptive text. Throughout this investigation, the study has identified relevant literature associated with these aspects.

The first thesis review was written by Jayantini (2022) entitled *Discourse Markers in Steve Jobs' Speech Introducing iPhone in Macworld 2007*. The aim of this study is to categorize various types and purposes of discourse markers in Steve Jobs' 2007 Macworld discuss "Introducing iPhone." The social setting was analyzed in this study using the SPEAKING model by Dell Hymes and theories from Schiffirin (1987). This study employed a descriptive qualitative approach to examine the data. The findings indicate that Steve Jobs employed 123 data points. There were 78 markers of connective (63,5%), 20 markers of cause and result (16,2%), 13 markers of temporal adverb (10,6%), 10 markers of response (8,1%), and 2 markers of information and participation (1,6%).

The difference between this study and the previous study that focused on analyzing discourse markers in specific speeches, the current study is different in its data source. Instead of extracting data from a speech by a public figure like Steve Jobs, this study chooses a different approach. It collects data from the third grade of two Junior High Schools in Kintamani. The data consists of descriptive texts, particularly focusing on portraying the nature of Kintamani, alongside the discourse markers present in these texts. Despite the shift in the data source, this study maintains continuity with the previous research by employing the theoretical framework established by Deborah Schiffrin (1987) and Dell Hymes' SPEAKING model. This framework is used to investigate the analysis of discourse markers and to understand the social situation in which these markers are embedded. A notable difference in this study is the explicit incorporation of all eight elements of Dell Hymes' SPEAKING model. This model includes elements setting, participants, ends, act sequence, key, instrumentalities, norms, and genres. By incorporating all these elements, the study aims to provide a more comprehensive understanding of the social context and the communicative factors in the given data.

Another thesis on discourse markers was conducted by (Sohaya, 2018) in *English Discourse Markers Used in the Procedure Text Written by Senior High School Students*. This research used Fraser's theory (1999) to investigate the research problems and focused on the types of discourse markers and the reasons behind the students' use of these types in their writing. The study found that there were 33 discourse marker words in the procedure text written by students; seven out of eight types were found in the procedure text written by students. Discourse

markers come in a variety of forms, including exemplifier discourse markers (ExDMs), reason discourse markers (RDMs), conclusive discourse markers (CcDMs), elaborative discourse markers (EDMs), inferential discourse markers (IDMs), contrastive discourse markers (CDMs), elaborative discourse markers (EDMs), and sequential discourse markers (SDMs). The motivations behind the students' employment of those particular DMs to justify their work were also looked into in this study. The findings of this research indicate that sequential markers, elaborative markers, and contrastive markers were the three main types of discourse markers used in the procedure text.

The difference between this study and the previous study is in terms of both theory and data source. In contrast to the previous studies that employed Bruce Fraser's theory (1999) to investigate the research problems, this study diverged by adopting a theoretical framework from Schiffrin (1987) and Dell Hymes' SPEAKING model. This shift in theoretical underpinning implies a different perspective and analytical approach to understanding discourse markers in the context of student writing. This study specifically targeted the third grade of two Junior High Schools in Kintamani. This choice of data source not only provides a more focused and localized perspective but also introduces a specific educational level, enabling a more targeted analysis of discourse markers within a particular student demographic. In addition, the difference in research focus is noteworthy. The previous study concentrated on investigating the types of discourse markers and the reasons behind their usage in student writing. Instead of it, this study shifted its focus to analyzing descriptive texts junior high school students produced. This

change in focus suggests a broader exploration of the student's writing abilities, encompassing the overall structure and features of descriptive texts rather than solely concentrating on discourse markers.

Another study was taken from an article by Pebriyanti (2017) entitled *Analysis of Discourse Markers Found in Inside Story TV Programmer AI Jazeera TV Entitled "What Does Ahok's Conviction for Blasphemy Mean for Indonesia"*. This study analyzed the discourse markers in a conversation. This study was conducted to find out what kind of discourse markers are used by the speaker in the conversation and investigate the function of the discourse markers. To reach the objectives, this research used theory from Schiffrin (1987) and Fraser (1999). This study used a descriptive qualitative method. The result of this study shows that there were 5 discourse markers used by the speakers. These consist of "and", "y'know", "so", "but", and "I mean" discourse markers and dominant markers are "and" which worked in the level of talk: ideational structure.

The selected theoretical framework and the data source are the two main ways that the current study differs from the previous one. This analysis chooses a different data source from the previous one, "What Does Ahok's Conviction for Blasphemy Mean for Indonesia," which used data from the Inside Story TV show on Al Jazeera. The data is specifically taken from descriptive texts written by third-graders in two Kintamani junior high schools. Moreover, the two research have differences in the theoretical framework of analysis. The previous study looked at discourse markers in the setting of the TV show Inside Story, using theories from Schiffrin (1987) and Fraser (1999). However, the current study uses Dell Hymes'

SPEAKING model and Deborah Schiffrin's (1987) theoretical framework to examine discourse markers in student-written descriptive texts. The difference in the theoretical framework and data source indicates a conscious attempt to investigate discourse markers with a different group of language users and in a different setting. The study takes on a new level with the analysis of discourse markers in student-generated descriptive texts. This analysis may provide insights into the various contexts in which these linguistic devices are used.

Another article about discourse markers was conducted by Nirwana (2022) entitled *The Student's Accuracy in using Discourse Markers for Academic Writing (A Case Study of Students in English and Literature Department)*. This research focused on the accuracy of discourse markers used by the students in their academic writing, especially in the thesis background. This research used a qualitative method, analyzed by Bruce Fraser (1999) to identify the elaborative markers. The result of this research showed that only 16 of the discourse markers were used properly and 4 of them were used in an inappropriate way.

The previous study conducted by Nirwana (2022) focused on assessing the accuracy of discourse markers used by students in their academic writing, particularly within the background section of their theses. The emphasis was on evaluating how well students employed these markers in their academic context, specifically within thesis writing. Conversely, the current study differs in both data source and focus. It aims to not only identify the function of each discourse marker but also to analyze the social context in which these markers are employed. This recent study centers on descriptive texts created by junior high school students from

SMP 1 Susut Kintamani and SMP 6 Kintamani. By focusing on this specific demographic, the study intends to understand how discourse markers function within the linguistic and social framework of a younger generation. To achieve this understanding, the study draws upon Schiffrin's theory (1987), which addresses discourse markers, and Dell Hymes' SPEAKING model, providing a structured framework for analyzing the linguistic and social aspects of these markers in the given texts.

The last research was taken from an article written by Ratih, E., & Abidah, K. H. (2022) entitled *The use of English discourse markers across gender: A corpus-based study*. This study investigates the kinds of discourse markers (DMs) used by Indonesian university students in their cause-and-effect essay writing with consideration of gender groups. Twenty-nine cause-and-effect essays composed by 10 male and 19 female university students were analyzed using the DM taxonomy adapted from Fraser's (1999) and Halliday and Hasan's (1976) studies. AntConc 3.5.7 was utilized to find out the types and the frequency of the discourse markers in a corpus-based data analysis. The analysis identified 191 DMs from the 29 cause-and-effect essays. The findings revealed that, in terms of DM variability, there were no notable differences between the use of DMs by the male and female students.

The differences between this study with the previous study from Ratih, E., & Abidah, K. H. (2022) focused on examining the types of discourse markers (DMs) utilized by Indonesian university students within cause-and-effect essay writing, considering gender groups as well. The investigation centered on a specific academic context—analyzing how DMs were employed by university students and

whether usage varied based on gender. It was likely conducted through a quantitative or qualitative analysis of essays written by these students. On the contrary, the Kintamani study involved third-grade students from two Junior High Schools and had a different scope. It specifically tasked participants with creating descriptive texts about Kintamani's natural surroundings. This study aimed to analyze these texts using Schiffrin's (1987) and Hymes's (1974) theories, which likely provided a framework for understanding discourse markers in a broader linguistic and social context. This qualitative approach intended to showcase the significance of DMs in writing and simultaneously cultivate environmental awareness among students. By encouraging an exploration of nature through descriptive writing, the study aimed to foster an appreciation for the environment among the younger generation.

2.2 Concepts

There are three concepts as a main point in this study such as social context, discourse markers, and descriptive text. These ideas will help readers understand the terms used in this study and form similar opinions.

2.2.1 Discourse Markers

Discourse markers are a class of linguistic items that act in the textual, social, expressive, and cognitive domains, according to Schiffrin et al., (2007). Discourse markers, according to theory, are verbal and occasionally nonverbal processes that support the discourse's coherence (Schiffrin, 1987). A phrase or statement that aids in the regulation of conversation flow and structure is known as

a discourse marker. Discourse markers typically do not change the sentence's actual conditional meaning because they are mostly independent of language. Discourse markers help writers create work that is both effective and fulfilling.

2.2.2 Social Context

According to Fraser (1999), this paper is an attempt to clarify the status of discourse markers. These lexical expressions have been studied under various labels, including discourse markers, discourse connectives, discourse operators, pragmatic connectives, sentence connectives, and cue phrases. Although most researchers agree that they are expressions that relate to discourse segments, there is no agreement on how they are to be defined or how they function. Dell Hymes (1974) speaking model, the social context is the structure and setting in how individuals communicate and utilize language. This theory, which is commonly linked to sociolinguistics, emphasizes that good communication requires more than mere linguistic proficiency. It takes into consideration how important social, cultural, and situational elements are in determining how language is utilized in daily relationships. The social context in this model includes elements such as the participants' roles and relationships, their cultural backgrounds, the setting or situation in which the communication occurs, and the broader societal norms and values that shape language use. Hymes' model underscores that to fully understand and participate in effective communication, one must be attuned to these social factors, as they play a crucial role in shaping how language is used, interpreted, and perceived by individuals and communities.

2.2.3 Descriptive Text

One type of text that students learning English must grasp is descriptive text. When producing a descriptive work, empirical research is usually necessary. The student can obtain material through surveys, experiments, observations, interviews, and literature reviews, among other methods. Rahimi (2011) states that in order to select a stance and provide evidence to back it up, the author has to be conscious of the many points of view on the matter. In international tests like the GRE, TOEFL, and IELTS, descriptive text is commonly employed as an indicator of learners' language skill level. It thus serves as an important part of the development of academic writing ability.

2.3 Theories

A significant theory used in this study to solve the problem. To identify the many kinds of discourse markers and their functions in descriptive writing, theoretical methods will be utilized. The theory and the study are closely related as the study's objective is to identify the different types of discourse markers and how the students utilized them to create descriptive text. This study makes use of Schiffirin's (1987) Discourse Markers theory. This theory proves to be highly representative of discourse marker types and serves as a valuable tool in conducting research in this domain.

2.3.1 The Nature of Discourse Markers

Since the late 1980s, discourse markers have been researched in several languages, genres, and interactive settings. Discourse markers are things that

surround a speech unit and are arranged in a sequential manner. The main purpose of the statement is to draw attention to a specific type of future utterance within the current discourse setting. DMs have the ability to express certain speech acts, explicitly define the structure of the discourse, and provide the hearer with more context (Zhang, 2012).

Fraser states a similarity to Discourse Markers in that they are phrases that link segments (sentences) or introduce separate messages using conjunctions, adverbs, and prepositional content. Fraser (1999) states that discourse markers should be differentiated from other function words, commonly found at the start of sentences to resume the discourse. Essential conjunctions like "and" and "then" are regularly employed in the natural statements mentioned earlier, serving not only to link individual utterances within turns but also at the onset of turns. They establish connections between one speaker's turn and another, reference a prior turn by the current speaker, or signify a shift in topic or subtopic.

2.3.2 Types of Discourse Markers

This part showed the kinds of discourse markers according to Schiffrin (1987). There are six types of discourse markers based on Schiffrin (1987) such as markers of information management, markers of responses, discourse connectives, markers of cause and results, temporal adverbs, information, and participation. So, these are the types of discourse markers:

1. Markers of Information Management

Markers of information are focused on “oh”, it is used as a signal for receiving new information, recognizing old information, replacing and redistributing information, and when locally delivered information does not meet the speaker's prior expectations. When “oh” is used alone without the syntactic support or sentence, it could indicate strong emotional states (surprise, fear, or pain). For more clearly according to Schiffrin, these are a few examples of contrastive markers:

a. Rocky: Do you want to watch a movie in the cinema today?

Lucy: *Oh*, I am sorry. I have something to do.

b. Rocky: *Oh!* Come on. What a nice day if you want to come with me to watch the movie.

(Schiffrin, 1987:73-74)

2. Markers of Response

Markers of responses are talking about “well”. “Well” is a maintaining one of the idealized assumptions and the use of it is similar to “oh” but it is not based on semantic meaning or grammatical status. According to Schiffrin “well” is interesting in discourse markers because “well” is significant in a sentence.

“Well” can be as a noun, adverb, or degree word, it is used in utterances initial position is difficult to characterize, figures in particular conversational moves, and can precede an answer in which presupposition

of before a question is canceled, as well as noun-compliance with a request, or rejection of an offer. Zelda's statement illustrates a request for classification:

- a. Debby: How did you get the name of the doctor you're using now?
- b. Zelda: *Well* y'mean our family doctor?

(Schiffrin, 1987:102)

3. Markers of Connectives

Markers of connectives consist of *are*, *and*, *but*, and *or*.

1) *And*

"*And*" can be coordinating idea units and continuing an action.

Schiffrin (1987) states it will be easier to separate them by describing them separately. For instance:

- a. What changed the whole way of living was the automobile.
- b. You couldn't go anywhere,
- c. So you congregated together,
- d. *And* you go in one bog truck or something,
- e. *And* you went – went on a picnic,
- f. *And* you had a good time.
- g. Today, you could care less.

(Schiffrin, 1987:128)

2) But

According to Schiffrin (1987) as a discourse coordinator, it has a very different pragmatic effect but marks an upcoming unit as a contrasting action. Based on the contrastive meaning, the range of ideational uses of “but” is considerably narrower than that of “and”. Markers “but” has function as contrastive discourse, for example:

Jack: And then in the end Hungary took these two countries in the end anyhow. So, mean it shows you. *But* that isn't the point. The point is...religion is a sickening thing with me. I want to throw up when I see a very religious Jew, or a very religious Catholic, or a very religious protestant.

(Schiffrin, 1987:152)

3) Or

According to Schiffrin (1987), "or" is the same as a coordinator "and" and "but," but it is more hearer-directed and different from "and" and "but" in meaning. In contrast, it indicates a speaker's continuation, but indicates a speaker's return to a point, or indicates a speaker's offering of alternatives to a hearer. To put it more succinctly, these are examples of "or" markers:

Debby: Do you go down the shore? Like Atlantic City *or* Wildwood, *or* Cape May?

(Schiffrin, 1987:177)

4. Markers of Cause and Result

Markers of cause and result consist of “so” and “because” marks. Schiffrin (1987) states that the functions of "so" and "because" when they indicate concept units, information states, and actions are the simple manifestation of these features; but when so is used pragmatically in participation structures, its grammatical properties are less easily realized. "So" and "because" are the primary grammatical signals in subordinate and grammatical clauses, respectively.

1) “So”

“So” is a complimentary marker of main idea units. For example:

- a. We went to clean the drain in the sn-in the snowstorm.
- b. This was right after the war.
- c. *So*, w- we- it was- my feet were wet.
- d. We were riding in the truck. In a car.

2) “Because”

“Because” is a marker of subordinate idea units For example:

- a. And the people are all up in: eh:y’know, arms,
- b. *Because* these guys have applied for a liquor license.
- c. And it is like a half a block away from the school.
- d. And it will tend probably t’bring people up into this neighborhood.
Y’know.
- e. And, y’know, they’re afraid.

(Schiffrin, 1987: 191)

5. Markers of Temporal Adverbs

Temporal adverb markers are "now" and "then." According to Schiffrin (1987), the terms "now" and "then" are deictics because they indicate a relationship between the moment a proposition is presented in an utterance and the moment at which it is assumed to be true. In other words, the meaning of these terms depends on the parameters of the speech situation, such as the speaker's time of speech.

1) "Now"

For more clearly, this is an example of markers "now":

- a. Would you go with her today?
- b. It depends.
- c. *Now* this is your chance to get her
- d. So this would be get more dilemma.

2) "Then"

This is an example of markers "then":

- a. And uh: I lived there 'til I got married,
- b. And *then*, for about two years after then.
- c. So: uh, and *then* we moved there.
- d. We've been living here for about ten years.

(Schiffrin, 1987: 228)

6. Markers of Information and Participation

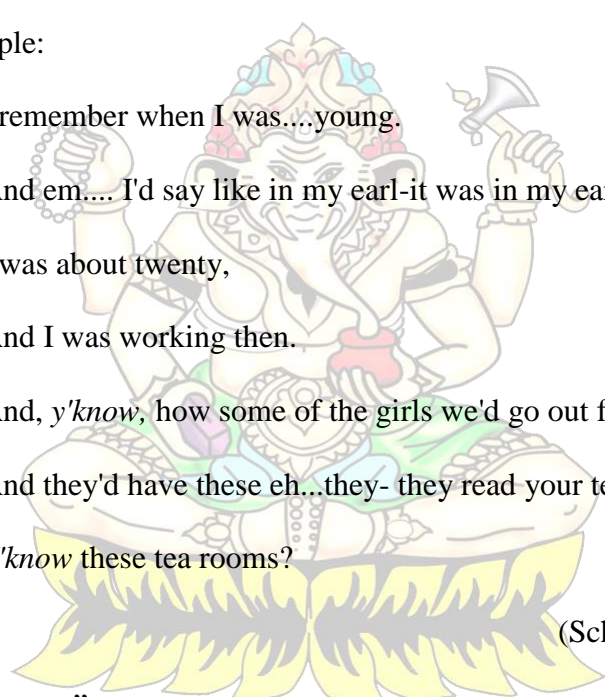
Markers of information consist of "y'know" and "I mean" marks. According to Schiffrin (1987) "y'know" marks transitions in the

information state which relevant, and “I mean” marks the speaker's orientation toward own talk.

1) “You know”

According to Schiffrin (1987) the literal meaning of the expression "you know" suggests the function of you know information states, "you are the second pronoun in singular or plural.

For example:

- 
- a. I remember when I was....young.
 - b. And em.... I'd say like in my earl-it was in my early twenties.
 - c. I was about twenty,
 - d. And I was working then.
 - e. And, *y'know*, how some of the girls we'd go out for lunch,
 - f. And they'd have these eh...they- they read your tea leaves!
 - g. *Y'know* these tea rooms?

(Schiffrin, 1987: 267)

2) “I mean”

According to Schiffrin (1987) predicate "mean" has an ideational meaning (words "have meaning" because they refer to entities or convey concept; sentences "have meaning" because they express prepositions), it influences not only the markers "I mean" but also the expression of meaning. For more clearly, this is the example of I mean mark:

- a. But I think um ten seven years from now,
- b. It's going to be much more freedom.

- c. I could see it in my own job.
- d. *I mean*, when I started working for that company, there were no good people.

(Schiffrin, 1987: 297)

2.3.3 Dell Hymes' SPEAKING Model

Hymes introduces the idea of communicative competence, which refers to the foundational understanding of spoken language rules. Within the ethnography of speaking, he presents three interconnected units for examination, organized hierarchically. At the highest level of analysis, we find the "speech situation," encompassing the social context in which communication occurs. Moving down the hierarchy, the next level is the "speech event," defined by the application of language, emphasizing its pivotal role in social interactions. Finally, the smallest unit of analysis is the "speech act," which pertains to the functions and applications of language within these interactions, delving into the nuances of linguistic expression.

Hymes suggests that when examining speech events, it's essential to consider their components to create a comprehensive description. To aid in this analysis and provide structure, he introduces the mnemonic device "SPEAKING" grid as a heuristic tool. This Dell Hymes SPEAKING Model helps identify and organize the various factors he deems relevant in the analysis of speech events.

Hymes constructs the acronym SPEAKING, under which he grouped the sixteen components within eight divisions:

1. 'S' for Setting and Scene:

Setting refers to the physical and social context in which the speech event takes place. It includes elements such as the location, time, and broader environmental factors that influence communication. Scene is the psychological dimension of the context, which involves the attitudes, expectations, and emotions of the participants. The scene delves into the mental and emotional backdrop against which the speech event unfolds, providing important insights into the communicative process.

For example: Imagine two friends, Sarah and John, having a conversation at a coffee shop. The setting in this example is the coffee shop itself. It includes details such as the location (e.g., a cozy café in the city), the time (e.g., late afternoon), and the physical environment (e.g., soft lighting, comfortable seating). The setting can influence the conversation; for instance, a busy coffee shop may lead to a different interaction than a quiet library. The scene involves the psychological aspects of the context. In this case, it encompasses Sarah and John's attitudes and expectations. Sarah might be feeling relaxed and eager to catch up with John after a long day at work, creating a positive scene. John, on the other hand, could be in a hurry because he has an appointment afterward, which might create a sense of urgency in the scene. Additionally, their past experiences, shared memories, and emotions toward each other contribute to the scene.

2. 'P' for Participants

In Dell Hymes' SPEAKING model, the component "Participants (P)" refers to the individuals or entities directly involved in the speech event or communication situation. This component focuses on understanding the roles, relationships, and identities of the people who are participating in the communicative act. Participants can take on various roles within a speech event. These roles can include speaker, listener, sender, receiver, questioner, responder, authority figure, subordinate, and many more. Understanding these roles is crucial for comprehending the dynamics of communication. The relationships among participants are also vital. These relationships can be hierarchical (e.g., supervisor-subordinate), familial (e.g., parent-child), social (e.g., friends), or professional (e.g., doctor-patient). The nature of these relationships can influence how communication unfolds. Participants bring their identities to the communication event. These identities encompass aspects such as gender, age, ethnicity, cultural background, social status, and personal characteristics. Each participant's identity can influence their communication style, expectations, and responses.

3. 'E' for Ends

In Dell Hymes' SPEAKING model, the component "Ends (E)" refers to the goals, purposes, and desired outcomes of the communication or speech event. This component focuses on understanding why the participants are engaging in the communicative act and what they hope to achieve through it. The "Ends" component delves into the specific

objectives or intentions that participants have in mind when they communicate. These goals can vary widely, ranging from sharing information and seeking understanding to persuading, entertaining, or expressing emotions. It involves examining the broader purposes or functions of communication within its cultural and social context. This includes considering whether the communication serves a ritualistic function, a performative function, or a transactional function, among others. The "Ends" component also encompasses the expected or desired outcomes of the communication. Participants engage in communication with the hope of achieving various outcomes, which can be both tangible and intangible.

4. 'A' for Act Sequence

Act Sequence refers to the structure and organization of speech acts within a speech event or communication context. It involves understanding how communication is structured in terms of the order and coherence of the speech acts performed by the participants. Speech acts are the fundamental units of communication. They are actions performed through language, such as making requests, giving commands, asking questions, making statements, and expressing emotions. Understanding how these speech acts are organized and structured within a speech event is the focus of the "Act Sequence" component. "Act Sequence" examines the chronological order in which speech acts occur during a communication event. It considers how one speech act may lead to or follow another, creating a sequence that reflects the unfolding conversation or interaction. Coherence refers to the

logical and meaningful connections between speech acts. It involves understanding how speech acts relate to one another, maintain consistency, and contribute to the overall purpose or direction of the communication.

5. 'K' for Key

“Key” refers to the tone, mood, style, or key in which a speech event or communication is conducted. It involves understanding the linguistic and non-linguistic cues that convey the emotional and social aspects of the communication. “Key” encompasses the tone of the communication, which relates to the emotional or attitudinal qualities conveyed through speech. Tone can range from formal to informal, friendly to hostile, respectful to disrespectful, and more. It sets the emotional backdrop for the interaction. The mood in communication refers to the overall emotional atmosphere or ambiance of the speech event. It involves the collective emotional states of the participants and can vary from cheerful and relaxed to tense and somber. The style reflects how language is used. It includes choices regarding formality, vocabulary, and expressions. Style can be formal, informal, academic, colloquial, professional, or casual, among others. Expression encompasses the non-verbal elements of communication, including body language, facial expressions, gestures, and vocal intonation. These non-linguistic cues can significantly influence the interpretation of the message.

6. 'I' for Instrumentalities

“Instrumentalities” refers to the specific language varieties, codes, and channels used in communication within a speech event or context. This

component focuses on understanding the linguistic means or tools employed by participants to convey their messages effectively. Instrumentalities include the different language varieties or languages used in communication. Codes refer to the linguistic codes, registers, or jargon used within a particular context. These codes may be specific to certain professions, fields of study, or social groups. Participants often employ specialized vocabulary or terminology to convey meaning effectively. Instrumentalities also encompass the channels or mediums of communication. This includes spoken language, written language, sign language, non-verbal communication (e.g., gestures, body language), and even digital communication channels like text messaging or video calls.

7. 'N' for Norms of Interaction

Norms of Interaction (N) refers to the cultural and social rules, conventions, and expectations that govern communication and interaction within a particular speech event or context. This component emphasizes understanding the shared norms and behaviors that shape how participants engage with each other. Norms of Interaction encompass the cultural rules and expectations that dictate appropriate behavior in communication. These norms can include aspects such as greetings, politeness levels, expressions of respect, and taboos specific to a culture. Social norms refer to the unwritten rules and conventions within a specific social or societal context. These norms dictate how individuals should behave, interact, and communicate within particular settings, such as family gatherings,

workplaces, or formal ceremonies. Norms of Interaction also involve understanding what participants expect from one another in terms of communication styles, roles, and behaviors. This includes expectations related to turn-taking, active listening, and responsiveness.

8. 'G' for Genre

Genre refers to the type or genre of the speech event or communication context. It involves categorizing and understanding the specific communicative genre or form that the interaction takes, which can influence the structure, expectations, and conventions of communication within that context. "Genre" involves categorizing the speech event or communication context into a specific type or form. This categorization helps identify the conventions and expectations associated with that genre. Different genres come with distinct expectations regarding communication style, roles, and content. These expectations can include the use of formal language, specific structures, and adherence to established norms within that genre. Each genre has its own set of conventions, including how information is presented, the role of participants, the use of language, and the overall structure of the communication. These conventions help guide participants in their communicative roles.