

## CHAPTER IV

### FINDING AND DISCUSSION

#### A. Finding

##### 1. Types of Communication Strategies Used by Students in EFL Speaking II Class of English Education Department

The researcher did the documentary by checking the students' assignment about Procedure Text due to the limitation access to the online class, then interviewed with eight students in personal chat two times.

In validating the data, the researcher developed coding as attached in Appendix 5 to be more relevant based on the interview using voice note. Based on three main strategies proposed by Dörnyei and Scott's taxonomy about types of communication strategies (1997, pp. 188-192), it showed that the students used 17 communication strategies, as follow: 1) Message Reduction, 2) Message Replacement, 3) Circumlocution, 4) Approximation, 5) Use of All-Purpose Words, 6) Literal Translation, 7) Foreignizing, 8) Code Switching, 9) Use of Similar Sounding Words, 10) Mime, 11) Self-Rephrasing, 12) Self Repair, 13) Own Accuracy Check, 14) Use of Fillers, 15) Self-Repetition, 16) Other Repetition, and 17) Marking Circumlocution.

These strategies were found in the following utterances:

##### a) Message Reduction

Sometimes, students reduced their own message by avoiding certain topics to keep the conversation on the same line. It was called as

Message Reduction or Topic Avoidance. Male student used this strategy because he needed to back to the main topic, because in the beginning, he talked about another topic. This strategy was found in the following utterance:

- (1) **“For the situation**, I usually see the situation and also the other person and need *tooo* emphasize that I am not being aggressive as so that other person just as to make my argument more acceptable to the other person, because sometimes people would just scream things over and over and those things are not believable. **It will only make your arguments lower than other people or even lower than ... the debate itself. If I want to convince other, ...”** (MRed, M010)

At data (1), the student reduced the message by avoiding the topic and changed it to the main topic that was asked about. Based on the interview, he wanted to talk about how he convinced others when speaking. However, he started talking about ‘the situation and other person’s argument’ and then changed it into ‘his way to convince other’. This was because he recognized that the topic of discussion was about how to convince others. Therefore, he immediately talked about the main topic.

b) Message Replacement

The students changed the original message with the new one because they did not know or not sure about the words/sentences that they said.

This was indicated as Message Replacement. This strategy was found in the following utterance:

- (2) “I can conclude that grammar is basic of speaking beside the **words and voice**, of course.” (MRep, F132)

At data (2), the student replaced the real word/sentence with the other word/sentence that still had the related meaning. Based on the interview, she was asked about her opinion about the importance of grammar in spoken English. She stated that grammar was basic of speaking, beside writing and listening, but she did not know the words, so the student said words and voice’ instead of ‘writing and listening’ because of not capable to executing it at that moment.

c) Circumlocution

Exemplifying, illustrating or describing the properties of the target or action could be seen as Circumlocution. Sometimes, the students had speaking difficulties in English, they did not know the vocabulary, so they could have explained or described it to the interlocutors in order to be more understandable. When he/she doesn’t know a word, uses the words he/she does know to explain what he/she is trying to say. This strategy was found in the following utterances:

- (3) “The third one is... is **a person punching another person** in which the other person stomach caved in.” (C, M004)

- (4) “I will use the **same meaning of the word or sentence** that I don’t know.” (C, F200)

From data (3), it could be seen that student A described the third picture about ‘boxing’ into ‘person punching another person’. This could be implied as Circumlocution, because the student did not say ‘boxing’ directly. Yet, he explained the activity of boxing. From data (4), it could be seen that student H explained how she deal with word or sentence that she did not know, she said she would use ‘same meaning of word or sentence’ which should be ‘synonym’. This could be implied as Circumlocution, because she tried to explained the word when she did not know how to say it in English.

d) Approximation

Approximation was when the students used a single alternative term that had the closest meaning with the target word they wanted to say. It was also the use of English structure which shared semantic features to the supposed structure in English. This strategy was found in the following utterances:

(5) “The first picture is **a bird** catching a fish.” (A, M004)

(6) “But the person I'm talking to is still **understands** what I mean.”

(A, F118)

From data (5), student A employed the word ‘bird’ instead of ‘stork’ when he delivered his sentences. Student A utilized Approximation because he used alternative word when he described a picture about stork, in this case, stork was still considered as bird, because of their body’s similarity. From data (6) student E employed an inappropriate

English structure. Student E should say ‘understand’ instead of ‘understands’ because understand was not followed by plural noun. She employed Approximation because she did not differentiate the use of plural/singular.

e) Use of All-Purpose Words

Use of All-Purpose Words was appeared because the students extended a general ‘empty’ lexical item to contexts. Here, the students did the overuse of ‘like’. This strategy was found in the following utterances:

(7) “I usually stutter or **like** stopping to think for a second or **like** makes sound **like** *ee* or *aa* something **like** that ... I do not *mm* hurt the feeling or **like** offend the other person that’s currently speaking with me.” (UAW, M020)

(8) “I will be being **like** *emm* funny or powerful and then if I interact with older people older people, I will be **like** *emm* more polite or more formal, **like** that.” (UAW, F194)

From data (7) and (8), it could be seen that student A and student H over used the word ‘like’ when speaking. Both male and female students applied the Use of All-Purpose Word because they tended to say empty word. They could minimize ‘like’ and used the other options, such as ‘thus’, ‘as’, ‘such as’, ‘for instance’, or ‘for example’.

## f) Literal Translation

Literal Translation was translating literally a lexical item, an idiom, a compound word or structure from L1/L3 to L2, such as translate from Bahasa to English. This strategy was found in the following utterances:

(9) “I agree with that opinion because with grammar we become more communicative in speaking English in **everyday alive**.” (LT, M054)

(10) “Answer number five, I often speak in **everyday language** instead of speaking in standard language.” (LT, F120)

Look at data (9), it could be seen that student C employed Literal Translation. He translated the phrase ‘everyday alive’ from L1 (Bahasa) ‘*kehidupan sehari-hari*’ which was supposed to be ‘daily life’. This happened simply because of the influence of his L1. From data (10), student E employed Literal Translation because he translated phrase ‘everyday language’ from L1 ‘*bahasa sehari-hari*’ which was supposed to be ‘daily language’, because the influence of his L1.

## g) Foreignizing

Using a L1/L3 word by adjusting it to L2 phonology (i.e., with a L2 pronunciation) and/or morphology was called as Foreignizing.

(11) “If you have fat and fluffy stomach its will be *emm elastis* if you got punch by someone.” (For, F134)

From data (11) student F pronounced 'elastis' From L1 (Bahasa) instead of 'elastic' in L2 (English). It could be seen that she employed Foreignizing because of the influence of her L1.

#### h) Code Switching

Including L1/L3 words with L1/L3 pronunciation in L2 speech, such as from Bahasa to English, this may involve stretches of discourse ranging from single words to whole chunks and even complete turns.

(12) "Question number four, 'What makes me comfortable?' It's a relax situation not to tense and the speaking topic that is not too heavy it's like **like apa a little talk.**" (CS, M092)

(13) "What is the definition of speaking style?' Speaking style or in Bahasa is **cara atau gaya berbicara maybe.** Actually, I've never heard about this, but I think it's how you speak to other people or how do you talk to other people, like do you use a high tone or a low tone? Or do you talk to the point to other people or not, I think something like that." (CS, F110)

From data (12), student D used Code Switching, he turned English into Bahasa when he said 'apa' from L1 and continued it in L2. From data (13), it could be seen that student E easily switched the code from English to Bahasa by saying '*cara atau gaya berbicara*' and continued it in English. This can be implied that she used Code Switching.

i) Use of Similar Sounding Words

The students compensated for a lexical item whose form the speaker is unsure of with a word, then the students pronounced it similarly from the real word, it could be seen as Use of Similar Sounding Words. This strategy was found in the following utterances:

(14) “Number two, become stronger, but still man maintain the feelings of the **interlocutor** or be more expressive and conditional based on situations and facts in an aa uncomplicated manner.” (USSW, F166)

At data (14), the student was asked about how did she convince other, she explained that she would be stronger, but still maintain the interlocutor’s feeling. Here, ‘interlocutor’ sounded like ‘interlecutor’ and could be added to Use of Similar Sounding Words.

j) Mime

Mime was when the students used mime or gesture to make interlocutor understood what they tried to say. Sometimes use pictures, gestures, or facial expressions to help others understand. For presentational. This strategy was found in the following utterances:

(15) “Sometimes when I got blank in speaking I usually my tick my finger like (*snapping finger*).” (Mim, M094)

(16) “So, there are three pictures, ee start from the first picture, there is a duck oh no no no (*chuckle*).” (Mim, F108)



From data (15) student D used Mime by describing that his style that he realized when speaking was tick his finger, he also gave an example by snapping his finger. While at data (16), the female students tried to described about pictures she saw, then when she said that on the picture was ‘duck’, she realized it, and chuckled, then changed it into seagull. It was indicated that she applied Mime as her communication strategies.

k) Self-Rephrasing

Repeating a term, but not quite as it is, but by adding something or using paraphrase after saying it and still had the same meaning was indicated as Self-Rephrasing. Rewords or rephrases when sensing the audience is having difficulty understanding. This strategy was found in the following utterances:

(17) “I usually **stutter or like stopping to think for a second** or like makes sound like ee or aa something like.” (SPhr, M020)

(18) “It's **how you speak** to other people or **how do you talk** to other people.” (SPhr, F110)

From data (17) student A said ‘stutter or like stopping to think for a second or like makes sound like ee or aa something like that’ he paraphrased ‘stutter’ two times in order to make sure his interlocutor understood of what he meant. This strategy was employed because of his insufficient knowledge of TL and he did not have any idea about the context of what they were talking, so he paraphrased some terms while thinking for the next terms for being utilized to facilitate the

listener understood the message was being delivered. This employed as Self-Paraphrased. At data (18), the female students explained the definition of speaking style, she said ‘how you speak to other people’, then she paraphrased it to ‘how do you talk to other people’. She also used Self-Paraphrased.

l) Self-Repair

The students repeated their sentences, but with other sentences that had the same meaning. Knows when he/she makes mistakes and can sometimes self-correct. This strategy was found in the following utterances:

(19) “Grammar is still important for spoken English **espec especially** in more formal scenario, ... and to speak to people with whom your **res respect.**” (SRep, M002)

(20) “According **to the gram to the grammar.**” (SRep, F120)

From data (19) Student A employed Self-Repair by corrected the word “espec” to “especially and “re” to respect”. Through this strategy, the speaker corrected his words himself. From data (20) student E corrected her word “to the gram” instead “to the grammar” this strategy called Self-Repair.

m) Own Accuracy Check

The student was not sure after saying something, then checked it by repeating the word with a question intonation, such as ‘raining?’. This strategy was found in the following utterances:

(21) “They are on the boat in the river a maybe or in on the lake then aa raining?” (OAC, F186)

From data (21) student E giving stress to the word ‘raining’ and ‘rowing’ she repeated a word with a question intonation. This could be seen that she used Own Accuracy Check.

n) Use of Fillers

The students often filled their sentences by *aaa* or *emm* when they thought to gain time, so they could keep the communication and maintain the difficult time. This strategy was found in the following utterances:

(22) “For example, the *aa* debate situation.” (UF, 002)

(23) “I think it's okay if *emm* we don't use the right grammar in informal situations.” (UF, 106)

From data (22) student A used filled his sentence by say ‘*aa*’ to gain time so he could think about what he going to say next. This is called Use of Fillers. From data (23) student E filled her sentence with ‘*emm*’ two times this can be implied as Use of Fillers because she gained time by said ‘*emm*’ while she thinking her next words.

o) Self-Repetition

The students tended to repeat their own word two or more times right after they said it. This strategy was found in the following utterances:

(24) “In order to... to... to avoid the rain, the third one is... is a person punching another person.” (SRpt, M004)

(25) “I can interact interact with the person.” (SRpt, F116)

From data (24) student A used Self-Repetition, because he repeated his own word ‘to’ three times right after he said it. From data (25) student repeat the word ‘interact’ two times right after she said it. this can be employed she used Self-Repetition.

p) Other Repetition

The students repeated the questions from the interlocutor to gain time. This strategy was found in the following utterances:

(26) “What makes me comfortable when speaking is.” (ORpt, M014)

(27) “What is your opinion about grammar is still important in spoken English?” (ORpt, F106)

From data (26) Student A used Other Repetition strategy to gain time by repeated the question “What makes me comfortable when speaking” from the interlocutor. From data (27) Student E repeating the question from interlocutor, this can be employed as Other Repetition because she repeated it to gain time.

q) Marking Circumlocution

The male students described what they meant clearly, but female students tended to describe their word complicated. This strategy was found in the following utterances:

(28) “I usually interact with others depend them on myself, **for example** when ma when other people ... like go, I do not force my when I

other people gather, I do not force myself to gather with them.”

(MC, M012)

(29) “Speaking style or in Bahasa is *cara atau gaya berbicara* maybe.

Actually, **I've never heard about this, but I think** it's how you speak to other people or how do you talk to other people, like do you use a high tone or a low tone? Or do you talk to the point to other people or not, I think something like that.” (MC, F110)

From data (28) student A Marking a Circumlocution by said ‘I usually interact with others depend them on myself, for example when ma when other people ... like go, I do not force my when I other people gather, I do not force myself to gather with them’, he marked his explanation by giving detailed example. From data (29) Student E used verbal marking phrase to signal that the word did not carry the intended meaning perfectly in the L2 code. She said ‘Actually, I've never heard about this, but I think it's how you speak to other people or how do you talk to other people, like do you use a high tone or a low tone? Or do you talk to the point to other people or not, I think something like that’. This could be employed as Marking a Circumlocution.

## **2. The differences between male and female’s Speaking Style in EFL Speaking II Class of English Education Department**

The differences between male and female’s speaking styles as shown in the Appendix 6 and was explained below.

a. Differences in emphasize

Woman often liked to speak in a high-pitch voice, while men tended to use loudness to emphasize points. As the result of interview, men tended to emphasize their points by using pitch of their words.

Example:

M: “Alright, while **speaking**, I usually focus on the information that I bring.” (M008)

The student A stressed the ‘KING’ instead of being loudness.

b. Differences in pronunciation and enunciation

Usually, women had better pronunciation than men. Men tended to use sloppier pronunciation, mumbling, more than women. Based on the results of interview, it was found that women pronounced in incorrect way more than men.

Example:

M: “**Num number** two, is to be confident.” (M036)

F: “still man maintain the feelings of the **interlecture**.” (F166)

The male student’s pronunciation was not full, so he had to repair it, while the pronunciation of female student was in incorrect spelling, she said ‘interlecture’, which should be ‘interlocutor’.

c. Differences in grammar

Women tended to use more precise grammar than men, but there was no grammar rules differences between them. Based on the result,

both male and female students had grammar's errors in using plural/singular noun and tenses formula.

Example:

M: "I usually just think about **those sentence** first." (M022)

F: "The person I'm talking to **is still understands** what I mean."  
(F118)

Look at what male student said, he used 'those' which should be followed by plural noun, but after that he used 'sentence' which was singular, it could be 'sentences'. While, female student was mistakenly in tenses formula, she used present tense in verbal form, but she still added to be 'is' and verb 1 (s/es) after that. It could be 'still understands' without to be anymore.

#### d. Differences in fillers

Men more than women tended to use fillers such as 'like', 'um', 'er', etc. Based on the interview, both male and female used fillers 'like', 'emm', and 'aa'. What made it difference was due to the how many times they use it in a sentence.

Example:

M: "**like...like..like...like...like.**" (M020)

F: "**like...like...like.**" (F198)

Male students said 'like' five times more than female student who said 'like' only three times in a sentence.

e. Differences in hedging

Females more than males tended to use hedging phrases ‘maybe’ and ‘I think’. Look at the result of interview.

Example:

M: “While I am blank while speaking *emm* **maybe** I will slow down my speaking phase.” (M046)

F: “I have thought about it, but **I think** there are no perception.” (F130)

It was found that male students only used one phrase ‘maybe’ and it only appeared twice, while female students used phrase ‘maybe’ and ‘I think’ that appeared more than twice.

f. Differences in intensifiers or boosters

Men tended to use quantifiers, while women tended to use qualifiers. Based on the interview, male students only used ‘sometimes’, while female students used ‘often’ and ‘seldom’.

Example:

M: “I **sometimes** replace it or use it synonym.” (M070)

F: “I am social person, so I **often** start the conversation first.”

Both male and female students did not have any differences in intensifiers, because ‘sometimes’, ‘often’, and ‘seldom’ was actually quantifiers.



g. Differences in shift

Men might be more likely to change the topic than women. When changing the topic, women might be more likely to use conjunctions, while men might be more likely to use interjections. Based on the result of interview, male students did not use any shift when changing the topic, while female students used 'but' and 'and then' when changing the topic.

Example:

F: "I mean like the vocabulary of the information is *a* that I know *aa* **and then** I talk with same age as me." (F196)

It showed that female students used interjections instead of conjunction.

## **B. Discussion**

### **1. Types of Communication Strategies used by students in EFL Speaking II Class of English Education Department**

Based on Dornyei & Scott (1997, pp. 188-193), the total of communication strategies was 44 strategies. Based on finding, there were **17 types of communication strategies** used by the students.

In Message Reduction, the student reduced the message by avoiding the topic they discussed first. Message Reduction or Topic Avoidance supported by Dornyei & Scott (1997, pp. 188-193) was reducing the message by avoiding certain language structures or topics considered problematic language wise or by leaving out some intended elements for

a lack of linguistic resources. While Topic Avoidance from Tarone (1977, 1980) and Bialystock (1990) was the learner's by-passing concepts for which the vocabulary or other meaning structures were not known to them.

In Message Replacement, the student substituted a word that replace the other word because of not feeling capable to executing it at that moment. Message Replacement was substituting the original message with a new one because of not feeling capable of executing it according to Dornyei & Scott (1997, pp. 188-193).

In Circumlocution, the student explained a vocabulary instead of directly said the word. Followed by Dornyei & Scott (1997, pp. 188-193), Circumlocution was exemplifying, illustrating or describing the properties of the target object or action. Tarone (1977, 1980) and Bialystock (1990) explain Circumlocution as the learner's describing the characteristics or elements of an object or action instead of using the appropriate TL structure.

In Approximation, most of the students used another alternative item or related item that still had the same meaning or structure with the actual word. The theory that supported Approximation was Dornyei & Scott (1997, pp. 188-193) was using a single alternative lexical item, such as a superordinate or a related term, which shared semantic features with the target word or structure. While Approximation from Tarone (1977, 1980) and Bialystock (1990) was the use of a target language vocabulary item

or structure, which the learner knew was not correct, but which shared semantic features with the desired item to satisfy the speaker.

In Use of All Purpose Words, the students tended to say empty word several times. Use of All Purpose Words toughen by Dornyei & Scott (1997, pp. 188-193) was extending a general, 'empty' lexical item to contexts where specific words were lacking.

In Literal Translation, the students translate the structure of Bahasa to English. Literal Translation verified in Dornyei & Scott (1997, pp. 188-193) was translating literally a lexical item, an idiom, a compound word or structure from L1/L3 to L2.

In Foreignizing, the student said word in Bahasa, but pronounce it in English. Foreignizing confirmed by Dornyei & Scott (1997, pp. 188-193) was using a L1/L3 word by adjusting it to L2 phonology (i.e., with a L2 pronunciation) and/or morphology.

In Code Switching, the students turned English into Bahasa and continued it in English when speaking. In line, Code Switching according to Dornyei & Scott (1997, pp. 188-193) was including L1/L3 words with L1/L3 pronunciation in L2 speech; this may involve stretches of discourse ranging from single words to whole chunks and even complete turns.

In Use of Similar Sounding Words, the student said other word that had similar pronunciation. Use of Similar Sounding Words validated by Dornyei & Scott (1997, pp. 188-193) was compensating for a lexical item

whose form the speaker was unsure of with a word (either existing or non-existing) which sounded more or less like the target item.

In Mime, the students described what they meant verbally using their finger or others. Mime established by Dornyei & Scott (1997, pp. 188-193) was describing whole concepts nonverbally, or accompanying a verbal strategy with a visual illustration.

In Self-Rephrasing, the students repeated their sentences, but with other sentences that had the same meaning. Self-Rephrasing in Dornyei & Scott (1997, pp. 188-193) was repeating a term, but not quite as it is, but by adding something or using paraphrase.

In Self-Repair, the students corrected their mistakes immediately after they realized it. Self-Repair supported by Dornyei & Scott (1997, pp. 188-193) was making self-initiated corrections in one's own speech.

In Own Accuracy Check, the student was not sure after saying something, then checked it by repeating the word with a question intonation. Own Accuracy Check was proven in Interactional Strategies by Dornyei & Scott (1997, pp. 188-193); Checking that what you said was correct by asking a concrete question or repeating a word with a question intonation.

In Use of Fillers, the students often filled their sentences when they thought to gain time, so they could keep the communication and maintain the difficult time. Use of Fillers was verified in Indirect Strategies by Dornyei & Scott (1997, pp. 188-193) was using gambits to fill pauses, to

stall, and to gain time in order to keep the communication channel open and maintain discourse at times of difficulty.

In Self-Repetition, the students tended to repeat their own word two or more times right after they said it. Self-Repetition in Dornyei & Scott (1997, pp. 188-193) was repeating a word or a string of words immediately after they were said.

In Other Repetition, the students repeated the questions from the interlocutor to gain time. Other Repetition in Dornyei & Scott (1997, pp. 188-193) was repeating something the interlocutor said to gain time.

In Marking a Circumlocution, the students described what they meant. Marking a Circumlocution explained by Dornyei & Scott (1997, pp. 188-193) was using verbal marking phrases before or after a strategy to signal that the word or structure did not carry the intended meaning perfectly in the L2 code.

## **2. The differences between male and female's Speaking Style in EFL Speaking II Class of English Education Department**

In Eunson (2020, pp. 7.12-7.14), there were 28 differences between male and female's verbal speaking style. Based on the finding, there were 7 differences that were found.

Differences in emphasize. Men tended to emphasize their points by using pitch of their words, while female did not emphasize anything. Male student stressed the word instead of being loudness. This finding was different from the theory that stated men tend to use loudness to

emphasize points, while females tend to use pitch and inflection to emphasize points (Eunson, 2020, pp. 7.12-7.14).

Differences in pronunciation and enunciation. Women had incorrect pronunciation more than men. The male student's pronunciation was not full, so he had to repair it, while the pronunciation of female student was in incorrect spelling. This was different from Xia's explanation that usually, female students have better pronunciation than male students, and that can explain the reason why more girls choose to learn language as their major than boys. Generally speaking, girls exhibit a better ability in language (2013, pp. 1485-1487).

Differences in grammar. Both male and female students had grammar's errors in using plural/singular noun and tenses formula. This was also not supported by Eunson (2020, pp. 7.12-7.14) that stated women tend to use more precise grammar in speech than men do, and may be more likely to correct the usage of others.

Differences in fillers. Both male and female students used fillers 'like', 'emm', and 'aa'. What made it difference was due to the how many times they use it in a sentence. Male students use fillers more than female students. This was in line with Eunson (2020, pp. 7.12-7.14) that explained men more than women tend to use speech fillers ('like', 'um', 'er' etc.).

Differences in hedging. Male students only used one phrase 'maybe' and it only appeared twice, while female students used phrase

'maybe' and 'I think' that appeared more than twice. It was supported by Eunson (2020, pp. 7.12-7.14), females more than males tend to use qualifying or hedging phrases ('maybe', 'perhaps', 'you know', 'in my opinion', 'it seems to me').

Differences in intensifiers or boosters. Male students only used 'sometimes', while female students used 'often' and 'seldom'. Both male and female students did not have any differences in intensifiers, because 'sometimes', 'often', and 'seldom' was actually quantifiers. Eunson (2020, pp. 7.12-7.14) had different explanation, he explained that men tend to use quantifiers ('always', 'never', 'all', 'none'), while women tend to use qualifiers ('kind of', 'a bit').

Differences in shift. Male students did not use any shift when changing the topic, while female students used 'but' and 'and then' when changing the topic. On the other hand, Eunson (2020, pp. 7.12-7.14) stated that men may be more likely to change the topic than women. Women may be more likely to use conjunctions when changing topics ('however', 'but', 'and'), while men may be more likely to use interjections ('Oh', 'By the way', 'Listen').