p-ISSN 2598-4101 e-SSN 2615-4706

JOURNAL OF APPLIED STUDIES IN LANGUAGE

JASL Volume 3 Number 1 June 2019

JAJASHIN JOHUMA 2019

Journal of Applied Studies in Language Volume 3 Number 1, June 2019

Editor Team

Dr. Majid Wajdi, M.Pd (Chief Editor) I Nyoman Suka Sanjaya, SS., M.TESOL, Ph.D. (Vice Editor)

Editors

Abdul Kholiq, S.Pd., M.Pd. (Universitas Islam Lamongan, Indonesia) Dr. Ali Farhan AbuSeileek (Al Al-Bayt University, Mafrag, Jordan) Aprianoto, S.Pd., M.Pd. (IKIP Mataram, Indonesia) Catherine Doherty, Ph.D. (University of Glasgow, United Kingdom) Dr. Dewa Putu Ramendra (Universitas Pendidikan Ganesha, Indonesia) Dian Luthfiyati, S.Pd, M.Pd. (Universitas Islam Lamongan, Indonesia) Gusti Nyoman Ayu Sukerti, SS, M.Hum. (Politeknik Negeri Bali, Indonesia) Drs. Ida Bagus Artha Adnyana, M.Hum. (Politeknik Negeri Bali, Indonesia) Dr. I Ketut Suar Adnyana, M.Hum. (Universitas Dwi Jendra Denpasar, Indonesia) Dr. Ikhsanudin Ikhsanudin, M.Hum. (Universitas Tanjungpura, Pontianak, Indonesia) Dr. I Made Iwan Indrawan Jendra, M.Hum. (Institut Hindu Dharma Negeri Denpasar, Indonesia) Dr. I Made Rai Jaya Widanta, M.Hum. (Politeknik Negeri Bali, Indonesia) I Wayan Dana Ardika, S.Pd., M.Pd. (Politeknik Negeri Bali, Indonesia) Dr. Joko Kusmanto (Politeknik Negeri Medan, Indonesia) Dr. Joyce Merawati (Politeknik Negeri Bandung, Indonesia) Dr. Kadek Ratih Dwi Oktarini (Politeknik Negeri Bali, Indonesia) Dr. Lien Darlina, M.Hum. (Politeknik Negeri Bali, Indonesia) Dr. Nengah Arnawa, M.Hum. (IKIP PGRI Bali, Indonesia) Dr. Ni Nyoman Sarmi, M.Hum. (Universitas Dr. Sutomo Surabaya, Indonesia) Dr. Sugeng Hariyanto (Politeknik Negeri Malang, Indonesia) Victoria Tuzlukova, Ph.D. (Sultan Qaboos University, Oman) Prof. Dr. Zeydan Khalaf Omar (University of Anbar, Iraq)

Peer Reviewers

Dr. Agus Sariono (Universitas Negeri Jember, Indonesia) Alan Libert, Ph.D. (University of Newcastle, NSW, Australia) Ali Jahangard, Ph.D. (Sharif University of Technology, Tehran, Iran) Prof. Dr. Bambang Wibisono (Universitas Negeri Jember, Indonesia) Barbara Lewandowska-Tomaszczyk, Ph.D. (State University of Applied Sciences in Konin, Poland) Chamaiporn Buddharat, Ph.D. (Nakhon Si Thammarat Rajabhat University, Thailand) Francisco Yus, Ph.D. (University of Alicante, Spain) Hayriye Kayi-Aydar, Ph.D. (University of Arizona, Tucson, USA) Hesham Suleiman Alyousef, Ph.D. (King Saud University, Riyad, Saudi Arabia) I Nyoman Aryawibawa, Ph.D. (Universitas Udayana, Indonesia) Jonathan Newton, Ph.D. (Victoria University of Wellington, New Zealand) Jos Swanenberg, Ph.D. (Tilburg School of Humanities and Digital Sciences, Netherlands) Josina Vander Klok, Ph.D. [Scopus] (University of Oslo, Norway) Prof. Dr. Jufrizal, M.Hum. (Universitas Negeri Padang, Indonesia) Mahesh B. Shinde, Ph.D. (Kit's College of Engineering, India) Mahmood Hashemian, Ph.D. (Shahrekord University, Iran) Massih Zekavat, Ph.D.] (Yazd University, Iran) Md. Kamrul Hasan, Ph. D. (United International University, Dhaka, Bangladeh)

Prof. Dr. Mohammad Adnan Latief (Universitas Negeri Malang, Indonesia)
Dr. Ni Luh Putu Sri Adnyani (Universitas Pendidikan Ganesha, Indonesia)
Reza Abdi, Ph.D. (University of Mohaghegh Ardabili, Ardabil, Iran)
Ruth Breeze, Ph.D. (University of Navarra, Spain)
Saber Alavi, Ph.D. (Hatyai University, Thailand)
Sebastien Lacrampe, Ph.D. (Australia National University, Australia)
Somaye Akbari, Ph.D. (University of Bayreuth, Germany)
Tariq Elyas, Ph.D. (King Abdulaziz University, Jeddah, Saudia Arabia)
Thomas Conners, Ph.D. (University of Maryland, USA)
Dr. Ummul Khair Ahmad (Universiti Teknologi Malaysia, Malaysia)
Dr. Yvonne Tse Crepaldi (Singapore)

Advisors:

I Nyoman Abdi (Director of Politeknik Negeri Bali) AA Ngurah Mulawarman (First Vice Director of Politeknik Negeri Bali) I Putu Mertha Astawa (Head of Research Centre and Community Services of Politeknik Negeri Bali)

Journal of Applied Studies in Language (JASL) published twice a year in June and December. JASL calls for papers (and reviewers) and book review in Linguistics and Language Teaching. **Linguistics**, including, but not limited to, Phonology, Morphology, Syntax, Semantics, Literature, Pragmatics, Discourse Analysis, Language Acquisition, Sociolinguistics and Psycholinguistics and **Language Teaching**, such as First Language and Second Language Teaching, and Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL).

Contact: JASL Jl. Raya Kampus Bukit Jimbaran, Kuta Selatan, Badung, Bali post-code 80364

Phone: +62-361-701981, fax +62-361-701128

email: jasl@pnb.ac.id

website: http://ojs.pnb.ac.id/index.php/JASL

Preface

In the name of God, the Compassionate the Merciful, Praise be to God, the Lord of the World, who has given us, the authors and editors, an opportunity to disseminate the authors' researches through the Journal of Applied Studies in Language published by Politeknik Negeri Bali. We, the team of editors, of course appreciate all the authors who have submitted the research papers to publish in the journal. We always try hard to serve every author and their research papers, although we realize that it is not a simple task to do.

We are really happy since we are able to publish twelve (12) manuscripts in Volume 3 Number 1, June 2019 on time based the schedule. In the Volume 3 Number 1, published in June 2019, we consistently present twelve (12) research papers. All papers are written by writers and researchers from outside the institution of the publisher where the journal is published and three papers are from outside Indonesia, namely form Iran. It means that the journal is able to invite 100% of the papers from outside of the institution of the publisher. Three papers talk about students speaking skill in teaching and learning of English as foreign language in Indonesian context. Six papers are about teaching and learning both in Indonesia and

outside Indonesia, especially in non-speaking countries, in this case Indonesia and Iran. Two papers are about pragmatics meanings in the advertisement and one paper is about conceptual metaphor of time in Persian and English.

The first paper is Energizing students' academic writing competence through research group activity (A supervisor Intervention. It is followed by the next paper namely Effect of Persian and English colour collocations on L2 learners' proficiency. The third paper is Stimulating students to speak up through presentation in business English class. The fourth paper is Speaking fluency with video vision on machine technology. The fifth paper is Bingo game: hidden treasure among heap of woods (the effectivity of a game in improving students' vocabulary mastery. The sixth paper is A comparative study of the conceptual metaphors of time in Persian and English, and the seventh paper is Pragmatic meaning of advertising discourse in Medan local newspaper. Then the eighth paper is Analysis of English skill obstacles in the electrical engineering students of Politeknik Negeri Manado. The ninth paper is The implementation of VPU method to improve the speaking ability of students (a case study of teaching Efl at SMAN 2 Kupang). The tenth paper is Interpretation of verbal and visual signs in education advertisements: submission of new university students. The eleventh paper is Application model of students team achievement division (stad) in English class. The last or the twelfth paper is The effects of using diverse vocabulary learning strategies on word mastery: a review.

Majid Wajdi Chief Editor

Journal of Applied Studies in Language

website: http://ojs.pnb.ac.id/index.php/JASL

Volume 3 Number 1, June 2019

p-ISSN 2598-4101 e-ISSN 2615-4706

Table of Content	page
Energizing students' academic writing competence through research group activity by Lastika Ary Prihandoko	1—9
Effect of Persian and English colour collocations on L2 learners' proficiency by Mahmood Hashemian	10—20
Stimulating students to speak up through presentation in business English class by Lia Agustina	21—28
Improving speaking fluency using video vision by Yuliana Ningsih, Adhiela Noer Syaief	29—36
Bingo game: hidden treasure among heap of woods (the effectivity of a game in improving	
students' vocabulary mastery) by Eka Afrida Ermawati, Ely Trianasari	37—42
A comparative study of the conceptual metaphors of time in Persian and English by Arsalan Golfam, Amir Ghorbanpour, Nader Mahdipour	43—55
Pragmatic meaning of advertising discourse in Medan local newspaper by Desri Wiana	56—62
Analysis of English skill obstacles of electrical engineering students of	
Politeknik Negeri Manado by Maya Munaiseche, Grace Pontoh, Decire Wagiu	63—70
The implementation of VPU method to improve students speaking ability by Fransiskus Xaverius Ivan Rahas	71—80
The interpretation of verbal and visual signs in the education advertisements by Komang Dian Puspita Candra, IGA Vina Widiadnya Putri	81—90
Implementation of student team achievement division (stad) in the English course for the mechanical engineering department by Ely Trianasari, Ika Yuniwati	91—99
The effects of using diverse vocabulary learning strategies on word mastery:	
a review. by Nasim Mehrabian, Hadi Salehi	100—114

Energizing students' academic writing through research group activity

Lastika Ary Prihandoko

English Literature Department, Universitas Musamus, Merauke, Papua email: prihandoko@unmus.ac.id

Abstract - The outcome of having a manuscript published in reputable international journals leads students to various challenges. The supervisor has an essential role in succeeding students to achieve this goal. This study aims to determine the position of the supervisor in guiding students to have a publication in reputable international journals by a research group activity. This study focuses on retrieving data from three non-native speakers (NNS) supervisors who guide graduate students majoring in chemistry who have manuscripts published in reputable international journals. Data were obtained by interview method. This research uses the qualitative approach with descriptive analysis. Based on the data collected, the mentor has a crucial role in succeeding the students to have reputable international manuscript publications. Interventions conducted by supervisor varied from the selection of a title to the choice of journal publisher.

Keywords: research article, academic writing, energizing students

1. Introduction

Academics around the world are in a race to increase the number of publications. This phenomenon is felt by a native speaker (NS) and non-native speaker (NNS) academics around the world (Luo and Hyland, 2016). Indonesia that is EFL country also experienced this phenomenon. About the number of publications, academics in Indonesia are finding difficulties in publishing their manuscripts in the accredited national journal (Arsyad, 2016). They will have more complicated distress when publishing a manuscript in internationally reputable journals (Arsyad, 2017). English skills are seen as an essential requirement in manuscript writing to support academic careers globally (Hyland, 2013, Luo and Hyland, 2016).

Academics put manuscript publications as an essential activity in their life. By having publications, academics will gain an appreciation for their career and reputation (Jiang et al., 2016). Also, the manuscripts written by academics will also be communicating media to the academic discourse community (Plakhotnik and Rocco, 2013). Manuscripts made by academics to interact with the academic community have a particular characteristic. The manuscript needs to convince the reader of the coherency of ideas and arguments (Lin, 2017).

Academics must have adequate academic writing skills to publish their manuscripts in reputable international journals. Improving the ability of academic writing is not an easy task because it relates to several aspects that must be mastered. Writing proficiency is inseparable from grammar mastery (Munoz-Luna, 2015), cognitive ability (Bacha, 2002), and ability to understand the structure of writing, especially following the manuscripts writing a composition (Rakedzon and Baram-Tsabari, 2016). Moreover, the structure of the scientific paper (IMRAD) is widely used in both the science and social science disciplines (Bertin et al., 2015; Wu, 2011).

Academics have to struggle harder to improve the skill of academic writing. In writing, specifically manuscript writing, it is considered as ordinary activities for those who already have enough experience, but it is not an easy task for those who have limited experience in writing manuscripts (Ho, 2017). In general, about writing skills, NS has a challenge in writing, it will be more perceived by NNS (Morton et al., 2015). Finally, to improve writing skills, academics should also extend the scope of research as well as their writing skills (Ho, 2017).

Writing manuscripts for international publications can be regarded as a challenging task. Despite academics need quite complex abilities to be able to draft a research article, this state does not degrade their desire to write a paper for publication. There is still a high interest in publishing manuscripts viewed from the different number of publications with various disciplines and geographic locations (Lillis et al., 2010). Writing a research article for publication is vital for academics as it relates to their need to communicate with the scientific community (Kwan, 2013; Lillis and Curry, 2010; Rakedzon and Tsabari, 2016).

Problems encountered when writing manuscripts to be published in international journals are varied. English language skills become problems for NNS academics (Curry and Lillis, 2004; Jiang et al., 2016), the obligation of having manuscript publication put them in pressure (Jiang et al., 2016), and they also had prejudice from the reviewer (Jiang et al., 2016). In the Indonesia context, the government represented by the Ministry of Research, Technology, and Higher Education emphasises the quality improvement of all universities in Indonesia. The obligation to have a publication will

have the effect of putting pressure on the lecturers as well as supervisors who have to do research and write manuscripts for publication. Furthermore, they also have a role in guiding students in writing a research article to be published as an obligation for a graduation requirement.

Problems present in the manuscript writing is also inseparable from the character of academics in Indonesia itself. Academics in Indonesia have an entirely different style from neighbouring countries, especially in Southeast Asia itself. The condition that is quite crucial related to the literacy index. Reading habits, especially in English, are deficient because the majority of the students only read with the motive of completing tasks that lead to low index literacy (Iftanti, 2012). Although the students in Indonesia mostly learn English from elementary school, they are not motivated to enjoy English reading (Iftanti, 2012).

Besides the lack of reading habits, students also have other problems related to learning English. Students have limited access to English materials such as listening, speaking, writing, and reading (Sawir, 2005). Students are positioned as a passive learner that focuses on grammar and has limited exposure to use English (Sawir, 2005). This condition leads to problems for higher students when they have to become academics who need sufficient English skills to support their careers in the academic world.

This study aims to analyze the assistance of supervisors as external overcoming strategies received by students in writing papers or manuscripts to be published in international journals. Previous studies had discussed the overcoming plans from NS (Flowerdew, 1999: Cho, 2004), writing together with NS (Cho, 2004), using literacy broker services (Lillis and Curry, 2006), writing workshop (Kapp, 2011), and writing retreat (Benvuti, 2017). However, none of them put the NNS supervisor as the focus of the study. By surveying supervisors who assist the students in writing manuscripts, it is expected to provide information from different angles about the other overcoming strategies. Finally, this research is supposed to be a practical step for other supervisors and universities who want to increase the number of manuscript publications through strategic policies.

Supervisors have a crucial role in intervening students in writing manuscripts based on the institutions strategic policies to improve their reputation by increasing the number of publications. In the Asian context, several universities in China, Hong Kong, and Taiwan are striving to improve their institution ranking globally (Lo and Weng, 2005). Not only limited to the three countries, the desire to compete in developing the classification of institutions globally which is used as a benchmark of the university's reputation also affects other Asian universities (Tie 2012). With global competition, universities increase research funds to enhance the quality of manuscripts that operated as a benchmark index of citation (Jiang et al., 2015; Tie, 2012). Moreover, the university ranking will also rise if the manuscript is published in reputable international journals and has sufficient citation frequency (Tie, 2012). Universities provide full support for supervisors to have manuscripts publications and to guide students to have publications to increase their international ranking.

Interventions conducted by supervisors in writing manuscripts for international publications have specific goals. The intervention to the writing process is expected to help the university to improve reputation based on global rankings. Some of the interventions conducted by universities include holding manuscript writing programs in the form of workshops, publication awards, and graduation requirement (Tie, 2012;

Lillis et al., 2010; Luo & Hyland, 2016). Moreover, the university also provides intensive writing courses (Bacha, 2002; Rakedzon and Tsabari, 2016).

In this research, the strategies done by the supervisor to assist the student is the mentoring activity. Mentoring is an essential key to improving the productivity of manuscript publications in international journals (Stevens et al., 2010). Supervisors perform several steps in mentoring in the form of guidance, consultation, and support to students who are novice writers (Kram cited in Stevens et al., 2010). Especially in mentoring, the supervisor not only performed as a mentor, but also as an advisor, supporter, tutor, master, sponsor, and role model (Stevens et al., 2010).

2. Method

Purposive sampling technique is applied to choose the subject of this study. The study focuses on three supervisors from three graduate students majoring in chemistry that have published manuscripts in reputable international journals. They were named into the pseudonymous name as Esa, Dwi, and Tri. The three supervisors have doctoral degrees in chemistry and work as lecturers in the chemistry department at the faculty of mathematics and sciences. They actively teach and guide students at one of the famous state universities in Surakarta, Indonesia. Supervisors also had numerous manuscripts published in reputable international journals with Q1-Q3 ranges in Scimago database. They also become reviewers of national journals and invited reviewers in several international journals.

The three supervisors were interviewed using a guided interview technique. The guided interview instrument is based on the preliminary study that had been conducted on the students under their supervision. The initial study aims to determine what factors become obstacles for students in the process of writing the manuscripts. The guided interview instrument focuses on supervisor interventions related to their activities in guiding students in the manuscript writing process.

There are seven questions included in the guided interview. The interview was conducted with Esa on March 16, 2018, Dwi on March 23, 2018, and Tri on April 3, 2018. Data obtained from guided interviews were then analyzed qualitatively. The data are presented orderly based on the sequence of questions contained in the guided interview. The questions in a guided interview are as follows:

- a. Why do you initiate a research group to improve students' academic writing competence?
- b. What kind of process is undertaken in a research group activity?
- c. What kind of problems dealt with by students that you need to intervene?
- d. How do you overcome those problems?
- e. What academic writing skills should students possess to write a research article to be submitted in a reputable international journal?

3. Results and Discussion

The data obtained reveal that the supervisors have an important role in the success of students to have manuscripts published in reputable international journals. From the interview sessions, the findings showed that supervisors had a role in selecting the topic of writing manuscripts until selecting the journal publisher where the manuscripts would be submitted. There is a policy underlies the supervisor to guide students in

writing manuscripts. University was issuing written policies regarding graduate students that must publish their manuscripts as a graduation requirement. The chemistry department applies this rule through supervisors to guide students to have manuscripts published in reputable international journals. The explanation of supervisors are as follows:

Especially for graduate and postgraduate program, according to the Rector's Policy number 582, the students must publish their manuscript as a graduation requirement. The supervisor has the responsibility of guiding the students to have the publication. For graduate students in the chemistry department, the supervisors are particularly obligated to assist students in writing manuscripts to be published in reputable international journals (Esa).

Lecturers in the chemistry department implemented the rector's policy by having publications in international journals in the level of the Scopus index. The Head of department encourages multiply the publication to show the performance of the chemistry department (Tri).

Moreover, the supervisor has a research project every year. They need students to assist in their research and write manuscripts based on the subtopics of the research project. Supervisors provide general topics and students choose which subtopics they want to select and then write the subtopics. The explanation of supervisors are as follows.

I have a research project. I offered the students to choose the subtopic within the research project. Then the students choose subtopic. I ordered them to read the manuscript thoroughly based on their related subtopic focus (Dwi).

Lecturers have research projects yearly. Lecturers are impossible to research by themselves especially in the laboratory. They must recruit the students as their assistants. Then the students assist the lecturers in doing a lecturer research project (Esa).

Also, supervisors have intrinsic factors that encourage them to guide students to have a manuscript published in reputable international journal publisher. There is a productive atmosphere between lecturers and students in the chemistry department. Lecturers have the desire to have research and publish the results of their research manuscript to reputable international journals. Students also have a desire to assist lecturers in doing the research and write manuscripts to be published in reputable international journals.

Students are willing to learn and willing to be guided in researching and writing. This academic atmosphere eventually encouraged supervisors and chemistry students to be productive in doing research and writing the result into a manuscript to be published in a reputable international journal. Supervisors also have a desire for students to have achievement during their studies. The achievement is expected to give them a real portfolio when they apply for the job. Thus, they will acquire more easily as their CV has excellent achievement record. The description from Esa is as follows:

The first motivation, writing manuscripts is a requirement for graduation. Research atmosphere in the chemistry department is created to be productive. Those who have manuscript publication will have pride. All the lecturer wishes what has been resulted from research can be published in reputable international journals. By these circumstances, that lecturers must support the students to write. Lecturers have motivation as well as the students. Moreover, lecturers are motivated to have a research outcome (Esa).

The process undertaken during research group activity was various. Supervisors monitor students' progress related to the research in the laboratory and write manuscripts to meet the research timeline. In the first phase, supervisors continue to monitor the results of research conducted in the laboratory based on logbook submitted by students. Supervisors require students to write about their activities in the lab each day as well as problems that arise during the research process in the lab. Problems that arise will be solved together with the supervisor. Supervisors also provide research fund as research in the laboratory costs highly. The research funds are provided for a student under the lecturer's research project.

When the research process in the laboratory is complete, the students start writing the draft. The supervisor scrutinizes the students' draft and provides discussion seasons for the revision process before the manuscript will be sent to the reputable international journal publisher. Supervisors assist students in improving the draft quality by correcting students' draft. They also provide similarity checker and proofreading facilities for the draft written by the students. The similarity checker and proofreading expenses become supervisor responsibility. The last process of selecting a journal publisher laid on the supervisor. The supervisors choose the journal scope and credibility. The explanation is as follows:

Weekly I ask students for their resume or research progress. I may provide them with manuscript references related to their subtopic. I ask each student to have a logbook. Thus, I can monitor their progress (Dwi).

The problems raised during the research group are varied. The hardest condition when doing mentoring is that the students do not understand what the supervisor implied. The students hardly interpret my direction because they are novice writers as they have limited experience in writing manuscripts. Another condition that makes it difficult when the mentoring process is that students have slow progress in research thereby hampering the research and publication process. Another difficult condition that arises is that students are less disciplined in doing research and writing. Students who often procrastinate the work is quite difficult for mentors to conduct guidance because they usually do not dare to meet mentors. The research project has a rigorous timetable because it is related to the manuscript-publishing deadline so that if a student takes a subtopic of a lecturer research project and does not do it on schedule, it will be a problem for the supervisor. The explanation of supervisor 3 is as follows:

The difficult condition is that the students do not understand what I implied. However, by two to three times the mentoring process, they will understand. Also, students are willing to accept criticism, suggestions, and revisions (Tri).

Besides, supervisors handle problems that arise in the mentoring process by holding a discussion session with the students when they have submitted the manuscript drafts. Counsellors need to hold a discussion session because if there is no meeting, then the student may be confused to follow the process of revision of the supervisor. Furthermore, supervisors also form a research group that accommodates students under the guidance of supervisors to conduct research and manuscript writing according to the planned schedule in the lecturers' research project. In the research group, students will report their progress in front of their mentor and other students. Students will also communicate their issues in research and manuscript writing. This research group aims to boost students to work productively according to the current schedule of the lecturers' research project.

Guided students must possess several requirements to write a research article. Students are required to have a willingness to want to write, learn, and never give up in doing research and writing manuscripts. The supervisor does not need the achievement of specific high remark that must be owned by students. If the student is willing to learn and receive feedback from the supervisor, the supervisor is ready to guide the student. Supervisor also does not require students must have a high English proficiency because the supervisor assumes the ability of English, especially also academic writing will increase along with the student has a manuscript published in Scopus. Supervisors also ask students to be confident, disciplined in arranging a time and willing to read reference sources related to their research topic. The willingness to read is considered to be important because if the student has sufficient information by reading the manuscript, they will have a broad and deep understanding coverage to be written in their manuscript. The explanation of supervisors are as follows:

The important thing is that students have confidence. Scopus is just a means to practice. If the student is already used to writing, it will be beneficial for them (Tri).

Students must be willing to write. They should understand the concept of writing, for example, making introductions, identifying problems, formulating problems. If students are quite tricky to understand this concept, the manuscript will be imperfect (Esa).

About question number seven, the most crucial thing for supervisors during the process of guiding students to write manuscripts are various. Increased student ability after research and manuscript writing is a pride for supervisors. Supervisors also have pride when students can publish their manuscripts in reputable international journals indexed by Scopus. Supervisors feel useful if they can guide students to have the achievement. Another exciting thing is that counsellors like students who want to learn and receive input from mentors.

The data obtained shows the key to the success of students in having a manuscript published in reputable international journals lies in the ability of mentors in guiding students to research and write manuscripts. The mentoring activities undertaken by supervisors are considered as practical strategies of international publication (Stevens et al., 2010). In the mentoring process, there is the acquisition of knowledge (The Rackham School of Graduate Studies, 2006) because it contains numerous procedures that include support, guidance, and consultation from academics who have sufficient

experience to academics with limited experience (Kram cited in Stevens et al., 2010).

Concerning previous research on assistance for academics in having international publications, the presence of NS to help novice writers to improve the quality of manuscripts regarded as significant (Cho, 2004; Lillis and Curry, 2006; Jiang, 2016) because the background of NS can be a co-author as well as the audience (Connor, 1999). Having assistance from NS is not the only strategy to improve the quality of the manuscript. As having NS assistance will lead to a sensitive issue about power positions and co-authoring issues (Cho, 2004), having qualified NNS guidance can be an alternative strategy. From this study proves that having an NNS supervisor with excellent qualifications and work ethics can also encourage students to have manuscripts published in reputable international journals.

4. Conclusion

Supervisors have a role in supporting students to have the manuscript publication of reputable international journals. The supervisor must have excellent ability in writing manuscripts so they will guide the students properly. With a lecturer research project, the supervisor has a role in determining the title of the research until the publisher of the journal for the manuscript created. There is a symbiotic mutualism between the supervisor and the student because the supervisor got the assistance in conducting the research project while the student has the opportunity to learn writing manuscripts under the supervisor's guidance.

References

- Arsyad, S. & Adila, D. (2017). Using local style when writing in English: the citing behaviour of Indonesian authors in English research article introductions. Asian Englishes, 8678(May), 1–16. https://doi.org/10.1080/13488678.2017.1327835
- Arsyad, S. & Arono. (2016). Potential problematic rhetorical style transfer from first language to foreign language: a case of Indonesian authors writing research article introductions in English. Journal of Multicultural Discourses, 11(3), 315–330. https://doi.org/10.1080/17447143.2016.1153642
- Bacha, NN. (2002). Developing learners' academic writing skills in higher education: A study for educational reform. Language and Education, 16(3), 161-177.
- Benvenuti, S. (2017). Pedagogy of peers: Cultivating writing retreats as communities of academic writing practice. South African Journal of Higher Education, 31(2), 89-107.
- Bertin, M., Atanassova, I., Larivière, V., & Gingras, Y. (2015). Mapping the linguistic context of citations. Bulletin of the Association for Information Science and Technology. 41(2), 26-29.
- Cho, S. (2004). Challenges of entering discourse communities through publishing in English: Perspectives of nonnative-speaking doctoral students in the United States of America. Journal of Language, Identity, and Education, 3(1), 47-72.
- Connor, U. (1999). Learning to write academic prose in a second language: A literacy autobiography. In G. Braine (Ed.), Non-native educators in English language teaching (pp. 29–42). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.
- Curry, MJ. & Lillis, T. (2004). Multilingual scholars and the imperative to publish in English: Negotiating interests, demands, and rewards. Tesol Quarterly, 38(4), 663-688.
- Febriyanti, GAAA, Dewi, NKSL, & Dewi, IGAAIRC. (2018). Using self-assessment to assess rural young learners' writing skills in English foreign language classroom. *Journal of Applied Studies in Language*, 2(2), 109—115. doi:10.31940/jasl.v2i2.1065
- Flowerdew, J. (1999). Writing for scholarly publication in English: The case of Hong Kong. Journal of Second Language Writing, 8(2), 123-145.

- Ho, MC. (2017). Navigating scholarly writing and international publishing: Individual agency of Taiwanese EAL doctoral students. Journal of English for Academic Purposes, 27, 1-13.
- Hyland, K. (2013). The challenges of ESP writing. In B. Paltridgeand & S. Starfield (Eds.), Handbook of English for Specific Purposes. West Sussex: Blackwell publishing, John Wiley & Sons; 2013. P. 95–113.
- Iftanti, E. (2012). A survey of the English reading habits of EFL students in Indonesia. Teflin Journal, 23(2), 149-164.
- Jiang, X., Borg, E., & Borg, M. (2017). Challenges and coping strategies for international publication: perceptions of young scholars in China. Studies in Higher Education, 42(3), 428-444.
- Kapp, CA., Albertyn, RM., & Frick, BL. (2011). Writing for publication: An intervention to overcome barriers to scholarly writing. South African Journal of Higher Education, 25(4), 741-759
- Kwan, BSC. (2013). Facilitating novice researchers in project publishing during the doctoral years and beyond: A Hong Kong-based study. Studies in Higher Education, 38(2), 207-225.
- Lastari, NKH. & Saraswati, PRTAKH. (2018). The use of mind mapping to improve writing skill of the eighth grade students of junior high school. *Journal of Applied Studies in Language*, 2(2), 44-150. doi:10.31940/jasl.v2i2.1057
- Lillis, TM. and MJ. Curry. 2006. "Professional Academic Writing by Multilingual Scholars: Interactions with Literacy Brokers." Written Communication 23 (1): 3–35.
- Lillis, TM., & Curry, MJ. (2010). Academic writing in global context. London: Routledge.
- Lillis, T., Magyar, A., & Robinson-Pant, A. (2010). An international journal's attempts to address inequalities in academic publishing: developing a writing for publication programme. Compare, 40(6), 781-800.
- Lin-Siegler, X. (2017). The master of clarity and precision. Cognitive Development from a Strategy Perspective: A Festschrift for Robert Siegler.
- Lo, YW. and Weng, FY. (2005) Taiwan's responses to globalization: decentralization and internationalization of higher education, in: Tie, F. H. (2012). Research publication as a strategy to improve international academic ranking. International Journal of Leadership in Education, 15(4), 437-450.
- Luo N, Hyland K. (2016) Chinese academics writing for publication: English teachers as text mediators. Journal of Second Language Writing 2016; 33: 43–55.
- Morton, J., Storch, N., & Thompson, C. (2015). What our students tell us: Perceptions of three multilingual students on their academic writing in first year. Journal of Second Language Writing, 30, 1-13.
- Munoz-Luna, R. (2015). Main ingredients for success in L2 academic writing: Outlining, drafting and proofreading. PloS one, 10(6), e0128309.
- Plakhotnik, MS., & Rocco, TS. (2013). Organizational culture: A literature review of the AHRD 1994-2005 Proceedings.
- Rakedzon, T. & Baram-Tsabari, A. (2016). Assessing and improving L2 graduate students' popular science and academic writing in an academic writing course. Educational Psychology, 37(1), 48-66.
- Rackham School of Graduate Studies. (2006). A guide for faculty at a diverse university. University of Michigan. http://www.rackham.umich.edu/
 StudentInfo/Publications/FacultyMentoring/Fmentor [Accessed 27 Nov. 2017].
- Sawir, E. (2005). Language difficulties of international students in Australia: The effects of prior learning experience. International Education Journal, 6(5), 567-580.
- Stevens, DD., Emil, S., & Yamashita, M. (2010). Mentoring through reflective journal writing: A qualitative study by a mentor/professor and two international graduate students. Reflective Practice, 11(3), 347-367.
- Tie, FH. (2012). Research publication as a strategy to improve international academic ranking. International Journal of Leadership in Education, 15(4), 437-450.
- Wu, J. (2011). Improving the writing of research papers: IMRAD and beyond.

Effect of Persian and English colour collocations on L2 learners' proficiency

Mahmood Hashemian

English Department, Faculty of Letters & Humanities Shahrekord University, Iran email: hashemian-m@sku.ac.ir

Abstract - Collocations play an important role in L2 teaching and learning. The present study investigated the effect of colour collocations in L2 learning. This study was done in 2 phases: In the first phase, the frequency of colour collocations was calculated in English and Persian. Two lists of English and Persian colour collocations were chosen. Each list included 100 colour collocations. The English collocations were chosen from English collocation dictionaries, but the Persian colour collocations were chosen by the Persian native speakers. Chi-square results indicated that there were some differences between the 2 languages, but the differences were not statistically significant.

In the second phase, the (possible) effect of colour collocations on upper-intermediate and advanced L2 learners' proficiency was investigated. Sixty upper-intermediate and advanced L2 learners, both male and female, were chosen from a private language institute in Isfahan, Iran. The minimum and maximum ages of the participants were about 15-38, and their homogeneity was tested by the OPT. Participants were given a pretest in order to measure their colour collocational knowledge. Then, after the treatment, a posttest was administered. Results revealed that teaching collocations had a significant effect on the participants' proficiency.

Keywords: collocation, colour, 12 proficiency, Persian and English

1. Introduction

Using collocations is an irrefutable part of everyday life. No one can deny the extreme usage of collocations in everyday conversations, writing, reading, and so forth. collocations are used to express abstract meanings and make them more concrete. According to *The Etymology Dictionary*, the word *collocation* is derived from the Latin word *collocationsem*, which means "place together." Its linguistic sense has been used since 1940. *Oxford Dictionary* has defined that collocations are the pair or a group of words that are habitually juxtaposed. Usually, L2 learners confuse collocations with idioms or proverb. Idiom is a phrase or a fixed expression that has a figurative meaning whose figurative meaning is different from its literal meaning. At the other part, there is proverb. Proverb is usually a sentence which is popularly known and repeated that expresses a truth based on common sense or the practical experience of humanity. They are often metaphorical. Proverbs are often borrowed from similar languages and cultures.

Collocations play an important role in everyday life. They are used in a vast variety of contexts and in many aspects of our life to express our thoughts or actions in a metaphorical manner. Collocations are divided into many different groups and can be categorized from different perspectives. Collocations define the relationship between words that come together often. They can come from idioms like *take a break* or a combination of words which are used more in the everyday conversation like *get on a bus*. According to Hill (2000), collocations can fall into two or more words and contain the following components: (1) ADJ + N, (2) N + N, (3) V + ADJ + N, (4) V + ADV, (5) ADV + V, (6) ADV + ADJ, (7) V + PRE + N. Some collocations are longer than what is mentioned before.

From another view, collocations are two types: strong and weak. Strong collocations are where that link between two words is quite fixed and restricted. Weak collocations are where a word can collocate with many other words (Shammas, 2013). Because focusing on all types consumes a large amount of time and would exceed the length of this study, this research mainly focused on collocations in dictionaries and, more especially, on collocations containing colours.

Colour is an important factor that makes us feel and think. Let us see the concept of *colour* from two different views: First, colours have their own meanings from the psychological view; for instance, yellow is a high colour which stands for a bright sense and the ability of analyzing. Second is the cultural view which refers to the different meanings that each culture or even each person can interpret by seeing a certain colour. Here, yellow has two totally different meanings in English and Persian cultures. Although in English yellow is the colour of respect, for Iranian, yellow is the colour of hatred.

Rohrer (1994) mentioned that "colour has many different meanings to different people and cultures. We all have our own favorite colours. People like different colour like they like different foods" (p. 29). Because of all these reasons, humans have symbolized a particular colour for one specific meaning and emotions along many years. Some of these symbolized meanings have become universal and some are culture-specific. Combinations of this symbolic colour with the field of collocations which is unrestricted part of people daily conversations have produced a vast number of colour collocations (e.g., blue blooded, black box, green card).

Collocations play a consequential role in learning an L2 and, more specifically, on L2 learners' proficiency. By being aware about the fact that collocations are fixed phrases which are used continuously in English as an L2 in this study, using them by L2 learners will make the context more understandable for native speakers. Because of these reasons, if L2 learners use these collocational phrases more frequently, the message will be more understandable and more predictable. In addition, some misunderstandings based on wrong spellings in writing, wrong pronunciations in speaking cannot have an effect on the main idea behind the written text or the utterance.

From what was indicated before, it is becoming increasingly difficult to ignore the significant role of collocations in L2 learners' proficiency. Learning how to use collocations helps them to be more proficient in all four skills, notably in the productive skills of speaking and writing. One of the recognizable advantages of learning collocations for L2 learners is that they will sound more native-like. Collocational knowledge allows us to say and write like a native speaker (Nation, 2001). Additionally, learning collocations can help L2 learners make use of the language they know. Woolard (2000) claimed that "learning more vocabulary is not just learning new words; it is often learning familiar word in new combination" (p. 31).

Collocations can be categorized in enormous ways: They can be categorized by their meanings or the type of words combined together to make collocations. Here in the current study, the focus was on collocations which contain colours. As long as colours in different cultures have different meanings, this study was an attempt to figure out the (possible) effect of different meanings, which is because of cultural differences, on the frequency of colour collocations. In phase two, the effect of frequency on L2 learners' learning was examined. Here, frequency relates to the frequency of colour collocations in the English and Persian languages.

It is difficult to express the exact meanings of collocations because the meanings are not fixed yet. However, experts define collocations from different views. Cowie (1981) defines collocations as "the occurrence of two or more lexical items as realizations of structural elements within a given syntactic pattern" (p. 81). He made a distinction between collocations and idioms by the way that idioms are at the field of semantics rather than structure. He noted that collocations have a huge variety, whereas idioms do not have such this variety. "In English, as in other languages, there are many fixed, identifiable, nonidiomatic phrases and constructions," Benson (1986, p. 91) said. He called these groups of words *recurrent combinations* or *collocations*. Benson divided collocations into two major groups: grammatical and lexical. As he reported, collocations are words in which two parts are included: The first word is in dominating part (e.g., verbs, nouns, adjectives), and the second one is in the subordinate part.

According to Cruse (1989), collocations are defined as sequences of lexical items that co-occur habitually. He made a contrast between collocations and idioms. He stated that a semantic constituent is shaped by these sequences. He also considered context as a critical factor in expressing the meaning of semantic constituent. In 1998, Larson claimed that collocations are a group of words which occur repeatedly in a language. He also added that collocations may refer to the co-occurrence of words which can be grammatical or lexical.

Cowie revealed a new definition for collocations in 1992. He mentioned that a collocation is a unity. Additionally, collocations can be divided into two subcategories: semantical and grammatical. He has pointed out "collocations are made from two or

more lexical items with grammatical pattern, one is used in a literal sense and one is in as figurative sense" (p. 122).

A significant practical research in this field is the research done by Nofal (2012). He worked in the differences between collocations in English and Arabic. He studied the differences in lexicography, translation, and interpretations of Arabic and English collocations. He especially focused on that area to bring out the nature and significance of collocations and the kind of relation between the collocations in these two languages. He concluded that English and Arabic have come up with similar definitions and categories but may differ in their focuses.

In 2013, Faghih and Mehdizade worked on a contrastive analysis research of patterns of grammatical collocations between English and Azari-Turkish. They worked on collocations based on Benson's (1986) classification and compared and contrast them with their Azari-Turkish translations. As a conclusion, the authors mentioned that collocations tend to appear in different patterns and orders in English and Turkish.

Eslami-Rasekh and Ghafel (2011) made a contrastive cross-cultural analysis in the metaphorical expressions of basic colours in English and Persian. They especially took Lakoff and Johnson's (1980) conceptual metaphor theory as their framework. They noted that although colouors share common connotative grounds in the two languages, they do not guarantee the same meaning in these cultures. They are more culture-specific in each language.

Brown (1974) discussed the benefits of collocations in second language acquisition (SLA) by reporting that collocations improved the learners' oral communications, listening comprehension, and reading speed. Also, teaching collocations provided a situation that the learners could be aware of language chunks used by native speakers in both speech and writing. Cowie (1992) supported this raim, too. He considered collocations as multiword units. He said "it is impossible to perform at a level acceptable to native users, in writing, or speaking, without controlling an appropriate rang of multiword units" (p. 4).

Channel (1981) emphasized the awareness of L2 learners because of the importance of collocations in increasing their communications' power. Channel believed that collocations provide contexts and chance for word association. Both of them are necessary for learning new words and by learning new words, their communication ability will be improved. Nattinger (1980) said "language production includes piecing together the readymade units appropriate for particular situations and that comprehension rely on knowing which of these patterns to predict in these situations" (p. 341).

As long as learning collocations is known as a major responsibility in SLA, teaching collocations becomes more important and gets the attentions of L2 researchers to find out what the essential parameters in teaching collocations in L2 classrooms are.

One of the first empirical researches in this field was a research done by Channel (1981). This research examined the L2 knowledge of collocations by using a "collocational grid" (p. 231). In her study, collocational grid was used to test ADJ + N. It was revealed that the students failed to recognize most of the acceptable collocations, even though they knew the words in isolation. She concluded that raising L2 learners' awareness about collocations is necessary to improve their fluency in an L2.

Fargal and Obiedat (1995) investigated a research study in this field. They provided two questionnaires with 22 English collocations with different topics, for instance, food, weather, and clothes. They had two groups: one with 34 English college

students and another one with 23 English students at higher college in teaching. They concluded that the learners used different strategies to answer the questionnaire, but among strategies, synonyms were used more frequently.

Another empirical study in this field is the research done by Saadat Kiaee, Moghaddam, and Hoseini (2013). They worked on the effect of collocations on EFL learners' reading comprehension in the intermediate level of proficiency. They chose 70 students from a language institute and divided them into two groups: control and experimental. They concluded that teaching collocations could play a significant role in enhancing EFL learners' reading comprehension.

2. Method

In order to limit the number of effective variables, the participants were chosen from the classes with a similar background. They were selected from upper-intermediate and advanced levels. Sixty L2 learners were selected. All participants were chosen from upper-intermediate and advanced classes, but in order to be make sure about their homogeneity, the Oxford Placement Test (OPT) was conducted to make them homogenized.

Two lists of collocations were chosen: one in English and one in Persian. Each list contained 100 collocations containing the selected colours. The English collocations were chosen from different monolingual dictionaries such as *Oxford Collocation Dictionary*, *Longman Collocation Dictionary*, and *Macmillan Collocation Dictionary*. In order to make the list shorter, the collocations which were listed more often were chosen. For the purpose of this study, just some specific colours were selected (black, white, red, green, yellow, and blue).

The Persian collocations were selected from different sources. Due to lack of authentic and valid sources in Persian for collocations, this process was more complicated than the first one. The first source was dictionary. *Dehkhoda* and *Moein* were used as common and valid dictionaries in Persian. Because the number of collocations would not suffice, the Persian native speakers were asked to write the colour collocations they used in their everyday conversations as much as they could, but before that they totally understood what was called collocation. These lists were checked by an expert in Persian grammar in order to find out if they were collocations or not, then categorized and, after that, 100 more frequent collocations were selected.

Oxford Placement Test (OPT)

The OPT is an internationally reliable and valid paper-based test (Khalili and Mahsefat, 2012). The test was administered to determine the proficiency level of the participants and check their homogeneity. In this study, the second version of the OPT was used. According to its manual, the learners whose scores are between 0—15 were considered as beginners, between 16—23 considered as elementary, between 24—30 as lower-intermediate, and between 31—40 as upper-intermediate and advanced. Thus, in order to achieve the aim of the study, L2 learners with the score less than 31 were excluded from the test.

Two kinds of test were conducted in this study in order to calculate the participants' collocational knowledge before and after the treatment. The first test was a pretest and the second one was a posttest. The pretest was specifically designed to calculated the L2 learners' proficiency in collocations and measure their ability to recognize the correct combination of words that made a collocation according to their meaning in context. The test was in multiple-choice and because the aim of the study was to differentiate colour in colour collocations, the colour part of collocation was missing.

The pretest and posttest were parallel in form. However, in order to avoid the memory effect on test scores, the order of the questions was changed. The reliability of the test was calculated through KR-21 method and it came out to be 0.82. Furthermore, the validity of the tests was calculated by some university professors.

Here, the collocations were divided into six groups: All collocations with same colour (black, white, red, green, yellow, and blue) were categorized as one group. The first aim of this study was to find out the differences between the frequency of each group in English and Persian. In other words, which colour collocations were used more in these two languages?

In order to research the second aim of the study, the participants had enrolled in an English class. After the administration of the OPT, the learners whose scores were lower than 31 were excluded. As a result, the number of participants became 60. The participants were given a pretest in order to test their colour collocational knowledge. The pretest was administered in the first session of the term. After the test, every session one list of collocations which consisted of the same colour was taught. At the end of the term, when all lists were taught, the learners took the posttest.

3. Results and Discussion

Tallying the number of Persian and English colour collocations yielded the following frequencies:

Table 1 Frequencies of Persian and English Colour Collocations

		Collocations						Total
		Black	White	Red	Green	Yellow	Blue	-
Language	Persian	37	21	15	13	8	6	100
	English	29	15	19	12	5	20	100
Total		66	36	34	25	13	26	200

The frequencies of black, white, red, green, yellow, and blue colour collocations in Persian and English are presented in Table 1. Except for blue (Persian = 6; English = 20) where the difference between the two languages was 12, all the other differences between Persian and English for each colour were comparatively small.

Now, in order to find out whether these differences between Persian and English colour collocations boiled down to an overall statistically significant difference or not, chi-square was employed:

Table 2 Chi-Square Results for Comparing Persian and English Colour Collocations

	Value	df	Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	10.71	5	.057
Likelihood Ratio	11.14	5	.049
Linear-by-Linear Association	5.35	1	.021
N of Valid Cases	200		

In Table 2, the p value under the Sig. (2-tailed) column in front of the Pearson chi-square is larger than the specified level of significance (i.e., .057 > .05), indicating that the difference between the Persian and English colour collocations was not statistically significant.

Effectiveness of Teaching Colour Collocations

At the outset of the second phase of the study, a pretest was given to the 60 participants. Then, the English colour collocations were taught to the participants and a posttest was administered. The pretest and posttest scores of the participants were compared by means of a paired samples *t* test to see if the instruction had been effective or not. The results of the analysis are as follows:

Table 3 Descriptive Statistics for Comparing Pretest and Post-test Scores of Learners

	Mean	\overline{N}	Std. Deviation Std.		Error
				Mean	
Pretest	7.76	200	3.51	.24	
Posttest	19.60	200	4.06	.28	

As it can be seen in Table 3, the difference between the pretest (M = 7.76) and posttest (M = 19.60) mean scores of the participants was a large one (with a mean difference of 11.84). To find out whether this difference between the pretest and posttest scores of the participants was statistically significant or not, the following t test table had to be consulted (see Table 4).

Table 4. Results of Paired Samples T-Test Comparing Pretest and Post-test Scores of

	Learners						
Paired	red Differences				t	df	Sig.
Mean	Std.	Std. Error95%		Confidence			(2-tailed)
	Deviation	Mean	Interval Difference	of	the		
			Lower	Upper			
Pretest – Post-test-11.84	4.22	.29	-12.43	-11.25	-39.61	199	.000

As seen in Table 4, there was a statistically significant difference between the pretest (M = 7.76, SD = 3.51) and posttest (M = 19.60, SD = 4.06) scores of the participants

because the p value under the Sig. (2-tailed) column was less than the significance level (i.e. .000 < .05). This means that the treatment (i.e., teaching colour collocations) had been effective as far as the language proficiency of the participants was concerned.

Learning the lexicon of a language, as an important part of a language, is one of the L2 learner's concerns when he or she begins to learn a new L2. L2 learners always face numerous difficulties in vocabulary. In this stage, they extend the number of vocabulary and their vocabulary knowledge in order to use them appropriately in L2 contexts. Vocabulary learning includes learning some techniques which consist of learning collocations.

Due to the fact that collocations have the linguistic and cultural basis, they should be taught when someone wants to learn an L2. The cultural aspect of collocations relates to the way they convey the meaning and without being aware of them misuse of collocations causes misunderstanding in communication. The overall purpose of current study was to figure out the differences between English and Persian collocations, especially those groups of collocations which contain colours.

The results concluded that the frequency and percentage of collocations which contain the colour black had a huge diversity among all the chosen colours in both English and Persian. It was shown that this colour plays a significant role in constructing colour collocations in both languages, as it had the first place in both. It is important to consider the connotation meaning of this colour in English and Persian. For most cases and in many cultures, the colour black is associated with secret, ambiguity, fear, and is known as the colour of mourning—perhaps the reason comes from this truth that black is the colour of night. English and Persian have many common points in the meanings of black. In both cultures, this colour has a feeling of mysteriousness and it is the colour of mourning. This similarity perhaps causes this sameness in the frequency of using this group of collocations.

The results obtained from the data analysis presented the frequency of white collocations which demonstrated that their frequency was 15 in English and 21 in Persian. It can be claimed that the frequency of white collocations in English was more than its frequency in Persian. It had the second place in Persian, but the fifth place in English. This differentiate could come from the fact, in Persian, making a contrast between white and black is more often than in English. It means that, in Persian, the opposite form of black collocations was made by replacing black with white, but, in English, we rarely see this occurrence (by comparing just these two lists of colour collocations as our sources).

The colour red had the third place. The results indicated that after black and white, the colour red had the most frequency among colour collocations in Persian. It is worth mentioning that the colour red had the same place among the English colour collocation. Red always stands for the feeling of excitement, love, and anger. We can claim that this sameness in frequency shows that this colour has the same implicit meaning in both languages (i.e., English and Persian).

Green had the frequency of 13 and it had the fourth grade among colour collocations in both English and Persian. Generally, the colour green stands as a colour of nature and it stimulates the feeling of happiness, relaxation, and health. The meaning

of this colour is the same in English and Persian (because it stands as a colour of nature and the attitude toward this colour is more common among many cultures) and the frequency was the same, too.

The next colour was yellow. The results showed the frequency of the yellow collocations was 8 in Persian and among English collocations was 7, although the frequencies were so close to each other but, in English, it was the last one and, in Persian, it was in the fifth place compared to other colours. The colour yellow is known as a colour of respect in the English culture; on the other hand, it stands as a symbol of hatred in the Persian culture. According to this explanation, it is obvious that these differences in connotation meaning may cause this difference in the frequencies of this colour in the English and Persian collocations.

The last colour one was blue. Blue means differently in the English and Persian cultures. In Persian, blue is regarded as the colour of peace, relaxation, and calmness; it is somehow related closely with this fact in the Persian culture it is considered as symbol of water (known as a colour of water). But in the English culture, in addition to these features, the colour blue stands as a colour of discipline, depression, and security. It is known as a masculine colour. These differences caused a huge variation among the English and Persians collocations with blue. As the result, the English blue collocations had the frequency of 41 and the Persian blue collocations had the frequency of 6. This large interval between the English and Persian collocations is because of a large variety in the meaning of blue collocations in English and Persian.

And, the second phase of the study was done to investigate the (possible) effect of the collocations on L2 proficiency. As a result, the second research question is answered as the following: Teaching colour collocations has a significant effect on L2 learners' proficiency.

4. Conclusion

On balance, although some similarities and differences were found out in the Persian and English colour collocations, the chi-square had to be calculated in order to show if the differences were significant or not. The results from the data analysis showed that the difference between the Persian and English colour collocations was not statistically significant.

In the second phase, the second research question was answered. In order to find out the (possible) effect of collocations on L2 learners' proficiency, the pretest and posttest scores were compared through paired samples t test, the results of which revealed that teaching collocations had a significant effect on the upper-intermediate and advanced L2 leaners' proficiency.

The findings of this study can be compared what was done before. Nofal (2012) believed that English and Arabic have some similarities in categorization, but they are different in their focuses. As the results revealed, the English and Persian collocations had similarities, but their distribution was different. According to what was done by Gyllstad (2007), there is a close relationship between the knowledge of collocation and the size of vocabulary and the level of proficiency. The finding of this study showed this relationship, as well. Additionally, Durrant (2008) stated that the problem of retention in colocations for L2 learners can be solved by increasing the number of input

and enough repetition. This study considered regular teaching as one of the solution for this problem. According to Channel (1981), raising L2 learners' awareness about collocations is necessary to improve their fluency in an L2. As it was depicted before, raising L2 learners' awareness can be done by teaching collocations directly.

Another study by Saadat Kiaee et al. (2013) came to the conclusion that teaching collocations could play a significance role in enhancing L2 learners' reading comprehension. Moreover, as what reported by this study, teaching collocations can affect L2 learners' proficiency, as well. There is some research done by researchers like Shooshtari and Karami (2012) as well as Atarodi (2011) that worked on the relation between teaching collocations and L2 learners' skills in English. All of them support the claim that by teaching collocations, L2 learners' skills (i.e., listening, speaking, reading, and writing) will elevate. Consequently, when all skills elevate, L2 proficiency will improve.

As the participant of the study were L2 learners whose ultimate goal is to learn how to use L2 in a proficient manner, it is necessary to make L2 learners aware about the benefits of learning collocations. Once they are informed about this importance, they show more enthusiasm in learning collocations. On the contrary, L2 teachers are responsible for this eagerness, too. They should teach collocations in line with their learners' needs.

Those in charge of curriculum management in L2 environments should consider that collocations must be taught in all four skills (i.e., listening, speaking, reading, and writing), not in isolation. There must be some listening which is replete with collocations. Thus, L2 learners, on the one hand, can distinguish collocations, and this listening can give L2 learners as much input as they need, on the other hand. Some activities should be allocated to collocations in speaking and conversations. Accordingly, L2 learners will learn how to use collocations in oral communication.

Collocations in reading help L2 learners observe the way they are used in texts; therefore, they can learn to use collocations accurately in their writing. To have an effective L2 learning, both L2 teacher and L2 learners as well materials designers should devote more time to collocations. The results of this study may help L2 instructors and researchers follow better ways of teaching collocations to L2 learners. Also, the results may be helpful to finding out the problems and arranging well-established ways to overcome and eliminate them.

Like any other study, the current study has some limitations. A major limitation would go to the type of collocations selected for the purpose of the study. Consequently, as no reliable source exists for collocations in all languages, finding them is a tough and time-consuming task. Another striking limitation was lack of upper-intermediate and advanced learners in language institutes. In addition to the abovementioned limitations, L2 learners' awareness of their participating in study can be added here.

The type of collocations chosen as the subject for this study is just one of the collocation categories. More research studies on different categories of collocations are required. Similarly, further research can be conducted on the (possible) effects of collocations on different aspects of learning, such as speed of speech, listening comprehension, and so forth. Future researchers can investigate other variables such as beginner L2 learners, just males or females, or students with different ages. Finally, in the present study, the effect of collocations on L2 learners' proficiency was investigated. This exploration can potentially lead to the assessment of other collocation groups like those that are combined with parts of the body.

References

-(1940). *Collocations*. In online Etymology Dictionary.com. Retrieved April 13, 2018, from the World Wide Web: http://:www.etymonline.com/index.php?allowed_in_frame=&search= collocations
-(2000). The Longman Collocation Dictionary. London: Longman Press.
- Atarodi, I. (2011). A study of collocational knowledge of Iranian EFL leaners and its relationship with their writing quality. Unpublished master's thesis, Tarbiat Moalem University, Tehran, Iran.
- Benson, M. (1986). Collocations and idioms. In R. F. Ilson (Ed.), *EIT documents 120: Dictionaries lexicography and language learning* (pp. 108-122). Oxford: Pergamon.
- Brown, DF. (1974). Advanced vocabulary teaching: The problem of collocation. RELC Journal, 5, 1-11.
- Channel, J. (1981). Applying semantic theory to vocabulary teaching. *ELT Journal*, 35(1), 115-122.
- Cowie, AP. (1981). The treatment of collocations and idioms in learner dictionaries. *Applied Linguistics*, 2, 223-235.
- Cowie, AP. (1992). Multiword lexical units and communicative language teaching. In P. J. L. Arnaud & H. Bejoint (Eds.), *Vocabulary and applied linguistics* (pp. 1-12). London: Macmillan.
- Cruse, DA. (1989). Lexical semantics. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Durrant, P. (2008). *High frequency collocations and second language learning*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Nottingham, England.
- Eslami-Rasekh, A. & Ghafel, B. (2011). Basic colours and their metaphorical expression in English and Persian: Lakoff's conceptual metaphor theory in focus. In M. Eid & R. J. Larsen (Eds.), *The proceeding of the international conference on foreign language teaching and applied linguistics* (pp. 140-146). Bosnia and Herzegovina: Sarajevo.
- Faghih, E. & Mehdizade, M. (2013). A contrastive analysis of patterns of grammatical collocations between the English *Animal Farm* and its Azari-Turkish translation. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 3(9), 1603-1609.
- Fargal, M. & Obiedat, H. (1995). Collocations: A neglected variable in EFL. IRAL, 33(4), 315-333.
- Gyllstad, H. (2007). Testing English collocations: Developing receptive tests for use with advanced. London: Longman Press.
- Hill, J. (2000). Revising priorities: From grammatical failure to collocational success. In M. Lewis (Ed.), *Teaching collocations: Further developments in the lexical approach* (pp. 47-69). London: Language Teaching Publishers.
- Khalili. M. & Mahsefat, H. (2012). The impact of authentic listening materials on elementary EFL learners' listening skills. *International of Journal of Applied Linguistic and Literature*, *I*(4), 216-229
- Lakoff, G. & Johnson, M. (1980). Conceptual metaphor in everyday language. The Journal of Philosophy, 77(8), 453-486
- Larson, ML. (1998). *Meaning-based translation: A guide to cross-language equivalence*. Maryland: University Press of America.
- Nation, ISP. (2001). *Learning vocabulary in another language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. Nattinger, JR. (1980). A lexical phrase grammar for ESL. *TESOL Quarterly*, *14*, 334-337
- Nofal, H. (2012). Collocations in English and Arabic: A comparative study. *English Language and Literature Studies*, 2(3), 75-94.

Stimulating students to speak up through presentation in business English class

Lia Agustina

Politeknik Negeri Malang, Indonesia email: lia alfan2d@yahoo.com

Abstract - Doing a presentation is not easy; it needs self-confidence, practice, and knowledge. Assigning students to have presentations would be a great practice for both in and outside the classroom; it is a skill of most people will need in the working field. Doing presentations in the English Foreign Language classroom would practice all language systems areas (vocabulary, grammar, discourse, and phonology) and skills (speaking, reading, writing and listening), it would build students' confidence, fluency, and knowledge of English.

The teacher-researcher used the Action Research Method (Kemmis and Taggart, 1989) to illustrate the process of planning, action, observation, and reflection that formed spiral moments. The purpose of the study was used to see the improvement of the students' self-confidence and the ability to speak up when performing a business meeting project. The subject was 32 students of the Accounting Department who were studying at the fourth semester in the year of 2016/2017. The result of the study showed that most students showed an improvement in all four language skills but the speaking skill had the greatest improvement. Most students seemed developed their motivation and participated in learning activities with interest and enjoyment.

Keywords: speaking stimulation, student interaction, presentation for learning

1. Introduction

Doing a presentation in the classroom is a great way to have students practised all language systems areas (vocabulary, grammar, discourse, and phonology) and skills (speaking, reading, writing and listening). It builds students' confidence. Having a skill of doing presentations will need in the world of work. Presentation skills are useful both in and outside the classroom. After finishing an assignment, a presentation is a media for students to be delivered to others about what they have learned. It is also a chance to challenge and expand on a deeper understanding of the topic. In the world of work, a confident presenter is able to inform and persuade colleagues effectively.

In today's global era, mostly mutely companies, require the ability to communicate information and ideas in English in a wide variety of contexts and situations. So, it is important to be able to communicate formally with colleagues, clients and stakeholders in English which are having clear content and also good in presenting the structure. Hence, making effective presentations in English has become an invaluable skill which has already been the need for a business.

In line with the background of the study, the formulated research problem would be; "How could assign students to do a presentation stimulate students to speak up"? In accordance with the problem of the study, this study directed to see the effective feedback obtained from doing a practice for presentation/presentations model that could stimulate students to speak up.

This study was conducted under the following assumptions. First, it was assumed that the practice of doing presentations was a crucial tool as the process to improve students' learning and achievement. Second, implementation of practicing doing presentations could stimulate students to speak up.

In the globalization process, English has been introduced in almost all aspects of life; including education. The main object of learning English as a foreign language (EFL) as students should be able to communicate effectively the language, which may help students to develop certain skills and abilities that will be demanded by their target goals. Therefore, researches reveal that students' ability to realize their goals in different situations depends largely on their communicative competence. Besides, it was argued that oral presentations, as a common feature of most course especially for undergraduate students at the university level, play significant roles in engaging the students cognitively and communicatively in the process of foreign language learning. However, it is observed that EFL students show poor achievement in using and controlling the foreign language in the classroom, which may be explained by the lack of their competence and confidence in that language.

Below are 10 Tips for giving a great presentation in English written by Alena Khabibullina posted by ILAC Foundation (retrieved 02 June 2018).

1. Think About the Details in Advance

Giving a presentation in front of an audience is always stressful. Thinking about such details as the location of the presentation, equipment, materials, timing, your appearance and outfit will help you avoid nervousness.

2. Do Your Homework

Effective preparation requires consideration of the following things:

- Ask yourself what the presentation is all about, its title and its goal
- Think about who your audience is
- Figure out what your main message is
- Think about the structure of the presentation: the opening, the main part, and the summary
- Make it easier for the audience and yourself: use simple language
- Prepare yourself for questions. Think about what questions the audience might ask
- •Usually, an orator has a maximum of 15 minutes at present. So, make the presentation simple, have no more than 20 slides using a font that is legible from a distance
- •Don't put large blocks of text in your presentation. No one will be interested in reading it; people prefer visual material. So, think about images, graphs, and videos that support your idea, but don't overwhelm audience with too many visual aids.

3. Introduce Yourself and Set the Theme

At the beginning of the presentation, it's important to introduce yourself, giving your full name, position, and a company you represent. Some people also include their contact information on the first slide. That's in case you want someone from the audience to contact you after your presentation. After the introduction, don't forget to state the topic of your presentation.

Useful phrases in English:

- a) Hello, ladies and gentlemen, thank you for coming...
- b) The topic of today's meeting is...
- c) Let's get the ball rolling
- d) Shall we get started?

4. Provide an outline or agenda of your presentation

Providing an outline of the presentation is a must, as people want to know why they should listen to you. That's why the opening part is very important. It should be cheerful, interesting and catchy. You should know it by heart, so you don't lose track of your thoughts even if you are nervous.

Useful phrases in English:

- a) I'd like to give you a brief outline of my presentation...
- b) Here is the agenda for the meeting...
- c) My presentation consists of the following parts...
- d) The presentation is divided into four main sections...

5. Explanation When the Listeners Can Ask Questions

A Question & Answer period (Q&A) usually takes place at the end of the presentation, so you have enough time to deliver the main message of your speech without being interrupted by multiple questions. If you want the audience to ask questions during or after the presentation, say so.

Useful phrases in English:

- a) There will be a Q&A session after the presentation
- b) Please feel free to interrupt me if you have any questions
- c) I will be happy to answer your questions at any time during the presentation

6. Make clear transition in between the parts of the presentation

Using transition words and phrases in English makes your presentation look smooth and easy to follow.

Useful phrases in English:

- a) I'd like to move on to another part of the presentation...
- b) Now I'd like to look at...
- c) For instance...
- d) In addition...
- e) Moreover...
- f) This leads me to the next point...

7. Wow Your Audience

If you are not excited by your presentation, your audience will not be excited either. When presenting, you should plan to wow your audience. Use adjectives and descriptive words as they will help to attract the audience's attention and make your speech more vivid and memorable.

Useful phrases in English:

- a) The product I present is extraordinary.
- b) It's a really cool device.
- c) This video is awesome.
- d) This is an outstanding example.

8. Make your data meaningful

If you need to present numbers or some comparative analysis of algorithms for integration, use some visuals to present it. You can use charts, graphs or diagrams to make your data meaningful and visually attractive. Remember that pie charts are good for representing proportions, line charts to represent trends, column and bar charts for ranking.

Useful phrases in English:

- a) Here are some facts and figures.
- b) The pie chart is divided into several parts.
- c) The numbers here have increased or gone up.
- d) The numbers change and go down (decrease).
- e) The numbers have remained stable.

9. Summarize

At the end of the presentation, briefly summarize the main points and ideas. Provide the audience with your opinion and give them a call to action, let them know what you want them to do with the information you've shared. End of the presentation by thanking all the listeners and inviting them to the Q&A.

Useful phrases in English:

- a) Let's summarize briefly what we've looked at...
- b) In conclusion...
- c) I'd like to recap...
- d) I'd like to sum up the main points...

10. Practice

Try rehearsing your presentation using the above tips. Practice in front of a mirror or with your friends, parents or spouse. The more you practice, the better. While practicing, try not to use crutch words (examples: uhhhhh, ahhhh, and so on, you know, like etc.). In general, the purpose of the study was to see the effective feedback obtained from doing a practice for presentations that could stimulate students to speak up.

This study was expected to give contributions as follows:

a) the study would be used to see the effective feedback obtained from doing a practice for presentations that could stimulate students to speak up. b) theoretically, the result of the study could enrich teachers' knowledge of teaching English, c) the study positively impacted the observer and professional practices and effected on increasing students' performance

The main object of learning English as a foreign language (EFL) is students should be able to communicate effectively the language, which may help students to develop certain skills and abilities that would be demanded by their target goals. Doing

oral presentations, play significant roles in engaging the students cognitively and communicatively in the process of foreign language learning.

2. Method

The chapter comprises the description of the research design; the subjects, the location, the instruments, the implementation of the methodology of action research. Thirty-two students of the second-year students in the fourth semester of the Accountancy Department-State Polytechnic of Malang 2016/2017 were the subjects of the study. The students have four hours (4 x 45 minutes) per week in the fourth semester.

The location of doing the research was at the English Laboratory at Accounting Department, Politeknik Negeri Malang. In order to be easier to monitor the implementation of the teaching and learning process in the classroom, some instruments were prepared. The first instrument was pre-test. It was used to inspect, to observe, to record and to judge the ability of the students. The second instrument was projected planning form or students' activities' sheets. It was used to record the students-activities during the process of doing the project. The third instrument was a weekly goal sheet; it was used to record the data weekly for the teacher. It contained written descriptions of what the observer heard, saw, experienced and thought when collecting the data during the teaching and learning process in the classroom. These were intended to anticipate the possibility of losing the relevant data during the implementation of the action. The fourth instruments were observation checklist 1 and checklist 2, which were used to record the data for the students' improvement. The last instrument was a questionnaire, which was used to see the students' opinion about the model implemented.

Lewin (in Kemmis and Taggart 1992: 8) described action research as proceeding in a spiral of steps, each of which was composed of planning, action and the evaluation of the result of the action. Kemmis and Taggart (1992: 11) defined planning as constructed action and by definition must be prospective to action-it must be forward-looking. It must be recognized that all social action was to some degree unpredictable and therefore somewhat risky. The general plan must be flexible enough to adapt to unforeseen effects and previously unrecognized constraints. While the action was deliberate and controlled-it was a careful and thoughtful variation of practice and was critically informed. Furthermore, they mentioned that observation had the function of documenting the effects of critically informed action and reflection recalls action as it had been recorded in observation, but it was also active.

The last step in a circle was a reflection. Reflection sought to make sense of processes, problems, issues, and constraints made manifest in strategic action. Action research is a dynamic process in which these four moments are to be understood as moments in the action research spiral of planning, action, observing and reflecting.

3. Results and Discussion

The purpose of doing the research was aimed to implement a strategy of doing presentations. It was used to improve the students' communicative competence. The obtained results from students' questionnaire and teachers' interview revealed that implementing the presentations was the ideal way through which EFL students could improve their communicative competence. The teachers insisted that through

implementing presentations in the classroom, the students could enlarge extent, improve communicative competence with the different components that contain; all language systems areas (vocabulary, grammar, discourse, and phonology) and skills (speaking, reading, writing and listening). It also builds students' confidence. Moreover, according to the students' responses, presentations help them to a wide extent in improving their communicative skills.

A teacher's role involves more than just standing in front of a classroom and teaching. Several roles can be assumed for teachers. Benseddik (2005: 23) describes them as "...assessor, organizer, prompter, participant and as a source". While Richards et al (1986) stressed more the roles of need analyst, counselor, and group manager. A successful teacher brings real and natural atmosphere in order to make the students enjoy the sessions. In this vein, Dobson (1992: 69) advocated that "Realia is not only good for stimulating conversation skills; it tends to make the session especially inexorable". It should be, the teachers have to encourage the students to practice their oral English and speak spontaneously by involving them in communicative tasks, as an old Chinese proverb says "Tell me and I forget, teach me and I remember, involve me and I learn".

Implementing the presentations model influence on the students' responsibility (Gibbs and Habeshaw, 1989: 37) stated that students learned well when they took responsibility for their learning. Thus, students' responsibility was an important factor that helped them to maintain their learning, and therefore developing their communicative competence.

It referred to the belief that a person has the ability to produce results, achieve goals or complete tasks proficiently (Dörnyei, 2005). Thus, developing students' oral communication skills based on self-confidence as the most essential factor that determines students' willingness to participate in oral activities in language classrooms. In other words, it was worth saying that where there is self-confidence there will be good communication, i.e.; it was thought that low confidence usually would tend to perform less successfully because they were concerned about being criticized or disapproved when using the language orally. The correlation between self-confidence and academic achievement was a dynamic one; as levels of self-confidence raised, academic achievement increased and this had a particular impact on the students' communicative competence.

Therefore, teachers needed to develop students' confidence within the teaching process. Speaking plays a vital role in the process of communication; it helps people express their ideas, thoughts, and feelings to others. Thus, providing students with an effective environment enables language speakers to speak fluently and interact freely with each other without anxiety.

4. Conclusion

It could be concluded that implementing presentations was an effective learning strategy, particularly because it promoted students-students interactions. Obviously, active learning cultivated multifaceted thinking procedures and developed maintenance, absorption, comprehension and appropriated used of course content. As a result, practicing presentations exercises must an experience offered to students in a broad diversity of university classrooms to introduce a new product released to the city public.

References

- Dörnyei, Z. (2005). The Psychology of the Language Learner: Individual Differences in Second Language Acquisition. Mahwah. USA: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Febriyanti, GAAA., Dewi, NKSL., & Dewi, IGAAIRC. (2018). Using self-assessment to assess rural young learners' writing skills in English foreign language classroom. *Journal of Applied Studies in Language*, 2(2), 109-115. doi:10.31940/jasl.v2i2.1065.
- Gibbs, G. & Habeshaw, T. (1989). Preparing to Teach: An Introduction to Effective Teaching in Higher Education. Technical and Educational Services, Ltd., Bristol, 2, 37.
- Iriance, I. (2018). Improving speaking ability of the students of SMK Kelautan dan Perikanan Negeri 12 Medan Labuhan by implementing role play technique. *Journal of Applied Studies in Language*, 2(1), 88-95. doi:10.31940/jasl.v2i1.892.
- Joni, DAAW. & Wirastuti, IGAP. (2018). Self-efficacy effect on basic level learners in speaking activities. *Journal of Applied Studies in Language*, 2(1), 1-9. doi:10.31940/jasl.v2i1.808.
- Kemmis, S. & Mc Taggart, R. (1988). *The action research planner*. (3th edition). Victoria: Deakin University Press. Kothari, CR. (2004). Research methodology: Methods and techniques, (2nd rev. ed.). New Delhi: New Age International (P) Limited, Publishers.
- Khabibullina, Alena posted by ILAC Foundation, Designated Learning Institute Numbers: Toronto: O19319227442 Vancouver: O19283901032.
- Kurnia, YR., & Erawati, NLE. (2018). Teaching reading in junior high school. *Journal of Applied Studies in Language*, 2(2), 102-108. doi:10.31940/jasl.v2i2.1064.
- Lastari, N.K.H., & Saraswati, P.R.T.A.K.H. (2018). The use of mind mapping to improve writing skill of the eighth grade students of junior high school. *Journal of Applied Studies in Language*, 2(2), 144-150. doi:10.31940/jasl.v2i2.1057.
- Merawati, J. (2017). Learners' models enhance the development of learners' reading and thinking strategies. *Journal of Applied Studies in Language*, 1(1), 1-6. doi:10.31940/jasl.v1i1.654.
- Nunan, D. (1992). Research Methods in Language Learning. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Rakhmawati, F. & Nirmalawati, W. (2017). Grammar teaching at pre-service training program in Kampung Inggris (a case study on mastering system program). *Journal of Applied Studies in Language*, 1(1), 7-14. doi:10.31940/jasl.v1i1.655.
- Richards, JC. & Rodgers, T. (1986). *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching*. NY: Cambridge University Press.
- Subiyanto, P., Suciani, NK, Aryana, IN., Sukerti, GNA., & Sitawati, AAR. (2018). Learning and growing: an alternative strategy to teach English. *Journal of Applied Studies in Language*, 2(2), 170-175. doi:10.31940/jasl.v2i2.1080.

Improving speaking fluency using video vision

Yuliana Ningsih¹ Adhiela Noer Syaief²

Politeknik Negeri Tanah Laut, Kalimantan Selatan^{1,2}

email: yuliananingsih@politala.ac.id¹ email: adhielanoersyaief@politala.ac.id²

Abstract - This study aims to investigate the use of video vision to improve students' English-speaking skills at Politeknik Negeri Tanah Laut. This research is action research conducted in two cycles with a subject of the 4th semester of the Mechanical Engineering Department of Politeknik Negeri Tanah Laut in the course of 'English for Communication', academic year 2017/2018 with total 22 students. The data source is the result of an Englishspeaking skill test conducted at the end of each cycle. The data were analyzed quantitatively and quantitatively to determine the improvement of Englishspeaking skills in the learning process on the implementation of the video vision on Machine Technology in the classroom. The findings showed that there was an increase of learning process, from classical mastery in cycle 1 and the average absorption in Cycle 1, after continued cycle 2 and the result of classical mastery - average absorption also increased in the category 'good'. Based on the results revealed that these learning media give a change in the learning process to improve students' English-speaking skills in the classroom by applying video vision.

Keywords: learning media, speaking skills, learning process

1. Introduction

The process of speaking involves three things: the speaker, the information to be conveyed, and the listener. These three things can also be the effect of success or failure for one's speaking skills. Nurjamal et al. (2011: 4) explain that the truth of speaking can be said to be easy and difficult. The important thing it is as long as we master what we will talk about.

Arsyad (2007: 6) stated that learning media have several terms including listening devices, instructional material, audio-visual communication, visual education, educational technology, props, and explanatory tools. Video vision on machine technology is a learning model for conveying a process of several automotive engine working methods that are contained in video vision on machine technology, which the video can measure the ability of students to absorb information directly and convey the process of how it works by using English especially speaking skill. The video provides an overview of some of the workings of the machines that they have learned in majoring Mechanical Engineering because ideally, machine students must know the process of working. So, from this video vision on machine technology is expected to make it easier for students to deliver it in English especially speaking skill, and their ability to speak English will also increase.

Based on the description of the background, the problem of the research is: Is the use of video vision media able to improve the English-speaking skills of Mechanical Engineering's students of Politeknik Negeri Tanah Laut? In accordance with the problem of research described above, the purpose of this study is to improve English-speaking skills of students of Mechanical Engineering Majoring of Politeknik Negeri Tanah Laut by utilizing video vision.

The results of this study are expected to provide benefits both practical and theoretical. Theoretical benefits; as a study material for increasing English-speaking skills for students, as an alternative solution for educators to overcome various difficulties in teaching related to learning media, and as a reference for future research. Practical Benefits: the benefit for students is to be able to improve their speaking skills, especially English, the benefit for students is the increasing insight into teaching English, for institutions, this research can be used as input for Institutions and related institutions in compiling and implementing guidance programs for students.

According to Maxom (2009: 183) speaking is the most important skill in teaching English to be mastered in school. Through speaking, students can express their ideas, feelings, and desires to others. In schools or colleges, the students learn to speak English more easily because there are teachers or lecturers and they are friends who can be facilitators and their partners to practice English. Izzan (2007: 1) added that English as a second language and an international language is widely used in all countries in the world. He said that English was used in almost every aspect of our lives, such as in science, education, technology, business, and news. When educators ask students to say something about their opinions, most of them feel insecure about expressing it. They are embarrassed to make mistakes in speaking English. Piccolo (2010) said that one speaking problem faced by students occurred because they were worried about making mistakes, accepting criticism or losing faces in front of the classroom.

Based on the explanations above, the impact is they are silent and do not participate in activities related to English. Students who feel trial anxiety consider foreign language processes, and especially oral production, as a test situation, not try to

take the opportunity to communicate and improve skills. So, from that the researcher believes that if students are unattractive, it does not matter what the educator or the best way to teach it; in the long run, it will be a waste of time taken for granted and there must be more than one way to develop oral production smoothly, a way for students to express themselves verbally in their own words, not merely memorizing.

According to Sanjaya (2007: 162), direct experience is, of course, a very useful for the learning process, because it conducted in order to misconception can be avoided. In addition to the benefits of direct experience obtained, the use of learning media can clarify the information that will be delivered by educators to students. Besides the benefits that can be taken based on the use of learning media according to Arsyad (2007: 25—27), the practical benefits of using learning media in the teaching and learning process are as follows: (1) Learning media can clarify the conveying of messages and information so it can facilitate in fluency and improve learning processes and learning achievements, (2) learning media can improve and direct students' attention so that it can lead to motivation to learn, direct interaction between students and their environment, and the possibility of students to learn on their own according to their abilities and interests, (3) learning media can overcome sense limitations, space and time, (4) Learning media can provide students with similar experiences about events in their environment.

The use of learning media provides many benefits in the learning process. However, the benefits of using learning media depend on the characteristics and capabilities of the media used in the learning process. This causes grouping or classification according to the similarity of characteristics or the characteristics (Sadiman, 2008: 19). Bertz (in Sadiman, 2008: 20) stated that the types of media including audio media, visual media and audio-visual media.

The criteria for selecting learning media must be developed in accordance with the objectives to be achieved, the conditions and limitations that exist by considering the abilities and characteristics (characteristics) of the media concerned (Sadiman, 2008: 85).

Video vision as a learning media to improve English speaking skills is an audiovisual media that displays the process of how the machine works accompanied by the sound of the instrument. Video vision on machine technology that contains images and sounds can be stored on a video compact disc. Sadiman (2008: 294) argued that in addition to store the image and sound information on magnetic tape, there is one more system, namely storing image and sound information on a disc. Arsyad (2007: 36) added that VCD (video compact disc) is a storage and video recording system in which audio-visual signals are recorded on plastic disks, not on magnetic tape. Furthermore Arsyad (2007: 49) argued that video can increase students' basic motivation and experience.

Video vision on machine technology, which is the video contains the workings of the engine which has relation with students' daily life in college, the Mechanical Engineering. From the contents of the video, namely the machine work process that has become their knowledge and also one of their interests in the machine. So, from the interest in the machine, the video vision on machine technology that contains the work process of the machine is able to motivate students to convey something even some of the processes contained in the video because the content of the video is something they know. That's where the proponent's strategy is to make students have the desire to convey the contents of the video using English (speaking in English) smoothly.

2. Method

This research was conducted in the fourth semester of Mechanical Engineering majoring, Politeknik Negeri Tanah Laut, which is the even semester from January to June 2018, dealing with 22 students. This study uses an action research design. Classroom action research is research conducted by teachers in classrooms or in schools where they teach, with an emphasis on improving or enhancing learning practices and processes (Susilo, 2007: 16). According to Basrowi and Suwandi (2008: 34—40), the characteristics of Classroom Action Research include an inquiry on practice from within, a collaborative effort between school teachers and teacher educators, a reflective practice made.

Research Techniques applied here the stages, namely planning, acting, observing and reflecting (Ahmad in Rozak, 2011: 27). These stages can be described as follows.

- 1. Planning, before making observations or observations needs to be held planning carried out in general and specifically. General planning includes:
- a. A form of action in research according to goals and problems.
- b. Formation of student groups planned according to the techniques used in each cycle.
- c. Courses are prepared and developed based on courses in the fourth semester and in accordance with the research actions and direction to be achieved.
- d. Making the appropriate instrument is documenting the conditions during the study.
- e. The challenge of the success measurement format is to see the success of the research in process and results.
- 2. Acting, at this stage of implementation, the researcher gives students class action, namely applying practical material machine technology videos to the English for Communication course.
- 3. Observing, at this stage the researcher conducts observations carried out together with the implementation of the action.
- 4. Reflection, after making classroom observations, the researcher and lecturer who teach in the class reflects and conclude what has happened and can decide for the next action, whether the action is stopped or continued. Following is the procedure scheme for implementing classroom action research according to Ahmad HP (in Rozak, 2011: 27).

The techniques used to collect the data above include:

- 1. Observation. Observations are made to monitor the process and impact of learning needed to organize corrective measures to be more effective and efficient (Amir, 2007: 134).
- 2. Questionnaire (Questionnaire)
- 3. Interview. Interviews are conversations with specific intentions.
- 4. Test. The test in this study is used to determine the progress or success of the implementation of the action in the form of a test to convey something that has been shown before through the video that is the performance test.
- 5. Document. Documents are data sources that often have important positions in qualitative research. Slamet and Suwarto (2007: 53) explained that documents are written material or film used as data sources.

Data validity is the truth of the research process. The validity of the data is accounted for and can be used as a strong basis in drawing conclusions. Burn (in Basrowi and Suwandi, 2008: 122—123) suggested that the five validity criteria in

action research include: democratic validity, outcome validity, process validity, validity of the catalyst, Dialogical validity. This study used democratic validity because it deals with the level of truth of collaborative research and accepts multiple input. Democratic validity is intended as proof that the data obtained by the researcher are in accordance with what actually happened in the field of the research.

3. Results and Discussion

Data analysis is an effort (process) to select, sort, discard and classify data as expected. Data analysis was carried out from the beginning to the end of the data collection activities

Data analysis techniques used in analyzing quantitative data from the results of student learning tests to determine the percentage of completeness learning can be seen below.

Individual Absorption (DSI): Individual Absorption = (student achievement score)/(maximum score question) X 100%. A student is stated to have completed learning if the percentage of individual absorption is at least 70 (Ranya, 2014: 19).

Classical Learning Completeness (KBK): Classical learning completeness = (number of students completed)/(total students) X 100%. A student completes if the percentage of classics achieved at least 80 (Ranya, 2014: 19).

Classical Absorption (DSK): Classical learning completeness = (total score of participant)/(all ideal score) X 100%. A class is stated that completeness in learning to if the percentage of classical absorption is at least 70 (Ranya, 2014: 19).

Analysis of qualitative data from observational data on students activities following learning with modeling strategies was analyzed by percentage techniques using the formula based on Ministry of Education and Culture 2004 (in Ranya, 2014: 19) as follows:

Average value = (total score indicator)/(maximum score) X 100%.

The success criteria for the action are as follows:

$NR \ge 90 \%$: Very Good	5
$75\% \le NR < 90\%$: Good	4
$55\% \le NR < 75\%$: Enough	3
$35\% \le NR < 55\%$: Poor	2
NR <35%	: Very poor	1

Based on the results of the study, quantitative data showed that students learning achievement are in the form of the percent and the average value obtained from the final results from the cycle I, and the final test cycle II. Furthermore, the data is compared to determine the increase in students in speaking at each treatment which is conducted.

The Evaluation of Student test results in Cycle I

The results of the observations for students' activity in the first cycle showed that the percentage of achievement in the category enough that was 60%, it meant that it needed evaluation in the management of learning in order to get maximum results. While the results of the students' questionnaires showed that in the application of video vision on machine technology students expressed strongly agree as much as 73%, agree

26% and there was 1% stated disagree. The results of the questionnaire stated that the application of instructional media and this video-vision had a positive impact on students and lecturer. Students feel interested and enjoy the interaction process in class, especially when speaking something they understand their knowledge with its own uniqueness explained and conveyed in English. They also feel happy because the videos contained in the video are work processes that they already know from the course taken in the thing of Mechanical Engineering, it is special challenges in the delivery of using English. Because of their high willingness, so the results are maximized. But when the problem is related to talking critically and creatively they find it difficult because it takes a special time in applying it, they are only able to explain something based on the video.

The following data are the results of student speaking tests in the first cycle:

Score	382
Maximum score	550
Individual completeness	12 students
Classical completeness	54.54%
Average absorption	69.45 %

The results of monitoring the evaluation of students in the first cycle showed that the results of student achievement where most students were still awkward and felt ashamed to speak especially to those who were classified as low-ability students. They are difficult to convey ideas or responses based on the video because they feel they are unable to compete with smart students. In this first cycle, classical completeness obtained a percentage of 54.54%, and the average absorption rate was 69.45%. Based on the data, only students who are classified as smart receive this percentage.

Reflection in Cycle I

The activity carried out at this stage is collecting data obtained at the test stage of student learning achievement. Based on data analysis, reflection is carried out to see deficiencies that occur during the learning process. Deficiencies that occur in the first cycle will be corrected in the next cycle. Based on the results of the evaluation during the implementation of the first cycle of action there are several important things that need to be improved in managing to learn, namely; giving guidance when students do simulations is still low, students have not dared to appear in front of the class, student learning achievement both individual and classical are still low. Based on weaknesses and shortcomings, in the first cycle, researchers can improve in order to it will not occur again in the second cycle.

The Evaluation of Student Test Results in Cycle II

Observations in the second cycle only continue and evaluate the results of the first cycles, the shortcomings in the learning process can be overcome by visible changes in improvement. The percentage of student activeness in the second cycle is 91%. So, the results of observations of student activities experienced a percentage

increase, from the first cycle only reached 60%, increased to become 91% in the second cycle. The following data are the results of student tests in the first cycle:

Score 440 Maximum score 550

Individual completeness 19 students Classical completeness 86.36 % Average absorptive power 80%

From the evaluation of the data, students speak English based on video vision on machine technology which is a video that contains the machine work process in the second cycle and obtained results were 22 students, 19 students who completed or classical completeness reached 86.36% and the average absorption students by 80%. This shows that the ability of students of Mechanical Engineering to speak English can be improved by utilizing video of machine technology.

Reflection Cycle II

From the results of the final test evaluation in the second cycle, it can be seen that the actions conducted by the researcher have been maximized. It can be seen from the acquisition of classical completeness which has increased from 54.54% in the first cycle to 86.36% in the second cycle. From 22 students who took the final test completed by the individual in the first cycle are 12 students, in the second cycle rose to 19 students. The average absorption in the first cycle was 69.45% to 80% in the second cycle. Based on the description above it can be concluded that deficiencies that occur in the first cycle can be overcome in the second cycle. Therefore, learning English especially speaking activities of students by utilizing video vision on machine technology for students of Mechanical Engineering Department has succeeded and no longer needs to be continued in the next cycle.

The indicator of the success of research with this strategy, if the individual completeness of students has reached 70, classical completeness has reached 85% and the average absorption rate of 75%. The use of video of vision on machine technology which contains video the working process of engine as a media for English language learning, especially Speaking Skill for students with results achieved in two cycles can improve English speaking skills of students, especially the Mechanical Engineering Department, Politeknik Negeri Tanah Laut. The evaluation results of students' ability to speak English in the first cycle with simulation techniques from 22 students, there were 12 students who completed, the percentage of classical completeness was 54.54, and the average absorptive of 69.45 in the second cycle increased from 22 students who took the test and 19 students who completed, the percentage of classical completeness became 86.36 and the average absorption capacity became 80.

Based on the description above, it can be concluded that the ability of students in learning English, especially speaking English, which is intended for video technology in the fourth semester of the Mechanical Engineering Department, Politeknik Negeri Tanah Laut, can be improved using simulation techniques.

4. Conclusion

Teaching and learning activities by utilizing videos vision on machine technology machine have a positive impact in an effort to improve students' learning achievement and activity. This can be seen by the increase in completeness and absorption of students in each cycle, namely in the first cycle completeness was only 54.54%, in the second cycle rose to 86.26%. The average absorption rate in the first cycle was 69.45%, in the second cycle, it increased to 80%. While the activeness of students in the application of videos of vision on machine technology also changed from the first cycle reached 60% to 91% in the second cycle. It shows that video vision on machine technology is able to improve students' speaking skills, especially the Mechanical Engineering Department of Politeknik Negeri Tanah Laut.

References

Amir. (2007). Dasar-Dasar Penulisan Karya Ilmiah. Surakarta: UNS Press.

Arsyad, A. (2007). Media Pembelajaran. Jakarta: PT Raja Grafindo Persada.

Basrowi dan Suwandi. (2008). Prosedur Penelitian Tindakan Kelas. Bogor: Galia Indonesia.

Iriance, I. (2018). Improving speaking ability of the students of SMK Kelautan dan Perikanan Negeri 12 Medan Labuhan by implementing role play technique. *Journal of Applied Studies in Language*, 2(1), 88-95. doi:10.31940/jasl.v2i1.892.

Joni, DAAW. & Wirastuti, IGAP. (2018). Self-efficacy effect on basic level learners in speaking activities. *Journal of Applied Studies in Language*, 2(1), 1-9. doi:10.31940/jasl.v2i1.808

Izzan, A. (2007). How to Master English. Jakarta: Kesaint Blanc

Maxom, M. (2009). Teaching English as a Foreign Language for Dummies. West

Miles, M. B. dan Huberman, A.M. (2007). *Analisis Data Kualitatif, Buku sumber tentang metode-metode baru*. Jakarta: Universitas Indonesia Press.

Nurjamal, D., Warta, S., & Riadi, D. (2011). Terampil Berbahasa. Bandung: Alfabeta.

Piccolo. (2010). Teaching Speaking to English Second Language Students. Sussex: John Willeyv.

Ranya, Z.A. (2014). Meningkatkan Hasil Belajar Siswa dalam Pembelajaran IPA Pokok Bahasan Panca Indera Dengan Menggunakan metode Demonstrasi pada Siswa Kelas IV SDN Pusungi.

Sadiman, A. S. (2008). *Media Pendidikan: Pengertian, Pengembangan, dan Pemanfaatannya*. Jakarta: Raja Grafindo Persada.

Sanjaya, W. (2007). Strategi Pembelajaran Berorientasi Standar Proses Pendidikan. Jakarta: Kencana. Slamet dan Suwarto. (2007). Dasar-Dasar Metodologi Penelitian Kualitatif. Surakarta: UNS Press.

Subiyanto, P, Suciani, NK, Aryana, INR, Sukerti, GNA, & Sitawati, AAR. (2018). Learning and growing: an alternative strategy to teach English. *Journal of Applied Studies in Language*, 2(2), 170-175. doi:10.31940/jasl.v2i2.1080

Bingo game: hidden treasure among heap of woods (the effectivity of a game in improving students' vocabulary mastery)

Eka Afrida Ermawati¹ Ely Trianasari²

Politeknik Negeri Banyuwangi^{1,2} email: ekaafrida22@poliwangi.ac.id¹ email: ely.trianasari@poliwangi.ac.id²

Abstract - Research in the context of English as a foreign language suggests the use of games in the teaching learning process, either as enforcement or as teaching variations to make students learn in more relax condition. Students in the beginning level of learning, including young learners, still need encouragement. Word games, as it is believed, have the advantages of creating a context which help students' attention focus on the task in a relax situation. Students even do not realize that they are practicing the language while playing. From various games suggested to teach young learners, Bingo is the recommended one. Bingo game is one of word games usually played by children outside the classroom. This game is interesting and challenging. By doing some modification, this game can be used to teach vocabulary and create a context from the material given in the classroom with their daily life context that is described by pictures and words. Concerning the power possessed by Bingo game, the presents study aims to reveal the effectiveness of Bingo game for improving students' vocabulary mastery of the third semester students of business management of tourism study program in Politeknik Negeri Banyuwangi. Vocabulary is selected as the sub skill taught using Bingo game since based on the preliminary study done the students in this program claimed that they have difficulty in memorizing it. Classroom action research design will be employed to answer the research questions in this study. The result of this study shows that Bingo game was able to improve students' vocabulary mastery. It was showed by the improvement got from the students score after Bingo game applied.

Keyword: bingo game, vocabulary teaching, vocabulary mastery

1. Introduction

Research in the context of English as a foreign language suggests the use of games in the teaching learning process, either as enforcement or as teaching variations to make students learn in more relax condition. Students in the beginning level of learning, including young learners, still need encouragement. Word games, as it is believed, have the advantages of creating a context which help students' attention focus on the task in a relax situation. Students even do not realize that they are practicing the language while playing. From various games suggested to teach young learners, Bingo is the recommended one. Bingo game is one of word games usually played by children outside the classroom. This game is interesting and challenging. By doing some modification, this game can be used to teach vocabulary and create a context from the material given.

The importance of vocabulary in learning English as a foreign language cannot be neglected. Many people in this world know that vocabulary is very important to be mastered. As one of the language components that influence all language skills, namely speaking, listening, reading and writing, the mastery of vocabulary is really needed. Vocabulary mastery is needed to comprehend the content of the material that is being learned by the students. Team (2000: 13) concludes that vocabulary plays an important role in developing students' understanding. In line with this statement, Zimmerman (in Amer, 2002: 1) states that the central of a language is vocabulary and the language learners need to master it. According to Lehr et.al (2001) vocabulary is a kind of words that students must know to comprehend the text. So, if they do not have enough vocabulary, their understanding of the text will not maximize. This idea is supported by Bob (2010) who states that the more vocabulary students know, the better understanding they will have.

Management business of tourism is one study program in Politeknik Negeri Banyuwangi. In this study program, English is taught for three semesters. At the first semester students are given general English but at the second and the third semester students are given English profession one and English profession two. In English profession they are taught English which is related to the tourism. One of material taught on English profession is about hotel vocabularies. In this material, students taught some vocabularies related to the stuff used in the hotel, profession in hotel, and facilities. This material is much needed to be mastered by the students since they these vocabularies connected with the next material.

Unfortunately, on the post-test given after the teaching and learning process some students got bad score. After asking some students why they got that bad score, they stated that they have difficulty in memorizing the vocabulary. Based on this claim, the researcher is eager to find the technique which is able to help students to memorize the vocabulary easily and from many techniques, game is taught appropriate to use. It cannot be denied that the role of games in learning vocabulary is very significant. According to Huyen and Nga (2003: 14) games give advantages in learning vocabulary in many ways. The advantages and effectiveness of using game in teaching vocabulary are such as bringing relax and fun atmosphere for students, helping students learn and retain new words easily, involving friendly competition, keeping learners' interest, bringing real world context into the classroom, and improving students' use of English in a flexible and communicative way.

After looking at some game ever played by the researcher, the researcher chosen

Bingo game to be applied since previously the researcher ever used this game on the teaching and learning process and this game proved able to improve students' comprehension on vocabulary. This finding is in line with Weisskirch (2009: 6) who states that Bingo activity successfully increased students' understanding of most fundamental theoretical concepts. Bingo is a kind of game played and enjoyed by a large number of people all over the world. This game is easy to play and can be used to teach contextual vocabulary to the students in all ages. Agoestyowati (2010: 7) states that bingo is good and competitive game that can be used to concentrate students' attention. Moreover, Smith (2010: 1) says that Word Bingo is a fun way to teach spelling and vocabulary. So, by using Bingo, children can learn new vocabulary in a fun way. Based on the background above, the problem of this research "Is the use of Bingo game able to improve Business management students' vocabulary mastery?"

2. Method

2.1 Research design

This research applied classroom action research methodology. There are four steps that should be done in doing this classroom action research. Those steps are planning, acting, observing, and reflecting. At the first step, namely planning, the researcher analyzed the problem possessed by the students, finding the suitable technique and the last was arranging the lesson plan and media used. After the lesson plan arranged, the researcher conducted the action. The action, the teaching and learning processed done before the test give to the students. While teaching and learning process happened, the researcher also observes students' condition on the classroom. This is done to makes sure that the teaching and learning process goes based on the plan arranged and to know the students' activeness on the classroom. On the next day, posttest given to the students. this post-test done to know the result gotten after the action done. After the test given, the researcher did a reflection. This step done to know how is the result of the research, why the result gotten, and decide what should be done next, whether the next cycle need to done or not.

2.2 Research subject

The subject of this research is the third-grade students of business management of tourism study program, Politeknik Negeri Banyuwangi.

2.3 Data collection method

The data on this research are gotten through the use some instruments. The instruments used in this research are observation (Wajdi, 2018) check list, test and interview guide line. The instruments used to get the data then analyze it to find the result of the research.

2.4 Data analysis method

The data analysis done through counting the score gotten before and after the technique applied. Students' scores are summed then divided based on the total number of the student to find the mean score. After that those scores are compared with the score gotten after the technique applied.

2.4 The procedures to play Bingo

The procedures to play Bingo are same among Uchida (2003: 1), Wright et.al (1996: 114) and Amazon (2010: 1), so, those three procedures were applied in this research. They were formulated as follows:

• The teacher gave Bingo card to each student (Uchida, 2003).

- The teacher demonstrateed. the procedure of playing Bingo Game (Uchida, 2003).
- The students wrote the words given by the teacher on the Bingo card (Amazon, 2010).
- The teacher laid the master card face up and the calling card face down in from of him/her (Uchida, 2003).
- The teacher picked one of the calling cards and said it loudly and clearly two times (Uchida, 2003).
- The learners should cross and number the word they had written if the word was called (Wright, 1996).
- The student who had crossed five words vertically, horizontally or diagonally shouted Bingo (Wright, 1996).
- Then the teacher asked that student to read off his/her five words. If his or her answer was correct, he became the winner (Uchida, 2003).

3. Results and Discussion

The following are the result before and after the action done.

Students' Name		Score
(using initial)	Before action	After action
RBA	65	90
UM	50	80
NU	45	70
MS	50	70
UI	60	90
YB	30	70
ESN	40	75
FB	45	70
FSH	60	85
RM	45	70
YOH	50	75
UI	40	70
YB	55	80
ESN	55	85
FB	50	80
FSH	40	80
RM	60	75
YOH	40	65
IDP	30	60
LB	35	60
UI	60	80
YB	55	75
ESN	50	70
FB	55	75
FSH	60	80

Average	50	74.5	
Total	1600	2385	
RA	60	80	
KS	50	65	
N	45	65	
DM	50	60	
YOH	55	70	
RM	55	75	

Based on the results, it was known that there is improvement on the students score 24.5 % than they score before the action. It happened because the students who were taught vocabulary by using the Bingo Game said that they were easier to memorize the vocabulary by using pictures and words. The students also said that they were interested in the pictures showed when they were playing the Bingo Game in the classroom. Consequently, they paid more attention to the materials given when the lecturer was teaching vocabulary by using the Bingo Game. This claim seems like similar with what Wright et.al (1996:14) say that the use of pictures play an important part in the learning process. Pictures also attracted the students' attention and helped to encourage them to focus on the subject. This was a good technique to teach vocabulary to the students.

Furthermore, the successful of using the Bingo Game to teach vocabulary was supported by the previous researcher who proved that teaching vocabulary by using the Bingo Game was able to improve the students' vocabulary achievement. The previous research that used the Bingo Game was done by Kurniati in 2009. She conducted a classroom action research at SMPN 10 Jember in the 2008/2009 academic year. The research result showed that the use of the Bingo Game could improve the students' vocabulary achievement of large vocabulary (nous, verbs, adjectives and adverbs). The improvement achieved could be seen from the students' scores of vocabulary test in the second cycle.

The students' vocabulary score in the second cycle was better than the vocabulary scores in the first cycle. In the previous research, the researcher had a target that 75% of the students got score more than 70 covering the material of nouns, adjectives, adverbs and verbs. In the first cycle, only 25 students or 67.57% who got score more than 70 but in the second cycle the students who got score more than 70 or fulfilled good category (70%-80%) are 100 %.

4. Conclusion

Based on the result of the research, it can be concluded that the use of Bingo game is able to improve students' vocabulary mastery on the topic of hotel vocabulary. This improvement can be seen from the score gotten before and after the action done. As it is known, the mean score of the students score before the action is 50 and after the action is 74.5. There is improvement in score 24.5.

References

Agoestyowati, R. (2010). Fun English Games & Activities for You: From Beginner to Advanced Level. Jakarta: P.T Bhuana Ilmu Populer.

Amazon. (2010). Sight Word Bingo. http://www.sightwordbingo.com/bingo.php

- Amer. (2002). Advanced Vocabulary Instruction in EFL. The Internet TESL Journal, Vol. VIII, No. 11, November 2002. http://iteslj.org/Articles/Amer-Vocabulary/[May 27th 2018].
- Huyen, N. and Khuat, TN. (2003). *Learning Vocabulary through Games*. *Asian EFL Journal-Desember 2003*. http://www. Itesl. Journal.org. [June1st 2018].
- Kurniati, F. (2009). *Improving the Eight Grade Students Vocabulary Achievement trough Bingo Game at SMPN 10 Jember in the 2008/2009 Academic Year*. Jember: Jember University: Unpublished Thesis.
- Lehr, F., Jean, O., Elfrieda, H. (2001). A Focus on Vocabulary. www.prel.org. [June 15th 2018].
- Merawati, J. (2017). Learners' models enhance the development of learners' reading and thinking strategies. *Journal of Applied Studies in Language*, 1(1), 1-5. DOI:10.31940/jasl.v1i1.654.
- Rakhmawati, F. & Nirmalawati, W. (2017). Grammar teaching at pre-service training program in Kampung Inggris (a case study on mastering system program). *Journal of Applied Studies in Language*, 1(1), 7-14. doi:10.31940/jasl.v1i1.655.
- Richards, J. C. & Rodgers, T. (1986). Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching. NY: Cambridge University Press.
- Smith, J. (2010). *How to Make Word Bingo Cards*. http://www.ehow.com/how_5305305_make-word-bingo-cards.html [July 2^{3rd} 2010].
- Subiyanto, P, Suciani, NK, Aryana, INR, Sukerti, GNA, & Sitawati, AAR. (2018). Learning and growing: an alternative strategy to teach English. *Journal of Applied Studies in Language*, 2(2), 170-175. doi:10.31940/jasl.v2i2.1080.
- Team. (2000). Teaching Children to Read: An Evidence- Based Assessment of The Scientific Research
 Literature on Reading and Its Implication for Reading Instruction.
 http://www.nationalreadingpanel.org/publications/summary.htm
- Uchida, H. J. (2003). *Picture Fun Word Bingo*., http://www.eltnews.com/features/games/2003/07/picture_fun_word_bingo.html [June 24th 2018].
- Wajdi, M. (2018). Classroom Discourse: A Model of Classroom Language Research. Surabaya: Jakad Publishing.
- Weisskirch, R. (2009). Playing Bingo to Review Fundamental Concepts in Advanced Courses. International Journal for the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning Vol. 3, No. 1 (January 2009). http://www.georgiasouthern.edu/ijsotl. [June 20th 2018].
- Wright, A., David, B., and Michael, B. (1996). *Games for language learning*. London: Cambridge University Press.

A comparative study of the conceptual metaphors of time in Persian and English

Arsalan Golfam¹ Amir Ghorbanpour² Nader Mahdipour³

Tarbiat Modares University, Iran^{1,2,3} email: golfamar@modares.ac.ir¹

Abstract - From a cognitive perspective, metaphor is viewed as one of the important aspects and a fundamental part of the everyday use of language. Metaphor is generally defined as a means to talk about a more abstract conceptual domain in terms of another, more concrete domain. The mapping between the two domains is expressed through some conceptual metaphors. The present study is a comparative analysis of the conceptual metaphors of time in Persian and English. In doing so, different expressions of time in the two languages were categorised into the relevant conceptual metaphors, to be compared to find any similarities and differences in this respect. The expressions of time were analysed under eight different conceptual metaphors. It is revealed that the two languages show a very similar conceptualisation of time-related expressions. Except for a few minor differences, both languages generally appear to use the same metaphoric structures to express time. The use of similar collocations with time words in most cases counts as evidence for the similarities between the two languages in their conceptualisation of time.

Keywords: conceptual metaphors, metaphors of time, comparative study, Persian, English.

1. Introduction

Metaphor is considered as one of the important aspects of language in cognitive linguistics (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980; Taylor, 1995; inter alia); and it is in fact its view of metaphor that differentiates cognitive linguistics most from other theories of language (Lee, 2001: 6). Put in different words, "an important characteristic of cognitive semantics is the central role in thought and language assigned to metaphor" (Saeed, 2009: 360).

Traditionally, metaphor has always been viewed as a figure of speech or a rhetorical device peculiar to literary and poetic language. The classical view of metaphor, dating back to the time of Aristotle, regards it as a decorative addition to ordinary plain language, used at certain times to gain certain effects (Saeed, 2009: 359). This view portrays metaphor as something outside the normal use of language which requires special forms of interpretation from listeners or readers (ibid.). Along with this view of metaphor as something deviated from normal language use, Botha (1968) distinguishes between novel creative metaphors, and established or dead metaphors. Botha claims that novel metaphors lie outside the study of a speaker's competence. But once a metaphorical expression is established, the speaker's internalised rule system is modified over time. Metaphor thus ceases to be an instance of deviance anymore; that is, it ceases to be metaphorical. The metaphorical sense of a lexical item is now listed in the lexicon along with its other "conventional senses" (Botha, 1968: 201).

The cognitive view, on the other hand, sees metaphor as a fundamental property of the everyday use of language (Lee, 2001: 6). In this view, metaphor is not limited to specific discourses like poetic, religious, or scientific language; rather, much of our understanding of everyday experience is structured in terms of metaphor (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980; Taylor, 1995: 133), and in Johnson's words "vast domains of our experience, understanding, reasoning, and practice are metaphorically structured" (1987: 137). In the cognitive view, metaphor is not understood as a speaker's violation of rules of competence. Rather, the cognitive paradigm sees metaphor as a means by which more abstract and intangible areas of experience can be conceptualised in terms of familiar and concrete concepts. That is, metaphor is characterised by the conceptualisation of one cognitive domain in terms of components more usually associated with another domain (Taylor, 1995: 132-3).

Lakoff and Johnson (1980) emphasise that metaphors involve not only ways of talking about phenomena but also ways of thinking about them. In other words, from a cognitive perspective, different ways of thinking about a particular concept are associated with different metaphors. Thus, as Lee (2001) puts it, "metaphor is in fact a prime manifestation of the cognitive claim that language and thought are inextricably intertwined" (2001: 7).

The present study offers a comparative analysis of the different metaphors of time used in Persian and English, in order to shed light on similarities and differences between the two languages in terms of their conceptualisation of time and the way metaphors are structured in this regard. In doing so, metaphoric expressions are categorised into different groups of conceptual metaphors based on the kind of mapping they involve across different conceptual domains. The examples of metaphors used in this study mostly include everyday expressions used in ordinary language. This view is in line with the cognitive claim that metaphors are not limited to specific literary discourse and abound in our everyday ordinary use of language.

2. Review of Literature

There have been a number of comparative studies on the conceptual metaphors in Persian, though none of them has been particularly about the metaphors of time. In this section, we look at some of the previous studies relevant to the present paper.

Pirzad Mashak et al. (2012) in a comparative study of basic emotion conceptual metaphors in the English and Persian literary texts, investigated the universality of the conceptualisation of emotion metaphors and the dominant pattern in English and Persian based on Kovecses's (2003) model for linguistic expression of metaphor. The emotions they studied were happiness, anger, sadness, fear, and love. They came to the conclusion that, in spite of the cultural differences in conceptualising these five basic emotions in English and Persian due to the emphasis laid on some aspects of metaphor and entailments, the two languages share most of the general conceptual metaphors in describing these five emotions. That is, most Persian metaphorical expressions of emotions can be literally rendered into English and vice versa, and serve the same metaphorical meaning and effects. They also found that anger was the most universal emotion, whereas sadness was the least universal emotion in this study.

Moradi and Pirzad Mashak (2013) in a comparative and contrastive study of the conceptualisation of sadness in Persian and English concluded that although both languages share most sadness conceptual metaphors, some differences are observed at generic-level relating to the existence/nonexistence of metaphors in Persian and English.

Afrashi et al. (2013) in a comparative study of orientational conceptual metaphors in Persian and Spanish, examined the orientational metaphors applied to data collected from Spanish, and tried to prove the use of these metaphors at the level of metaphorical mapping as well as linguistic representation in Persian. Analysing 38 samples of orientational conceptual metaphors extracted from different written and oral sources, they concluded that the similarities related to conceptual metaphors based on the human understanding of the sense of 'space' and 'direction' are more than the disparities in these two languages.

Zoorvarz et al. (2014) investigated the conceptual metaphors of happiness in a corpus-driven study. They sampled a corpus of contemporary written texts, to represent modern colloquial Persian, and tried to extract the relevant conceptual metaphors of happiness. Analysing the corpus, they extracted 297 conceptual metaphors of happiness within 33 mappings, and then determined the most frequent conceptual mappings and source domains. They tried to suggest the common source domains and name of the mappings for happiness metaphors. In this regard, source domains such as 'object', 'substance' and 'action' were found to be the most frequent. The authors also provided a comparison between the conceptual metaphors of happiness in Persian and English.

As mentioned however, none of the comparative studies focusing on metaphors in Persian has been about the metaphors of time in particular. Among the non-Persian comparative studies on time metaphors, Boroditsky (2001) compared the metaphors of time in English and Mandarin, showing that the two languages talk about time differently. English predominantly talks about time as if it were horizontal, while Mandarin commonly describes time as vertical. This difference between the two languages is said to be reflected in the way their speakers think about time. Based on these observations, Boroditsky concludes that language is a powerful tool in shaping thought about abstract domains, and that one's native language plays an important role

in shaping habitual thought - e.g, how one tends to think about time - but does not entirely determine one's thinking in the strong Whorfian sense (ibid.).

In yet another comparative study focused on metaphors of time, Eweida (2006) compared English usages of 'time' metaphors with Quranic Arabic realisations and their representations in three English Quranic translations to distinguish the version that corresponded most accurately with the conceptual metaphors found in both languages. The historical, social and religious aspects were also taken into consideration in order to determine the cause of certain conceptual metaphor realisations in both or one of the languages.

Following this short review of relevant literature and having noted that none of the previous comparative studies have been focused on the conceptual metaphors of time in Persian, the present study aims to discover the similarities and differences between Persian and English in their conceptualisation of time.

3. Theoretical Framework

This study adopts a cognitive approach to metaphor, and makes use of Lakoff and Johnson's conceptual metaphor theory to look at the different expressions of time in Persian and English.

Generally, metaphors allow us to understand one domain of experience in terms of another. So, there are two conceptual domains involved in any given metaphor. The starting point or the described concept is often called the 'target' domain, while the comparison concept or the analogy is called the 'source' domain. In Richards's (1936) terminology the former is called the 'tenor' and the latter is called the 'vehicle' (Saeed, 2009: 359). Hence, for any given metaphor, we can identify a source domain and a target domain. Source domains tend to be relatively concrete areas of experience and target domains tend to be more abstract (Lee, 2001: 6).

Lakoff and Johnson, emphasising the role of metaphor in everyday use of language, have identified a large number of common metaphors termed 'conceptual metaphors' which underlie many everyday metaphoric expressions which are the actual representations of those conceptual metaphors. For example, a spatial metaphor such as HAPPY IS UP; SAD IS DOWN, would give us many everyday expressions associated with it, as the following examples show:

- (1) a. I'm feeling up.
 - b. You're in high spirits.
 - c. I'm feeling down.
 - d. He's really <u>low</u> these days.

(Lakoff & Johnson, 1980: 15)

In this conceptual metaphor (and the example expressions above), spatial relationships of 'up' and 'down' are the source domain; that is, they are used to describe the more abstract concept of 'feeling' which is the target domain in our example.

In what follows, metaphoric expressions of time are looked at under the relevant conceptual metaphors to which they belong. As will be seen, in some cases there is no clear-cut border between the conceptual metaphors and, as a result of this overlap between some of the categories, a certain expression can be thought of as belonging to

more than one conceptual metaphor.

4. Metaphors of Time

The examples of time metaphors presented here are organised under eight subheadings based on the different conceptual metaphors they represent. The conceptual metaphors of time covered in this study include TIME IS MONEY, TIME IS A RESOURCE, TIME IS A MOVING ENTITY, TIME IS A LANDSCAPE WE MOVE THROUGH, TIME IS A CONTAINER, TIME IS A CHANGER, TIME IS A PURSUER, and TIME IS A LIVING ENTITY. Each subsection includes common Persian examples together with – exact or near – equivalents in English, in order to shed light on the areas of similarities or differences between the two languages in their use of time metaphors.

As already mentioned, the examples used in this study mostly include everyday expressions. The Persian examples are in most cases in the informal spoken style; nevertheless, the style would not make a difference in the illustration of conceptual mappings intended in this study.

4.1. TIME IS MONEY

The first conceptual metaphor examined in this section is the TIME IS MONEY metaphor. Here, the source domain 'money' is used to conceptualise the target domain 'time'. Below is a set of examples representing this metaphor together with equivalents in English. In these examples – and all the examples throughout this paper –, the key words involved in the mapping between the two conceptual domains are underlined. In this case, one key word is a word of time and the other one is mostly a verb originally used in the source domain, which is responsible for the mapping.

- (2) a. <u>vaqt-et ro hadar nade/talaf nakon.</u> time-GEN.2SG DO NEG.IMP.waste.2SG 'Don't <u>waste</u> your <u>time</u>.'
 - b. lotfan <u>vaqt</u>-e bištari be man <u>bede</u>.

 please time-EZ more to me IMP.give.2SG

 'Please <u>give</u> me a little more <u>time</u>.'
 - c. <u>vaqt-et</u> ro četor <u>sarf mikoni</u>? time-GEN.2SG DO how IND.spend.2SG 'How do you <u>spend</u> your <u>time</u>?'
 - d. <u>vaqt</u>-e ziādi barāye in prože <u>hazine kardam</u>. time-EZ much for this project invest.PST.1SG 'I invested a lot of time in this project.'
 - e. terāfik-e emruz sobh <u>do</u> <u>sā'at</u> barā-m <u>hazine dāšt</u>. traffic-EZ today morning two hour for-me cost.PST.3SG 'The traffic this morning <u>cost</u> me <u>two hours</u>.'
 - f. in vasile bā'es-e <u>sarfejuyi</u> dar <u>vaqt</u> miše. this gadget cause-EZ saving in time IND.become.3SG 'This gadget <u>saves</u> (you) <u>time</u>.'
 - g. bāyad <u>vaqt</u>-et ro <u>budjebandi/barnāmerizi koni</u>.

```
should time-GEN.2SG DO budget/plan.SUB.2SG 'You should <u>budget</u> your <u>time</u>.'
```

- h. <u>vaqt</u> <u>talā</u>-st. time gold-be.3SG '<u>Time</u> is gold.'
- i. <u>arzeš-e vaqt</u> gozāštan na-dāre. worth-EZ time put NEG-have.3SG 'It's not worth the time.'
- j. mamnun az <u>vaqt</u>-e <u>bā arzeš</u>-etun. thanks of time-EZ precious-GEN.2PL 'Thanks for your precious time.'

As can be seen in the above examples in (2), in both languages the same verbs generally used with money are used to talk about time. The verb-noun collocations of this type commonly used in Persian, also evident in the examples in (2), are as follows:

(3) a. vaqt hadar dādan / vaqt talaf kardan

(lit. time waste)

'to waste time'

b. vaqt dādan

(lit. time give)

'to give time'

c. vaqt sarf kardan

(lit. time spend)

'to spend time'

d. arzeš dāštan (vagt)

(lit. worth have)

'to be worth (the time)'

e. hazine dāštan (vaqt)

(lit. cost have)

'to cost (time)'

f. vaqt hazine kardan

(lit. time invest)

'to invest time'

g. sarfejuyi dar vaqt

(lit. saving in time)

'to save time'

h. budjebandi-e vaqt/zaman

(lit. budgeting of time)

'to budget time'

Accordingly, it can be said that most of the expressions falling into this category are structured much the same way in Persian and English. However, a few exceptions can be found. For one thing, there are a few proverbs and expressions of time in English which do not have an exact literal equivalent in Persian, as it is the case with the

following examples:

- (4) a. He's living on borrowed time.
 - b. The diversion should <u>buy</u> him some <u>time</u>. (taken from Lakoff, 1994)

In the idiom (4a), the Persian equivalent does not make use of the expression 'to borrow time', and this phrase – *vaqt qarz gereftan* (lit. time borrow) 'to borrow time' – is not generally used in this way in standard Persian. Also, regarding the second example (4b), the expression *vaqt xaridan* (lit. time buy) 'to buy time' is not very commonly seen in standard Persian.

4.2. TIME IS A RESOURCE

The second conceptual metaphor presented here, which is closely related to the first one discussed in the previous section, sees time as a 'resource'. The expressions representing this metaphor are very similar to the ones in the TIME IS MONEY metaphor, because of the obvious similarities between the two concepts of 'money' and 'resource'. The following are a few examples:

- (5) a. <u>vaqt</u> <u>nadārim</u>.
 - time NEG.have.1PL
 - 'We don't have time.'
 - b. <u>vaqt</u> ro <u>hadar nade</u>.

time DO NEG.IMP.waste.2SG

- 'Don't waste time.'
- c. az <u>vaqt</u>-et behtar <u>estefāde</u> kon.
 - of time-GEN.2SG better IMP.use.2SG
 - 'Make a better <u>use of your time</u>.'
- d. vagt kam dārim.
 - time little have.1PL
 - 'We have <u>little time</u>. / We are <u>short of time</u>.'
- e. <u>vaqt</u>-i barāye <u>az dast dādan</u> nadārim.

time-INDF for lose NEG.have.1PL

- 'We have no time to lose.'
- f. <u>vaqt</u>-i <u>bāqi</u> <u>namunde</u>.

time-INDF remain NEG.leave.PRF-be.3SG

- 'There's no time left.'
- g. vaqt tamām šode.

time finish.PRF-be.3SG

'Time's up. / Time is over.'

As can be observed in the above sentences, some of the most common phrases used in Persian to talk about time as a 'resource' are the following ones:

(6) a. vaqt dāštan

(lit. time have)

'to have time'

b. vaqt hadar dādan / vaqt talaf kardan

(lit. time waste)

'to waste time'

c. estefāde az vagt

(lit. use of time)

'the use of time'

d. kambud-e vaqt

(lit. shortage of time)

'shortage of time; lack of time'

e. az dast dādan-e vaqt

(lit. lose of time)

'to lose time'

f. tamām šodan-e vaqt

(lit. finish of time)

'to run out of time'

As evident from the expressions listed in (5) and (6), there again appears to be a roughly one-to-one relationship between the two languages in talking about time as a 'resource'.

4.3. TIME IS A MOVING ENTITY

The next metaphor to be discussed here regards time as a 'moving entity'. The expressions given in (7) represent this conceptual metaphor:

(7) a. $\underline{\bar{a}xar-e}$ \underline{fasl} \underline{nazdik} -e.

end-EZ season near-be.3SG

'The end of season is near.'

b. bahār dāre miad.

spring PROG.come.3SG

'Spring is coming up.'

c. *jalase* <u>do</u> <u>sā'at</u> be <u>jelo</u> <u>kešide šode</u>.

meeting two hour to forward pull.PRF-be.3SG

meeting two hour to forward pull.PRF-be.3 'The meeting has been moved forward two hours.'

d. āxar-e hafte ke biād, ...

end-EZ week that SUB.come.3SG

'When the weekend comes, ...'

e. <u>sāl-e</u> <u>no</u> <u>dar hāl-e</u> <u>nazdik</u> <u>šodan-e.</u> year-EZ new in moment-EZ near get-be.3SG

'New Year is approaching. / New Year is getting near.'

f. in <u>hafte</u> bedun-e hādese <u>gozašt</u>. this week without-EZ incident pass.PST.3SG

'The week passed without incident.'

g. <u>lazhe</u>-ye sarneveštsāz <u>nazdik</u>-e.

moment-EZ decisive near-be.3SG 'The decisive moment is near.'

- h. <u>zamān</u> <u>zud migzare</u>. time soon IND.pass.3SG 'Time passes quickly. / Time passes soon.'
- i. <u>zamān</u> dir <u>migzare</u>. time late IND.pass.3SG

'Time passes slowly.'

- j. <u>ruz-hā</u> dar <u>gozar-and</u>. day-PL in pass-be.3PL 'Days are passing by.'
- k. *bā* gozar-e zaman with passage-EZ time 'With the passage of time'
- 1. <u>vaqt</u>-eš <u>reside</u>. time-GEN.3SG come.PRF-be.3SG 'The time has come.'

As can be seen in the examples, the verbs of movement and other words describing distance are very commonly used in both English and Persian to talk about time in a quite similar fashion. Some of the most frequent verbs in this case are *āmadan* 'to come', *gozaštan* 'to pass', and *nazdik šodan* 'to approach'.

In English, there are also proverbs of time which include this conceptual mapping of movement with verbs such as 'come', as in the following examples:

(8) a. <u>Tomorrow</u> may never <u>come</u>.

Near equivalent in Persian: fardā ro kasi nadide.

('No one has seen tomorrow.')

b. After night comes the dawn.

Near equivalent in Persian: pāyān-e šab-e siyah sepide.

('The end of a dark night is bright.')

Even though the equivalents of these proverbs in Persian do not necessarily make use of the same verbs of movement – 'come' in this case –, but still, as already mentioned, verbs like $\bar{a}madan$ 'to come' and gozaštan 'to pass' are very widely used in time expressions in Persian, quite the same way their equivalents are used in English.

4.4. TIME IS A LANDSCAPE WE MOVE THROUGH

This is a closely related metaphor to TIME IS A MOVING ENTITY; however in this case, time is not moving, rather it is a landscape through which other entities move. Accordingly, as can be expected, many of the same expressions grouped under the conceptual metaphor TIME IS A MOVING ENTITY can be turned into this metaphor as well, only in this case time is considered fixed and other things move relative to it. The following are a few examples:

Journal of Applied Studies in Language, Volume 3 Issue 1 (Jun 2019), p. 43—55 p-issn 2598-4101 e-issn 2615-4706 © Politeknik Negeri Bali http://ojs.pnb.ac.id/index.php/JASL

- (9) a. be <u>āxar-e</u> <u>fasl</u> <u>nazdik</u> <u>mišim</u>. to end-EZ season near IND.get.3PL 'We're getting near/close to the end of season.'
 - b. dārim be <u>krismas</u> <u>miresim</u>.

 PROG.3PL to Christmas IND.get.3PL

 'We're coming up on Christmas.'
 - c. <u>bištar</u> az in nemitunam <u>edāme bedam.</u> more than this NEG.IND.can.1SG continue.SUB.1SG 'I can't continue any longer.'
 - d. če <u>ruydād-hā-yi</u> <u>dar piš</u> <u>dārim?</u> what event-PL-INDF in ahead have.1PL 'What events do we have up ahead?'
 - e. <u>ruydād-hā-ye</u> <u>piš-e ru</u> events-PL-EZ ahead 'Events up ahead'
 - f. <u>dar</u> <u>tul-e</u> <u>hafte</u> in length-EZ week 'Within the week'

Again, the two languages are analogous in using words of path and movement to talk about time. In Persian, the same verbs of movement discussed in the previous section – e.g., *āmadan* 'to come', *nazdik šodan* 'to approach', *residan* 'to get', etc. – are very commonly used in time-related expressions.

4.5. TIME IS A CONTAINER

The TIME IS A CONTAINER metaphor, which views time as a 'container' to hold things inside, is mostly depicted by means of prepositions in both languages, as in the following examples:

- (10) a. <u>tu</u> <u>se</u> <u>daqiqe</u> in <u>kār</u> ro anjām dād. in three minute this job DO do.PST.3SG 'He did this (job) in three minutes.'
 - b. <u>dar</u> <u>sāl-e</u> <u>2004</u> in year-EZ 2004 'In 2004'
 - c. prožeh <u>dar</u> <u>arz-e/zarf-e</u> čand <u>ruz</u> be pāyān mirese. project in within-EZ a few day to finish IND.get.3SG 'The project will be finished <u>within</u> a few <u>days</u>.'
 - d. <u>vāred-e</u> <u>sāl-e</u> <u>jadid</u> <u>šodim.</u> enter-EZ year-EZ new get.PST.1PL 'We entered the new year.'
 - e. <u>xārej az</u> <u>vaqt</u>-e edāri out of time-EZ office 'Out of office hours / Out of working hours'

Journal of Applied Studies in Language, Volume 3 Issue 1 (Jun 2019), p. 43—55 p-issn 2598-4101 e-issn 2615-4706 © Politeknik Negeri Bali http://ojs.pnb.ac.id/index.php/JASL

Here, as evident, the connection between the two conceptual domains is mostly made by the use of prepositions, and English and Persian mostly use equivalent prepositions - e.g., dar 'in' or $x\bar{a}rej\ az$ 'out of' - in this regard.

4.6. TIME IS A CHANGER

This conceptual metaphor, which views time as something that leads to a change, is also commonly used in proverbs and idiomatic expressions, like the following:

- (11) a. <u>zamāne</u> <u>pir-eš</u> <u>kard</u>e. time old-him/her do.PRF-be.3SG 'Time has made him/her look old.'
 - b. <u>zamān</u> <u>bā'es</u>-e farāmuši <u>miše</u>. time cause-EZ forgetfulness IND.get.3SG '<u>Time</u> will <u>make</u> you forget.'
 - c. <u>zamān</u> <u>eltiāmbaxš</u>-e <u>zaxm-hā-st</u>. time healer-EZ wound-PL-be.3SG 'Time is the heal<u>er</u> of wounds. / <u>Time heals</u> wounds.'

4.7. TIME IS A PURSUER

This metaphor views time as a 'pursuer' chasing us, as if life is a constant race between time and us. The following expressions represent this metaphor:

budan (12) a. azzamān jelo/piš ahead be of time 'to be ahead of time' donya/zamāne budan b. *az* agab of world/time behind be 'to be behind the times' budan c. be ruz day be to

As seen in the expressions above, the Persian equivalents for words such as 'ahead of' or 'behind' are used the same way to talk about time as a pursuer.

4.8. TIME IS A LIVING ENTITY

'to be up to date'

The last metaphor of time to be discussed here, TIME IS A LIVING ENTITY, is seen in expressions like the ones below which view time as a 'living thing'.

(13) a. <u>koštan</u>-e <u>vaqt</u>

kill-EZ time 'to kill time'

- b. <u>zamān</u> <u>montazer</u>-e <u>kasi nemimānad</u>. time waiting-EZ anyone NEG.IND.stay.3SG 'Time doesn't wait for anyone.'
- c. <u>zamān</u> hame čiz rā <u>rošan/mošaxas</u> <u>mikonad</u>. time all thing DO clear IND.do.3SG 'time reveals everything'
- d. <u>zamān</u> <u>be</u> <u>naf'-e</u> <u>mā</u> ast. time to benefit-EZ our be.3SG 'Time is on our side'

This metaphoric conceptualisation of time is even more prominent in English which includes a lot of expressions regarding time as an animate thing. This view is observed in more examples from English:

- (14) a. Time flies
 - b. Time has wings.
 - c. To beat the clock.
 - d. It's too late to call yesterday.
 - e. When two Sundays meet.

Needless to say that some of the expressions used throughout this study can fall into more than one conceptual metaphor. For example, the expression 'time flies' can be categorised into both TIME IS A MOVING ENTITY and TIME IS A LIVING ENTITY metaphors; or, the expression 'within the week' can fall into the conceptual metaphors of TIME IS A CONTAINER and TIME IS A LANDSCAPE WE MOVE THROUGH at the same time.

5. Conclusion

Comparing the sets of metaphors of time in Persian and English under different classes of conceptual metaphors indicates that the two languages show many similarities in their conceptualisation of time in time-related expressions, and seem to use metaphoric structures in roughly the same way to talk about time.

Evidence for this conclusion comes from the use of the same literal collocations in the two languages (as observed in the examples throughout this study), when talking about time. Some of the most widely used instances of verbs collocating with time words are verbs of movement such as āmadan 'to come', nazdik šodan 'to approach', gozaštan 'to pass', or verbs originally used to talk about money or other resources, like hadar dādan 'to waste', dāštan 'to have', hazine kardan 'to invest', sarfe-juyi kardan 'to save', dādan 'to give', etc. However, there are also cases where there is no one-to-one relationship between the words used in metaphoric expressions of time in the two languages, as was the case with verb phrases like qarz gereftan-e vaqt 'to borrow time' or xaridan-e vaqt 'to buy time', which are not commonly used in standard Persian.

The results appear to be in line with the cognitive claim that language and thought are closely connected to each other, and the areas of cross-language differences found in use of metaphors and in conceptualising different domains can be traced back to the

different ways people with a specific language and culture think about everyday experiences and concepts. As Taylor (1995) argues, "while certain experiences are presumably common to all normal, healthy human beings, others are strongly conditioned by culture and environment, and so it comes as no surprise that we find both considerable cross-language similarity in metaphorical expression, as well as cross-language diversity" (1995: 141). Nevertheless, regarding the use of time metaphors, the similarities observed between Persian and English happen to be far more significant than the minor sporadic differences.

References

- Afrashi, A., Hesami, T. & Salas, B. C. (2013). Barresi-ye tatbighi-ye este'ārehā-ye mafhumi-ye jahati dar zabānhā-ye espaniyayi va farsi [A comparative survey of orientational conceptual metaphors in Spanish and Persian]. *Journal of Language Research*, 3(4), 1-23.
- Boroditsky, L. (2001). Does language shape thought? Mandarin and English speakers' conceptions of time. *Cognitive Psychology*, 43, 1-22.
- Botha, R. P. (1968). *The function of the lexicon in transformational generative grammar*. The Hague: Mouton.
- Eweida, S. (2006). The realization of time metaphors and the cultural implications: An analysis of the Quran and English Quranic translations. Stockholm University.
- Johnson, M. (1987). *The body in the mind: The bodily basis of meaning, imagination, and reason.* Chicago: Chicago University Press.
- Kovecses, Z. (2003). Metaphor and linguistic expressions. In Z. Kovecses, *Metaphor in culture: Universality and variation*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Lakoff, G. & Johnson, M. (1980). Metaphors we live by. Chicago: Chicago University Press.
- Lakoff, G. (1994). *Conceptual Metaphor Home Page*. Accessed 19 November 2016. http://www.lang.osaka-u.ac.jp/~sugimoto/MasterMetaphorList/MetaphorHome.html
- Lee, D. (2001). Cognitive linguistics: An introduction. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Moradi, M. R. & Pirzad Mashak, Sh. (2013). A comparative and contrastive study of sadness conceptualization in Persian and English. *Journal of English Linguistics Research*, 2(1), 107-112.
- Pirzad Mashak, Sh., Pazhakh, A. & Hayati, A. (2012). A comparative study on basic emotion conceptual metaphors in English and Persian literary texts. *Journal of International Education Studies*, 5(1), 200-207.
- Richards, I. A. (1936). The philosophy of rhetoric. London: Oxford University Press.
- Saeed, J. I. (2009). Semantics (3rd ed.). Oxford: Wiley-Blackwell.
- Taylor, J. R. (1995). Linguistic categorization (2nd ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Zoorvarz, M., Afrashi, A. & Assi, S. M. (2014). Este'ārehā-ye mafhumi-ye shādi dar zabān-e fārsi: yek tahlil-e peykare-madār [Happiness conceptual metaphors in Persian: A cognitive corpus-driven approach]. *Journal of Linguistics and Dialects of Khorasan*, 9, 49-72.

Pragmatic meaning of advertising discourse in Medan local newspaper

Desri Wiana

Politeknik Negeri Medan email: desri.wiana@polmed.ac.id

Abstract - Pragmatics is the study of the aspects of meaning in which the speaker expressed or communicated and a listener interpreted it. In other words, pragmatics covered the study of language sense which is communicated by the language user. Meanings or language senses that is expressed by the language users implies beyond the meanings that are expressed in the writings. This paper focused on the advertising discourses that exposed in Medan, North Sumatera local newspaper; that is Analisa. The aim of this paper is to explore the pragmatics meaning of advertising discourses in Analisa newspaper, in which applied the theory of implicature, presupposition, coherence, and background analysis. The data collected were totally 120 advertising discourses. The technique of analysis data that were applied is descriptive analysis. The findings are revealed that Analisa newspaper consisted of 14 pragmatics meaning. Offering products are the most dominantly pragmatic meanings expressed in the newspaper. This shows that the purpose of commercial ads in the local newspaper tends to offer products for selling to the community and to market as well.

Keywords: advertising language, pragmatic meaning, intended meaning

1. Introduction

Discourse is the language aspects which is relatively complex. It covers language proponents such as phonemics, morphemic, words, phrases, clauses, sentences, paragraphs, and compositions. However, discourse constitutes a language aspect that is pragmatics-characterized. Moreover, user and discourse comprehension in communication need lots of language instruments. Therefore, the study of discourses becomes essential in a learning language process. The purpose is to support the language user to understand and communicate the language in a correct way.

Discourse analysis is one of the alternative ways of analyzing the content besides quantitative analysis which is mostly and dominantly applied. The quantitative analysis is more focused on the question "what", while discourse analysis is more to observe on "how" derived from the messages or text. It shows how the content of the text in news and messages are delivered. By analyzing how structure grammatical construction which covered words, phrases, sentences and so on, discourse analysis is able to dismantle the latent senses of the text (Eriyanto, 2001: 15).

The style of language journalism is different to others language styles, specifically in a language advertising. The essential feature is abbreviation in a sentence, for instance, "DPRD Siantar bentuk Pansus" (panitia khusus), (Tribun, 5 Mei 2012), 'Siantar's Parliament constituted an extra ordinary committee'. Meanwhile, a metaphor is forming and appreciating from two sides. Metaphor language has more than a singular meaning, for instance, "Bebas mandi bola". "BI kenalkan Bank tanpa kantor", "Markus dibidik PSSI", (Tribun, 5 Mei 2012). ('Free ball bathing'; 'Bank of Indonesia introduced bank without an office; 'A broker is hired by Indonesian Footbal Association (PSSI)'.

The problem that is discussed in this paper is to elaborate on the pragmatics meaning that is mostly used in advertising discourses of Analisa newspaper. The aim of this paper is to explain the pragmatics meaning that is found in advertising discourses of Analisa, a local newspaper.

Pragmatics is a theory or a meaning that appears along with language mastery. It defined differently according to some language experts. Pragmatics is the theory of meanings which are expressed or communicated by the speaker and it is interpreted by the listener. In other words, it covers the meanings theory that is communicated by a language user. Meaning or sense that delivered by the speaker is beyond the meanings that are uttered in a text transcript. It means that pragmatics unit linguistics that is transformed into sounds, words, phrases, clauses, paragraphs, or others linguistics parts, such as:

Budi: *Bagus, film yang ditonton*? ('How was the movie, it was good?') Ana: *Tidak sesuai dengan judulnya* ('The movie is not matched to the title')

Delivered meanings said that the movie that she watched is not good enough because the plot of the story is not matched to the title. Pragmatics and Semantics similarly used the meanings as for the core of communication. Semantics is focused on the minds of the speaker (competence, langue) whereas pragmatics is dealt with utterances (performance, parole) (Sudaryat, 2009: 120).

Pragmatics also is concerned with syntax. Both are used in the language parts. The difference, the syntax is focused on sentences as the object and isolative, while

pragmatics is focused on discourse (text) as the process of language function which is motivational. Nababan (1987) explained that pragmatics is dealt with the language usage effectively and natural use for speaking in such situation setting (Sudaryat, 2009: 120).

Mulyana (2005: 11) stated that speech implicature is literally something delivers sense that differs from the exact spoken. The different parts are the real message of the speaker that is not exposed explicitly. In other words, the hidden wishes, the latent words, and heart intentions. For instance: Double Eight English "Stop Belajar"!! Kini saatnya bicara." (Analisa, Juni 2012) ('Stop learning!! It's time to speak up').

Ads discourse in *Analisa* daily newspaper above contains implicature which defines by attending an English course in Double Eight English, it is not only learning but also practicing to speak English. Presupposition or allegation is an assumption or alleges dealt with impossibility happened, (divisibility), projection issues or trending mark information (Sudaryat, 2009: 124).

Allege is closely concerned with discourse inference that is a process that is carried out by the speaker in order to comprehend a discourse meaning in which is not conveyed verbally in a communication. A discourse inference is needed for defining an implicit discourse or literally referred to the intention. For instance: "a case of someone who loans some money to her neighbour" (Sudaryat, 2009: 125).

A good discourse contains cohesion and coherence. Coherence is a part of a discourse, as the structural organization semantically, the ideas which are coordinated in a well-organized to achieve the aims and the utterances precisely. Coherence constitutes a language formal aspect in syntax organization; the sentences are constructed in a dense and solid to produce utterances. Cohesion referred to an intersentence context in a discourse, whether in the grammatical structure or in lexical (Gutswinksy, 1976: 26 in Sudaryat, 2009: 151—152). Therefore, discourse can be said as a cohesive if there is a similarity language form as its context (inner language situation) and context (outside language situation).

In fact, we interpret coherently into a text in which it has no potential interpretation, such as: "Mar, minta dibebaskan dari tuntutan JPU" 'Mar, asked for being released from judge's charges' (Tribun, 27 Juni 2012). When the readers read the newspaper, he/she has to create coherence meaning from the headline above that is someone has a name "Mar" asked for an exemption from prosecutor inside the court session. Based on the educational background and experience of the reader commonly can be assumed from reading a newspaper or watching television. Ability to create coherence meaning is based on what lies in a reader mind, not only from the text or discourse.

One's ability to interpret automatically something which it is not written text and unspoken should be based on the basic structure of knowledge itself. The structure is likewise a close acquaintance pattern that derived from long experience used to interpret new experiences. The term for the pattern is a schema (plural: schemata). A schema is a prior knowledge structure that is kept in the minds previously (Yule, 2006: 146).

A permanent pattern is kept in a schema; we called it a frame. Everyone has its own frame together in a social group will be advanced into the prototype version. For instance, in a house frame, it assumed there will be components inside the house, such

as the kitchen, bedroom, and bathroom. In a common way, the assumption of a frame will be stated as it is written in the advertisement as follows.

A house for rent Rp.1.500.000,00. Call: 061-7323367

The first impression of the ads above is the house is rent for a year, not for a month, so it is based on a different experience for the price of a rented house. Even though, pragmatics problem is the same that is the reader uses knowledge structure previously that is already existed for interpreting for something that is not stated in the text.

Pragmatics meaning is meaning or sense that is interpreted by the language user. It covers implicature, presupposition, coherence, and educational background (Yule, 2006: 146). Pragmatics meaning is not written text, unspoken or unwritten. Refer to the theory about implicature, presupposition, coherence, and education background as explained above, so it concludes that pragmatics meaning that presented in the advertising newspaper covers 1. superiority a quality, 2. portraying a success, 3. low budget as a purpose, 4. offering facility, 5. analysing technology, 6. promoting quality, 7. sophisticated technology, 8. telecommunication service, 9. offering health and nurturing, 10. residential and property, 11. offering a low price, 12. healthy drink, 13. health information, 14. offering a product, 15. a medium of delivery, 16. recommendation, and 17. offering facility or eases.

2. Method

In this paper, the researcher applied descriptive method with documentation technique. A descriptive method defined as one of a method which describes all the object of the research objectively, the research is collected the sample, but all the population is analyzed and collected (Mahfoedz, et al., 2008: 21).

3. Results and Discussion

Pragmatics meaning is meaning or sense that is interpreted by the language user. It covers implicature, presupposition, coherence, and educational background (Yule, 2006: 146). Pragmatics meaning is not written the text, unspoken or unwritten. Refer to the theory about implicature, presupposition, coherence, and education background as explained above, so it concludes that pragmatics meaning that presented in daily Analisa advertising newspaper contains 14 pragmatics meanings.

nber Pragmatics Meaning		<u>%</u>
Offering products	46 to	38,3
A medium of delivery	16	13,3
Health information	15	12,5
Low price at a target	10	8,3
Accentuating quality product	8	6,6
Offering ease or facility	6	5
Superiority at the best quality	4	3,3
Recommendation	3	2,5
	Offering products A medium of delivery Health information Low price at a target Accentuating quality product Offering ease or facility Superiority at the best quality	Offering products A medium of delivery Health information Low price at a target Accentuating quality product Offering ease or facility Superiority at the best quality 46 to 47 to

9.	Offering freshness	2	1,6
10	Offering frugality	2	1,6
11	Offering conveniently	1	0,8
12	Strong and fast producing result	1	0,8
13	Residential and property	1	0,8
	Sum	120	100%

Based on the table above, the widest pragmatics meaning is expressed in Analisa newspaper is offering products which are totally summed at 46 or 38,3%. Meaning of as a medium of delivery is totally at 16 or 13,3%. The meaning of Health information is in the sum of 15 or 12,5%. Meaning of a low price as a target is in the sum of 10 or 8,3%. Meaning of possessing the quality is totally sum up until 8 or 6,6%. Meaning of accentuating quality products is totally at 6 or 5%. Meaning of offering ease or facility is at the sum of 6 or 5%. Meaning of superiority as a quality is noted totally at 4 or 3,3%. Meanings of offering freshness are in the sum of 2 or 1,6%. Meanings of offering frugality are to the sum of 2 or 1,6%. Each meaning, of offering conveniently, the meaning of strong and producing results, and meaning of residential and property is at the sum of 1 or 0,8%.

These are some examples of pragmatics meaning in Analisa newspaper.

- 1. Offering products. "Jotun, more Jotun paint you bought, the more you grab the prize". The advertisement above stated that by buying Jotun product you will get the prize.
- 2. A medium of delivery, "Simpedes Citizen Party", Bank BRI services with a sincere heart".

Advertisement above stated that newspaper as a medium of delivery to convey information to the public.

3. Health information, "You have diabetes? Gluco Block, the natural herbal formula to reduce, neutral and blockade glucose also to prevent diabetic complication."

Advertisement above stated that newspaper as the medium of delivery health information that is gluco block product for diabetic cure treatment.

4. Low price as a target: "What's for buying the second-hand? 100% brand new cars are 100 million (Hyundai Avega 2012).

Advertisement above stated that Hyundai products released new products at a lower price.

5. Superiority is the best quality. "Everybody can, everybody can" Suzuki Susi E.SS.

Advertisement above stated that Suzuki Susi E.SS products have more super quality than any other products.

6. Accentuating quality products, "Nissan Evalia, the most convenient in its class, most comforting in all along the way."

Advertisement above stated that Nissan Evalia products are the most prominent products in the automobile industry the customers felt satisfied when they are driving the products.

7. Offering ease and facility. "Get Down Payment in small paid, light installment, Hyundai Grand Avega".

Advertisement above stated that Hyundai offered a facility with small paid Down Payment and light installment to the city public to own brand new car from Hyundai.

8. Superiority as the best quality, "Pick Up Mega Carry," Don't wrong to choose to pick up, choose the best one quality, that is a test-guaranteed".

Advertisement above stated that pick up mega carry has superior quality as the prominent from the other products that are a test-guaranteed.

9. A recommendation, "Visit Philips exhibition"

Advertisement above stated that newspaper is as a medium of recommending to the public in order to visit the exhibition which is organized by Philips, the best-seller products.

10. Offering freshness, "Fresh out your day with baskin robbins, a healthy drink".

The advertisement above stated that a product is offering the freshness to the costumes to drink healthy beverage of basking robins.

11. Offering frugality. "Suzuya," the lowest price Shopping in Suzuya".

Advertisement above stated that newspaper provides public information to purchase in Suzuya as the place for offering frugality in shopping.

12. Offering fresh air, "Freshen air, moisture skin (LG Life is Good)"

The above advertisement shows that newspaper is a medium to offer products that provide freshness to the customers that are by buying AC under licensed by LG.

13. Strong and fast producing a result. "Mitsubishi Motors," No. 1 to lift up heavy equipment, gain profits directly".

The above advertisement shows that the newspaper is as a medium of conveying a product that is strong and easy to get the profit that is Mitsubishi to lift up and carry heavy equipment.

14. Residential and property, "Grand Boulevard", "elite villa and business home-office in the center of Medan city, the cheapest price at this moment."

The above advertisement shows that a newspaper is as a medium of delivering property info or regency to the public with a lower price and located in the center of Medan city.

4. Conclusion

Pragmatics meaning in Analisa newspaper is at the sum of 14 meanings, they are meaning of offering products, meaning of as a medium of conveying, meaning of health information, meaning of low price as a target, meaning of superiority of best quality, meaning of accentuating quality products, meaning of offering ease and facility, meaning of empowering the best quality, meaning of recommendation, meaning of offering freshness, meaning of offering frugality, meaning of offering fresh air, meaning of strong and fast product results, meaning of residential and property. The most prominent and use of pragmatics meaning is to offer products which are totally at the sum of 46 or 38,3%. This reveals that advertising is a medium of offering products and to introduce new product released to the city public.

References

Eriyanto. (2001). Discourse Analysis: Introduction to Media Text Analysis. Yogyakarta: Lkis.

Harahap, N. (2008). "Pragmatic Analysis of Newspaper Advertising Discourse". Thesis. University of Northern Sumatra. Field

Machfoedz, I. et al. (2008). Dictionary of Research Term of KTI Thesis and Thesis. Yogyakarta: Fitramaya.

Mulyana. (2005). Discourse Review. Yogyakarta: Tiara Wacana.

Nadar, FX. (2009). Pragmatics and Pragmatic Research. Yogyakarta: Graha Ilmu.

Praptomo, BI. (2002). Fundamentals of Discourse Analysis in Language Science. Yogyakarta: Pustaka Gondho Suli.

Puksi, FF. (2018). Presupposition contributions in stand-up comedy (discourse analysis of Raditya Dika's stand-up comedy on YouTube). *Journal of Applied Studies in Language*, 2(2), 135-143. doi:10.31940/jasl.v3i1.1056

Saragih, A. (2006). Language in the Social Context. Graduate program. USU.

Sulistyaningtyas, T. (2008). "Diction In The Discourse of Advertising Speaking of Newspapers" Journal of Sociotechnology, Issue 15 Year 7, December 2008.

Sudaryat, Y. (2009). *Meaning In Discourse (Semantic and Pragmatic Principles)*. Bandung: Yrama Widya.

Sumarlam, et al. (2003). Discourse Analysis Theory & Practice. Surakarta: Pustaka Cakra.

Tarigan, HG. (1987). Discourse Analysis. Bandung: Space.

Yule, G. (2006). Pragmatics. New York: Oxford University Press.

Analysis of English skill obstacles of electrical engineering students of Politeknik Negeri Manado

Maya Munaiseche¹ Grace Pontoh² Decire Wagiu³

Politeknik Negeri Manado^{1,2,3} email: maya.ernie2070@gmail.com¹

Abstract - Speaking English allows a crucial problem for local students in electrical engineering. The observation shows that their specific skills are unusually limited. Though they want to get to increase the outcome processes. Development of technology communication naturally supposed to typical force them up develop specific skills of English effectively. This study focuses on a student who constantly provides unique obstacles. The purpose of this study was analyzing the English skills obstacles in Electrical Engineering. The data source is selected as the population was 25 students from the class of electrical engineering agreed to participate in this study. Using qualitative data analysis methods supported by research instruments used to anxiety with questionnaires adapted from Horwitz's Foreign Language Anxiety Scale (FLAS). Four questions from 20 instruments were then analyzed by using Likert scale 1-5. Using the communicative approach and role-plays techniques to practice rapidly by giving a text conversation offer 3, 7 and 10 dialogues. Matched of Classroom Action Research (CAR) that consists of planning, acting, observing and reflecting with two-cycles repeatedly. The Likert analysis indicates that the participants never did practice rapidly, they have a high anxiety level 65% and better than the other 35%. Whereas the participant who has a high anxiety level always felt difficult to speak, fear of evaluation, and to lose confidence, nervous to speak. The results are 65% lack of confidence, 64% panic, 63.2% slow and 53% difficult to memorize.

Keywords: English skill, learning obstacles, foreign language learning

1. Introduction

Difficulty in learning the English-language (L2) until today still experienced by many students, especially those in college. The observations indicate that the initial capital (intakes) L2 they are very low. In fact, the quality of input will affect both the process and outcomes of learning. Quality intakes PT is the output of education in universities in the era of globalization because communication had felt closer (Hermawati, 2010). English is the language most familiar to communicate, but it was difficult for some students in course Electrical engineering. A crucial problem of their speaking is the ability to listen to the information, to understand what is being said by others. The main problem as above consists of an understanding of the speaker's accent or pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary, as well as the understanding of its meaning.

Communication skills comprise receptive skills and productive skills. Listening and reading, as commonly defined, are receptive skills while speaking and writing are productive skills. Receptive skills, mostly and formally discussed, are those in which students receive and process the information but do not need to produce a language to do this, while productive skills require the production, for instance, a speech (Harmer, 2007: 246). Though entering the digital era, all learning in any field is heavily influenced by internet media, web, multimedia with various terms and symbols in English. This is meant to make easy access to the learner in a second language / foreign via electronic communication media both audio and visual. It will even give them a greater opportunity for the learner to interact with the foreign language studied. It is expected to learn English L2, students can utter words, phrases, sentences correctly, and proper speech produced by speakers of English is the highest goal (Grace, Munaiseche, and Putung, 2016).

The researchers consider it necessary to conduct research in an effort to determine the constraints of students in speaking English. This research was conducted during the process of teaching and learning activities in the classroom, with a communicative approach and role-play technique. Researchers identified obstacles in English on internal factors, namely: behavior/attitudes of students in the English language on the issue of "How to analyze the constraints Speak English Electrical engineering students and the factors that influence the constraints English on Students. Speaking in public likes it or not is something that must be done by someone with the students. However, several obstacles that often occur when doing public speaking (Muljanto, 2014).

English skill obstacles are speaking in category 1) namely nervous (excessive anxiety), not sure or lack of confidence, fear, traumatic, afraid assessed/judged perfectionist, less preparation, stress, and blank. Some of the underlying reasons are not confident in the nature of the physical symptoms are rapid heart rate, trembling knees, quivering voice, the heat wave, nausea, stomach cramps, hyperventilation or difficulty breathing, watery eyes or a runny nose. Speaking constraints on category 2: a sense of inadequacy, a sense of loss of control, a sense of helplessness, shame and panic.

Some of the students' perceptions that the main constraint of public speaking mainly in English is on its linguistic factors or at the level of languages such as sound (phonic level), which affects the level of understanding of words (lexical level). Instruction delivered hard for opponents to speak because of a lack of control grammar. Perception lecturer "...Electrical Engineering Students have low motivation because they assume that taught English language materials not related to their field of study that cannot support academic success... (Grace and Munaiseche, 2017). "... The same thing is expressed by Witt, et al. (2008) that anxiety causes distress makes them doubt that they will successfully convey meaning clearly. This causes the

students with a low English-speaking ability is increasingly anxious and depressed because they feel always behind and less able to follow the lessons... "(Joni and Dharmayanti, 2017). The target to be achieved in this research is to analyze the constraints in English and identify factors that affect the student in Electrical Engineering.

2. Method

The research design did qualitative and quantitative methods, and using a Classroom Action Research (CAR) with 2 cycles repeatedly adopted from Kemmis & McTaggart is designed into four steps. Kemmis and Taggart state that the research is initiated by planning for action. Then the plan is executed as an action in the classroom and the action is then observed.

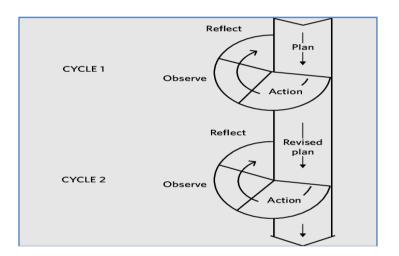


Figure 1 Cycles of the research Kemmis and McTaggart model (1988: 11—14, cited in Burns 2010)

The data is obtained during the action, First, identify with a classroom-related question that would like to research. Second, be sure that the student is under a lack of confidence, panic, slow and difficult to memorize in learning English. Third, choose a model design exactly that would be the problem of speaking to every student which is a problem of speaking English. Fourth, collected data from participants which answered questionnaires, and the observations. Fifth, data collecting has been analyzed and it's for determining a conclusion.

The participants are 25 students who study at an electrical engineering department to identification students' attitudes and opinions toward speaking skills. The methodology has been applying through Action Research Cycle two-stage investigation. They are given a theme conversation in groups, with one a group consists of 2-3 people. This activity takes place in one face in each class. They are given each time 12-15 minutes for speaking repeatedly in front of the class.

The first stage observation of their English in order to check speaking skills practices and analyses the behavior of individuals in speaking was carried out in the classroom 3.7 and 10 dialogues. During the observation, we found obstacles a great part of each lesson happened on the physical inner is afraid, nervous, panic because of unusually practice.

The subsequent stage identifies English factors of anxiety that often arises before, during and after the activity take place is linguistic factors: Pronunciation, Accuracy, Intonation, and Fluency.

Next, complete the questionnaire, the perception of participants is about obstacles to speak using the Likers scale. After collecting some data, the researcher analyzed each answer from the respondents by using the Foreign Language Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) question, scoring using the Likert scale. Adopted by Horwitz with 20 questions to discover the error, rating score using the Likert scale with 1-5 points.

Based on selected questions related to data collection constraints analysis English distributed to 25 respondents then recapitulated. From 25 respondents obtained using the calculation data Likert scale to measure English language constraints.

Respondents answered: Strongly Disagree—1—2—3—4—5—Strongly Agree. Based on the item, the respondent will choose a number from 1 to 5 using the criteria below:

1. Strongly Disagree, 2. Disagree, 3. Undecided, 4. Agree 5. Strongly Agree.

			Scoring	y	
Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Positive	1	2	3	4	5
Negative	5	4	3	2	1

Table 1 Likert's Scoring Table

Table 2	Questionnai	re Items	of Spea	king A	nxiety
1 4010 2	Questioniui	ic itciiis	OI DDCa	$\mathbf{x}_{1111} \in I$	MAICLY

No	Statement	5	4	3	2	1
		SA	A	UD	D	SD
1	I really panic when the lecturer appointed me suddenly to speak English in daily activities in front of the class.					
2	I find it difficult to memorize English for conversation because I was not good at grammar and not interested in learning English					
3	I was very nervous when I got the opportunity for a conversation with my friend in the class because of speaking English activities unusual practice did its					
4	I was always shy to speak English because I have lost confidence fear of being wrong and often ridiculed by my friend.					

3. Results and Discussion

Based on data from 20 questions selected 14 items that match the title of the study. The Likert analysis indicates that the students never did practice rapidly, they have a high anxiety level. The participant has a high anxiety level always felt difficult to speak, fear of evaluation, and having anxiety as the factors that caused them to lose confidence in good speaking. Based on selected questions related to data collection constraints analysis English allocated to 25 respondents then recapitulated. From 25 respondents obtained using the calculation data

Likert's scale to measure English language constraints. Respondents answered: 1. Strongly Disagree, 2. Disagree, 3. Undecided, 4. Agree 5. Strongly Agree. Based on data from 20 questions selected 14 items that match the title of the study.

Table 3 Students' Perception

Answered	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5
very panic		11	8	6	_
difficult to		1	1	12	11
memorize					
slow	1	7	12	5	_
have a confidence	3	2	12	8	

Data Analysis 14 12 12 12 11 10 Frequency 8 6 0 difficult to slow have a confidence very panic memorize Interval

Figure 2 Data Analysis

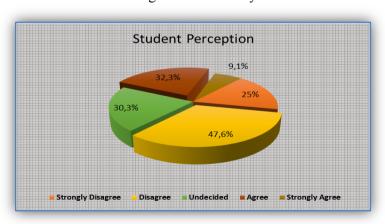


Figure 3 Students' Perception

Formula: T x Pn

T = Total number of respondents who voted

Pn = Likert score, score selection

All results are:

- 65.6% have a Speaking Anxiety (Statement Negative)
- 35.4 % have self-confidence (statement Positive)

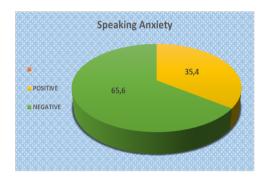


Figure 4 Speaking Anxiety

There are four types of character in which the students tend to have lack self-confidence. They seldom listening to music, playing games, watching movies or YouTube and use applications that drive them speak English much. Based questions in the questionnaires obtained 65% (negative) of respondents have a level of anxiety in English.

Questionnaire data showed that type of students has the ability to speak English better it turns out they have a frequency of listening to music, playing games, watching YouTube and a lot of learning to speak English on the internet applications than students never do anything like that. Perception of students in response to the questions 35% (positive) of respondents better in the speaking English language.

Implementation of the second cycle, the researcher conducted a strategy learning with role-playing in which this learning more interesting way to form small groups (small group) and students should help each other by means of shifts said. We have been discussed the study above, here are some steps to bring the confidence of a student to communicate using the English language.

- How to overcome the difficulties of English always have the basic study the theory of speech organs (phonetic theory) or phonology. By utilizing a phonetic transcript of pronunciation, students can avoid errors caused by the attitude of the students that only based on spelling.
- To overcome the problems associated with the properties of sound that are interconnected to one another. These issues include the use of duration, pressure, and precise intonation. Students need to know the sound of English
- Then do the exercises over and over, memorizing every word hard and learn to communicate with friends in a short form for a smooth dialogue. And apply the learning methods as needed.
- Acquire new language skills as expected namely English Fluency.

4. Conclusion

Once identified by repeatedly speaking test with 3.7 to 10 dialogue, it is concluded that constraint speaking skills in English for electrical engineering students do not have a strong foundation, so the factor of anxiety as much as 65% and better than the other 35%. The results showed that there are four constraints obtained on the basis of data collection are a type of panic: 64%, it is difficult to memorize: 53%, slow: 63.2% and 65.6% have a self-confidence. It affects the quality of the student self-learning process and outcomes and affects their performance.

Based on the conclusions suggest lecturers and universities should improve student learning motivation with L2 learning in accordance with the needs analysis and choose the appropriate method. Learning is focused on practice more and follows the development of new models of learning and innovative for Higher Education is the output of education in Higher Education (PT), particularly the era of globalization, it should have the best graduates can compete in the industrialized world such as the English language skills.

Acknowledgments

This research was supported / partially supported by [Sentrinov Bali 2018, Politeknik Negeri Manado, P3M Polimdo]. We thank for Ir. Notje Slat MT, as a Director of Politeknik Negeri Manado. Dr. Tineke Saroinsong SST, M. Eng. The head centre of P3M Politeknik Negeri Manado supporting and provide insight and expertise that greatly assisted this research.

References

- Grace, HP., Munaiseche, M., Putung, Y. (2016). *Teaching Materials English for Informatics based on Multimedia in Manado State Polytechnic* [jurnal] *International Journal of Computer Applications*.
- Grace, HP. and Munaiseche, M. (2017) Pembelajaran Bahasa Inggris ESP Untuk Keterampilan Menulis Jurnal *Industrial Research Workshop and National Seminar* (IRWIN) Politeknik Negeri Bandung.
- Febriyanti, GAAA., Dewi, NKSL., & Dewi, IGAAIRC. (2018). Using self-assessment to assess rural young learners' writing skills in English foreign language classroom. *Journal of Applied Studies in Language*, 2(2), 109-115. doi:10.31940/jasl.v2i2.1065.
- Gibbs, G. & Habeshaw, T. (1989). Preparing to Teach: An Introduction to Effective Teaching in Higher Education. Technical and Educational Services, Ltd., Bristol, 2, 37.
- Harmer, J. (2003). University Listening: English Teaching Professional. Issue 26, 29, 30.
- Hermayawati. (2010). Analisis Kesulitan Belajar Bahasa Inggris Mahasiswa Jurnal Sosio-
- http://www.bppk.kemenkeu.go.id/publikasi/artikel/168-artikel-pengembangan-sdm/19844-mengatasirasa-takut-dan-tidak-percaya-diri-dalam-public-speaking (http://swaragama.com/stc/?p=45). Humaniora.
- Iriance, I. (2018). Improving speaking ability of the students of SMK Kelautan dan Perikanan Negeri 12 Medan Labuhan by implementing role play technique. *Journal of Applied Studies in Language*, 2(1), 88-95. doi:10.31940/jasl.v2i1.892.
- Joni, DAAW. & Wirastuti, IGAP. (2018). Self-efficacy effect on basic level learners in speaking activities. *Journal of Applied Studies in Language*, 2(1), 1-9. doi:10.31940/jasl.v2i1.808.
- Joni, DAAW. & Dharmayanti, PAP. (2017). Pengaruh Anxiety dalam Speaking Activities, Jurnal Bakti Saraswati Vol. 05 No. 02.p.129 September 2016.
- Kurnia, YR. & Erawati, NLE. (2018). Teaching reading in junior high school. *Journal of Applied Studies in Language*, 2(2), 102-108. doi:10.31940/jasl.v2i2.1064.

- Lastari, NKH. & Saraswati, PRTAKH. (2018). The use of mind mapping to improve writing skill of the eighth grade students of junior high school. *Journal of Applied Studies in Language*, 2(2), 144-150. doi:10.31940/jasl.v2i2.1057.
- Merawati, J. (2017). Learners' models enhance the development of learners' reading and thinking strategies. *Journal of Applied Studies in Language*, 1(1), 1-6. doi:10.31940/jasl.v1i1.654.
- Muljanto, M.A. (2014). Mengatasi Rasa Takut dan Tidak Percaya Diri dalam Public Speaking.
- Pontoh, GH., Munaiseche, M, Yoice, P. (2016). Teaching Materials English for Informatics based on Multimedia in Manado State Polytechnic [jurnal] International Journal of Computer Applications.
- Pontoh, GH., Munaiseche, M., Christo, RP. (2017). Pembelajaran Bahasa Inggris ESP Untuk Keterampilan Menulis Jurnal Industrial Research Workshop and National Seminar (IRWIN) Politeknik Negeri Bandung.
- Rakhmawati, F. & Nirmalawati, W. (2017). Grammar teaching at pre-service training program in Kampung Inggris (a case study on mastering system program). *Journal of Applied Studies in Language*, 1(1), 7-14. doi:10.31940/jasl.v1i1.655.
- Richards, JC. & Rodgers, T. (1986). Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching. NY: Cambridge University Press.
- Subiyanto, P., Suciani, NK, Aryana, IN., Sukerti, GNA., & Sitawati, AAR. (2018). Learning and growing: an alternative strategy to teach English. *Journal of Applied Studies in Language*, 2(2), 170-175. doi:10.31940/jasl.v2i2.1080.

The implementation of VPU method to improve students speaking ability

Fransiskus Xaverius Ivan Rahas

English Teacher of SMAN 2 Kupang email: rahasfransiskus@yahoo.co.id

Abstract - This study is a classroom action research conducted in the class XII IPA 8 of SMA 2 Kupang in the academic year 2017/2018. This study aims to determine whether the application of the video producing and uploading (VPU) method in learning can improve the ability to speak English in class XII IPA 8 students of SMAN 2 Kupang. The method of data collection in this study was observation, student video recording, and student speaking tests. The data analysis method is quantitative-qualitative descriptive.

The results obtained from this study are that the VPU method can improve the speaking skills of students of class XII IPA 8 of SMAN 2 Kupang. This is evident from the results obtained in cycle I that only 5 students were able to speak English well in class and complete the task of making English conversation videos. In cycle II, 30 students succeeded in getting speaking score 82.43 and completing the video conversation with the resource person. The data analyzed in this study are a video done by students of class XII IPA 8 and uploaded to social media. The conclusion obtained by this study is that the VPU method can improve students' ability to speak English.

Keywords: learning to speak, video producing, uploading, facebook

1. Introduction

Teachers are demanded to create a comfortable learning environment to let students be able to achieve the best learning result. They should be able to attract students with various methods and techniques and interesting content which are applicable to the students'need. The teaching and learning process has a lot of problems especially with the effect of technology in class. Learning English in High School is aimed to improve student's ability to communicate in writing and speaking (BSNP, 2006: 277). To convey information orally and involve speakers and listeners during a conversation, teachers play a very important role (Tarigan, 2008: 45).

In pre-observation, students of class XII IPA 8 SMAN 2 Kupang attended the English class but they did not involve in the teaching and learning process. They were not active to communicate with their friends and focused on their mobile phone. They were so attached to the mobile phone and spent a lot of time on social media more than the time spent learning or getting together with their friends in class. It made the interactions between students were very low and there were not increasing in English speaking skills. There are some students who were passive for doing class interaction and lazy to speak in front of the class.

In solving this problem, a teacher is required to be able to teach speaking by using alternative learning methods. The mobile phone with its technological sophistication, development, and variation, has become part of the growing experience of teenagers and makes them easier to get information and communicate with their friends. This kind of technology could be applied and modified to improve students' speaking ability. It particularly will affect the student interesting in learning English and improve their achievement in teaching and learning process. And one of the methods to be implemented and elaborated is video producing and uploading (VPU) on Facebook. This method is designed where the students should produce their own speech then they should record, upload, and publish on facebook.

By using the most of familiar social media and elaborating facebook with the English learning process, the teacher will provide the more comfortable environment for student s where the students are familiar with this social media (facebook) and they have their own facebook account and they can use Facebook most of their time including during their study time in school. Based on this case, the teacher focuses on teaching speaking by implementing VPU method for students of SMA N 2 Kupang.

Speech is essentially a process of communication because there is a message from a source to another place (Komsiyah, 2012:13). People can express, and convey ideas, thoughts, or ideas to others by using spoken language that can be understood by others. It can be said that speaking is a form of human behavior that utilizes physical, psychological, neurological, semantic, and linguistic factors. In the process of learning English at school, there are three ways to develop speaking skills, namely, imitate the conversation of others (especially teachers), develop a form of speech, and make closer or parallel forms of adult speech (especially teachers) (Sujana, 2014: 57).

Harmer Jeremy (2004: 87) suggests that there are several types of activities in the process of learning namely conversation, speaking aesthetics, speaking to convey information or affecting dramatic activities, and role-playing. Learning speaking has a number of components and teachers should be able to teach these skills in an interesting and versatile manner. In measuring the ability to speak, teachers can perform an assessment in the form of tasks that must be done students. For this case, the test

conducted is an interview with other students and interview with the native speakers.

This process is recorded in the form of video and uploaded on facebook. Facebook is a social networking service and website that can be used as a means of supporting the teaching and learning process by sharing link/photo/video, create status which relevant to the subject matter (Mangkulo, 2010: 49). Teachers can also create class and exam schedules or online evaluations using Facebook. With this function, students can view the schedule and discuss several things and various topics related to class discussed in school. On Facebook, discussion of a lesson can be done anywhere and anytime with several features offered by Facebook such as group features, status, note or docs feature in the group, link/photo/video feature, and Group Features Chat.

2. Method

The research study on using Student's Video Producing and Uploading on Facebook to improve the speaking skill of class XII IPA 8 SMAN 2 Kupang was classroom action research which focused on the efforts to improve the real condition of the English teaching and learning process. This class had 40 students, which consisted of 25 female and 15 male students. The object of the research was to express meanings and steps of producing spoken activities in an accurate way, fluent, and an acceptable way by producing video and uploading it on facebook. The duration of research starting from August until October 2017 in the school year 2017/2018. The English class was scheduled twice in a week, namely on Tuesday at 09.15 a.m. to 11.05 a.m. and on Friday at 09.15 a.m. to 11.05 a.m.

The process of collecting data was done by observation, test, and video analysis. The research was conducted in two cycles. Every cycle consisted of four steps, namely planning, action, observation, and reflection. The source of data was the students and data were analyzed by descriptive qualitative and quantitative analysis. The result of the pre-test and post-test was analyzed by using a descriptive qualitative method where researcher compared the score of pre-test and post-test to find out whether there was a significant difference in the score before and after implementing the video producing and uploading in facebook in teaching speaking.

3. Results and Discussion

In the first cycle, the learning process was carried out in 3 (three) meetings. At the first meeting, the teacher gave them teaching materials as written in the syllabus beginning with the motivation, apperception, and delivery of the learning objectives of the day. In this session, the teacher gave an example of self-introduction by introducing himself in English. Then, each student was asked to do the same as the teacher. Each student was asked to introduce himself in front of the class. These introductions included name, age, address, when and where they were born. After collecting the data, the researcher did the analysis and gave the score by measuring the five components, namely Pronunciation, Grammar, Vocabulary, Fluency, and Comprehension. There were only 35 students who attended the class, whereas 5 students were absent for various reasons. From this analysis, two students had relatively good abilities in speaking English, ten students had less ability, and twenty-three students had very weak abilities. This result

can be seen in Table 1 below.

Percentage Category Score Amount Excellent 85% - 100% 0 70%-84% 0 0 Good 55%-69% 2 5% Enough Poor 40%-54% 10 25% 57.5% Very poor 0%-39% 23 2.5% The highest score 69 1 The lowest score 21 1 2.5%

Table 1 The score of pre-test speaking

The results of speaking pretest in this class did not show good results. There were two students who had a good speaking score, while 10 students had poor scores, and 23 students had a very poor score. Furthermore, the average pre-test of students was 50.6. The data also showed that the average speaking skill of grade XII students of IPA 8 SMAN 2 Kupang in English speaking students was low in each component, namely for pronunciation (1.2), grammar (1.275), vocabulary (1.35), fluency (1.225), and comprehension (1.275). Analysis showed that students were weak in these five aspects of pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, fluency, and comprehension. In the pronunciation aspect, the students really knew the meaning of every word they said but some of them did not know how to pronounce it correctly. This could be a problem if it was not corrected because it would result in a misinterpretation of the meaning between the speaker and the person to whom it was spoken.

Likewise, in aspects of comprehension and vocabulary, students did not understand much about the meaning of vocabulary. Students tended to be silent and did not respond when they did not understand the vocabulary and they did not try to find alternative words when they had difficulty expressing their intent and purpose in speaking. When they did not have an adequate vocabulary, it also affected their fluency aspect in speaking because they tended not to understand what they were talking about and could not respond well. For grammatical aspects, students tended to have difficulty in understanding sentence construction and make incorrect constructions. After analyzing the pre-test, it can be said that the ability of students of Class XII IPA 8 SMAN 2 Kupang to speak English was low and therefore, the score of this pre-test can be used as the basis to improve students' speaking ability.

At the second meeting, the teacher announced the results of the student's pre-test score and then introduced the VPU method. A teacher described of video producing method, its usefulness, its rules and how it was made, followed by the application of the method in studying narrative text that had been studied in learning aspects of reading. At the end of the lesson, the teacher asked the students to engage in activities related to the narrative discourse. The students were assigned homework to search the narrative text and present the video orally, record and upload on facebook. They were also asked to search other text in the form of narrative. Here the teacher associated the

process of video making with a narrative text where the content of the video (character, setting, plot) must be in accordance with the narrative text, the values contained in the story, the elements and the rhetorical steps of the narrative text, and the lexicogrammatical features of narrative texts.

In the third meeting, the teacher evaluated speaking learning with video producing method. The teacher checked the student's video product that had been uploaded on facebook and commented on the video. There were only 20 students who did the task of making videos and uploading videos. The video was then assessed and they were also given the opportunity to comment on the task given at the second meeting. Students looked enthusiastic and serious. But there were still some students who had difficulty to make videos and there were also students who have difficulty uploading videos on facebook. For uploaded videos, the teacher continued to monitor student activities and advised them to consider generic text structures and to apply appropriate pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, fluency, and comprehension. Through this activity, students were expected to be able to know and understand the elements of speaking easily.

The teacher corrected and wrote all the words that students did not understand on the board and gave all students the opportunity to improve and even improved the pronunciation of their friends. It was expected that students who had not produced videos and uploaded videos could complete their videos and upload on facebook. Videos that had been worked on were assessed based on assessment guidelines such as pre-test. The results could be seen in table 2 below.

Category Amount Percentage Score 85% - 100% 5% Excellent 1 Good 70%-84% 5 13.33% 55%-69% 10 33.33% Enough/Fair 40%-54% 4 30% Poor 0%-39% 0 20% Very poor The highest score 1 3.3% 85 The lowest score 43 1 3.3%

Table 2 The speaking score uploaded on facebook

The result of video speaking in cycle I showed an excellent result where there was 1 (one) student (5%) who produced the video with the correct pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, fluency, and comprehension. Their video can be clearly understood by the audience on facebook. While 5 (five) students display video with a good score. They had corrected the pronunciation, vocabulary, and fluency, but still had problems in the grammar in the sentence of the video. There were also 10 (ten) students who had poor video results. They had unclear pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, and fluency and the audiences were confused when they watched the video on facebook. And there were also 4 (four) students who had very low speech skills in which they produced the video with poor pronunciation, unclear vocabulary, and non-grammatical sentence. Furthermore, the average video cycle 1 was 64.2. The data also

showed that the average speaking skill of grade XII students of 8 SMAN 2 SMAN 2 English speaking students had increased in each component, that was for pronunciation (1.575), grammar (1.6), vocabulary (1.6), fluency (1.625), and comprehension (1.625). Analysis showed that students who were weak in the pronunciation aspect were completely unaware of the meaning of each word and did not know how to pronounce it correctly.

Students who were weak in aspects of understanding and vocabulary were students who did not have sufficient vocabulary. Students did not speak fluently because they did not understand what they were talking about. And students were weak in grammar because they did not understand the structure of sentences, especially simple sentences. After analyzing cycle 1, the teacher concluded that the ability to speak English of students of Class XII IPA 8 SMAN 2 Kupang had been improved through the VPU method. However, it was still not significant and therefore needed to be developed in cycle 2 to make more improvement in students' speaking ability.

The second cycle was held in 2 meetings. The steps remain the same and there was the only emphasis on an action for students who had not been understood and could not make videos and upload on facebook. They were approached and monitored separately. At the first meeting, a teacher gave them teaching materials as written in the syllabus with starting with the motivation, apperception, and delivery of learning goals. Newly learned methods (video producing and upload method on facebook) were also reminded to facilitate speaking practice. Teachers evaluated videos that had been collected in cycle 1 and lured students who have created a video to comment on the video they have created.

Teachers used this activity so that students feel motivated to practice speaking, recording the process of conversation, and uploading the recording on facebook. This action was done because in cycle 1 there were still 20 students who did not make videos and uploaded the video on facebook. This encouraged students to learn effectively because they were actively involved in the process. Teacher distributed a list of vocabulary (1000 vocabulary lists) as a source of additional lesson material that helps students to have a vocabulary list in understanding English conversations. Students were required to read, memorize and practice the use of the vocabulary in sentences with the help of the teacher. The technique used was role-playing where the teacher exemplified the sentence and asked the students to repeat and translate the words spoken by the teacher in English.

Teacher penalized students who did not work on videos and upload videos on facebook by requiring them to memorize new words in front of the class at the meeting. At the end of the lesson, the teacher asked the students to perform activities and give tasks of finding native English speakers, interviewing and recording the interview, and uploading the video on facebook. Here the teacher associated the making of student videos with the basic competencies expected in this lesson: the students are able to respond to the meaning in the monologue text using the spoken language verbs accurately, fluently and acceptable in the context of everyday life and the students are able to express the meaning in the monologue text by using the variety of spoken language accurately, fluently and acceptable in the context of everyday life.

In the second meeting, the teacher initiated the class by conducting an evaluation of video producing. The teacher checked the student's video that had been uploaded on facebook and commented on the video. There were only 30 students working on the task of making videos and uploading videos. The teacher presented the video and invited the students to give comments on the videos produced by them. Students tended to be excited when they interviewed with foreign tourist. It became a new and exciting experience for them because they had never been spoken and interviewed foreign tourists before. Another thing was that they are challenged to find vocabulary as much as possible before interviewing tourists because the tourists did not have good Indonesian language skills other than English. This encouraged students to look for alternative words when tourists did not understand the vocabulary delivered by students at the time of the interview.

In this cycle, there were still some students who had difficulties in making videos. There were also students who already made videos but had troubles in uploading videos on facebook because of the difficulty of the internet network and financial difficulties in uploading videos on facebook. Teacher monitored the uploaded videos and encouraged students who had uploaded video to help their friends so they could complete interviews with foreign tourists, record the interview and upload videos on facebook. The teacher then improved and wrote down all the words that students did not understand on the board and gave all students the opportunity to improve the pronunciation of their friends. It was expected that students who had not produced videos and uploaded videos could complete their videos and upload on facebook. Videos were assessed based on assessment guidelines same as on the pretest. The results were presented in table 3 below.

Category Score Amount Percentage Excellent 85% - 100% 5 16.6% 70%-84% 10 Good 33.33% Enough 55%-69% 10 33.33% 40%-54% Poor 5 16.6% 0%-39% Very poor 0 0% 5 The highest score 85 16.6% The lowest score 54 3.3%

Table 3 The score of speaking in cycle 2

The result of post-test in cycle 2 showed a good result where there were 5 (five) students (16.6%) who produced a video with excellent pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, fluency, and comprehension and audience could clearly understand their conversation video on facebook. There were 10 (ten) students displayed video with good score in pronunciation, vocabulary, and clearness, but still had problems in the grammar of the sentence. There are also 10 (ten) students who had enough video score. They were still lack of grammatical and fluency aspects and the audiences were confused during watching the video on facebook. And there were also 5 (five) students who had poor speaking skills with poor pronunciation, vague vocabulary, blurry

pronunciation, obscure and non-fluent grammar. Furthermore, the average video cycle 1 was 107.2. The data also showed that the average speaking skill of students had increased in each component, i.e. for pronunciation (2.675), grammar (2.675), vocabulary (2.675), fluency (2.7), and comprehension (2.675). Analysis showed that students who were weak in the pronunciation aspect already knew the meaning of each word. But because of the nervous and careless, they made the wrong pronunciation. Students who did not memorize vocabulary were weak in comprehension and vocabulary aspects.

After analyzing cycle 1, the researcher concluded that students Class XII IPA 8 SMAN 2 Kupang had made a significant improvement of speaking ability through an implementation of video producing and uploading method on facebook and therefore this method needed to be applied in other classes to improve students' speaking ability. After reflection, the teacher conducted a post-test on 25 September 2017. In this session, the teacher asked the students to interview with other people as speaking partner using English. This interview was recorded and uploaded on facebook. Each student was asked to find out the name, age, address, when and where their resource person was born. After collecting the data, the researcher analyzed and scored which measuring five components, i.e. pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, fluency, and comprehension. There were only 30 students on that day, while 10 people were absent for various reasons. The result was presented in Table 4 below.

Category Score Amount Percentage 85% - 100% Excellent 15 50% 70%-84% Good 10 33.33% Enough 55%-69% 5 16.6% 40%-54% 0 Less 0% 0%-39% Very less 0 0% The highest score 1 3.3% 85 The lowest score 68 3.3%

Table 4 Speaking Post-Test Score

The result of posted in this class had shown a better result. Only five students who had enough speaking score, while 25 others had good value and excellent (84.33%). Furthermore, the average cycle 1 test was 107.2. The data also showed that the average of speaking skill had increased in each component, i.e. for pronunciation (3.35), grammar (3.35), vocabulary (3.35), fluency (3.35), and comprehension (3.35). Analysis showed that students' speaking ability had significant change with the implementation of this method. For pronunciation aspect, the students really knew the pronunciation well and used it with a certain accent. In the vocabulary aspect, students still occasionally used in inappropriate vocabulary but did not make many mistakes for sentence meaning. Students tended to be silent and did not respond when they did not understand the vocabulary and they did not try to find the words when they had difficulties expressing their purpose in speaking.

For fluency, students appeared to be slightly disturbed by the problem of vocabulary comprehension and the pronunciation of their friends or conversational partners who tended to be faster and fluent in using English. When they encountered their partners who spoke fluently, it affected and interfered them in speaking because they tended to ask about what they were talking about. For grammatical aspects, students made grammatical errors but did not affect meaning. For aspects of comprehension, students were able to understand almost all the parts spoken by the partner and able to ask questions. After analyzing the post-test, the researcher concluded that the ability to speak of students had improved and therefore, the implementation of the method of video producing and uploading on facebook was considered successful and complete.

4. Conclusion

Based on the result of the analysis of questionnaires, observation sheets, and assessment of tests, the teacher concluded that the implementation of the VPU method is able to improve the ability of students to speak English. Data analysis at the beginning of the study showed that speaking pretest result was the low score. There were only two students who had enough speaking scores, while 10 students had fewer scores, and 23 students had very fewer scores. Furthermore, the average score of speaking pre-test was 50.6. The data also showed that the average of English speaking skill was low in each component, i.e. pronunciation (1.2), grammar (1.275), vocabulary (1.35), fluency (1.225), and comprehension (1.275). However, after the implementation of the method, there was a change in the of student speaking competence where the results of the post-test showed that 25 students had good and excellent (84.33%) and only five students had enough speaking scores with the average of post-test score of 82.43.

The data also showed that the average of the post-test was 107.2 with the improvement of student speaking skills after the implementation of this method, i.e. for pronunciation (3.35), grammar (3.35), vocabulary (3.35), fluency (3.35), and comprehension (3.35). Based on the overall research results, it is recommended for teachers to use video producing and upload method on facebook as an alternative learning method for students. The researcher suggests that this method can be an alternative method for students in learning various English teaching materials at school. The researcher also suggests other teachers do research by implementing facebook related with the problems obtained in the class and basic competencies to be achieved in their lessons.

References

Arikunto, S., Suhardjono, dan Supardi. 2007. *Penelitian Tindakan Kelas*. Jakarta: PT Bumi Aksara

Arsyad, A. (2011). Media Pembelajaran. Jakarta: Rajawali Pers.

Arsyad, M. (1993). Pembinaan Kemampuan Berbicara Bahasa Indonesia. Jakarta: Erlangga.

Brown, D. (2007). Principles of Language Learning and Teaching. Pearson Longman

Brown, H. D. (2004). Language Assessment: Principles and Classroom Practices. New York: Pearson Education.

BSNP. (2006). SK dan KD Bahasa Inggris – SMA, dilengkapi: SKL. Jakarta: BSNP

Daryanto. (2010). Media Pembelajaran. Yogyakarta: Gava Media

- Febriyanti, GAAA., Dewi, NKSL., & Dewi, IGAAIRC. (2018). Using self-assessment to assess rural young learners' writing skills in English foreign language classroom. *Journal of Applied Studies in Language*, 2(2), 109-115. doi:10.31940/jasl.v2i2.1065.
- Gibbs, G. & Habeshaw, T. (1989). Preparing to Teach: An Introduction to Effective Teaching in Higher Education. Technical and Educational Services, Ltd., Bristol, 2, 37.
- Hamzah, B. U. (2012). Belajar dengan Pendekatan PAILKEM, (2nd ed.). Jakarta: Bumi Aksara
- Harmer, J. (2004). How to Teach English. Malaysia: (13th ed.) Longman.
- Hasibuan, J.J. dkk. (2013). Proses Belajar Mengajar. Bandung: Remaja Rosdakarya.
- Iriance, I. (2018). Improving speaking ability of the students of SMK Kelautan dan Perikanan Negeri 12 Medan Labuhan by implementing role play technique. *Journal of Applied Studies in Language*, 2(1), 88-95. doi:10.31940/jasl.v2i1.892.
- Joni, DAAW. & Wirastuti, IGAP. (2018). Self-efficacy effect on basic level learners in speaking activities. *Journal of Applied Studies in Language*, 2(1), 1-9. doi:10.31940/jasl.v2i1.808.
- Khabibullina, Alena posted by ILAC Foundation, Designated Learning Institute Numbers: Toronto: O19319227442 Vancouver: O19283901032.
- Komsiyah, I. (2012). Belajar dan Pembelajaran. Yogyakarta: Teras.
- Kurnia, YR. & Erawati, NLE. (2018). Teaching reading in junior high school. *Journal of Applied Studies in Language*, 2(2), 102-108. doi:10.31940/jasl.v2i2.1064.
- Lastari, NKH. & Saraswati, PRTAKH. (2018). The use of mind mapping to improve writing skill of the eighth grade students of junior high school. *Journal of Applied Studies in Language*, 2(2), 144-150. doi:10.31940/jasl.v2i2.1057.
- Mangkulo, H. (2010). Aplikasi Jaringan Sosial. Jakarta: Gramedia.
- Merawati, J. (2017). Learners' models enhance the development of learners' reading and thinking strategies. *Journal of Applied Studies in Language*, 1(1), 1-6. doi:10.31940/jasl.v1i1.654.
- Nunan, D. (1992). Research Methods in Language Learning. NY: Cambridge University Press.
- Nurgiyanto, B. (2010). *Penilaian Pembelajaran Bahasa: Berbasis Kompetensi.* Yogyakarta: BPFE
- Rakhmawati, F. & Nirmalawati, W. (2017). Grammar teaching at pre-service training program in Kampung Inggris (a case study on mastering system program). *Journal of Applied Studies in Language*, 1(1), 7-14. doi:10.31940/jasl.v1i1.655.
- Richards, JC. & Rodgers, T. (1986). *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching*. NY: Cambridge University Press.
- Riyana, Ch. (2007). *Media Pembelajaran: Hakikat,Pengembangan, Pemanfaatan,dan Penilaian.*Jakarta: Graha Ilmu.
- Simon. (2005). Pembelajaran dengan Metode Debat Plus. Jakarta: Depdikbud.
- Siregar, E. dan Nara, H. (2011). Teori Belajar dan Pembelajaran. Bogor: Ghalia Indonesia
- Subiyanto, P, Suciani, NK, Aryana, INR, Sukerti, GNA, & Sitawati, AAR. (2018). Learning and growing: an alternative strategy to teach English. *Journal of Applied Studies in Language*, 2(2), 170-175. doi:10.31940/jasl.v2i2.1080.
- Sujana, N. (2014). Penilaian Hasil Proses Belajar Mengajar. Bandung: Remaja Rosdakarya.
- Tarigan, HG. (2008). Berbicara Sebagai Suatu Keterampilan Berbahasa. Bandung: Angkasa.

The interpretation of verbal and visual signs in the education advertisements

Komang Dian Puspita Candra¹ IGA Vina Widiadnya Putri²

STIBA Saraswati Denpasar^{1,2} email: miss_puspita@yahoo.com¹ email: vina.ayu422@gmail.com²

Abstract - The existence of an advertisement can be inextricably linked to verbal and nonverbal signs and it also appeared in education advertisement, especially for submission new university students that used by an educational institution as a form of promotion. A good advertisement will consider the use of a verbal and nonverbal sign, so that, prospective students understand the meaning of signs that will be transmitted by the advertisers. The widespread phenomenon is about the ability of people to understand the advertisements. Prospective students sometimes will have difficulty to catch the meaning of an advertisement. This study is semiotic research by using advertisement of submission of new students in Indonesia as the data source. This study was conducted to find out the types of signs and the meaning behind the series of a sign that appeared in the advertisements, so that they can be known whether the advertisements have used a sign in accordance or not. In an effort to data collection, observation with note-taking technique was applied in the research methodology. Then data were analyzed qualitatively using the theory of semiotic (Barthes, 1998), theory of meaning (Leech, 1974) and several supporting theory such as theory of English Advertising (Leech 1966) and Pierce (2007), the sign and images and theory (Cazanave, 2000) about the colour. The results of the analysis found that the advertisements have been using a verbal and visual sign in well proportioned. Verbal sign consists of linguistic features such as the used of verb and adjective dominantly in lexical choice. There were four types of sentence structure found namely declarative, interrogative, imperative and exclamatory sentence. It also used figurative language and abbreviation which has a correlation with the context. Besides the conceptual meaning to give information, from the sign there was also a hidden message behind it. A visual sign consists of symbol, icon, index and colour that make different reaction for every advertisement. These signs have an important role in conveying the purpose of advertisers such as to persuade, command and give some information to the public. It can be said that the use of verbal and visual aspects in these advertisements are in a right combination.

Key words: non-verbal sign, conceptual meaning, verbal-visual meaning

1. Introduction

Advertising is defined as a message that offers products intended for the community through the media (Kasali, 1995: 9). Advertisement are designed and displayed as attractive as possible without omitting the important messages contained in the ad. The language of advertising must be persuasive and interesting to influence the reader. The language used is a short, clear, solid language effective and can affect the customers. To be more attractive, advertising is also supported by the use of colours, illustrations and logos. The existence of an advertisement can be inextricably linked to verbal and nonverbal signs; this case also appeared in education advertisement, especially for submission new university students that used by the college as a form of promotion.

A good advertisement will consider the use of verbal and nonverbal sign, so that, prospective students understand the meaning of signs that will be transmitted by the advertiser. Different forms of advertising with other types of text make advertising very important to research. The images, colour, sign, words and phrases contained in the advertisement are included in the verbal and non-verbal markings that require a deeper study in order to better understand about the meaning of an advertisement. This study was conducted to find out the types of signs and the meaning behind the series of a sign who appeared in the advertisement, so that it can be known whether the advertisements have used a suitable sign in accordance or not.

2. Method

The data were taken from advertisements of submission for new university students in Indonesia. There were 80 data in the form of brochure, billboard and downloaded advertisement from the website of each university used throughout this study. These advertisements were chosen as the data source because they contain verbal and visual signs for the analysis. There was a tendency that the use of signs in these types of advertisements are different from other commercial advertisements.

The data were collected by using an observation and note taking technique, and the data were also collected through field research and online research. The collected data were analyzed qualitatively based on the theory of semantic by Barthes (1998), Leech (1966) about English advertising and Leech (1974) about meaning. In visual signs, the data were analyzed based on theory proposed by Pierce (2007) to analyze for the sign and images. In analyzing visual sign there are analyzed about colour itself. The colour of those advertisements are analyzed based on the theory proposed by Cazanave (2000).

3. Results and Discussion

The discussions were divided into verbal signs and continue with visual signs. Verbal sign in advertisements consists of words that do not only describe things, communicate feelings and associate attitudes, but also bring ideas to our mind. Verbal signs usually use in the headline, body copy, signature line and standing details. Verbal signs in these advertisements were analyzed based on the linguistic features, such as lexical choice, syntactic pattern, figurative language and acronym. These linguistic features were analyzed using the theory of English advertising by Leech (1966). In term of lexical choice, verbs and adjective were mostly appeared. The dominant verbs are: fill

(mengisi), open (membuka), apply (menerapkan) accept (menerima), pay (membayar) and submit (menyerahkan) such as:

a. **Mengisi** formulir pendaftaran bisa secara online di http://-----(Sekolah Tinggi Farmasi Mahaganesha).

'Fill out the registration form online at http://-----'

- b. Menerapkan UKT (Uang Kuliah Tunggal) (Akademi Kebidanan).
 - 'Applying a single tuition fees'
- c. Membayar uang pendaftaran dan mengisi formulir (UNBARA).
 - 'Pay registration fees and fill out forms'
- d. Menyerahkan fotocopy ijazah 1 lembar (UNBARA).
 - 'Submit a photocopy of a diploma 1 sheet'
- e. Yayasan Pendidikan Widya Kerthi Universitas Hindu Indonesia **membuka**. penerimaan mahasiswa baru tahun akademik 2017/2018 (UNHI).
 - 'Education Foundation of Widya Kerthi Universitas Hindu Indonesia opens registration for new student admissions for the academic year....'
- f. Universitas Mahasaraswati Denpasar **menerima** mahasiswa baru TA 2018/2019 (UNMAS Denpasar).
 - 'University of Mahasaraswati Denpasar opens registration for new students for the academic year....'

The used of those verbs indicates about the submission itself. For the example sentence (e) 'Widya Kerthi Foundation University of Hindu Indonesia opens the submission of new students in year 2017/2018' and sentence (f) 'Mahasaraswati University accepts submission for new students in year 2018/2019'. The word 'open' (membuka) has meaning 'allowing things or people to go through', and the meaning of 'accept' (menerima) is to take willingly something that is offered. Refers to the meanings, the advertiser gives an information to public about the time for submission of new students is started. The verbs 'submit' in sentence (d) has a meaning to give a document, proposal, etc., so then the conceptual meaning of this sentence gives an information to the prospective students to bring the copy of diploma when they register to that university as one of the requirements needed. The affective meaning from the example is related to the personal feeling of the reader those are prospective students will be interested in the information and they will share the information to other. After understanding the requirement is very simple they will register themselves immediately.

The used of adjective is in superlative type, for the example 'best' 'terbaik', as it is seen below.

- a. Universitas Muhammadiyah adalah **PTS terbaik** (Universitas Muhammadiyah Sumatera).
 - 'Muhammadiyah University is the best private university'
- b. **Kesempatan terbaik**, Kuliah di **Kampus ICT terbaik di Bali Nusra** yang semua program studinya sudah terakreditasi B BAN-PT dan International ISO 9001: 2008 (STIKOM BALI).
 - 'The best chance, study at the best ICT campus in Bali and Nusa Tenggara, in which all of the study programs are accredited B by National Accredited Board and International ISO 9001'

The sentences (a) and (b) above used superlative word 'the best' to explain the quality of their institutions. As it is seen in the example (a) 'Muhammadiyah University is the best University'. (b) 'The best chance is to study at the best ICT University in Bali Nusra...' These sentences use an adjective 'the best' to inform public about the quality of their institutions. The affective meaning from these sentences are about the feelings of the readers, after knowing the quality of an institution, they will realize that one of these universities is the right place to choose to continue their study.

The data also showed the tendency of using various sentence structures such as declarative, interrogative, imperative and exclamative sentence like following example.

1. Declarative Sentence

Declarative sentence is mostly used in this advertisement rather than other structure, because these advertisements try to give information, share facts and statements as well. One of the functions of declarative sentence in this advertisement is to give information about the accreditation status of each university, as seen below.

- a. Program Pasca Sarjana Universitas Medan Area telah terakreditasi BAN-PT dengan predikat B untuk seluruh Program Studinya (Universitas Medan Area). 'The Post-Graduate Program of Medan Area University has been accredited by BAN-PT with the title B for all of its Study Programs'
- b. Universitas Atma Jaya Yogyakarta **terakreditasi** A (Universitas Atma Jaya. 'University of Atma Jaya Yogyakarta is accredited A'
- c. We proud of the **B** accreditation, We have gotten from Ban-PT (Universitas Dwijendra.

The examples above express about the accreditation status of each university. Nowadays accreditation is the soul of every university. It was not a new thing if we found this word as the part of promotion. Accreditation or an accredited institution has a collocative meaning, it emphasizes that the university has been formally checked the government to guarantee its quality. The advertisers sell the word 'accreditation' in promotion as a good image of the campus itself.

A declarative sentence also used to give an additional information, such as facilities, qualification, payment and also teaching and learning process as it is shown in the following example.

- a. Dosen bersertifikasi nasional (serdos), kualifikasi magister dan doctor (STIE Muhammadiyah Kalianda).
 - 'Lectures accredited nationally (certified lectures), Master and Doctor degrees'
- b. Kelas ac, slide presentasi tutorial (STIE Muhammadiyah Kalianda).
 - 'Air Conditioning classroom, OHP tutorial presentation'
- c. Telah dibuka Kelas Karyawan (STIBA Satya Widya Surabaya).
 - 'Open registration for workers'
- d. Biaya awal masuk kuliah Rp 2.150.000 dapat diangsur 2x (STTN Lampung).
 - 'The initial tuition fee of 2.150,000 rupiahs can be paid in 2x'
- e. SMK dibawah naungan Yayasan Samodra Ilmu Cendekia mendapatkan potongan 50% DP3 (Stikes Yogyakarta).

'High Vocational School under the auspices of the Samodra Ilmu Cendekia Foundation get a discount of 50%....'

2. Interrogative Sentence

A question sentence or it is popularly called an interrogative sentence is a question form used to interrogate others or digging some information from others. In this advertisement, the use of interrogative sentence does not need any answer because it has been already mentioned or provided as seen in the next example.

- a. Kuliah? BSI aja!! (BSI). 'Will you continue your study? Please, study here (BSI)'
- b. Kuliah sambil bisnis? Ya STIEBBANK! 'Will you continue your study by having a business? Yes, study at'

In the sentence (a) 'do you want to continue studying? Just go to BSI!' In sentence (b) 'studying while doing a business? Yes, STIEBBANK is the answer!!' both of sentence are interrogative sentence, and the answer have been provided. The function is not asking question but to give information about this campus and emphasize the readers about the existence of this campus. It has an affective meaning because advertisers try to persuade readers to continue their study at their ideal institutions.

3. Imperative Sentence

An imperative is a word expressing a command, thus, an <u>imperative sentence</u> gives instructions, requests, or demands, or shares a wish or invitation. Basically, they tell someone what to do or reflect something you want to happen. Here are some examples of imperative sentences in advertisements.

- a. Daftarkan diri anda mulai hari ini (STIKOM Bali).
 - 'Register yourself starting today'
- b. Segera daftarkan diri anda (STKIP Muhammadiyah, Lampung). 'Register yourself soon'
- c. Ayo segera bergabung bersama kami! (Unbara). 'Let's join us soon'
- d. Makin cepat daftar, biaya makin ringan (STMIK EL Rahma Yogyakarta). 'The sooner the registration, the lesser tuition fee will be'
- e. Mau brosur gratis, SMS/WA alamat lengkap anda ke 0856-4390-6888 (STMIK EL Rahma Yogyakarta).
 - 'Need free brochure, send your complete address via a message/whatsup to....'
- f. Let's Join in The Campus of Innovation (Universitas Widyagama Malang).
- g. Come and join Us (Universitas Bhayangkara).

The examples above in conceptual have functions in which to give suggestion, urge, command, offering, and invitation readers. As it is seen in the example sentence (d) 'register yourself faster, and the cost will be lower', this sentence indicates an urge about the reward that will be accepted when someone does a registration immediately. It also used in sentence (e) 'If you want to get a free brochure, text your address to 0856-4390-6888'. This sentence contained a command, those are to send your address

if you want to get a free brochure. The affective meaning from these sentences is encouraging the prospective students to register themselves immediately, because there are many profits offered.

4. Exclamative Sentence

Exclamative sentences share strong feelings or excitement. The examples of exclamative sentence like the following examples.

- a. Satu-satunya Perguruan Tinggi Agama Hindu Negeri di Bali Utara (Sekolah Tinggi Agama Hindu Negeri MPU Kuturan Singaraja). 'The only State Hindu Religion University in North of Bali'
- b. Dapatkan Laptop bagi 30 pendaftar pertama! (STIBA LIA). 'Get a laptop for the first 30 registrants!'
- c. Kuliah singkat, siap kerja! (BATC). 'Short studying, be ready to work'
- d. Mau Kuliah S1, ada juga lho! (STTN Lampung). 'Want to study S1, there are also you know!

In exclamative sentence, the advertiser emphasized the strength of each university. As the example sentence (b) 'Get a free laptop, by being the first-thirty registrants'. In this sentence, the advertiser expressed the feeling of enthusiastic and competitive because here clearly mention that free laptop will be given just for the first thirty registrants, it was limited. Example (d) 'Undergraduate study (S1), you can find it here!' This advertisement tries to build the curiosity of the reader. This curiosity will lead the readers to find out clearly information about the undergraduate program. The affective meaning from these examples still encourages the students to register themselves in this university because of the strength that mentioned in every sentence.

The use of figurative language and acronym becomes the other choices in advertising. For the example:

- (a) Bersama kami, raih cita wujudkan mimpi (Universitas Bhayangkara). 'With us, reach goals, realize your dream'
- (b) Creating a Brighter future (Universitas Bhayangkara).

Sentence (a) and (b) are refers to hyperbole because the way of writing the advertisement makes someone or something sound bigger and better than they are. Sentence (a) 'With us, reach your goal and realize your dream', this sentence is heard quite impossible because from the statement looks like this university will escort the students until they reach their goals and dream, but in fact the maximum time to study in a university is 4 years. After graduation, students will take their goals and dreams by themselves. The used of abbreviation sometimes make a different interpretation and have an ambiguity meaning because it was not familiar, like:

- a. UMPCR (Ujian Masuk Politeknik Caltex Riau).
 - 'Entrance Examination of Polytechnic of Caltex Riau'
- b. **PSUD** (Penjaringan Siswa Unggul Daerah). 'Regional Superior Student Screening'

- c. **PSB** (Penerimaan Santri Baru) MTS Al-FADLILIYAH Darussalam. 'Registration of New Islamic Student'
- d. **KPB** (Kelas program Bilingual) MTS Al-FADLILIYAH Darussalam. 'Bilingual class program'

The example number (a), (b), (c), and (d) above will make different interpretation because these abbreviations did not provide long statement in the advertisement, to understand the meaning of these acronyms we need to notice the context.

The advertisements of submission for new university students are also supported by visual signs. As the example there were two representative data shown below



1. Symbol

The symbol in the advertisement of STP Satya Widya Surabaya is the University logo. Peirce (see Deledalle, 1978: 140-141) explained that a symbol is an inverted sign on the object pointing by rule. This symbol aims to introduce Satya Widya Surabaya Tourism College to many people. This symbol is only used in accordance with the rules of the college.

2. Icon

Icon listed in above advertisement is fourteen lecturers and students. Peirce (in Deledalle, 1978: 140) states that icons are a sign that points to objects that simply show the characters that the object possesses. Classification of images on students and lecturers listed in that advertisement are included icon diagrammatic. Icon fourteen students and lecturers who appear in this advertisement want to show the customers that there are a variety of majors and expertise that can be selected at STP Satya Widya Surabaya. The message to be conveyed is that the readers can easily know the program of tourism expertise owned by STP Satya Widya Surabaya and of course has been educated by professional lecturers in their field.

3. Index

The index that appears in this advertisement is uniform and property used. Peirce (see Deledalle, 1978: 158) stated that an index is a sign aimed at the object because of the dynamic relationship (spatial relationship) with the personality of the object. The appearance of uniformed students equipped with property used, is presenting students at STP Satya Widya Surabaya has a good tourism expertise in accordance with their

majors. In addition, the message to be conveyed in the index shown is the institution has been able to educate students very well. It has been graduated become good personal skills; therefore, they will be able to compete in the hospitality industry.

4. Colour

The colour shown in this advertisement is a combination of white and green (Cazenave, 2000: 167). Green colour is for freedom, joy, health, hope, and generosity. In popular symbolization, green is the colour of hope, and the dream in which it appears interprets it. Green colour presents a great hope to the readers to drop his choice in STP Satya Widya Surabaya. The combination of white colour is used to present cleanliness and sincerity, hoping the reader is interested in the advertised agency.



Identification:

Symbol	Image of Institution Yayasan Sarasawati Denpasar
Icon	Two students' image, Professor image and Graduation image
Index	Photos of students' activities and Photos of pharmaceutical
	products
Colour	Blue, Red and Orange
Background	Institution environment

The symbol used in this advertisement is a foundation symbol. Peirce (in Deledalle, 1978: 140—141) explained that symbols are signs that refer to objects that point by rule. The symbol that is shown in this advertisement is the Saraswati foundation symbol. Not all universities can use the Saraswati Foundation symbol, and this symbol is used in accordance with the rules of the college that shelter it.

Icons listed in the advertisement above are the images of two students, image of professors, graduation photos. Peirce (in Deledalle, 1978: 140) stated that "Icons are a sign that points to objects that simply show the characters that the object possesses. The classification of human images listed in that advertisement is included in the Diagrammatic Icon. A simple example of a diagrammatic icon is a scheme that shows the classification of living things consisting of humans, plants, and animals (Peirce, in Deledalle, 1978). The icon of two students, lecturers, and graduation that appear in the advertisement want to show about the good and commendable character of students and all academic community at Akademi Farmasi Saraswati Denpasar.

The index that appears in the advertisement of Akademi Farmasi Saraswati Denpasar are photos of students' activities, photos of pharmaceutical products. Peirce (in Deledalle, 1978: 158) stated that an index is a sign aimed at the object because of

the dynamic relationship (spatial relationship) with the personality of the object and with the memory or thinking of a person. The display of photos of students' activities and pharmaceutical products are a way to give memory and interest to the readers that pharmacy has various activities. Those activities can enhance the creativity and activities of students who are ready to work in the field of pharmaceutical industry. So, the index can represent the intent and the purpose of the advertisements to the readers.

The colour shown in this advertisement is the dominance of light blue combine with red, orange colour on the words "Join". The blue colour is the colour of the sky and gives the impression of calm (Cazenave, 2000: 84). The dominance of blue colour used is to show calm situation and not to be in a hurry to make any decision. Giving the reader impression to calm down and consider the best college for pharmacy is Akademi Farmasi Saraswati Denpasar. The red colour in New Student Admissions shows courage and firmness in influencing readers to join at Saraswati Denpasar Academy of Pharmacy. The red colour is a colour that symbolizes courage or passionate spirit (Cazenave, 2000: 167). The orange colour in the words "join" symbolizes the greatness of the reader's heart in making decisions and consolidates to join at the institution (Cazenave, 2000: 167). Orange is the colour that gives a variety of colours, contrast, glory or personal greatness.

The background used in this advertisement is the top-looking campus environment equipped with clouds and sky. This background wants to showcase a wide, peaceful and peaceful campus environment. This background can represent the atmosphere of a comfortable environment in learning process and teaching and learning activities.

4. Conclusion

Based on the analysis presented above, it could be concluded that all of data source used the semiotic signs by both verbal and visual aspects. These signs have an important role in conveying the purposes of the advertisers such as to persuade and give some information to public. It can be stated that the use of the verbal and visual aspects in the advertisements are in a proportional combination. The representation of visual signs is supporting the verbal signs in each advertisement make public easier to understand about the meaning and the function.

Verbal sign consists of (1) lexical choice (adjective and verb), (2) structure of sentence (declarative, imperative, interrogative and exclamative), (3) the use of figurative language and (4) abbreviation. Besides the conceptual meaning used to give information, from the sign there is also hidden message behind it, like an affective meaning and collocative meaning which is used to persuade, give command, invitation and suggestion. Visual sign consists of (1) symbol (institution logo), (2) icon (students and lecturer image, graduation image), (3) index (uniform used, property used, product), (4) colour (blue, red, orange, green and white), (5) background (environment).

References

Barthes, R. (1998). *The Semiotics Challenge*. New York: Hill and Wang. Cazanave, M. (2000). *Encyclopedia des Symbols*. Paris: Librairie Generale Française. Deledalle, G. (1978). *Charles S. Peirce Ecrits sur Le Signe*. Edition du Seuil Gibbs, G. & Habeshaw, T. (1989). Preparing to Teach: An Introduction to Effective Teaching in Higher Education. Technical and Educational Services, Ltd., Bristol, 2, 37.

Journal of Applied Studies in Language, Volume 3 Issue 1 (Jun 2019), p. 82—91 p-issn 2598-4101 e-issn 2615-4706 © Politeknik Negeri Bali http://ojs.pnb.ac.id/index.php/JASL

- Kasali, R. (1995). *Manajemen Periklanan: Konsep dan Aplikasinya di Indonesia*. Jakarta: Pustaka Utama Grafitri
- Leech, G. (1974). *Prinsip-prinsip Pragmatik*. Jakarta: Penerbit Universitas Indonesia (UI-Press).
- Leech, GN. (1966). English in Advertising. London: Longman.
- Richards, JC. & Rodgers, T. (1986). *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching*. NY: Cambridge University Press.
- Short, TL. (2007). Pierce's Theory of Sign, New York: Cambridge University Press.

Implementation of student team achievement division (stad) in the English course for the mechanical engineering department

Ely Trianasari¹ Ika Yuniwati²

Jurusan Teknik Mesin, Politeknik Negeri Banyuwangi, Jl. Raya Jember Km.13 Kabat, Banyuwangi, Indonesia 68461^{1,2}

email: ely.trianasari@poliwangi.ac.id¹

Abstract – This study aims to increase the participation and learning achievement of English through the implementation of cooperative learning models of the Student Teams Achievement Division (STAD) type. This type of research is Classroom Action Research (CAR) which is carried out collaboratively with peers. This research was carried out in two cycles consisting of 4 stages, namely planning, implementing, observing, and reflecting. The subjects of this study were English lecturers and second-semester students consisting of 29 persons. Data collection methods use subjective tests and observations. Subjective tests are used to measure learning achievement while observation sheets aim to observe the activities of students and lecturers. Quantitative data were analysed using quantitative descriptive, while qualitative data were analysed qualitatively qualitative. The results of the study obtained the initial data of students considered as a complete category as many as 5 people or the percentage of classical completeness of 17.24%. In the first cycle, students considered as a complete category as many as 9 people with a percentage of classical completeness of 31.03%. While the second cycle is the number of students considered as a complete category as many as 24 people, with a percentage of classical completeness of 82.76%. The conclusion of the results of the research carried out, namely the application of cooperative methods STAD type in the learning process can improve student participation and learning achievement in English language course in the mechanical engineering department.

Keywords: STAD, learning achievement, classroom action research, student participation

1. Introduction

The development of science and technology in the future is very rapid. One of the access in accelerating mastery and transfer of knowledge and technology is mastery of language, especially English as one of the International languages. Therefore, mastery of the English in the academic world, at the level of polytechnics for example, greatly determines the quality of human resources and academic life that are directly involved in the process of mastering science and technology itself, namely students and lecturers. Academic development at the student level, in the education system, is anticipated by providing general English language course at each semester in each study program at Politeknik Negeri Banyuwangi, especially Mechanical Engineering Study Program.

English is one of the general basic courses given in the first three semesters of Mechanical Engineering Study Program. Through this course, students are expected to have the ability to communicate both verbally and in writing properly and correctly and are able to use and apply it as a communication tool for science and development of science and technology, especially mechanical engineering.

The importance of the English as an access to master the development of science and technology is still not fully realized by Mechanical Engineering students. This can be seen from the teaching and learning process of the English in the classroom, where students seem less enthusiastic, a little lazy to do the assignments, some are still talking to themselves and not paying attention to the material provided so that it has an impact on the lack of student participation in the classroom and low student learning outcomes.

One of the causes of the above problems is that the teaching and learning process of the English course has been using conventional methods where the teacher only delivers the material through presentations and assigns assignments to students. When learning takes place students are no more just scrutinizing and listening to the material presented. When giving the task at the end of the learning session, it turns out that only a small part can complete the task correctly.

Referring to above problem, the teacher becomes the main focus because whether or not learning objectives are achieved depends on how the teacher plans, implements and evaluates the learning process according to the needs of the students. In learning planning, teachers should be able to sort out, choose and use learning methods that are appropriate not only to the characteristics of their students but, also with the learning objectives and material.

Considering the problems mentioned above include: 1) the lack of interest and motivation of students towards learning English, 2) the concentration of students is less focused on the material presented by the teacher in each English language learning, and 3) student participation is still low, it is necessary to apply interactive learning methods that can maintain the enthusiasm and interest of students to learn in order to increase student participation and learning outcomes. This is in line with what Higgins conveyed (in O'Connell, 2007: 85) which states that students will be able to understand and interpret concepts that are learning objectives if students are actively involved in ongoing learning.

One learning model that involves students actively in the learning process is a cooperative learning model. A cooperative learning strategy is a group learning strategy that has recently become a concern and is recommended by educational experts to be used (Sanjaya, 2009: 240), one of which is the STAD model. STAD is one of the simplest cooperative learning models and is the best learning model for beginners for

new educators using cooperative learning models (Slavin, 2008: 143). Learning by applying STAD cooperative learning model begins with presenting the material followed by students working in groups of 4-5 people. Each group must be heterogeneous, consisting of boys and girls, come from various tribes, have high, medium, and low abilities (Isjoni, 2007: 143). This learning model allows students to exchange ideas, coordinate, and help each other in completing tasks. This certainly can foster students' motivation to jointly discuss and understand the material presented so as to improve learning outcomes. With the STAD type learning model, students are not only able to understand difficult concepts but, also foster cooperation, critical thinking, and willingness to help friends (Nur, 1996, cf. Merawati, 2017).

Based on the description above, the purpose of this study is to increase the participation and learning outcomes of students by implementing the STAD learning model in the English language course in the Mechanical Engineering department.

2. Method

This study uses Classroom Action Research (CAR) whose main characteristic is the repeated actions with the main method is self-reflection in order to improve the learning process in the classroom, using a minimum of 2 cycles. According to Oja and Smulyan (in Suyanto, 1997: 17), the form of classroom action research is divided into four, namely: (1) teachers as researchers, (2) collaborative classroom action research, (3) simultaneous integrated, and (4) experimental social administration. In this study, researchers used a form of collaborative classroom action research, namely research involving the classroom teacher itself assisted by other teachers in observation. In this case, the researcher acts as a teacher and is assisted by colleagues as observers.

This classroom action research is planned to be carried out in two cycles, where each cycle consists of four stages, including; 1) planning, 2) implementation 3) observation, and 4) reflection phase (Kemmis and Mc Taggart in Ministry of National Education, 2005; 30). This research was carried out at Mechanical Engineering Study Program, Politeknik Negeri Banyuwangi. The subjects in this study were 28-second semester students. The type of data in this study is quantitative data and qualitative data. Quantitative data is obtained through test results at the end of the action, while qualitative data is obtained through observation sheets.

Data collection was carried out in two ways, namely: tests to determine the increase in students' abilities during the learning of the English which was given at the end of each action (cycle) (Pantanemo et al, 2014). By looking at the final test results of students, it can also be known in student learning achievement after participating in English learning. Observations are made during learning activities throughout cycle 1 and cycle 2 (Pantanemo et al, 2014; Wajdi, 2018). Observation is carried out with the aim to measure/know the behaviour of individuals in this case students and teachers during the learning process takes place by filling in the observation format prepared by the researcher.

Data analysis techniques used in analysing the data obtained from the test results, quantitative data obtained from the results of the percentage of students' success in completing individual tasks. The success of classroom action research can be seen from the indicators of student learning achievements, namely the absorption of at least 70% of each individual and at least 80% of classical learning completeness of the number of students available.

Table 1 Criteria for achieving pre-action stage			
Interval Class	Category	The number of	Percentage
		students	
86-100	Excellent	1	3.5 %
70-85	Good	4	13.8 %
56-69	Fair	9	31%
41-55	Poor	11	37.9%
≤ 40	Fail/Bad	4	13.8%

Based on the above criteria, it can be seen from the description of student learning achievements in the pre-action stage as follows.

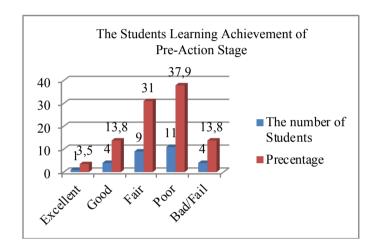


Figure 1 Achievement Criteria of Pre-Action Stage

2. Cycle I

Data obtained at the pre-action stage is used as a reference to carry out the actions in the first cycle, with the aim of obtaining an increase in the value of learning achievement. The activities carried out in the first cycle are as follows.

a. Planning

After obtaining a clear picture of the state of the class, the researcher designed the action to be taken to improve learning achievement, the preparations include the following steps:

- Determining and preparing teaching materials
- Preparing Learning Implementation Plan (RPP) using a Student Teams Achievement Division (STAD) cooperative learning model
- Preparing learning media.
- Making a list of student groups by ranking the pre-test score of students then dividing them into 6 groups.
- Making Student Worksheets (LKM)
- Making an observation's sheet to monitor the activities of teachers and
- Arranging and preparing test questions for students.
- Conducting simulations/exercises on the implementation of the Student Teams Achievement Division (STAD) learning model.

b. Implementation of Cycle I

The implementation of Cycle I was held twice with a post-test at the next meeting.

c. Observation

The results of observations in the first cycle of the teacher can be obtained an overview of the ability of the teacher (researcher) in conducting the learning process, namely from the 12 components observed there is no less value while there are as many as 5 components categorized as fair and good value as many as 7 components. Meanwhile, the observation of 10 aspects of student activities in the learning process show 6 aspects categorized as sufficient and 4 aspects categorized as good.

The comparison of Pre-Action values with cycle 1 can be seen from the following table.

Table 2 Comparison of Score between Pre-Action and Cycle 1			
Observed Aspects	Score of Pre-	Score of Cycle	
	action	1	
The highest score	88	90	
The Lowest score	30	50	
The Average score	56.82	64.79	
The number of students	5	9	
considered as complete			
category			
The number of students	24	20	
considered as incomplete			
category			
Percentage of students	17.24 %	31.03 %	
considered as complete			
category			

Based on the data above, the score of students in the pre-action and the score of students in the first cycle has increased. However, in the first cycle students who got a score of 70 were only 31.03%. From a total of 29 students, there were only 9 students whose grades met the completeness criteria.

d. Reflection on Cycle 1

Based on the results of the implementation of Cycle I during the teaching and learning activities take place obtained the shortcomings that must be addressed in Cycle II are as follows: 1) Lack of readiness and sincerity of students in participating in learning activities using STAD model. 2) Students' attention to teaching and learning activities is still lacking. 3) Some students are less enthusiastic about answering the questions given. 4) The motivation of students to be active in teaching and learning activities is still lacking.

3. Cycle II

Cycle II is a follow-up of the first cycle. The purpose of the second cycle is so that the results obtained by students can meet the specified success criteria, namely, at least 75% of the students get a value of \geq 70. Like the first cycle, the second cycle is also carried out based on procedures of the research namely planning, action, observation, and reflection.

After implementing the STAD cooperative method in teaching and learning activities, the final step is to provide a test to re-evaluate the effectiveness of the STAD model in the classroom with the results of observations of the teacher and the learning

process in the second cycle. The results of observations of the teacher obtained an overview of the ability of teachers (researchers) in conducting the learning process in the second cycle, it is known that from the 12 components observed, there are 5 components as good value and as many as 7 components considered as very good value. The results of observations about student learning are obtained as follows: from all aspects (10 aspects) learning shows 2 aspects that are categorized as fair, 4 aspects that have got good grades and 4 aspects that are categorized as very good.

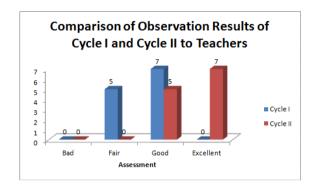


Figure 2a Graph of Comparison of Observation Results of Cycle 1 and 2 to Teachers

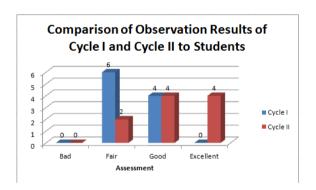


Figure 2b Graph of Comparison of Observation Results between Cycle I and Cycle II to Students

In the graph above, it can be seen that the results of observations of the teacher in cycle I have 5 components with fair categories and 7 aspects with good categories. In the second cycle, the results show an increase where 5 components are good value and 7 aspects have very good value. The same thing is also indicated by the results of observations of students. 6 aspects of assessment with sufficient categories in cycle I, 4 aspects up to become good categories. Meanwhile, the 4 components that were good in the second cycle shows an increase in a very good category.

The implementation of the second cycle refers to the improvement of the shortcomings of the first cycle, there are several aspects of improvement from the second cycle including 1) student learning outcomes, the average value increases from 64.79 in the first cycle to 74.51 in the second cycle, 2) the number of students categorized as complete criteria has increased more than doubled to 24 students or in other words the percentage of classical completeness increased from 31, 03% to

84.61%, 3) the enthusiasm of students increased which is affected by the increase of student participation in the learning process, can be seen from the decrease in the number of students which is not complete from 20 to 5. The comparison of student score in cycle I and cycle II can be seen from the following table.

Tabla	2 C	omparison	of Cyrola	Innd	Crola II	Volume
ranie	\mathcal{I}	ombarison	or Cycle	i ana y	Cvcie ii	vaiues

Table 3 Comparison of Cycle I and Cycle II values			
Observed Aspects	Score of	Score of	
	Cycle 1	Cycle 2	
The highest score	90	93	
The Lowest score	50	63	
The Average score	64.79	74.51	
The number of students	9	24	
considered as complete			
category			
The number of students	20	5	
considered as incomplete			
category			
Percentage of students	31.03 %	82.76 %	
considered as complete			
category			

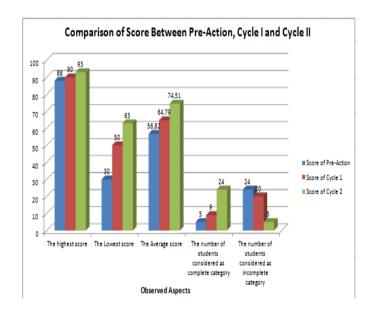


Figure 3 Graph Comparison of Pre-Action Values, Cycle I, and Cycle II

Meanwhile, there are significant changes starting from the pre-action phase to the first cycle until the second cycle. The increase occurred in all aspects from the highest value from 88 to 93, the lowest value from 30 to 63, the average value from 56.82 to 74.51, and the number of students who is considered as complete criteria from 5 to 24. In addition, the number of students who is considered as incomplete criteria dropped from 24 to 5 students. This comparison can be seen in the graph below.

After seeing the results achieved in the second cycle, it can be ascertained that by using STAD method in learning especially English, it can increase student participation and student learning achievement with the achievement of 82.76%

completeness. This is in line with the statement found in Hasyim (2017) which states that STAD is considered capable of increasing learning activities and interactions by still establishing social relations among students. With these results, classroom action research is no longer continued to the next cycle.

4. Conclusion

Based on the results of research and discussion, conclusions can be drawn, namely, the application of cooperative methods of STAD in the process of learning English can increase student participation and student learning achievements of the second semester at the Mechanical Engineering Study Program. This method can foster an attitude of responsibility and be able to improve students' skills in discussing and working together in understanding concepts and solving problems.

This research can be a guide for teachers in implementing STAD model cooperative learning in teaching and learning activities at school. The results of the study of Implementing of Cooperative Learning Model of Student Teams Achievement Division (STAD) can be a consideration for teachers as an alternative method of teaching so that it can improve learning processes as well as increasing student participation and student learning achievements.

The researcher also invites the teacher or instructor to conduct classroom action research using STAD type learning models with different subjects and different subjects/subjects or can apply other learning models to improve student learning outcomes.

References

Arikunto, S. (2012). Dasar-Dasar Evaluasi Pendidikan. Jakarta: Bumi Aksara. Edisi Kedua.

Depdiknas. (2005). Kurikulum Tingkat Satuan Pendidikan. Direktorat Pendidikan Nasional.

Hasyim, A. (2017). The Implementation Student Team Achievement Division and Talking Stick. Classroom Action Research Journal, 1(4), 156-161

Isjoni. (2007). Saatnya Pendidikan Kita Bangkit. Yogyakarta: Pustaka Pelajar.

Kurnia, YR., & Erawati, NLE. (2018). Teaching reading in junior high school. *Journal of Applied Studies in Language*, 2(2), 102-108. doi:10.31940/jasl.v2i2.1064.

Lastari, NKH. & Saraswati, PRTAKH. (2018). The use of mind mapping to improve writing skill of the eighth grade students of junior high school. *Journal of Applied Studies in Language*, 2(2), 144-150. doi:10.31940/jasl.v2i2.1057.

Merawati, J. (2017). Learners' models enhance the development of learners' reading and thinking strategies. *Journal of Applied Studies in Language*, 1(1), 1-6. doi:10.31940/jasl.v1i1.654

Merawati, J. (2017). Learners' models enhance the development of learners' reading and thinking strategies. *Journal of Applied Studies in Language*, 1(1), 1-6. doi:10.31940/jasl.v1i1.654.

Nunan, D. (1992). *Research Methods in Language Learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. Nur. (1996). *Model Pembelajaran*. Jakarta: PT. Rineka Cipta.

O'Connel, S. (2007). Introduction to Problem Solving. Portsmouth: Heinemann

Pantanemo, D., Saneba, B., Palimbong, A., Berry, A. (2014). Pembelajaran Kooperatif Tipe STAD Untuk Meningkatkan Hasil Belajar Siswa pada Pembelajaran IPS di Kelas IV SDN Inpress Kautu. *Journal Kreatif Tadulako Online, Vol.2 No.2 ISSN 2354-614X*.

Parlina, R. (2010). Penerapan Pembelajaran Kooperatif Model Think-Pairs-Share (TPS) Untuk Meningkatkan Aktivitas Dan Penguasaan Materi Akuntansi Siswa Kelas X Jurusan Akuntansi SMK Muhammadiyah Cawas Kabupaten Klaten. Unpublished Thesis, Universitas Sebelas Maret Surakarta.

- Rakhmawati, F. & Nirmalawati, W. (2017). Grammar teaching at pre-service training program in Kampung Inggris (a case study on mastering system program). *Journal of Applied Studies in Language*, 1(1), 7-14. doi:10.31940/jasl.v1i1.655.
- Richards, JC. & Rodgers, T. (1986). *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching*. NY: Cambridge University Press.
- Sanjaya, W. (2009). *Strategi Pembelajaran Berorientasi Standar Proses Pendidikan*. Jakarta: Kencana. Slavin, RE. (2008). *Cooperative Learning Teori Riset dan Praktik*. Bandung: Nusa Media.
- Subiyanto, P., Suciani, NK, Aryana, INR., Sukerti, GNA., & Sitawati, AAR. (2018). Learning and growing: an alternative strategy to teach English. *Journal of Applied Studies in Language*, 2(2), 170-175. doi:10.31940/jasl.v2i2.1080.
- Suyanto. (2004). Pedoman Pelaksanaan Penelitian Tindakan Kelas (PTK). Yogyakarta: Dirjen Dikti.
- Wahyadi, A. (2014). Penggunaan Model Pembelajaran Kooperatif Tipe Student Teams Achievement Division (Stad) Untuk Meningkatkan Keterampilan Berhitung Pecahan Siswa Kelas IV SDN Baturan 1 Gamping Sleman. Yogyakarta: Universitas Negeri Yogyakarta. Tesis Tidak Diterbitkan.
- Wahyudi, EB. (2011). Penerapan Model Pembelajaran Kooperatif Tipe Student Teams—Achievement Divisions (STAD) Untuk Meningkatkan Pemahaman Konsep Matematika Pada Materi Persamaan Dan Pertidaksamaan Kuadrat Pada Peserta Didik Kelas X Teknik Komputer Jaringan (TKJ) Di SMK 45 Wonosari. Unpublished Thesis, Universitas Negeri Yogyakarta.
- Wajdi, M. (2018). Classroom Discourse: A Model of Classroom Language Research. Surabaya: Jakad Publishing.

The effects of using diverse vocabulary learning strategies on word mastery: a review paper

Nasim Mehrabian¹ Hadi Salehi²

Faculty of Humanities, Najafabad Branch, Islamic Azad University, Najafabad, Iran^{1.2} email: hadisalehi1358@yahoo.com²

Abstract - In accordance with the belief that language learning strategies are undeniably teachable, several researchers have attempted to expand the knowledge of language learners toward the productive use of learning strategies with the aim of empowering them to gain personal control of these strategies during learning process. The present investigation is an effort to inquire into the connection between using diverse vocabulary learning strategies and word mastery. Many studies have been done in this area. Therefore, some of these related papers were selected and carefully examined. The findings of the previous studies supported the fact that there is a significant and positive correlation between vocabulary knowledge and word learning strategies. The results suggested that training vocabulary learning strategies has positive effect on both language learning and language learners. Moreover, the instruction of strategy comes to the aid of teachers and learners to meet their needs.

Keywords: individual differences, language learning strategies, vocabulary development, word mastery

1. Introduction

Learning strategies are the key elements of language learning process. They provide evidence for the educators to take advantage of them in teaching at the highest levels (Schunk, 2003, 2009). Considering the research conducted on how to learn, the notions of learning styles and learning strategies became prominent. Based on Güven and Şimşek (2004), learning style contains the learning skills of the learners. Learning strategy involves the techniques employed in learning. Learning strategy changes in relation to tasks and social environment, but learning style is regarded as each person's predetermined feature.

Reid (1995) distinguished between language learning strategies and styles. He defined learning strategies as skills taught and used purposefully to make learning better. Language learning strategies are also described by Fewell (2010) as a practical and constructive factor in comparison to other influential factors for learning which influence the acquisition of the second language as they can be manipulated, controlled and run for improving language learning. Ellis (1994) argued that the taxonomy of language learning introduced by Oxford (2003) can be considered as the universal classification of learning strategies. There are six categories in this taxonomy namely social, compensatory, cognitive, metacognitive, memory, and affective strategies.

Brown (200) has explained the strategies in the character of particular approaches that vary in different time and situation to solve a specific issue. Oxford (2001) put emphasis on the special value of learning strategies in enhancing active participation of language learners in the process of language learning leading to achieving the ideal aim of language classes which is communicative competence. Wittrock (1996) conducted a study on learning strategies. He viewed these strategies as techniques that assist the learners to transfer the right words from short-term to long-term memory. Through these strategies learning is facilitated, students become inspired and new behaviors are formed. As claimed by Schunk and Zimmerman (2003), activities like selection and organization of knowledge, connecting old and new information, appropriateness and evaluation of learning materials are stimulated by learning strategies.

One of the most essential requirements for academic progress is vocabulary acquisition. Students need substantial word knowledge to be successful in primary skills and to learn content materials. Thereupon, students' long-term pedagogic success is greatly influenced by minor differences in vocabulary knowledge. The rate of vocabulary growth is affected by biological and environmental indicators. Language deficiency and memory shortage are related to biological features. The strong association between vocabulary knowledge and socioeconomic status also show that home characteristics cause distinctness in vocabulary knowledge of language learners.

As Baumann and Kameenui (1991) announced, Becker (1977) was one of the pioneers who stressed the significance of vocabulary expansion. Becker (1977) made a connection between academic attainment and vocabulary size of deprived learners. In line with Becker (1977), Stanovich (1986) suggested school failure model focused on interconnected development of vocabulary growth, reading acquisition and phonological awareness. In addition, Liberman and Liberman (1990) and Stanovich (1986) believed that to be a skillful reader the phonological awareness should be trained to the students. As a matter of fact, those students who start school behind typical fellows can acquire reading skills more quickly like peers who are in the most

advantageous pedagogical circumstances (Carnine, Silbert, and Kameenui, 1990).

Another area of inquiry is related to examining the critical factors closely correlated to individual differences in vocabulary acquisition. Similar to language learning, individual differences have a noticeable place in many fields of study. On the report of Brown (2000), Ehrman, Leaver, and Oxford (2003), Oxford (2002) and Peacock (2001), learning strategies and styles are the most studied and inspected factors among the other learner differences in the literature of language learning. Additionally, language learning strategies and styles are considered as the main elements of shaping the quality of learning in foreign and second language learners.

Individual differences can also be spelled out regarding poor and rich vocabularies. Fawcett and Nicolson (1991) shed light on the use of ineffective strategies for memorizing the meaning of words among learners who had poor vocabularies. These researchers conducted an investigation to see the result of teaching 24 difficult words to two groups of adult people with reading disabilities, poor and rich vocabularies. They found that adults with rich vocabularies were able to acquire more meanings than adults with poor vocabularies. The authors claimed that this finding is due to semantic richness which is the correlation among words and their meanings. Although many studies have focused on the examination of the relationship between the use of diverse vocabulary learning strategies and vocabulary mastery, there is not a rich body of information to predict the direct connection of vocabulary proficiency and learning strategies. Thereupon, it is needed to assess this relation. The purpose of this study is to review the extent to which these two concepts are related.

2. Vocabulary

Considering the relation that Becker (1997) observed between academic success and vocabulary knowledge, many investigations have been conducted. In addition to Becker's (1977) observation, three other reasons can be pointed out for remarkable notice to vocabulary development area. First, the close association of reading and vocabulary acquisition may lead to decrease in literacy level (Adams, 1990). Second, as maintained by Beck and McKeown (1991), moving to information-processing direction in psychology brought about a theory for developing the relationship between the notions and words. It demonstrated that learning is a level higher than assembling facts about word definition. Third, in the light of the study done by Beck and McKeown (1991), education changed direction from basic skills to analytic skills. Such a shift provided additional information for vocabulary acquisition and understanding of language in the context of constructivist education and preliminary knowledge.

Carey (1978) carried out a research on vocabulary knowledge. He made a distinction between fast and extended mapping. A superficial meaning of a word is learnt by the learner in fast mapping. It means that more than 1,600 words are available at different levels of mapping. Consequently, if an individual learns only eight new words meaning each day, this kind of learning occurs in basic level of understanding. Learners gain these two mappings at the same time. By extended mapping Carey (1978) meant that when learners have frequent use of a word, they will be able to remember it faster because it becomes an active vocabulary.

Nagy and Anderson (1984) tried to get to the bottom of the number of printed words in classroom materials such as novels, textbooks, encyclopedias, work books and magazines in grades 3 through 9. These researchers introduced 88,533 word families that almost all school students were familiarized with and they used them as criteria

followed the tradition of Nagy and Anderson (1984). Walker and Poteet (1989) made inquiries about the link between word processing, learning and evaluation conditions and learners' ability in recall tasks. They experimented pupils of fourth and fifth grades and presented the words in one of learning or evaluation conditions. They placed a target word in one statement and a rhyme pair in another statement. The results depicted that learners could recall the words when the target word matched the rhyme. The investigators concluded that adding semantic information can aid in recall task.

Recent studies on vocabulary have highlighted vocabulary differences among learners. For instance, White et al. (1990) compared students of two low socioeconomic status schools and one middle socioeconomic status school (grade 1 through 4) in terms of growth differences and reading vocabulary size. Reading vocabulary size was measured by the number of decoded printed words. Even among students of middle socioeconomic status school, differences in reading vocabulary size were apparent in comparison to students of low socioeconomic status schools. Total number of decoded words was 4,800 for middle socioeconomic status students and 2,500 for low socioeconomic status students out of 19,050 words. These differences showed that the number of decoded words may go beyond 3,000 words per year (e.g., Baumann and Kameenui, 1991; Beck and McKeown, 1991; Graves, 1986). The findings of White et al. (1990) research indicated that time will worsen the vocabulary problems of students starting school with poor vocabularies. In middle and low socioeconomic status schools the vocabulary difference at grade 1 was about 1,300 and 2,300 words in particular. But this difference at grade 3 reached 5,000 words for both middle and low socioeconomic status students.

2.1 Vocabulary Development

Vocabulary knowledge plays an integral role in language proficiency, production and comprehension of a text. In the opinion of Teng (2014), learners' understanding of what they read and hear is heavily dependent on vocabulary knowledge. Breadth and depth are two components of this area of learning. Breadth of vocabulary knowledge is consisted of quantity and size of words that every learner is familiar with (Nation, 2007). Depth of vocabulary knowledge refers to quality of words, it means having a deeper understanding of words by learning other aspects of it like morphology, syntax, pronunciation and register.

In a qualitative study, Diaz (2015) examined the effects of metacognitive strategies on vocabulary improvement. He selected beginning younger learners as participants. By metacognitive strategy training he raised the awareness of learners about learning strategies. According to an instructional model, a series of five interventions were included. Learners acquired some metacognitive strategies like evaluation and planning through these interventions. The findings revealed that instruction of metacognitive strategies positively leads to vocabulary development, skill acquisition and higher degree of individuals' consciousness of vocabulary learning strategies.

In an experimental study conducted by Naeimi (2015), vocabulary acquisition was studied through direct and indirect learning strategies. It was an effort to evaluate 60 pre-intermediate learners. A pretest was employed to classify learners in A and B groups based on their vocabulary knowledge. Before the administration of the two vocabulary tests, a pilot study estimated the reliability and equality of the tests. The

instruction of group A accompanied with direct strategies such as reviewing, but for group B an indirect one like expressing the feelings was chosen. Results of posttest demonstrated that participants of group A could achieve higher scores and perform better than group B in tests of vocabulary skill. The investigators concluded that easy and effective direct learning strategies can greatly improve vocabulary achievement.

A comparative study in the context of Quetta, Pakistan was carried out by Fatima and Pathan (2015) on the relationship between learning strategies and vocabulary development. A group of 180 undergraduate students were randomly selected from women's university of Sardar Bahadur Khan and Balochistan University. The instrument of this study was a questionnaire designed by Gu and Johnson (1996) on activation, cognitive, metacognitive and memory strategies. SPSS and t. test were run to analyze the data. Participants used bilingual dictionaries and knowledge of parts of speech to learn new English words. The obtained results supported the fact that cognitive strategies were the most widely used strategies in mastering new words and there was no difference in strategies of vocabulary practice between the undergraduate students of two universities.

2.2 Individual Differences in Vocabulary Development

In literature it was pointed out that individual differences are complex topics to be tested and further research would be of the great need (Ehrman et al., 2003). As noted by Ellis (1994), individual differences in second language learning should be explained by learning strategies and the strategies are affected by individual differences and biases. The individual differences in vocabulary acquisition contain memory problems, linguistic differences and strategies of students with poor vocabularies. Linguistic deficiencies are rooted in four models of vocabulary acquisition namely deficit model, speed of verbal information processing, word decoding model and abstraction model.

Linguistic problems resulted from incorrect and imperfect usage of systematic language structures (Stahl and Erickson, 1986). According to Stahl and Erickson (1986), the problem of poor vocabularies can be solved by teachers through supplying context clues to get the meaning of new and difficult words before reading a text. Boucher (1986) stated that students with poor vocabularies need to acquire the meaning of words and to be able to use them regularly. Semantic memory deficit causes difficulties in memory of people who are learning the meaning of words (Swanson, 1986). The difficulty shows the weak connection between semantic, phoneme, and orthography or the disorganized information in semantic memory. Swanson (1986) concluded that learners with disabilities remember small number of words as compared to learners without disabilities.

Mizumoto and Takeuchi (2009) in the study of effects of strategy instruction on language use regarding individual differences claimed that considering individual differences, no strategy can be the best since differences change type of strategies used by different individuals. Thus, the task of teacher is to guide learners in selecting simple or complicated strategies in the class environment. In EFL contexts, these strategies can also be applied out of the class. The participants of this study were Chinese college EFL learners. The findings as specified by the investigator had limitation in generalization. They could not be generalized to various age groups and settings.

An investigation was conducted by Ghost Bear (2012) on the link between learning, technology and individual differences. In this study the researcher examined

the learning strategies used by adults to be involved in an auction process. An online questionnaire was utilized. The number of adult people responded this questionnaire was 380. At the end of study, the participants reported that learning process was the result of continuous activities they took part and believed that eBay activities provide opportunities for a meaningful learning process not just an electronic business. The findings indicated that learning process refined learning principles of adults and it is possible to attain same learning functions by means of diverse learning strategies. Another finding of this study supported the role of internet use in increasing computer and traditional literacy.

In another study, factors influencing the experiences of individuals about second language learning were explored. Anjum, Al-Othmany and Hussain (2015) tried to generalize individual differences to second language learning. A questionnaire and a written form were employed to determine the effect of social, motivational and demographic factors on second language acquisition. Four participants were involved in this study. Two of them answered the questions with fairly short responses and the rest answered completely. The results revealed that society and occupation could have positive and negative effect on learning a second language. In some occasions they support and sometimes they hinder learning process. Intercultural communication also played an indispensable part in stimulating this action.

The male and female differences in using various learning strategies have been investigated by Sherafat, Kabiri and Soori (2015). Thirty EFL male students and 30 EFL female students of Islamic Azad University of Larestan were examined in terms of using language learning strategies. Selection of participants was based on an Oxford Placement Test. Through a three-point scale questionnaire proposed by Bozinovic and Sindik (2011), the investigators collected data on some demographic features like race, gender, level of proficiency and age. The results of the study confirmed the hypothesis of using diverse learning strategies by males and females. To conclude, it could be said that female EFL students used all learning strategies more frequently than EFL male students.

Kubat (2018) in a qualitative study determined the individual differences exist among students during two processes of learning and teaching. Kubat (2018) focused on some individual differences like perception, intelligence, physical and mental attributes that shouldn't be neglected by language teachers. Four of fourteen science teachers were randomly selected to be interviewed. The findings showed that half of science teachers highlighted the importance of individual differences in regulating learning styles and half of them declared that teaching and learning activities like tests and homework help learners to identify their differences.

3. Learning Strategies

Learning strategies have astonished many investigators in recent years. Different ways of doing learning activities by individuals led to the emergence of two notions of learning styles and learning strategies. Learning styles are intrinsic features that learners are greatly dependent on them (Fellenz and Conti, 1986). In comparison to learning styles, learning strategies are the methods used when a learner starts learning to achieve a specific goal (Fellenz and Conti, 1986).

On the analysis of deep and surface strategies, Scouller (1998) looked into the effects of assessment methods on learning strategies in the context of Sydney. Based

on the research on learning, both surface (rehearsal) and deep (elaboration) strategies are used by language learners (Biggs, 1979; Pintrich, Smith, Garcia, and Mckeachie, 1993). A sample of 206 second year students were studied to see the impact of assessment on learning strategies. The findings of this study showed that learners were more willing to use deep strategies in essay exams and surface strategies for multiple-choice questions. Therefore, assessment tasks persuaded learners to center around meaning, understanding, organization and elaboration in place of rehearsal.

Struyven, Dochy and Jassens (2002) put emphasis upon the relationship between assessment perception and learning strategies. Participants took part in a course of International Business Strategy. One group of 406 students utilized assignment-based form and a group of 312 students used problem-based pattern. Results demonstrated that learners who wanted to employ surface strategy were able to recognize just surface requests while those discerning authentic methods were probable to engage in deep language learning strategies. In the context of New Zealand, a study was carried out on the connection between using language strategies and course level (Griffiths, 2003; Politzer, 1983; Ghrib, 2004). The participants comprised of 130 Tunisian students studying in a guidance school. Two researcher-made questionnaires were developed for this study. The obtained results revealed that there was a positive linear relationship between course level and strategy usage. Course level is also crucial in choice of learning strategies.

In a study done by Ş. ŞEN, A. YILMAZ, H. YURDUGÜL (2012) the relationship between learning strategies, epistemology, beliefs and motivation was evaluated. The research was conducted with the participation of 446 undergraduate students. MSLQ (Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire) and Epistemology Belief Scale were utilized to analyze data through confirmatory factor and path analysis. Via path analysis, it was found that motivation regulates the relation between beliefs and learning strategies. Learning strategy is influenced directly by belief and indirectly through motivation.

In an experimental study, Bilen, Tavil (2015) examined the influence of cooperative learning strategies on vocabulary knowledge. The sample consisted of 96 fourth grade pupils. All members of control and experimental groups took a pretest and a posttest. In their diaries the students reported on their assumption of cooperative learning. Mann- Whitney U test and Wilcoxon Signed Rank test analyzed the score differences in pretest and posttest. The results offered significant insights on the positive attitudes of group members about cooperative learning strategies leading to higher scores.

Abbasian and Hartoonian (2016) conducted an investigation on how self-regulated strategies can improve learning proficiency. For this study, 115 Iranian EFL learners were invited to participate. They were MA and BA students studying TEFL ranging in age from 20 to 30. In order to evaluate the reading comprehension and proficiency a test of TOEFL was administered. They were also given a questionnaire proposed by Al Asmari and Ismail (2012). Pearson correlation was run to calculate data. The results from this study indicated a significant relation of language capability, learning strategies and reading comprehension.

A cross-cultural study was conducted by Köksal, Gökhan Ulum (2016) on Arabic and Turkish language learning strategies. Data were gathered from 251 middle school students with different cultural and linguistic backgrounds. The instrument of the study was a strategy inventory to analyze cultural and linguistic differences. The

obtained results indicated that Arabic and Turkish students were similar in using strategies in a number of ways. The only difference was in using dictionaries while doing reading activities. Arabic students did not like to use it but Turkish students preferred to use a dictionary to help them.

An investigation was done by Alkharusi (2018) to explore the connection between motivational orientation, perception of assessment and learning strategies. The aim of study was to correlate assessment task to motivational issues and learning strategies. English was selected because it is the basic requirement for education. The participants were 198 Omani pupils (tenth grade) studied in English classes through canonical analysis. Results suggested that self-efficacy and authenticity of assessment were positively correlated.

3.1 Vocabulary Learning Strategies

Vocabulary is one of the main aspects of language acquisition. Vocabulary learning strategies (VLS) have received specific attention of many researchers during the last two decades. As noted by Siriwan (2007), vocabulary learning refers to learning a word package and acquiring some techniques or strategies to decode unknown words. On the whole, individuals often utilize learning strategies in the way of acquiring new vocabularies rather than other learning activities (o'Malley, Chamot, Stewner, Manzanares, Kupper, and Russp, 1985).

Wei (2007) in the context of China conducted a study on 60 tertiary-level leaners. The frequency rate of vocabulary strategies was examined using Likert Scale. Beliefs and English vocabulary proficiency were linked to vocabulary learning strategies. Results showed that those majoring in English utilize the strategies more often than non-English fields. In the same line, Barcroft's investigation (2009) sought to discover strategies of intentional vocabulary learning. He attempted to correlate learning proficiency and perceived strategies. A posttest and a questionnaire on vocabulary recall were administered to English spoken learners of Spanish. The findings revealed a positive connection between recalling the target words and strategy usage. Vocabulary learning strategies were the basic part of learning program of proficient learners.

The relationship between vocabulary learning strategies and vocabulary proficiency in a longitudinal study was scrutinized by Gu (2010). Two active and passive tests followed by a questionnaire were completed by 100 Chinese EFL students. Based on the findings of this study, learners who were more successful in answering passive questions used various types of vocabulary learning strategies. There was a negative relationship between active vocabularies and vocabulary strategies.

In Iran context an investigation was made by Khatib, Hassanzadeh and Rezaei (2011) on vocabulary learning strategies used by upper-intermediate English learners. The population of 146 EFL learners took a TOEFL test at Vali-e-Asr university of Rafsanjan. Students who scored 480 and above were given a VOLSI (Vocabulary Learning Strategy Inventory) questionnaire to select the strategies they preferred most. According to Lawson and Hogben (1996), context was highly important in vocabulary acquisition for creating and acquiring the meaning of unfamiliar words. The results of t. test and multiple regression manifested no contrast between selection of vocabulary learning strategies and individual's gender.

Rahimy and Shams (2012) attempted to explore the association of vocabulary

learning strategies effectiveness with EFL scores of vocabulary tests. Among 15 classes of Kish institute, 50 intermediate learners participated in the study. For research aims, OPT (Oxford Placement Test), a 20 multiple-choice item vocabulary test and a 30-item questionnaire were employed to introduce the ways of learning new vocabulary. For data analysis, SPSS and descriptive analysis were applied. The results demonstrated the positive impact of vocabulary learning strategies on performance of learners during vocabulary test. Determination, memory and cognitive strategies were used most often.

Connection of self-efficacy beliefs of EFL learners and vocabulary learning strategy usage was meticulously examined in literature (Heidari, Izadi, Vahed Ahmadian, 2012). From Sistan and Baluchestan University, 50 junior translation students were selected. The researcher employed a self-efficacy beliefs questionnaire (adopted from Nezami, Schwarzer and Jerusalem, 1996) and a vocabulary questionnaire (constructed by Lip, 2009). Results of study indicated that self-efficacy and vocabulary learning strategy usage are positively correlated.

Seddigh and Shokrpur (2012) attempted to investigate how 120 male and female medical students of Shiraz used vocabulary learning strategies. A questionnaire was used to explore the useful kinds of vocabulary strategies and dissimilarities in vocabulary learning strategy usage with regard to gender. The results of ANOVA provided the fact that the use of dictionary and guessing were high among medical students to acquire vocabulary. The mean scores were significantly different. Females liked to use guessing strategy but males preferred dictionary strategy.

Numerous studies focused on vocabulary learning strategies among undergraduate EFL learners (Zokaee, Zaferanieh and Naseri, 2012). A sample of 54 learners studying at university of Tarbiat Moallem took part in this study. These learners were aged between 20 to 22. TOEFL test and vocabulary learning strategies questionnaire of Schmitt (1997) were used at the outset of study. Through descriptive and inferential analyses, it was found that the perceptual style of the learners has a positive effect on vocabulary learning strategies. Visual style was employed more than other learning styles and the least frequent one was group style. No difference was revealed between preferences of vocabulary strategy and learning styles of males and females.

Lai (2013) tried to get to the bottom of instruction of vocabulary learning strategies to EFL classrooms. The explicit learning strategy was applied to 180 EFL freshmen in Taiwan university. The perceptions, beliefs and ideas of the sample were considered before and after the explicit vocabulary learning strategy instruction. The comprehensive Schmitt's taxonomy of vocabulary learning strategies was utilized in this study. Most of the participants' reports stressed the usefulness of strategy training and its effect on usage of diverse vocabulary learning strategies.

An attempt was made by Ismaiel and Al Asmari (2017) on usefulness of vocabulary learning strategies based on a program of vocabulary development among female EFL learners. In an experimental study, a sample of 123 females participated in the study. The selection and division of learners into experimental and control groups were random. Schmitt's questionnaire (1997) measured vocabulary learning strategies utilized by learners. A researcher-made vocabulary test was employed to test vocabulary size. The obtained results supported the existence of pretest and posttest scores differences in both experimental and control groups.

3.2. Language Learning Strategies in Relation to Language Performance

In Ghafournia's study (2014), the link between language learning strategies and university level was scrutinized. A sample of 406 EAP learners in associate, BA and MA degrees were picked up. They had enrolled in Islamic Azad University of Neyshabur. To determine their level of reading comprehension, a reading test was given to them and only those students obtained the middle score could participate in the study. A positive relationship between level of university and application of language learning strategies was manifested. In addition, it was revealed that course level and academic demand were influential factors in comprehending a reading text. In a similar study, Ramirez (1986) investigated the effects of years of language learning on using language learning strategies. A group of 105 English high school students learning French were studied in New York. The findings showed no difference between years of learning and strategy usage.

In a longitudinal study, Altmisdort (2010) sought the reasons of success and failure in language learning employing 92 Turkish university students. These students were classified into successful and unsuccessful learners. To explore the differences and commonalities of language learning and acquisition strategies, the researcher interviewed 120 students randomly. T. test and SPSS were run. The findings showed remarkable differences regarding strategy selection of successful and unsuccessful learners. Successful learners made use of all strategies but unsuccessful ones would utilize some strategies.

The effects of language proficiency on the selection of language context was explored by Javid, Al-thubaiti and Uthman (2012). The participants of this study were 240 Saudi English undergraduate students at Taif University. SILL and paired sample t. test were employed to figure out GPA differences. The results of this study suggested that language learners use diverse strategies with and without awareness. It was also revealed that the use of language learning strategies was more often by proficient language users as compared to the less proficient ones. They utilized metacognitive strategies more than social and cognitive strategies.

The connection between Iranian EFL learners and learning strategy usage has received some attention (Khaffafi Azar and Saeidi, 2013). The sample consisted of 200 English senior learners from various English academies in Tabriz. To do so, BALLI (Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory) and SILL (Strategy Inventory for Language learning) were utilized as instruments. The obtained results were indicative of a linear relationship between SILL and BALLI showing that learners having strong beliefs use learning strategies more frequently. It also suggested that familiarity with a learner's beliefs plays an indispensable part in understanding language strategies.

Altunay (2014) inspected distance education with regard to language learning strategies. This study was conducted on a sample of 63 distance learners majoring in Anadolu University in Turkey. For research purposes, Oxford (1990), SILL, interview, a questionnaire and a course book were used. The results of questionnaire were indicative of less use of affective strategies by distance language learners. The obtained results from interviews showed that learners do not like to use affective strategies because they ignore physical anxiety. Generally, learners feel more anxiety when they are involved in communication and this anxiety reduces being in friendly settings.

In a quasi-experimental study, Yang and Wang (2015) inquired into the relationship among EFL learning strategies, strategy instruction and self-efficacy. As

participants of study, 78 EFL learners both younger and older adults from universities of Taiwan were selected. A GEPT (General English Proficiency Test) was administered. To compare experimental and control group, ANCOVA was run to determine the level of proficiency. The findings of the study showed that language self-efficacy learning strategies and proficiency correlated. No difference was found in the reading or using different language learning strategies after training.

Investigation of the effectiveness of language learning strategies that the successful English language learners made use of, attracted the attention of many researchers (Lee and Heinz, 2016). With the participation of 20 translation students enrolling one of the translation schools of Korea. Through unstructured essay composition, students reported on the useful strategies to achieve English knowledge. In most reports, reading aloud and disciplined approach were pointed out. The results provided evidence that participants showed autonomy, self-regulation and monitoring features. Actually, they exhibited metacognitive strategies.

Erdogan and Ozdemir (2018) in an investigation tried to find the extent to which language learning strategies and learning approaches were related. Data were collected from 493 freshmen studying in a university of Turkey named Balikesir. Two instruments of SILL (Strategy Inventory of Language Learning) and ASSIST (Approaches and Study Skills Inventory for Students) were utilized. Both descriptive and inferential statistics were used to compute the reliability. The findings depict that there is a strong association between learning approach and strategy usage. The highest mean was held by engineering students who employed learning strategies more than other students.

4. Conclusion

The significance of vocabulary improvement has been acknowledged by many researchers (Carroll, 1964; Laufer and Ravenhorst-Kalovski, 2010; Nation, 2001; Schmitt, 2000). According to Schmitt (2000), vocabulary knowledge is greatly important to enhance language capability and vocabulary competence. Mizumoto and Takeuchi (2009) also claimed that the preferences of learners in strategy choice did not change significantly after and before strategy training. The present study determined the effect of strategy usage on vocabulary development. This study supplied additional information on how strategies of vocabulary learning can influence word proficiency. The results of review showed that strategy instruction can make beneficial changes in vocabulary learning. This study can deepen the students' understanding of different vocabulary strategies and their usefulness. This knowledge of strategies assists learners in selection of proper strategies.

One of the most striking results emerged from reviewing the related papers was that substantial growth of strategy training led to considerable increase in usage and frequency of language learning strategies. Practically, the findings of this study can aid teachers to utilize new strategies to improve the learners' knowledge of strategies and develop the vocabulary. It was revealed that learners were willing to use cognitive and metacognitive strategies because they were useful for them and fitted their learning styles. Findings of this study are in line with Blanco et al (2010), Mizumoto and Takeuchi's (2009) studies. They reported that learners' awareness of learning strategies has increased. This awareness enabled the learners to use strategies more frequently and to achieve higher level of vocabulary mastery.

To conclude, there is not any strategy that is the best one regarding individual differences in learning process. Different individuals employ various approaches for their learning. In sum, students prefer strategies that are compatible with their learning styles since they do not know the way of applying other strategies into existent learning environments. Therefore, teachers should provide guidance on special strategies and it is required to instruct the students how to make use of various strategies. As limitations of this study, it can be mentioned that the results cannot be generalized to different settings and age groups. In addition, learners may not report clearly and exactly the future use of strategies.

References

- Abbasian, G. & Hartoonian, A. (2014). Using Self-Regulated Learning Strategies in Enhancing Language Proficiency with a Focus on Reading Comprehension. http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/elt.v7n6p160
- Adams, MJ. (1990). Beginning to read: *Thinking and learning about print*. Cambridge, MA:MU Press.
- Al Asmari, AA. & Mahmoud Ismail, N. (2012). Self- regulated learning strategies as predictors of reading comprehension among students of English as a foreign language. *International Journal of Asian Social Science*, 2(2), 178-201.
- Alkharusi, H. (2018). Canonical Correlational Models of Students' Perceptions of Assessment Tasks, Motivational Orientations, and Learning Strategies, 68 3.35.67. *International Journal of Instruction, January 2013. Vol.6, No.1*
- Altmisdort, G. (2010). Assessment of language learners' strategies: Do they prefer learning or acquisition strategies? Retrieved from http://www.academicjournals.org/ERR.
- Altunay, A. (2014). Language Learning Strategies Used by Distance Learners of English: A study with a Group of Turkish Distance Learners of EFL. *Turkish Online Journal of Distance Education-TOJDE July 2014 ISSN 1302-6488 Volume: 15*
- Anjum, A., Shujaa Al Othmany, D., Hussain, A. (2015). Generalization of Individual Differences in Second Language Learning, 2222-288X, Vol.6, No.29.
- Barcroft, J. (2009). Strategies and performance in intentional L2 vocabulary learning. *Language Awareness*, 18(1), 74–89.
- Baumann, JF. & Kameenui, E.J. (1991). Research on vocabulary instruction: Ode to Voltaire. In Flood, Lapp, & Squire (Eds.), *Handbook of research on teaching the English language arts* (pp. 604—632). New York: MacMillan.
- Becker, WC. (1997). Teaching reading, reading rates for letters, words, and simple text in the development of reading achievement. *Reading Research Quarterly*, p. 223—253.
- Biggs, JB. & Pintrich. (1979). Individual differences in study processes and the quality of learning outcomes. *Higher Education*, *8*, *381-394*.
- Bilen, D. & Müge Tavil, Z. (2015). The Effects of Cooperative Learning Strategies on Vocabulary Skills of 4th Grade Students. 2324-8068, http://jets.redfame.com
- Blanco, M., Pino, M., & Rodriguez, B. (2010). Implementing a strategy awareness raising programme: Strategy changes and feedback. *Language Learning Journal*, 38, 51—65. Doi:10.1080/0957173100362065.
- Boucher, CR. (1986). Pragmatics: *The meaning of verbal language in learning disabled*. NY: Cambridge University Press.
- Bozinovic and Sindik, (2011). The effectiveness of strategy they use and develop problem-solving skills. Brown, H. H. (200). *Principles of language learning and teaching* (4th ed.). White Plains, NY: Longman.
- Carey, S. (1978). The child as word learner, in Halle, Bresman, & Miller (Eds.), *Linguistic theory and psychological reality*. (pp. 265—293). Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- Carnine, D., Silbert, J., & Kameenui, EJ. (1990). *Direct instruction reading*. Columbus, OH: Merrill Publishing Company.
- Carroll, J. B. (1964). Words, meanings and concepts. *Harvard Educational Review 34, 178—202.***Retrieved from http://www.hepg.org/main/her/Index.html

- Diaz, I. (2015). Training in metacognitive strategies for students' vocabulary improvement by using learning journals. *PROFILE Issues in Teachers' Professional Development, 17(1), 87-102.* http://dx.doi.org/10.15446/profile.v17n1.41632.
- Ehrman, ME., Leaver, BL., & Oxford, RL. (2003). A brief overview of individual differences in second language learning. *System*, 31, 313—330. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0346-251X(03)00045-9
- Ellis, R. (1994). The study of second language acquisition. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Erdogan, T. & Ozdemir, E. (2018). An Investigation of Learning Approaches and Language Learning Strategies: Are They Related? *doi:* 10.5281/zenodo.1320506 Volume 4
- Fatima, I., Hussain, PZ. & Bahadur Khan, S. (2015). Investigating Learning Strategies for Vocabulary Development: A Comparative Study of Two Universities of Quetta, *Pakistan: 2203-4714. doi.org/10.7575/aiac.alls.v.7n.2p.7*
- Fawcett, AJ. & Nicolson, RI. (1991). Vocabulary training for children with dyslexia. *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, 24(6), 379—382.
- Fellenz, RA. & Conti, GJ. (1989). Learning and reality: Reflections on trends in adult learning.
- Columbus: The Ohio State University (ERIC Clearinghouse on Adult, Career, and Vocational Training, Information Series No. 336.
- Fewell, N. (2010). Language learning strategies and English language proficiency: An investigation of Japanese EFL university students. TESOL Journal, 2, 159—174, Retrieved from http://tesol-international-journal.com/wp-content/uploads/2013/11/A11V2 TESOL.pdf
- Ghafournia, N. (2014). Language learning strategy use and reading achievement. English Language Teaching, 7(4), 64-73. http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/elt.v7n4p64
- Ghost Bear, A. (2012). Technology, Learning, and Individual Differences. *Journal of Adult Education, Volume 41, Number 2, 2012*
- Graves, MF. (1986). *Vocabulary learning and instruction*. In E. Z. Rothkopf (Ed.), Review of research in education, la, 49—89.
- Griffiths, C. (2003). Patterns of language learning strategy use. *System*, *31*, *367-383*. *doi:10.1016/S0346-251X(03)00048-4*
- Gu, YQ. (2010). Learning strategies for vocabulary development. *Reflections on English Language Teaching*, 9(2), 105-118.
- Gu, Y. & Johnson, RK. (1996). Vocabulary Learning Strategies and Language Learning Outcomes. Language Learning, 46, 643-697. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-1770.1996.tb01355.x
- Güven, M. & Şimşek. (2004). Öğrenme stilleri ile öğrenme stratejileri arasındaki ilişki. Yayınlanmamış doktora tezi, Anadolu Üniversitesi, Eskişehir. *Journal of Education and Learning Vol. 2, No. 1; 2013. www.ccsenet.org/jel*
- Heidari, H., Izadi, M., & Ahmadian. (2012). The Relationship between Iranian EFL Learners' Self-efficacy Beliefs and Use of Vocabulary Learning Strategies. *English Language Teaching*, 1916-4750 174.
- Ismaiel, N. & Al Asmari, A. (2017). The Effectiveness of a programme-based Vocabulary Learning Strategies for Developing English Vocabulary for EFL Female Students at Taif University: 2203—4714. http://dx.doi.org/10.7575/aiac.alls.v.8n.3p.113
- Javid, C., Al-thubaiti, T., & Uthman, A. (2012). Effects of English Language Proficiency on the Choice of Language Learning Strategies by Saudi English-major Undergraduates: 1916-4750, http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/elt.v6n1p35
- Khaffafi, AF. & Saeidi, M. (2013). The Relationship between Iranian EFL Learners' Beliefs about Language Learning and Their Use of Learning Strategies. 1916-4742. http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/elt.v6n11p167
- Khatib, M., Hassanadeh, M., & Rezaei, S. (2011). Vocabulary learning strategies of Iranian Upper-intermediate EFL learners. *International Education Studies*, 4(2),144-52. http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/ies.v4n2p144
- Köksal, D. & Ulum, Ö. (2016). Language Learning Strategies of Turkish and Arabic Students: Across-Cultural Study. *European Journal of Foreign Language Teaching Volume 1*.
- Kubat, U. (2018). Identifying the Individual Differences Among Students During Learning and Teaching Process by Science Teachers. *International Journal of Research in Educational and Science*, (*IJRES*), 4(1), 30-38. doi: 10.21890/ijres.369746

- Lai, Y. (2013). Integrating vocabulary learning strategy instruction into EFL classrooms. *Taiwan Journal of TESOL. Vol. 10.1, 37—76, 2013*.
- Laufer, B. & Ravenhorst-Kalovski, G. C. (2010). Lexical threshold revisited: Lexical text coverage, learners' vocabulary size and reading comprehension. *Reading in a Foreign Language*, 22, 15—30, Retrieved from http://nflrc.hawaii.edu/rfl/
- Lawson, MJ. & Hogben, D. (1996). The vocabulary learning strategies of foreign-language students. *Language Learning journal*, 46, 101—135. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-1770.1996.tb00642.x
- Lee, J. & Heinz, M. (2016). English Language Learning Strategies Reported by AdvancedLanguage Learners. *Journal of International Education Research Second Quarter 2016 Volume 12, Number 2.*
- Liberman, I. & Liberman, A. (1990) Whole language vs. code emphasis: Underlying assumptions and their implications for reading instruction. *Annals of Dyslexia*, 4, 51—76.
- Lip, P. (2009). Investigating the Most Frequently Used and Most Useful Vocabulary Language Learning Strategies among Chinese EFL Postsecondary Students in Hong Kong. *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching*, 6(1), 77–87.
- McKeown, MG. & Curtis, ME. (1991). The nature of vocabulary acquisition. Hiilsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Mizumoto, A. & Takeuchi, O. (2009). Examining the effectiveness of explicit instruction of vocabulary learning strategies with Japanese EFL university students. *Language Teaching Research*, 13, 425—449.
- Naeimi, M. (2015). Vocabulary Acquisition through Direct and Indirect Learning Strategies. School of Languages, Literacies and Translation. Universiti Sains Malaysia, Penang, Malaysia, http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/elt.v8n10p142
- Nagy, W. & Anderson, RC. (1984). How many words are there in printed school English? Reading Research.
- Nation, ISP. (2004). Learning vocabulary in another language. NY: Cambridge University Press.
- Nezami, E., Schwarzer, R., & Jerusalem, M. (1996). Persian Adaptation (Farsi) of the General Classification and relation to academic achievement and mathematical problem solving. *Instructional Science*, 31(6), 419—449.
- Nguyen, LTC., & Gu, Y. (2013). Strategy-based instruction: A learner-focused approach to developing learner autonomy. *Language Teaching Research*, 19, 9—30.
- O'Malley, L., Chamot, A., Stewner-Manzanares, J., Kupper, C., & Rocco P R. (1985). Learning strategies used by beginning and intermediate ESL students. *Language Learning*, (35), 21—46.
- Oxford, RL. (1990). Language learning strategies: What every teacher should know. Boston: Heinle & Heinle.
- Oxford, RL. (2001). Language learning styles and strategies. In M. Celce-Murcia (Ed.), *Teaching English as a second or foreign language*. Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle.
- Oxford, RL. (2003). Language learning styles and strategies: An overview. *GALA*, 1—25. Retrieved from http://web.ntpu.edu.tw/~language/workshop/read2.pdf
- Oxford, RL, Ehrman, M, Leaver, B. (2003). A brief overview of individual differences in second language learning. *Syst.* 31:313-330
- Peacock, M. (2001). Match or mismatch? Learning styles and teaching styles in EFL. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 11(1), 1—20. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/1473-4192.00001
- Pintrich, PR., Smith, DAF., Garcia, T., Mckeachie, W. (1993). Reliability and predictive validity of the motivated strategies for learning questionnaire (MSLQ). *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 53, 801-813.
- Politzer, R. (1983). An exploratory study of self-reported language learning behaviors and their relation to achievement. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 6, 54–65.
- Rahimy, R., & Shams, K. (2012). An Investigation of the Effectiveness of Vocabulary. Learning Education Studies; Vol. 5, No. 5; 2012 Strategies on Iranian EFL Learners' Vocabulary Test Score
- Ramirez, G. (1986). Language learning strategies used by adolescents studying French in New York schools. *Foreign Language Annuals*, 19, 131-141.
- Reid, JM. (1995). Preface. In J. Reid (Ed.), Learning styles in the ESL/EFL classroom (pp. viii-xvii). Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle.

- Scouller, K. (1998). The influence of assessment method on students' learning approaches: Multiple choice question examination versus assignment essay. *Higher Education*, *35*, *453*—*472*.
- Seddigh, F. & Shokrpour, N. (2012). Vocabulary Learning Strategies of Medical Students at Shiraz University of Medical Sciences: http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/elt.v5n2p160
- Şen, Ş. & Yılmaz, A. (2012). Üniversite öğrencilerinin epistemolojik inançları ve motivasyonları arasındaki ilişkinin kanonik korelasyon analizi ile incelenmesi. *Paper presented at The Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus*.
- Smith, RM. (1998). *Learning how to learn: Applied theory for adults*. Great Britain: Open University Press.
- Schmitt, N. (1997). Vocabulary learning strategies. In N. Schmitt & M. McCarthy (Eds.), *Vocabulary: Description, acquisition and pedagogy* (pp. 199—227). NY: Cambridge University Press.
- Schmitt, N. (1997). Vocabulary in language teaching. NY: Cambridge University Press.
- Schmitt, N. (2000). Current trends in teaching second language vocabulary. In N. Schmitt & M. McCarthy (Eds.), *Vocabulary: Description, acquisition and pedagogy* (pp. 237—257). NY: Cambridge University Press.
- Schunk, DH. & Zimmerman, BJ. (2003). Self-regulation and learning. *Handbook of psychology*, 7, 59—79.
- Sherafat, Z., Kabiri, P., & Soori, A. (2015). The Differences between Iranian Male and Female Students in Using Language Learning Strategies. *Australian International Academic Centre, Australia Vol. 2 No. 2; April 2014*
- Stahl, SA. & Erickson, LG. (1986). The performance of third grade learning disabled boys on tasks at different levels of language: A model-based exploration. *Journal of learning Disabilities*, 9(5), 285-290.
- Stanovich, KE. (1986). Matthew effects in reading: Some consequences of individual differences in the acquisition of literacy. *Reading Research Quarterly, 21, 360—406*.
- Struyven, K., Dochy, F., & Janssens, S. (2002). Students' Perceptions About Assessment in Higher Education: A review. Paper presented at the Joint Northumbria/Earli SIS Assessment and Evaluation Conference: Learning communities and assessment cultures, University of Northumbria at Newcastle, Retrieved September 11, 2006. Retrieved from http://www.leeds.ac.uk/educol/documents/00002255.htm Ullah, R., Richardson, J. T. E., & Hafeez.
- Swanson, HL. (1986). Memory performance in learning disabled students through semantic processing. *Learning Disabilities Research*, *5*(1), 25—32.
- Teng, F. (2014a). Research into practice: Strategies for teaching and learning vocabulary. *Beyond Words*, 2(2), 41-57.
- Teng, F. (2014b). Assessing the depth and breadth of vocabulary knowledge with listening comprehension. *PASAA*, 48(2), 29—56.
- Walker, SC. & Poteet, JA. (1989). Influencing memory performance in learning disabled through semantic processing. *Learning Disabilities Research*, *5*(1),25-32.
- Wei, M. (2007). An examination of vocabulary learning of college- level learners of English in China. The Asian EFL Journal, 9(2), 93–114.
- Wittrock, MC. (1986). Students' thought processes. In M. C. Wittrock (Ed.), *Handbook of research on teaching*. New York: Macmillan.
- Yang, P. & Wang, A. (2015). Investigating the relationship among language learning strategies, English self-efficacy, and explicit strategy instructions. *Taiwan Journal of TESOL. Vol. 12.1, 35-62, 2015*
- Zokaee, S., Zaferanieh, E., & Naseri, M. (2012). On the Impacts of Perceptual Learning Style and Gender on Iranian Undergraduate EFL Learners' Choice of Vocabulary Learning.

AUTHOR INDEX

A

Agustina, Lia. Stimulating students to speak up through presentation in business English class.

C

Candra, Komang Dian Puspita; IGA Vina Widiadnya, The interpretation of verbal and visual signs in the education advertisements.

\mathbf{E}

Ermawati, Eka Afrida; Ely Trianasari. Bingo game: hidden treasure among heap of woods (the effectivity of a game in improving students' vocabulary mastery).

\mathbf{G}

Golfam, Arsalan; Amir Ghorbanpour; Nader Mahdipour. A comparative study of the conceptual metaphors of time in Persian and English.

H

Hashemian, Mahmood. Effect of Persian and English colour and collocations on 12 learners' proficiency.

M

Mehrabian, Nasim; Hadi Salehi. The effects of using diverse vocabulary learning strategies on word mastery: a review.

Munaiseche, Maya; Grace Pontoh, Decire Wagiu. Analysis of English skill obstacles of electrical engineering students of Politeknik Negeri Manado.

N

Ningsih, Yuliana, Adhiela Noer Syaief. Improving speaking fluency using video vision.

P

Prihandoko, Lastika Ary. Energizing students' academic writing competence through research group activity.

R

Rahas, Fransiskus Xaverius Ivan. The implementation of VPU method to improve students speaking ability.

Т

Trianasari, Ely; Ika Yuniwati. Implementation of student team achievement division (stad) in the English course for the mechanical engineering department.

W

Wiana, Desri. Pragmatic meaning of advertising discourse in Medan local newspaper.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

JASL publication of Volume 2 Number 1, June 2018 is because of the cooperation and help from many sources: the Head of Research Centre and Community Services of Politeknik Negeri Bali and the staff, editors, reviewers and contributors. Here we would like to express our deepest appreciation to:

I Nyoman Suka Sanjaya, SS, M. TESOL, PhD. (Politeknik Negeri Bali, Indonesia)

Abdul Kholiq, S.Pd., M.Pd. (Universitas Islam Lamongan, Indonesia)

Dr. Ali Farhan AbuSeileek (Al Al-Bayt University, Mafraq, Jordan)

Aprianoto, S.Pd., M.Pd. (IKIP Mataram, Indonesia)

Catherine Doherty, Ph.D.(University of Glasgow, United Kingdom)

Dr. Dewa Putu Ramendra (Universitas Pendidikan Ganesha, Indonesia)

Dian Luthfiyati, S.Pd., M.Pd.(Universitas Islam Lamongan, Indonesia)

Gusti Nyoman Ayu Sukerti, SS, M.Hum. (Politeknik Negeri Bali, Indonesia)

Drs. Ida Bagus Artha Adnyana, M.Hum. (Politeknik Negeri Bali, Indonesia)

Dr. I Ketut Suar Adnyana, M.Hum. (Universitas Dwi Jendra Denpasar, Indonesia)

Dr. Ikhsanudin Ikhsanudin, M.Hum. (Universitas Tanjungpura, Pontianak, Indonesia)

Dr. I Made Iwan Indrawan Jendra, M.Hum. (Institut Hindu Dharma Negeri Denpasar, Indonesia)

Dr. I Made Rai Jaya Widanta, M.Hum. (Politeknik Negeri Bali, Indonesia)

I Wayan Dana Ardika, S.Pd., M.Pd. (Politeknik Negeri Bali, Indonesia)

Dr. Joko Kusmanto (Politeknik Negeri Medan, Indonesia)

Dr. Joyce Merawati (Politeknik Negeri Bandung, Indonesia)

Dr. Kadek Ratih Dwi Oktarini (Politeknik Negeri Bali, Indonesia)

Dr. Lien Darlina, M.Hum. (Politeknik Negeri Bali, Indonesia)

Dr. Nengah Arnawa, M.Hum. (IKIP PGRI Bali, Indonesia)

Dr. Ni Nyoman Sarmi, M.Hum. (Universitas Dr. Sutomo Surabaya, Indonesia)

Dr. Sugeng Hariyanto (Politeknik Negeri Malang, Indonesia)

Victoria Tuzlukova, Ph.D. (Sultan Qaboos University, Oman)

Prof. Dr. Zeydan Khalaf Omar (University of Anbar, Iraq)

Dr. Agus Sariono (Universitas Negeri Jember, Indonesia)

Alan Libert, Ph.D. (University of Newcastle, NSW, Australia)

Ali Jahangard, Ph.D. (Sharif University of Technology, Tehran, Iran)

Prof. Dr. Bambang Wibisono (Universitas Negeri Jember, Indonesia)

Barbara Lewandowska-Tomaszczyk, Ph.D. (State University of Applied Sciences in Konin, Poland)

Chamaiporn Buddharat, Ph.D. (Nakhon Si Thammarat Rajabhat University, Thailand)

Francisco Yus, Ph.D. (University of Alicante, Spain)

Hayriye Kayi-Aydar, Ph.D. (University of Arizona, Tucson, USA)

Associate Prof. Hesham Suleiman Alyousef, Ph.D. (King Saud University, Riyad, Saudi Arabia)

Huub van den Bergh, Ph.D. (Utrecht University, Netherlands)

I Nyoman Aryawibawa, Ph.D. (Universitas Udayana, Indonesia)

Associate Prof. Jonathan Newton, Ph.D. (Victoria University of Wellington, New Zealand)

Jos Swanenberg, Ph.D. (Tilburg School of Humanities and Digital Sciences, Netherlands)

Josina Vander Klok, Ph.D. (University of Oslo, Norway)

Prof. Dr. Jufrizal, M.Hum. (Universitas Negeri Padang, Indonesia)

Mahesh B. Shinde, Ph.D. [Scopus] (Kit's College of Engineering, India)

Mahmood Hashemian, Ph.D. (Shahrekord University, Iran)

Massih Zekavat, Ph.D. (Yazd University, Iran)

Md. Kamrul Hasan, Ph. D. (United International University, Dhaka, Bangladeh)

Prof. Dr. Mohammad Adnan Latief (Universitas Negeri Malang, Indonesia)

Dr. Ni Luh Putu Sri Adnyani (Universitas Pendidikan Ganesha, Indonesia)

Associate Prof. Reza Abdi, Ph.D. (University of Mohaghegh Ardabili, Ardabil, Iran)

Ruth Breeze, Ph.D. (University of Navarra, Spain)

Saber Alavi, Ph.D. (Hatyai University, Thailand)

Sebastien Lacrampe, Ph.D. (Australia National University, Australia)

Somaye Akbari, Ph.D. (University of Bayreuth, Germany)

Associate Prof. Tariq Elyas, Ph.D. (King Abdulaziz University, Jeddah, Saudia Arabia)

Thomas Conners, Ph.D. (University of Maryland, USA)

Dr. Ummul Khair Ahmad (Universiti Teknologi Malaysia, Malaysia)

Dr. Yvonne Tse Crepaldi (Singapore)

We hope that your assistances will improve the journal quality now and in the next edition.

Majid Wajdi Editor in Chief

AUTHOR GUIDELINES

Title, TNR 16 pts, bold

Writer's name, TNR 12 pts, bold

Institutions / Agencies (Affiliate Organization) authors,

With address and e-mail

Abstract: This abstract is written in English. The content is not only the subject of the text, but also contains summaries and conclusions. The number of words in the abstract is about 150-300 words. 11pts

Keywords: loads at least 3 keywords.

Title in English

Abstract: The abstract have two version; in English and Bahasa Indonesia. It should not only indicate the subject and scope of the paper but should also summarize and author's conclusion. The abstract should contain at least 150 words or not more than 300 words.

Keywords: should have three keywords minimum.

CONTENTS

The manuscript can be written in English or Bahasa Indonesia. Fill in the script as follows:

- *Introduction*, loading background problems, goals and novelty. Also, previous studies / writings relating to written writings may be submitted, which are included in the Bibliography. The molding method to the reference uses a number in brackets; [1], [2], and [3].
- **Research Methods**, containing materials or components, tools and objects studied, how research work, observed parameters, design used and analysis techniques.
- **Results and Discussion**, contains the results obtained along with the analysis
- *The conclusion*, contains a brief statement about the results obtained and given *advice* when necessary.

Acknowledgments and References are located at the end of the post.

PASSENGER FORMS

The script is typed using Word's word processing program with Time New Roman typeface, on A4 size paper. Number of pages maximum 10 pages, single space. The page layout uses margins: left 3 cm, top 2.5 cm, right 2 cm, and bottom 2.5 cm. For titles and abstracts are created in one column, while the contents of the post are made in two columns, with the middle space between the columns 0.5 cm.

The large fonts used for each section are as follows:

- Title: 16 pts (**bold** print).
- Author name: 12 pts (**bold** print).
- Institution / Agency and address: 10 pts.
- Content of writing: 10 pts.
- Captions / tables: 9 pts.

III. TABLES AND IMAGES

Tables, pictures or photographs should be clear and easy to read, the size adjusted to the existing column. Images should be separated in image files. Giving the serial number using numbers (1, 2, 3, etc.), with a brief and clear description.

1. **BIBLIOGRAPHY**

The bibliography is written by following the following grammar:

- **Seminar / Conference Publications:** Author, "title of article", *conference name*, conference date, conference location, page number.
- **Periodic publications:** Author, "title of writing", *name of publication*, volume, page, month, year.
- **Books:** Author, "book title", name of publisher, city, year, chapter or page.
- The conference name, journal name, and title of the book are written *italically*.