

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter presents some reviews of relevant theories and studies they are about the concept of ability, English teaching strategies, concept of humor, concept of English puns, the concept of meaning, previous of the studies and model of research.

2.1 The Concepts

2.1.1 The Concept of Ability

In learning English, the students are guided, facilitated and set to a condition to be able to learn and improve something well. In National Curriculum, teaching should fulfill students' knowledge, skill and attitude aspects. Teaching English at Senior High School has an important role since English is National Subject to be tasted in National Examination. In the globalization era, English is taught not only to make the students be able to pass examination but also to use English as International tool of communication. The development of English education can be seen in the revising of "2013 Curriculum" where the government points out knowledge and skill that should be mastered by the students.

Automatically, there are four skills where those should be mastered by the students in learning English. They are speaking, listening, reading, and writing. Besides the four English skills, to master four language skills the students should have good understanding of English component such as vocabulary, pronunciation, and grammar.

Teaching is a process that facilitates learning. Teaching is the specialized application of knowledge, skills and attributes designed to provide unique service to meet the educational needs of individuals of the society. The effectiveness of the teaching learning process adheres to the teaching skills of the teacher and the learning skills of the students. Dharmaraj, (2015: 40) mentioned some key points of teaching as follows:

1. *Interactive skills*. This covers interpersonal skills, effective speaking skills and presentation skills in the teaching learning process.
2. *Confidence*. The teacher needs to be confident enough to handle the subject matters and should be ready to explain and answer the questions probed by the students.
3. *Organization Skills*. The pre-planned activities for the teaching should consider the needs and interests of the learners and should be developed by the teacher.
4. *Team work*. The skill to work in teams and groups is necessary for the teachers.
5. *Conflict management skill*. The teacher should possess conflict resolution skills to deal with help the students or among the peer group.
6. *Motivation skills*. It is a pre-requisite skill needed by the teachers since motivation pushes the students to gain interest and attitude towards the subject being taught.
7. *Empathies with the students*. The teacher should try to build up trust and rapport with the students. The teacher should feel the emotions of the

students in getting into a complicated topic and work together with them towards the goal.

8. *Evaluation and feedback.* The teacher should be able to imply appropriate evaluation method and techniques and give feedback to the students on their performance without any personal bias.

Based on the key points stated, the writer would like to say that a teacher is a person who should have such kind of teaching skills to make the students be able to master the subject matters. A teacher must create teaching strategy to make the students have interest in learning English. The students who have comfortable learning experience will have good motivation to study more and reach the target of teaching learning process. Moreover, learning is a process, which occupies an important role in molding the structure of students' personality and behaviors. Learning involves new ways of doing things with no limit to adopt the ways and means to attain the goal. It is a continuous, comprehensive process which involves different methods and cover cognitive and affective domains of human behaviors (Dharmaraj, 2015: 5).

Affective domain is associated with the emotional attachment of students with learning. Thus, current expectations of engineering students are not only that they have the ability to learn, to achieve and to create but also to have the ability to be empathetic, self-starters, critical and creative thinkers (Lewis, 2009) Affective domain can be explained in a layman definition as when teacher present any idea or any material to students which is usually in a polished structure. Instantly polished structure of learning may cause confusion among students in

understanding the concept (the psychological state such as anxiety, and confusion are the emotional state), and after getting more knowledge on the concept helps students in gaining a deeper understanding and acquisition of knowledge will bring optimism and confidence among students so learning naturally involves success and failing phenomenon as a way of trial and error and consequences of learning often associated with affective responses (Kort & Reilly, 2002).

Affective dimension of learning covers all aspects of personality. The ways students interact in the classroom and deals with the elements of attention, emotion and valuing are reflective of the affective dimension of learning and it reveals an individual's preference in social setting. Student's way of both knowledge acquisition and knowledge integration reflect their influence of heredity as well as environment (Brown, 1998). Anderson and Kraftwohl (2001) identify five hierarchical stages of affective domain namely receiving; responding, valuing, organisation, and characterization by value.

Research measures cognitive outcomes ranges from analysis of basic knowledge acquisition to evaluation, which is successive development from Lower Order Thinking to Higher Order Thinking (Huitt, 2009; Casale, Kuri, & Silva; 2010; Chyung *et al.*, 2010). The hierarchy of the revised taxonomy on the cognitive domain includes remembering, understanding, applying, analyzing, evaluating, and creating respectively. Remembering, understanding, and applying are related to lower level of thinking, while the other three aspects such as analyzing, evaluating, and creating associated to higher order thinking skill (Huitt, 2009). In hierarchy of cognitive learning remembering refers to the ability to

remember or recall the particular information and description of basic factual knowledge. The keywords are defining, duplicating, recognizing, listing, arranging, memorizing and repeating.

Understanding refers to the ability to grasp new information, manipulate a prior knowledge, and ability to explain the ideas in one's own words. The keywords are discussing, describing, paraphrasing, exemplifying, classifying, and summarizing. The last stage in lower-order thinking is applying which is related to the application of knowledge to produce results.

2.1.2 English Teaching Strategies

Actually, strategies are steps or actions taken for the purpose of winning a war. Other definition of strategy is an effort to achieve of success goal. In education context, J. R David (in Hamruni, 2009: 1) stated that strategy is a plan, method, or series of activities designed to achieve a particular educational goal. Teaching strategy has been defined by several experts, such as: Kemp (in Hamruni 2009: 2) stated that teaching strategy is a teaching activity that must done by the teacher and the student so that the purpose of teaching reached effectively and efficiently. The other definitions stated by Kozma (in Hamruni, 2009: 2), Kozma stated that teaching strategy means an every selected activity, that can give a facility or assistance to the student to reach certain teaching purpose. Based on definition by the experts above, it can be concluded that teaching strategy is plan which prepared by the teacher to achieve certain educational goal.

According to Hamruni (2009: 10-12) the components of teaching strategy consists of; teacher, students, purpose, teaching material, method, media, evaluation and situation or environment. The detail explanation can be learnt in the following.

1. Teacher

Teacher is teaching agent, so that in this matter teacher is the important point. Teacher can manipulate other components of teaching strategy to be variations. But the other components of teaching strategy cannot manipulate the teacher. The teaching manipulation purposes is to make student's environment to be expected environment from teaching learning process, that finally make students reach an expectation standard competence. In teaching manipulation, the teacher must be based on curriculum, which is being implemented.

2. Student

Student is component that do study program to improve ability to reach study purposes.

3. Purpose

Purpose is base to determine strategy, material, media and teaching evaluation. Therefore, in teaching strategy, determining purpose is the first thing that must be chosen by the teacher.

4. Teaching Material

Teaching material is media to reach teaching purpose. According to Suharsini (1990) teaching material is core component in teaching process.

5. Method

Method is a generalized set of classroom specification for accomplishing linguistic objectives. Methods tend to be concerned primarily with teacher and students roles and behaviors and secondarily with such features as linguistics and subject matter objectives, sequencing and materials. They are usually thought of as being broadly applicable to variety of audiences in a variety of contexts.

6. Media

Media is the plural form of the term “medium”. Media includes many things around us, like television, computer, picture, radio, and newspaper. In education, there are the certain media used in teaching learning process to convey the knowledge to students, this called education media.

7. Evaluation

Evaluation is component to know the result of teaching learning process, so that teacher can know the result expectation. Evaluation can be summative and formative. Summative assessment refers to summary assessments of student performance including tests and examinations and end-of-year marks. Summative assessments of individual students may be used for promotion, certification or admission to higher levels of education. Formative assessment, by contrast, draws on information gathered in the assessment process to identify learning needs and adjust teaching. Summative assessment is sometimes referred to as assessment of learning, and formative assessment, as assessment for learning.

8. Situation or environment

Environment influences teacher in deciding teaching strategy, situation in this matter means situations and physical condition, such as climate, school, location, facilitation and others. Based on the components of teaching strategy, the writer would like to highlight that all of the components should be bounded each other to gain maximum result of teaching learning process.

2.1.3 The Concept of Humor

Harmer (2002:134) said that “the use a variety of teaching aids to explain language meaning and construction, engage students in a topic or as the basic of a whole activity.” Many previous studies have highlighted the effects of humor on learning and the relationship between humor and learning. Some agree that there is evidence that the effective use of humor can improve learning but they are still somehow conservative on some points. One of these points is how to use instructional humor effectively. Bryant and Zillmann (1989: 74), for example, say that using instructional humor “depends on employing the right type of humor, under the proper conditions, at the right time, and with proper motivated and receptive students.”

Ever since the educational paradigm shift from teacher-center to learner-center instruction in the last decades of the past century, there has been a continuous debate and dialogue among researchers, educators and educational psychologists alike on how to enhance teaching and learning processes in order to make them more effective, i.e. more beneficial for student learning. Consequently, teachers have been urged to explore better and alternative ways of teaching to

improve their practice and break away from traditional methods of instruction, which are commonly understood to be counterproductive for the development of skills and practices that enable learner autonomy and independence.

In addition, there is a large body of literature devoted to the many sources and pedagogical tools that teachers can employ in order to improve teacher-student interaction and learning outcomes. Chabeli (2008: 51), identifies “a helping attitude, openness, willingness and an empathetic disposition on the part of the teacher” as one of these crucial factors which help to establish a classroom atmosphere conducive to learning. The general agreement among researchers and educators is that in order to achieve advanced language skills, students of English have to be able to identify and understand humorous instances in the target language. From a linguistic point-of-view then, the humor used in the foreign language classroom can become a very helpful teaching device to create linguistic awareness. Deneire (1995: 291), for instance, believes that through the use of humor, students become “sensitive to the structural and the semantic differences between different languages” while gaining an insight which kinds of humor are appropriate in different contexts (ibid.: 293). In addition, Schmitz remarks that “English has a large stock of phonological jokes that bring together different meanings of a specific word or relate different word sense that sound alike” (2002: 101).

Students of English are therefore expected to identify puns and plays of words in order to successfully communicate in the target language. In the English as a foreign language classroom, puns do indeed pose a great challenge for

students. They demand first an understanding of the underlying incongruity and then a general ability to resolve or interpret it (Hackathorn et al. 2001: 116). Therefore, Schmitz (2002: 101-104) recommends that puns and plays on words should first be introduced at an advanced level of language studies for it is only then that students have acquired the necessary linguistic skills in order to understand these expressions. In terms of translation exercises, difficult linguistic humor such as puns could also pose a challenge to the less advanced students of English. As Schmitz referring to Liebold (2002: 106), remarks “the translation of humor necessitates ‘the decoding of humorous speech in its original context’ into another language ‘which successfully recaptures the intentions of the original humorous message’.” As a consequence, if a student is not able to master both the target language and the source language extremely well, he or she will not be able to translate the jokes of a foreign language without losing some of its humorous qualities (ibid.: 89-93).

The above outline of reasons for employing humor in the language classroom illustrates some of the numerous advantages which humor has for the learner and the teacher in the context of foreign language teaching. It can, if used appropriately, enhance both teaching and learning processes and improve the relationship between teacher and students. But although past literature suggests that humorous teachers are generally perceived as more effective and competent than non-humorous ones, there are many instructors who do not feel comfortable using humour in the classroom as part of their own. While Chabeli (2008: 52) divides the different forms of classroom humour along the lines of ‘positive

humor' and 'negative humor'. According to Wanzer (ibid.: 121), this generally excludes humor that "makes fun of students, humor based on stereotypes, failed humor, sexual humor, swearing to be funny, joking about serious issues, and personal humor". To Chabeli (2008: 57), however, "any humor that is intended to divide people, belittle or ridicule, discriminate, encourage negativity or be at another person expense" is considered inappropriate in the classroom context.

In contrast, the humor that should be used during teaching "should be constructive, understandable by all learners and be relevant to the content and or compatible to the learning environment" (ibid.: 58). While Wanzer (2002: 122), recommends linking "humor to the subject matter when possible", she sees unrelated humor to also have effective qualities in the classroom either as "an icebreaker or affinity-seeking strategy". However, she also admits that unrelated humor does not have the same advantages as related humor (see ibid.: 122) when compared on the basis of the students' learning outcomes. Wanzer is also the one who points out that failed humor attempts on the part of the teacher are almost as bad as using inappropriate humor. Consequently, if students do not understand the humor or if the humor is not perceived as funny – e.g. when it is based on stereotypes or meant to ridicule students or a distinct group of people – then they will view the teacher's use of humor as a failed attempt and may become distracted from the lesson (see ibid.: 123). In this case, the writer would like to say that humor is very important to use in teaching English. As humor is the way, that teacher can create it to make a fun class situation, so the students will be

comfortable in learning. Moreover, by using humor, there are benefits that make the students have more attention to attend English class.

2.1.4 The Concept of English Puns

Puns are a special form of humor based on double meanings. Puns are sometimes nicknamed “the lowest form of humor” in fact, the language knowledge needed to understand a pun (Pollack 2011). Because they require processing the sound and meaning of words twice, puns demand considerable language agility. Unlike humor based on sight gags, funny facial expressions, or amusing visual arrangements, the humor of puns is based on language play. Puns are also language-specific. Every language has its own puns and wordplay, including languages that do not use alphabetic writing systems. Mandarin, for example, has puns based on the sounds and appearance of Chinese logograms. For example, the Mandarin word for “fish” creates a pun based on a close pronunciation with the word for “abundance,” and for that reason, the fish occurs in many Chinese illustrations as a symbol of wealth. The similarity of the sounds creates the pun, and fluent Mandarin speakers understand it effortlessly. Since it has been fed by many streams, English has a wonderful reservoir of sources for puns. Puns can be found not only in children’s joke books and on TV, but also in environmental print found in daily life in menus, newspaper headlines, billboards, websites, signs, advertising, and especially the names of small businesses. Since puns do not transfer between languages, they need to be taught; however, they are rarely included in lesson plans or content units. One reason for this is that humorous language is sometimes wrongly considered inappropriate for the

language classroom. However, thousands of puns are perfectly appropriate for students of any age. Another reason is that teachers of English may not understand exactly how puns work and therefore feel hesitant to try to use them.

English puns generally fall into four categories, three of which are well established and are based on homophones, polysemous words, and close-sounding words (Lems 2011 et al). A fourth, newer category of puns is now emerging through texting and instant messaging and is based on the use of alphabetic, numeric, or simplified spelling. There are four categories of English puns, provides some practice in classifying them, and suggests how they might be incorporated into the English learning classroom. The puns described here are;

1. Sound alike puns (homophones)

Sound alike puns are based on *homophones*, words that sound the same, but have different spellings and meanings (e.g., *hair/hare*; *to/too/ two*). In sound alike puns, a phrase or sentence contains a word with the same sound but two meanings. An example of a sound alike pun is the sign for a daycare provider that reads “Wee Care Day Care.” The words *we* and *wee* are homophones, which gives “Wee Care” two meanings. On the one hand, the phrase “we care” serves as a statement of philosophy by the business to show that they care about the children they take care of; at the same time, the spelling of *wee* creates the compound noun “Wee Care,” which means care of “little ones” or “children.” The meaning of the compound noun, which can be paraphrased as “care of little ones,” adds an appealing dimension to the name of the business. The combination of the two

meanings conveys a bit of charm and humor and thus makes a simple name a lot more memorable.

2. Lookalike puns (Polysemous words)

Polysemous words are spelled and pronounced the same and have related meanings (e.g., “ruler” as a measuring stick or a king; “mole” as a burrowing mammal or a spy). Polysemous words create lookalike puns. An example of a lookalike pun can be found in a sign for a small business, observed by the author while driving in Montana: “Blind Man—Window Blinds of Every Kind.” This lookalike pun attracts the attention of drivers going by on the road by implying that a blind man lives nearby and they ought to drive more slowly (American street signs often alert drivers that a blind or deaf resident lives on that block). A second meaning of “blind,” however, is window blinds, and put together with the word “man,” it forms a compound noun, “blind man,” or “a man who sells window blinds.” The second meaning identifies the nature of the small business (the graphic on the sign showing horizontal slats reinforces the idea of window blinds). The combined effect of the graphic and the lookalike pun is that a person driving by the sign reads it, ponders its two meanings, is momentarily amused, and is more likely to remember and patronize the business—or at least that is what the owners hope! As one can see, sound alike puns and look-alike puns may be based on a single word or one word within a larger unit, such as a compound noun.

3. Close-sounding puns

A third kind of English pun comes from the confusion generated by similar sounding words. When one word is substituted for another that sounds like it, whether the substitution is for a single word or part of a phrase that can create a close-sounding pun. An example of a close-sounding pun is a sign seen on a van in Chicago: “Ex-stink Sewer and Drainage.” This humorous title for a plumbing business is based on the close pronunciation of “Ex-stink” and the word *extinct*. By looking at the words on the van (which also has a painted picture of a toilet), we can figure out that “Ex-stink” must indicate that the business will get rid of the bad smell, or stink, in one’s plumbing, and the words “sewer and drainage” on the side of the van confirm that. However, the second meaning, with a slightly altered pronunciation, is “extinct,” which suggests that the unpleasant smell will not just go away, but, like an extinct species, disappear forever. As is the case for the other two examples, this small business achieves humor through its signage, and the humor of the sign makes it memorable.

4. Texting Puns (alphabetic, numeric, and simplified spelling)

Alphabetic, numeric, and simplified spelling can create texting puns. These are based on the increasingly common practice of using the sound and/or spelling of alphabet letters, numbers or symbols, or simplified spelling as a way to represent or “spell” a word. Examples might be “cre8” for the word *create*, or “@mosphere” for *atmosphere*. When we see a texting pun, first we try to silently decode it, and if we cannot figure it out, then we silently “sound it out” in our minds, imagine how it would sound, and then understand the joke. Texting puns

are being created every day as people play with their wireless devices and look forever more economical, nuanced ways to convey their messages. An example of a texting pun is found in the popular American car insurance advertisement that reads “0 CRDT CHX.” To understand this, we mentally change the first symbol into the word *zero*, then insert the missing vowels for the word *credit*, and insert the missing vowel and correct the spelling for the third set of letters, to obtain the word *checks*. Put together, the phrase “Zero Credit Checks” informs potential customers that they can purchase this auto insurance without going through any credit checks, something which people with bad credit records will be glad to know! Simplified spellings save money for sign makers, so they are always looking for ways to convey the message of a product or service using fewer letters. It is easy to simplify spelling in English because English bears many spelling patterns from its Germanic and Old English origins. Many English words no longer look like they sound, so it is possible to find other ways to represent the sounds of the word. For example, *doughnut* is often written as *donut*, and the word *light* is increasingly spelled as *lite* when referring to the reduced calories found in processed food and beverages. Another example of simplified spelling is the name of the eyeglass company, “SPEX.” It takes a word for glasses, *specs* (a short form of the word *spectacles*), and simplifies its spelling by swapping in an “x” for the spelling pattern “cks.”

The example of four categories of puns;

Four Categories of Puns
Sound alike Puns
1. Teacher: Tell me something that conducts electricity. Student: Why, er... Teacher: Yes, wire! Now name a unit of electrical power. Student: A what? Teacher: Yes, a watt! Very good.
2. Two peanuts were walking down the street, and one was a salted (assaulted).
3. My three-year-old daughter is resisting a rest (arrest)!
4. I practice my handwriting because it's the write (right) thing to do.
Lookalike Puns
1. Teacher: Selma, what's the highest form of animal life? Selma: A giraffe?
2. Barry: What travels faster, hot or cold? Mary: Hot. You can always catch cold.
3. Question: How do you stop a charging bull? Answer: Take away its credit card.
4. Question: What did the road say to the bridge? Answer: You make me cross.
Close-sounding Puns
1. The barber went to the bank and opened a shaving account.
2. Question: How did you keep your dog out of the street? Answer: I took her to the Barking Lot.
3. A skunk fell in a river and stank to the bottom.
4. Sign on a bake shop: "We bake to differ."
Texting Puns
1. GINVU!
2. R U L8?
3. Hotel sign: Gr8 r8s
4. Why is 10 scared? Because 7 8 9.

Many scholars (Leech, 1969; Newmark, 1988; Delabatista, 1994 and 1997, to cite just a few) have tried to classify pun into different typologies, but it seems

that wordplay is difficult to classify. The classification below summarizes the different attempts by different authors, but it remains lacking and sometimes repetitive.

1. **Homophonic pun;** this kind uses word pairs which are homophones (soundalike) but are not synonyms. Example is George Calin's statement "Atheism is a non-prophet institution". The word prophet here is used instead of 'profit', which is the usual word used in expressions like non-profit organizations.
2. **Homographic or heteronymic pun;** this pun uses words that are spelled the same but have different meanings and sounds. Example is Douglas Adam's line "You can tune a guitar, but you can't tuna fish unless of course you play bass." This line contains two types of pun: first, a homophonic pun shown clearly in the words tune and tuna; second, a homographic pun in the word bass in which there is some kind of ambiguity reached through the identical spelling of 'bass', a string instrument and 'bass', a kind of fish.
3. **Homonymic pun;** this kind includes exploitation of words which are both homographs and homophones. Example is Isaac Azimov's statement "Did you hear about the little moron who strained himself while running into the screen door?" The word strained carries the two meaning "gave much effort" and 'filtered'.
4. **Compound pun;** includes a statement that contains two or more puns. Example is Richard Whately's complex statement "Why can't a man starve in the Great Desert? Because he can eat the sand which is there, but what

brought sandwiches there? Noah sent Ham and his descendants mustered and bred." The pun here is first in the phrase sand which is, which is homophonic with sandwiches, and, second, in the homonymic words Ham (Noah's son) and ham (kind of pig meat), mustered/mustard, and bred/bread.

5. **Recursive pun;** here, the second aspect of the pun relies on the understanding of an element in the first aspect. Example is the statement "Infinity is not in finity", which means that infinity is not in the finite range.
6. **Visual pun:** The pun aspects are replaced by a picture and this kind is sometimes used in cartoons like "The Far side". Based on those categories the writer would like to use English puns stated by Lems, they are soundalike puns, lookalike puns, close-sounding puns and texting puns.

2.1.5 The Advantages of Puns

Pun is a kind of humor where it can influence the atmosphere of teaching learning process. In teaching English, strategy used can be efficient way to make students reach learning goals. Monnot & Kite (1974:71 in Lucas 2004:28) suggested that puns could be a useful pedagogical tool that could "aid the instructor in enlarging vocabulary and in explaining some of the anomalies of English spelling, syntax and phonology". Analyzing puns could also give the students insights into how the student could manipulate the language, and prepare them to understand the subtleties of English. Puns are a special form of humor based on double meanings.

Puns are sometimes nicknamed "the lowest form of humor" in fact, the language knowledge needed to understand a pun (Pollack 2011). Moreover, in

general terms, humour can be described as “anything that people say or do that is considered funny and tends to make others laugh” (Vrticka et al. 2013: 860). As such, humour is defined in very broad terms and it can be seen to involve two components: the cognitive component; i.e. “the mental processes that go into both creating and perceiving an amusing stimulus”, and the affective component, “the affective response in the enjoyment of” that specific stimulus (ibid. 860). Thus, the experiencing of humour involves both the processes of comprehension and appreciation, the latter of which is often linked to a feeling of amusement, mirthful laughter and enjoyment (Özdoğru and McMorris 2013: 136).

The type of humour enjoyed by humans, i.e. the act of “enjoying incongruity” through the mental play with either words and objects (Vrticka et al. 2013: 861), is nowadays known to be a human-specific characteristic which is not learned, as it was previously assumed, but rather “a genetic, biological characteristic of the human race” (Fry 1994: 111). Thus, no person, regardless of their cultural and linguistic background, is generally found to be without a sense of humour, but the statement or object that is perceived as funny is strongly dependent on one’s own character, situation and culture. “A sense of humor” can be “a kind of psychological fingerprint, distinctive for each person” Fry (1994: 112). However, there is believed to be a distinction between a form of humour with universal appeal, which is recognized and enjoyed throughout the world, and other varieties of humour, which are typically only understood by a distinct group of individuals in certain cultural, linguistic or social contexts (ibid. 112 and Schmitz 2002: 93-110). From that perspective, humour can be understood to serve

both as an important learning tool and memory aid. Secondly, the use of humour can assist in the creation of a more positive and relaxed classroom atmosphere, which in turn helps with the reduction of student anxiety and dissolution of emotionally stressful classroom situations and thus eliminates decisive factors that are counterproductive to learning. As Schmitz (2002: 106) remarks “the translation of humor necessitates ‘the decoding of humorous speech in its original context’ into another language ‘which successfully recaptures the intentions of the original humorous message’.” As a consequence, if a student is not able to master both the target language and the source language extremely well, he or she will not be able to translate the jokes of a foreign language without losing some of its humorous qualities (ibid.: 89-93). Consequently, from a linguistic perspective, introducing humour in foreign language teaching can be a motivating way to make the students aware of specific features in the phonology, morphology and syntax of the target language.

Inserting humorous instances like jokes in translation and mediation classes also makes students attentive to structural and semantic differences between the two languages and it can raise students’ intercultural awareness for them to see that some humorous expressions are almost impossible to translate into another language without losing their humorous effect. Base on the above theory the writer would like to conclude that English puns is a kind of humor and the advantages of using English puns as humor is the students can get a motivating way to be aware of specific features in the phonology, morphology and syntax of the target language. Humour of puns can be understood to serve both as an

important learning tool and memory aid. Moreover, the use of humour can assist in the creation of a more positive and relaxed classroom atmosphere. The puns can also help the students with the reduction of anxiety and dissolution of emotionally stressful classroom situations and thus eliminates decisive factors which are counterproductive to learning. Finally, humour of puns is defined in very broad terms, involve two components: the cognitive component and the affective component. Thus, the experiencing of humour involves both the processes of comprehension and appreciation, the latter of which is often linked to a feeling of amusement, mirthful laughter and enjoyment.

2.1.6 The Concept of Meaning

Geoffrey leech in (Goatly, 2012:5) categorized meaning in a taxonomy, which through somewhat dated, is still extremely useful. He distinguished conceptual, connotative, social, affective, reflected, collocated, and thematic meaning. Conceptual meaning may be defined as logical meaning, the meaning used to convey ideas in order to describe the world. According to Goatly (2012: 78) there are three kinds of ambiguity, they are homophony, holography and homonymy. Homonyms have the same graphological and phonological form but different meaning, e.g. rock meaning large stone and *rock* meaning kind of pop music. Homophones have the same phonological form but different graphological form and meaning, e.g. *hair* and *hare*. Homographs have the same graphological form but different phonological form and meaning, e.g. *read* present tense and *read* past tense.

Notice that identify of both graphological and phonological form paired with different meaning gives rise to either homonymy or polysemy. Homonymy occurs when the meanings are not perceived as related; coincidence of form seems accidental, e.g. *pool* ‘the game like snooker’, *pool* ‘a small pond’ polysemy occurs when the two meanings are perceived as related; coincidence of form seems motivated, e.g. the meaning of *crane* ‘the wading bird with long legs and long neck’ and ‘the hoisting machine used in building construction’ can be related by metaphor. Moreover, Goatly, (2012: 81) says that other jokes or puns depend upon homophony, e.g. ‘what do you get if you divide the circumference of a pumpkin by its diameter?’ “pumpkin pi” He also said that many puns depend on near homophony, or paronymy, as in ‘every pun is its own reward’. Base on the studying of the meaning, the writer would like to say that the meaning of English puns is interesting to make such kind of joke for the students in learning English.

2.2 Previous Studies

There are two previous studies about English puns done by Lucas in 2004 and Pham in 2004. In the previous study under the title “Deciphering the Meaning of puns in Learning English as a Second Language” done by Lucas in 2004, focused to the micro-genetic analysis of the transcripts of the pun related dialogues and the follow up interviews provided the answers to her research questions. She also identified the process through which the participants in the study assisted each other in deciphering the ambiguity of the puns in the pun related dialogues; the analysis indicated that the adult learners made use of a variety of strategies to make meaning together. They completed each other’s

thoughts, provided affirmations for each other's comments, repeated parts of the comments of the other, asked questions, gave listening signals of attention, paraphrased and provided synonyms, and used gestures, either as substitutes for or as complements of a linguistic utterance.

The analysis of the data in relation to the second research question, which posed the possibility that the task of deciphering the double meaning of the puns would prompt learner generated attention to lexical, syntactical, morphological, and phonological aspects of language. Base on the previous study, the writer would like to know students' ability and level ability in using English puns in daily conversation.

The second study under the title "The Use of Humour in English Foreign Language Teaching: A case study of Vietnamese university teachers' and students' perceptions and practices" done by Pham 2014. This study concluded that all teachers who used humour indicated that they thought humour was effective. Their judgment was largely based on whether their use of humour achieved its purposes, which was closely related to the roles of humour as perceived by these teachers: creating a more conducive environment for learning, and helping students learn easier and more efficiently. However, either most teachers could recall ineffective uses of humour, by themselves or by teachers, they knew. From their experiences of effective and ineffective uses of humour, teachers in this study pointed out some requirements for humor to achieve its desirable effects. Therefore, the writer would like to say that this study is authentic and different from the other previous studies.

2.3 Model of Research

In this study, the writer used descriptive research. A descriptive research attempts to describe systematically a situation, problem, phenomenon, service or programme, or provides information about, say, the living conditions of a community, or describes attitudes towards an issue (Kumar 2011:30). Therefore, the variable used was independent variable or single variable, the cause supposed to be responsible for bringing about description of students' ability and level ability in using English puns.

