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LANGUAGE STYLES OF IPHONE ADVERTISEMENT SLOGANS

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Abstract
There were two research problems addressed in this research. The first was to classify and analyze lexical and syntactic features that were contained in iPhone advertisement slogans. The second was to find out what characterizes the uses of lexical and syntactic features in iPhone advertisement slogans. The data were taken from an online iPhone advertisement slogan from the second version to the latest iPhone version recently. This research used a document analysis method and was categorized as qualitative and quantitative research. After classifying and analyzing the data, the researcher calculated the frequency to identity the top three mostly employ in lexical and syntactic features used in iPhone advertisement slogans. The results of the research were there are seven lexical features and seven syntactic features employed in iPhone advertisement slogans and the most three top dominant lexical features are simple vocabulary with 38.4%, hyperbole 21.1%, and potency with 19.2%. The top three commonly used syntactic features are short sentences with 23.5%, present tense with 19.6%, and long noun phrases with 13.7%. Those language styles are used to grab the customers' attention.

Keywords: advertisement slogan, language styles, advertisement, iPhone

Introduction

Advertisement is a medium which helps companies to promote their product. Keegan (2003, p. 153) states that advertisement is any sponsored paid communication placed in the mass medium vehicle. An advertisement has many terms which is one of the terms is a slogan. An advertising slogan or familiar with a jingle which is easy to remember and it seems to stick customer's mind for a long period. Advertisement is a medium to promote a company and its product to the public, namely advertisements on television, radio, and the internet. According to Gilson and Berkman (1986), advertisement is the persuasive media of communication to help companies achieve marketing objects. To accomplish this need, companies should make the best advertisement with a suitable language style. According to Verdonk (2002), style in a language is a set of conscious or unconscious choices of expression which is inspired or induced by a particular context. In this research, language is a general term that refers to linguistics, especially lexical features and syntactic features.

Besides, an advertisement is a well-known mass media since many companies use advertisements for particular aims. Taylor (1986) argues that the main purposes of advertisements are to create customer's awareness and product differentiation, to

create customer's goodwill, and to make sales. It can be said that many companies use an advertisement to achieve those purposes for their profit.

Mass media has an important role in social change. For example, customers will buy a product if they are interested in the advertisement. Therefore, an advertisement must be attractive to persuade people who want to buy the advertised product. It is also supported by Goddard (1998), who states that product manufactures would not invest in advertisements if they did not work. It means that all companies pay more attention to everything that will be written in the advertisement since everything can influence the customers.

Advertisement is close enough to a persuasive language where some dictions in the advertisement could influence the customers. It is supported by Grey (2008), who conveys that advertisement copywriter often uses persuasive message which some linguistic feature is needed such as hyperbole, repetition, familiar language, weasel word, simple vocabulary and syntactic features such as short sentence, long noun phrases, and use imperative. Hyperbole is the most common linguistic feature which can make the advertisement more alive. From the customers' point of view, an advertisement copywriter has to be responsible for the advertised products because advertisements can influence customers toward the advertised company. Therefore, the important thing in the advertisement is diction which can be a very crucial thing.

Nowadays, advertisements cannot be separated from daily life. Based on Lapsanska (2006), an advertisement has become a part of the present daily life. One of the common advertisements which can be found in many places is a mobile phone advertisement. In this research, the researcher has read Tiang and Liang's (2004) journal which discusses the consumers' attitude toward mobile phone advertising. The resulting finding shows that the consumers fond of internet mobile phone advertising. Thus, the researcher is interested in iPhone advertisement slogans which are known as well-known mobile phone worldwide and it advertises the product online, too.

It is relevant to English Language Education Study Program (henceforth ELESP) students to study the nature of the advertisement language for two reasons. The first is the wording characteristics in terms of lexical features and syntactic features in iPhone advertisement slogans which has special characteristics. Each advertisement slogan is creative, unique, and able to attract the customer's attention. Arens (2006, p. 417) claims that an effective slogan should grab the audience's attention and present the message. Second, the data in these 4 research can be used as a learning material in stylistics. This research focuses on the lexical features and syntactic features used in iPhone advertisement slogans. The advertisement slogan is a sentence or a phrase that becomes jargon in the advertisement. It is used to grab people's attention. According to Whittier (1995), a slogan should be a sentence or phrase that shows such merit about a product or a service that is worthy of continuous repetitive advertising. Besides, a slogan should be easy to remember by the public.

iPhone is one of the well-known mobile phones in the world. It succeeded in attracting consumers involving the use of advertisements. The official website of iPhone has launched the newest iPhone 6 with the advertisement slogans "iPhone 6 the two and only". Starting with The Newton Message Pad was an early handheld device manufactured which is made by Apple in the mid-1990s. Some of the Message Pads' concepts and functions have been incorporated into the iPhone. The first iPhone launched by Apple is the iPhone 3G in 2007. At the moment, Apple develops its company to update its product continuously. Based on kreditgogo.com article which

discusses iPhone sales from the first iPhone 3G to the newest iPhone 6, states that iPhone sales starting from 3G, 3Gs, 4,4S, 5, 5S, 5C, and 6 has increased continuously. It could happen because its updated products always develop by following the new technology and it could also happen because of the iPhone marketing advertising.

Based on the research background stated previously, the problems are formulated as follows: First, which linguistic features are used in iPhone advertisement slogans? Second, what characterizes the uses of linguistic features?

Literature Review
Theory of Stylistics

Language in advertising is very unique. It has the power to attract the target audience. The language of advertisement is a usually persuasive speech to give the persuasive effect. Stylistics is the study that is concerned with the style in language. Simpson (2004, p.3) states that to do stylistics is to explore language, specifically, to explore creativity in the language used. However, it is not clear enough what 8 9 styles that are used in the language. Thus, according to Verdonk (2002: p.4), stylistics is a study of style and it can be defined as the analysis of distinctive expression in language and the description of its purpose and effect. In the other words, stylistics is on how such an analysis and description should be conducted and how the relationship between them is established in which different scholars of stylistics disagree but will serve the purposes for the present.

Theory of Slogans

According to Bovee and Arens (1986, p. 274), advertisement slogans or taglines are similar to headlines. An advertisement slogan is a language style which could help the advertisement copywriters to advertise their products or services. Borchers (2005, p. 204) defines an advertisement slogan as a short sentence that represents a product or a person and that is memorable because it establishes an emotional connection to the customers; also, a word or a phrase or an expression that suggests a course of action. Borchers (2005, p. 204) also claims that advertisement slogans have some functions, for instance, advertisement copywriters often utilize advertisement slogans to communicate with the 10 customers in the media, and advertisement slogans become powerful persuasive tools because they can quickly express a memorable aspect of the advertisement copywriter's message. Moreover, Janiszewski (1990) through his journal states that the advertising slogan is more positively effective when it is placed on the right side rather than the left side because it can influence the human mind.

Language Style of **Advertisement**

Bovee and Arens (1986, p.5) state that an advertisement can be defined as non-personal communication of information usually paid for in nature about products, services, or ideas. Additionally, the message strategy in the advertisement is an important thing for a company to communicate with the customers. As stated by Bovee and Arens (1986, p. 255), the message for customers should be simple, interesting, informative, entertaining, enjoyable, and helpful.

Cook (2001) categorizes advertisements into several criteria. First, advertisement is categorized by its medium, namely newspaper, magazine, radio, television, and internet. Second, advertisement is categorized by service or product such as product

advertisements versus non-product advertisements. Third, it is categorized by its technique, namely, the soft-sell advertisement which works through indirectness and implication, and hard-sell advertisements which makes a direct appeal to the prospective buyers. Fourth, an advertisement is categorized by its 11 customers that are considered the most important factor for an advertisement's success.

Lexical Features

Based on Grey (2008), lexical is a study of all the words in a language that has a meaning and a grammatical function. It presents an advertisement to be more unique by using certain words. In this research, the researcher chooses nine lexical features to be analyzed such as hyperbole, neologism, weasel word, familiar language, simple vocabulary, repetition, euphemism, humor, and potency.

Hyperbole

Hyperbole is a figurative language which is presented in excessive words or sentences. According to Leech (1972), hyperbole is often concerned with personal values and sentiment. It is used to vary the personal feelings and opinion.

Neologism

Grey (2008) states that a neologism is a new word or an expression that is created by joining two words or more to create an entirely new word. It means that it may have a novelty impact on the customer.

Weasel Word

Based on Grey (2008) weasel word suggests meaning without actually being specific. Some words are used as weasel words. Those are helpful, like, virtually, enriched, worth, fresh, and scientific.

Familiar Language

According to Grey (2008), familiar language is the use of second-person pronouns to address the audience and it could give a friendly attitude. For example, Ford's slogan is Let a New Ford take you where no road can.

Simple Vocabulary

Grey (2008) explains that the language of advertisements must enable the audience to always remember the words. In other words, it can be said that an advertisement must be brief, simple, and clear. Besides, simplicity must be attractive, too.

Repetition

Grey (2008) states repetition is often used to make the brand's name and the slogan more interesting. It mostly appears in the written part. Repetition consists of three types; alliteration, rhyme, and rhythm.

Euphemism

Based on Grey's theory (2008), euphemism is a type of figurative language that carries connotative meaning.

Humor

Grey (2008) defines humor as a quality in something which makes it funny. In

other words, it is useful to entertain or attract the audience, e.g., wonderfuel. It is a fuel advertisement that formed from the word wonderful and it is used as humor becomes wonderfuel.

Potency

According to Grey (2008), the potential word is those word which can give new value, novelty, or immediately. Potential words can influence the audience. Grey (2008) also identifies the words free, how to, suddenly, now, improvement, bigger, amazing, remarkable, miracle, offer, and magic as the potential words.

Syntactic Features

Grey (2008) identifies that syntactic features of advertisement based on the emergence of similar grammatical structures in form of phrase. In other words, it can be said that syntactic features deal with the categories of words having the same grammatical. Based on Grey's (2008) theory, the simplicity of advertising words can be seen from the syntactic features of slogans.

Long Noun Phrase

Grey (2008) states that a long noun phrase explains that advertisement in three or more words or more independent phrases to impress the customers.

Ambiguity

Since this research deals with slogans, there will be a phrase or a sentence that has more than one cognitive meaning. It is called an ambiguous phrase or sentence. According to Leech (1972), who differentiates between lexical ambiguity and grammatical ambiguity, lexical ambiguity consists of lexical homonymy and lexical polysemy.

Use of Imperative

According to Grey (2008), an imperative is used to make an order. The purpose of the imperative is to make the customers act or do something such as buy or use the advertised product.

Simple and Colloquial Language

Grey (2008) claims that colloquial expressions do not bear the meaning they normally have. This kind of language is only used informal expressions, namely, it ain't half good. The usage ain't looks very informal and indicates the presence of simple and colloquial language.

Present Tense

Based on Grey's (2008) explanation, a present-tense implies a universal timelessness. It is because a present tense gives the condition as if the audience can see and hear the advertisement.

Syntactic Parallelism

Leech (1972)states that syntactic parallelism is a repetition of formal patterns of two or more similar ideas in similar structure forms, e.g., stay dry, stay happy which is the word happy is repeated to make the sentence more interesting because of the

similar pattern.

Association

Grey (2008) describes that advertisements should associate the positive side of the advertised product with something else. It is often indicated by words like and as.

Incomplete Sentence

Grey (2008) defines an incomplete sentence is one of the linguistic features of advertisement. The purpose of using an incomplete sentence is to make the customers catch the main point of the advertisement.

The researcher employs related studies from English Letters students. The first related study comes from Cyrilla Setiastuti's thesis A stylistics Study on McDonald's Slogan During 1960s-2008. Cyrilla's thesis shows that the most important thing to make a good slogan is the choices of the words. The data in this thesis focuses on the language applied to McDonald's slogans. The purpose of this thesis is to analyze the language style of McDonald's slogans. There are theories of stylistics (grammar, alliteration, rhyme, meter, assonance, consonance, ellipsis, simile, repetition, vocabulary), and the theory of advertising.

The second related study is Kusuma Wardhani's thesis Language Features of the Slogans on Cheetos Snacks in 1970s-2013. This undergraduate thesis focuses on the language features and language devices used. The writer employs the research of persuasive and descriptive style in Cheetos Snacks. The writer has the purpose to know how the choice of words and phrases can attract people. Wardhani's thesis helps the researcher to solve the first problem with language styles in slogans.

The third related study is Adyaningtyas's thesis Coca-Cola Advertising Strategies in Building the Brand Image. This undergraduate thesis discusses the strategies Coca-Cola used in building a positive image of the product. It consists of Coca-Cola slogans from the 1950s to 2000's periods used in printed media and television advertisements. This thesis also discusses the linguistic appeals of slogans in the Coca-Cola advertisement. This thesis focuses on 19 the language style and the function of the slogans related to the advertising categorization strategies.

The similarities of those related studies are all the researchers find out the language style used in their subjects. In this study, the researcher finds out the linguistic featured in iPhone slogans which can be found by the search engine, google. After that, the researcher will figure out the dominant language style which is frequently used. This research utilizes slogans from iPhone advertisement as a subject. All of the related studies are needed to help the researcher to write this thesis.

Method

Research Method

Since this research focuses on descriptive research and numerical data, the researcher conducted a mixed method. As stated by Naggy and Hesse-Biber (2010, p.3) that mixed methods employ a research design that uses both quantitative and qualitative data to answer a particular question or set of questions. Naggy and Hesse-Riber (2010, p.3) also state that qualitative data which consists of words, pictures, and narratives can be combined with quantitative.

The method employed in this research was content or document analysis. Ary, Lucy, and Chris (2010, p. 457) state that content or document analysis is a research

method which applied to written or visual materials to identify specified characteristics of the materials such as textbooks, newspapers, speeches, television programs, advertisements, and musical compositions. The data of this research were the second version of the last version of iPhone advertisement slogans. The researcher described the language style used, namely, hyperbole, neologism, weasel word, present tense, repetition, euphemism, familiar language, potency, association, syntactic parallelism, short sentence, imperative, long noun phrase, and incomplete sentence. The researcher also found out what characterizes language style which was used in iPhone advertisement slogans.

In conducting research, there were four steps done by the researcher to accomplish this research as follows: Gathering the data, classifying the data, analyzing data, and writing up the report.

Instruments and Data Gathering
There were several tables used in this research. The first table was table 4.1 that was used to categorize the data into several categories. Table 3.1 helped the researcher to simplify the process of analyzing lexical features and syntactic features. In Table 3.1, the researcher grouped all the iPhone advertisements based on the type of iPhone whether it is iPhone 3G, 3GS, 4, 4S, 5, 5s, 5c, and 6.

Table. 3.1 The Table of iPhone Categorization

No	Type	Picture	Advertisement
1	iPhone 3 (a)		Say hallo to iPhone
2	iPhone 3 (b)		Apple reinvents the phone

The second table was Table 3.2 which was used to identify the lexical features of iPhone advertisement slogans. Table 3.2 was used to answer the first research problem related to linguistic features found in the data. There were 9 lexical features employed while analyzing this research and those are hyperbole, neologism, weasel word, simple vocabulary, familiar language, repetition, euphemism, humor, and potency.

Table 3.2 Lexical Feature Usage in the iPhone Slogans

No	Type	Advertisement tagline (slogans)	H	Neo	WW	FL	SV	Rep	Eup	Hum	G	P
1	iPhone 3 (a)	Say hallo to iPhone					V					V
2	iPhone 3 (b)	Apple reinvents the iPhone					V					

No	Type	Advertisement tagline (slogans)	H	Neo	WW	FL	SV	Rep	Eup	Hum	P
3	iPhone 3G (a)	The iPhone you've been waiting for	V		V	V		V			V
4	iPhone 3G (b)	It's OK to stare				V		V			
5	iPhone 3G (c)	Engage. Captive. Connect.			V	V					

Notes: H: Hyperbole, Neo: Neologism, WW: Weasel Word, FL: Familiar Language, SV: Simple Vocabulary, Rep: Repetition, Eup: Euphemism, Hum: Humor, and P: Potency.

The third was Table 3.3 which was used to answer the first research problem related to linguistic features which were syntactic. 9 syntactic features were used in this research. There was a short sentence, long noun phrase, ambiguity, use of imperative, simple and colloquial, present tense, syntactic parallelism, association, and ellipsis. Each of lexical features and syntactic features was given a code that was explained in the table as follows:

Table 3.3 the Syntactic Features Used in the iPhone Slogans

No	Type	Advertisement tagline (slogans)	SS	LNP	A	I	SAQ	PT	SP	AS	IS
1	iPhone 3 (a)	Say hallo to iPhone	V			V		V			
2	iPhone 3 (b)	Apple reinvents the iPhone	V					V			
3	iPhone 3G (a)	The iPhone you've been waiting for	V								
4	iPhone 3G (b)	It's OK to stare				V		V			
5	iPhone 3G (c)	Engage. Captive. Connect.			V		V				
6	iPhone 3G (d)	Twice as fast. Half the price		V							
7	iPhone 3G (e)	Touching is believing	V	V							

Notes: SS: Short Sentence, LNP: Long Noun Phrase, A: Ambiguity, I: Use of Imperative, SAQ: Simple and Colloquial, PT: Present Tense, SP: Syntactic Parallelism, AS: Association, and IS: Incomplete Sentence.

The researcher prepared rows as in Table 4.2 and Table 4.3 to categorize iPhone slogans into nine lexical features and nine syntactic features. However, Table 3.2 and

Table 3.3 were representative of the tables. Those 18 features are hyperbole, neologism, weasel word, familiar language, simple vocabulary, repetition, euphemism, humor, glamorization, potency, short sentence, long noun phrase, ambiguity, use of imperative, simple and colloquial language, present tense, syntactic parallelism, association, ellipsis, and incomplete sentence.

Data Analysis Technique

After the researcher knew the wording characteristics in the lexical and the syntactic terms, the researcher calculated the use of lexical features and syntactic features found in iPhone slogans to figure out the most three dominant lexical features used in iPhone slogans. The percentage of each lexical feature is calculated with this formula:

$$\mathbf{P} = F \div T \times 100 \mathrm{x}$$

Notes:
P: Percentage
F: Frequency of each lexical or syntactic feature found in iPhone slogans
T: Total number of lexical or syntactic features usage

Findings and Discussion

Based on Grey (2008) in his Language in Use, there are two major features of the language styles, namely, lexical and syntactic features. The researcher chose those two features because those could answer the first and second formulated problems. The iPhone advertisement slogans had some part of those elements in the language styles that they used to advertise in the online sources.

The Lexical Features of iPhone Advertisement Slogans

The lexical features of iPhone slogans deal with the diction which used in online sources. In this case, the words were written in the advertisement. The words could persuade the customers to buy that advertised product and the words can convey the company wants. The power of the diction could empower the customers to believe what was written in the advertisement. In this section, the researcher provided the discussion and analysis of lexical features used in iPhone advertisement slogans.

Hyperbole

There were 11 iPhone slogans which had the hyperbole features while the rest did not use hyperbole. Based on Grey (2008), hyperbole is one way to overstate or exaggerate the product to persuade the customers' attention to the product. Grey (2008) also states that some words indicate hyperbole.

The ads slogan (1) "*touching is believing. The new faster iPhone now with 3G*"
The ads slogan (2) "*the fastest, most powerful iPhone yet*"
The ads slogan (3) "*Brilliant colors. Brilliant plans*"

Those previous advertisement slogans were examples of the use of hyperbole. The advertisement slogan (1) is taken from the iPhone 3G (e) shows that the customer could feel the presence of a new iPhone product. The word new indicates the use of hyperbole. Additionally, the phrase 'touching is believing" show the overstatement

sentence, because how could people simply believe in something after they touch the iPhone.

Next, the advertisement slogan (2) is taken from iPhone 3Gs shows that the customers could feel the fastest using iPhone 3GS while they utilize it. Meanwhile, the words the fastest also prove that it is hyperbole because the iPhone compared to other mobile phones which indicated that the iPhone was the fastest mobile phone. The advertisement slogan (3) is taken from iPhone 5c (a) where the word brilliant shows hyperbole because it sounds overstate the quality of the iPhone. Another word which is indicated as the use of hyperbole in iPhone slogans were waiting for, changes everything, the biggest thing, and finally here. The presence of hyperbole in the iPhone slogans could affect the customers' curiosity to use iPhone.

Neologism

The advertisement copywriter of iPhone slogans did not use neologism in the iPhone advertisement slogans. They did not introduce a new word that was formed by combining two words or more parts. iPhone advertisement slogans utilize simple words and did not use too many language features.

Weasel Words

There were only five iPhone advertisement slogans that used weasel words to grab people's attention. Every weasel word has a different style of attracting people. It can be seen by every diction iPhone slogan itself. Grey (2008) states that a weasel word carries unspecified meaning. It means that advertisements can make people question the missing information.

The ad's slogan (4) "*Engage. Captive. Connect*"
The ads slogan (5) "*This changes everything. Again*"
The ads slogan (6) "*Bigger than bigger*"

The ads slogan (4) is taken from iPhone 3G (c) shows weasel word where it makes people curious to know what iPhone purposes toward the words engage, captive, and connect. Then, it affected people to find out more about the advertisement slogan. In addition, people are interested in the advertisement slogan and they want to know more about the advantages of having an iPhone. The advertisement slogan (5) is taken from iPhone 4 where it shows question missing information because what has been changed by iPhone. Besides, the advertisement slogan (6) is taken from iPhone 6 (a) shows weasel word feature. Simply, people could raise a question bigger than what. Therefore, those kinds of curiosity could push people to buy the advertised product.

Familiar Language

Three iPhone advertisement slogans employ familiar language. It can be found through the use of the word you in the advertisement slogans. Besides, the researcher found the word I which is can be indicated as a familiar language.

The ads slogan (7) "*The iPhone you've been waiting for*"
The ads slogan (8) "*How may I help you, human?*"
The ads slogan (9) "*The sign of design with you in mind*"

The advertisement slogan (7) is taken from iPhone 3G (a) in which the word you are addressed to the customers of the iPhone which also proves that the word you in the advertisement involves customers and the company. Based on Grey's 33 theory (2008), the familiar language used the word you to show a friendly attitude between the company and its customers.

The advertisement slogan (8) is taken from 4s (b) shows the pronoun I as the iPhone. It is Siri which is part of the operating system in Apple Inc that helps people find out something by just saying the people's needs and Siri will answer that question. Besides, pronounce you in advertisement slogan (8) is the customer of the iPhone. Therefore, in the advertisement slogan (8), there is a pronoun I as Siri and you as the customer, the researcher can conclude that there is a friendly attitude to involve customers and the application from iPhone.

The advertisement slogan (9) is taken from iPhone 6 which is the pronoun you in that slogan involve the customers in the iPhone advertisement slogan. Therefore, it sounds more friendly toward the customer because the customer involves indirectly. Thus, those three iPhone slogans utilize familiar language features which can be indicated by the use of words you and I to involve the customers and the advertised product.

Simple Vocabulary
The vocabularies will be very universal but it still is understood by the customers. All of the iPhone slogans used simple vocabulary because the researcher did not find any difficulties to understand iPhone slogans. Grey (2008) states that simple diction or vocabulary in the slogan makes people easy to remember what is written in the advertisement. Some vocabulary was arranged by some simple sentences.

The ads slogan (10) "*Say hello to iPhone*"
The ads slogan (11) "*Engage. Captive. Connect.*"
The ads slogan (12) "*This changes everything. Again*"

The advertisement slogan (10) is taken from iPhone 3 (a) where it is a simple advertisement slogan that emphasizes the new mobile phone by Apple. The advertisement slogan (10) means that iPhone is introducing the first product of Apple's mobile phone which is the iPhone 3. The advertisement slogan (10) proves a simple vocabulary because the customers can understand the meaning of the vocabulary one by one, it is also clear enough, and brief. Besides, there is an advertising slogan that only consists of verbs, namely, iPhone 3G (c).

The advertisement slogan (11) is taken from iPhone 3G (c) where it proves that the iPhone advertisement slogan is brief and clear enough because by reading the word engage then captive and connect, the customers can understand the word's meaning literally.

The advertisement slogan (12) is taken from the iPhone 4 where it is understandable because the customers can understand the meaning of words; changes, everything, and again. Those advertisement slogans previously are understandable, simple, and brief.

Repetition

It was not easy to find repetition feature in the simple slogan. However, most repetition always can be found in the written advertisement. Grey (2008) states repetition is often used to make the brand's name and the slogan more interesting. Grey (2008) also categorizes repetition into three types, 35 for instance, alliteration, rhyme, and rhythm. In iPhone advertisement slogans, the researcher found three slogans which used repetition feature.

The ads slogan (13) "*The biggest thing happen to iPhone since iPhone*"
The ads slogan (14) "*Brilliant colors. Brilliant plans*"

The advertisement slogan (13) is taken from iPhone 5 (a) which shows there is a repetition in the word iPhone which is used to emphasize the product to be remembered by the customer. The advertisement slogan (14) is taken from iPhone 5c (a) where the word brilliant is repeated twice which emphasized the excellence of the new iPhone 5 because when the customer glances that advertisement, the iPhone 5 has a new color which is gold and it has a new Ios. Therefore, those iPhone advertisement slogans have repetition which used repetition of rhyme whereas the pattern of the identity of sound between words which extends from the end to the last fully accented vowel to make the customer more pay attention toward the products.

Euphemism

The euphemism feature did not appear in iPhone advertisement slogans. Based on Grey (2008), euphemism is a kind of figurative language that carries connotative meaning. All of the iPhone advertisement slogans did not use this feature, since all of the iPhone advertisement slogans used denotative words which are simple, brief, and clear.

Humor

iPhone advertisement slogans have a simple way to deliver the message to the customers. Grey (2008) defines that humor as a quality in something which 36 makes it funny. Most of the iPhone slogans in the advertisements did not present humor to advertise the product. However, there is one advertisement slogan which is presenting humor.

The ads slogan (15) "*Never poop alone again*",

The advertisement slogan (15) is taken from 5 (c) where the word poop could make people stop and laugh and then try to find out the meaning of the iPhone itself because literally, poop has the other meaning; animal feces. Overall, iPhone advertisements focus on the description of the products but most iPhone advertisements have a serious atmosphere to advertise the product.

Potency

Potency words appear in seven iPhone advertisement slogans. Potency words aim to attract the customers toward the advertised product. Moreover, Grey (2008) identifies some potency words, for instance, free, how, amazing, offer, and magic.

The ads slogan (16) "*the new faster iPhone now with 3G*"
The ads slogan (17) "*It's finally here. iPhone 5*"

The advertisement slogan (16) is taken from iPhone 3G (e) where the word new shows an example of a potency word. People could conclude that iPhone has a new product to market. It is also supported by Grey's (2008) theory, the potential word is used to tell the new value of the product to the customers. Similar to it, the advertisement slogan (17) is taken from iPhone 5 (d) where the word finally here is also the potential word because it proves that iPhone 5 had been waiting for the customers.

The result of the data analysis dealing with the lexical features of iPhone slogans can be seen in Figure 4.1 Figure

4.1 The Lexical Features of iPhone Advertisement Slogans
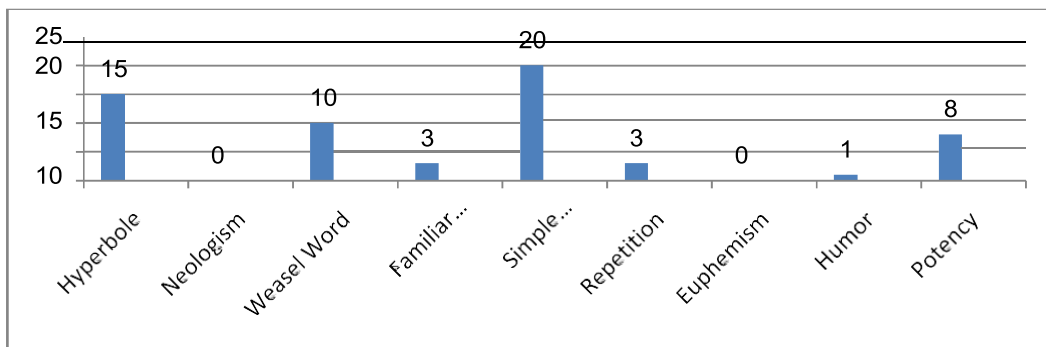
The researcher found that iPhone slogans in the online sources had some lexical features of advertising language. They only have lacked neologism and euphemism. Both of these features lacked because Grey's (2008) idea did not appear in iPhone advertisement slogans. The researcher discovered 11 uses of hyperbole, 5 uses of weasel words, 3 uses of familiar language, 20 uses of simple vocabulary, 3 uses of repetition, 1 use of humor. The last is 9 uses of potency. To sum up, there were 52 lexical features used in iPhone advertisement slogans which can be found in the search engine by googling iPhone slogans.

The Syntactic Features of iPhone Advertisement Slogans
The other language style of lexical features is syntactic features that deal with grammar. Different from lexical features that show extraordinary products through diction, syntactic features can show how simple the advertisement language style. In this section, the researcher explained and analyzed the syntactic features which are used in iPhone advertisement slogans.

Short Sentence
12 iPhone advertisement slogans had this feature. What has written in iPhone slogans are clear and brief. A short sentence indicates the use of simple sentences, not a compound sentence even a complex sentence. Most iPhone slogans were short sentences.

The ads slogan (18) "*Say hello to iPhone*"

The ads slogan (19) "*Apple reinvents the phone*"

It could be seen from the advertisement slogan (18) that it shows a short sentence only has a verb which says hello and an object which is an iPhone. That could be identified as a short sentence. The advertisement slogan (19) is taken from iPhone 3 (b) where the sentence has a subject, a verb, and an object. That is very clear and short and it could be identified as a short sentence.

A short sentence is easier to understand for the customers. It is because the customer will not use much time to think repeatedly about what the slogans mean. Grey (2008) states that a short sentence has a purpose to capture the audience's attention. Therefore, a short sentence in the slogan can be more efficient to grab customers' attention to the advertised product. A short sentence usually indicates a simple sentence, not a complex or even compound sentence. Seven iPhone advertisement slogans did not have a short sentence feature.

The ads slogan (20) "*Engage. Captive. Connect*"
The ads slogan (21) "*Brilliant colors. Brilliant plan*"

The advertisement slogan (20) is taken by iPhone 3G (c) where it consists of a verb only, namely, Engage, Captive, and Connect. It could not be identified 39 as a sentence because the sentence did not have a subject, and an object. In addition, the advertisement slogan (21) is taken from 5c (a) where it is proven as a noun phrase. It is because the advertisement slogan (21) only consists of a noun which is colors and plans.

Long Noun Phrase
There are seven iPhone advertisement slogans which have long noun phrase features. They consist of three words or more whereas according to Grey (2008), a long noun phrase consists of at least three words or two independent phrases. A long noun phrase is used to convince the customers that the advertised product has a special quality that is offered.

The ads slogan (22) "*Twice as fast. Half the price*",
The ads slogan (23) "*It's finally here. iPhone 5*",

The advertisement slogan (22) is taken from 3G (d) where it has two long noun phrases. The first noun phrase is Twice as fast and the second noun phrase is half the price. Most iPhone slogans describe how the iPhone is and how the quality is. The advertisement slogan (22) also shows a long noun phrase whereas it consists of two long noun phrases, they are it's finally here and iPhone 5. The advertisement slogan previously dedicate long noun phrases that emphasize more to the advertised product, iPhone.

Ambiguity
In iPhone advertisement slogans which can be found in the online sources, the researcher found that there is an iPhone slogan which employs ambiguity 40 feature. It is lexical ambiguity, not grammatical ambiguity. Moreover, lexical ambiguity is one word that has two or more meanings.

The ads slogan (24)"*Never poop alone again*",

The advertisement slogan (24) is taken from iPhone 5 (c) where the word poop has lexical homonymy ambiguity. The word poop based on the oxford dictionary is to pass waste from the bowels. Besides, the meaning of poop according to vocabulary.com when poop is used as a verb, it means going number two. Thus, the advertisement slogan (24) has the meaning of poop is not literary the meaning of a waste of bowels, however, the meaning is being numbered two. Therefore, the researcher can conclude it, when the advertisement slogan (24) means that the iPhone is being numbered one.

Use of Imperative

The use of imperative is a common language feature in the advertisement. Two iPhone advertisement slogans employ imperative in the advertisement. According to Grey (2008), an imperative is used to make an order. In the advertisement, the copywriter used imperatively to ask the customers to do something with the advertised product.

The advertisement slogan (25) "*Say hello to iPhone*"

It could be seen from the advertisement slogan (25) advertisement is taken from iPhone 3 (a) where the sentence attracts the customers to greet iPhone because iPhone 3 is the first mobile phone from Apple. Therefore, it is also a way for iPhone to introduce its new product by using an imperative language style. It has 41 similar meaning to "grab it fast" or "buy now" or much other imperative in the advertisement to ask the customer to buy the advertised product.

Simple and Colloquial Language

The feature of simple and colloquial language did not appear in the iPhone slogans. The language in iPhone slogans are simple but do not use the informal expression, such as ain't to show the use of simple and colloquial language. Most iPhone advertisement slogans use informal language style but do not fit Grey's idea (2008) about a simple and colloquial language feature.

Present Tense

Most iPhone advertisement slogans use present tense which shows the advertisement slogans as if it is real. Grey (2008) says a present tense is a universal timelessness. The present tense could give an image of the real situation whenever the customers read or hear the advertisement.

The ads slogan (26) "Apple reinvents the phone"
The ads slogan (27) "Loving it is easy. That's why so many people do"
The ads slogan (28) "The iPhone you've been waiting for"
The ads slogan (29) "Touching is believing"

The advertisement slogan (26) is taken from iPhone 3 (b) which proves that iPhone utilizes present tense because based on the pattern of present tense which is using a verb in the present and put s/es in the verb such as reinvent-s. Besides, it could

be seen from the advertisement slogan (27) that shows the present tense because of the pattern of present tense. However, some iPhone advertisement slogans employ present perfect continuous and present 42 continuous. The advertisement slogan (28) and (29) are taken from iPhone 3G (a) and (e) are the examples of present perfect continuous and present continuous.

Syntactic Parallelism

The feature of syntactic parallelism appeared in iPhone slogans. Grey (2008) claims that syntactic parallelism is a repetition of formal patterns of two or more similar ideas in similar structure forms. There is an iPhone advertisement slogan that used this feature.

The ads slogan (30) "*Brilliant Colors. Brilliant Plan*"
The ads slogan (31) "*bigger than bigger*"
The ads slogan (32) "*The biggest thing happen to iPhone since iPhone*"

The advertisement slogan (30) is taken from iPhone 5c (a) as an example of a syntactic feature. It has the same pattern as the word brilliant which indicates syntactic parallelism whereas making the sentence more interesting. Different from the advertisement slogan (31) is taken from iPhone 6 where it is not the example of a syntactic feature that repeats the word bigger to make the sentence more interesting because it does not have the same pattern but they have the same word only.

The advertisement slogan (32) is taken from iPhone 5 (a) where it is not an example of syntactic feature too although it repeats twice the word "iPhone" to make the customers more remember the advertised product, however, it could not include in syntactic parallelism because it does not have the same pattern.

Association

The words as and like are some examples of association. Those two words are appropriate to connect the special quality which is offered and something that describe familiarity with the product in daily life. It has a function to give clearer images to the customers what the product looks like. Therefore, the customers are interested in that advertised product. Grey (2008) states the way how advertisement copywriters connect an idea of the product with something else is association. This feature did not appear in iPhone advertisement slogans because Grey's (2008) idea did not fit with iPhone advertisement slogans.

The ads slogan (33) "*Twice as fast. Half the price*"

The advertisement slogan (33) is taken from iPhone 3G (d) where it is not an example of association even though that advertisement slogan uses the word "as". The advertisement slogan (33) does not describe the advertised product as a familiar thing in daily life. However, it is just an explanation more about the speed of iPhone. Thus, most iPhone advertisement slogans do not describe iPhone to something else but it states clear straight.

Incomplete Sentence

Incomplete sentences appear in three iPhone advertisement slogans. It has the purpose to make the customers catch the main point of the advertisement. The most incomplete sentence described the quality of iPhone itself.

The ads slogan (34) "*Engage. Captive. Connect*"
The ads slogan (35) "*For the colorful*"

The advertisement slogan is taken from iPhone 3G (c) shows an incomplete sentence because it could be arranged into a complete sentence. The advertisement slogan (34) has the purpose to emphasize the main idea of the product when the slogan changes into iPhone have the most amazing personal hotspot by engaging, captivating, and connecting it. In addition, the advertisement slogan is taken from iPhone 5c (b) shows an incomplete sentence but it could be arranged into a complete sentence like "buy iPhone for your colorful life". However, the advertisement copywriters do not necessary to make many complete sentences and formal sentences in the advertisements, because the important point is the advertisement copywriters can deliver the message advertised product in a good way to the customers.

Grey (2008) defines a complete sentence which is common found in advertisements. An incomplete sentence has a function to give the main idea of the product. Therefore, the advertisement copywriters are not necessary to make complete and formal sentences in the advertisements. Besides, the customer who read the advertisement did not spend much time because they could get the main point of the advertisement easily.

The result of the analysis dealing with the syntactic features used in iPhone advertisement slogans can be seen in Figure 4.2
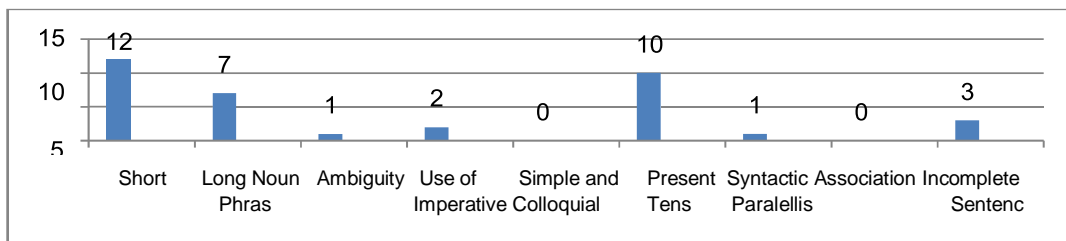
Figure 4.2 The Syntactic Features of iPhone Advertisement Slogans

Figure 4.2 showed that iPhone slogans lacked some syntactic features. There were associations and simple and colloquial language. The researcher found that iPhone slogans used 11 short sentences, 6 long noun phrases, 1 ambiguity, 2 use of imperatives, 10 present tenses, 1 syntactic parallelism, and 3 incomplete sentences.

As stated in the Research Methodology part, after analyzing and discussing the lexical features and syntactic features, the researcher calculates the percentage of each feature usage. Table 4.3 presents the calculated results of the lexical features and Table 4.4 presents the calculated results of syntactic features.

Table 4.3 The Frequency of Lexical Features Usage

No	Lexical features	Total	Percentage
1	Hyperbole	11	21.15 %
2	Neologism	0	0%
3	Weasel Word	5	9.61%
4	Familiar Language	3	5.7%
5	Simple Vocabulary	20	38.4%
6	Repetition	3	5.7%
7	Euphemism	0	0%
8	Humor	1	1.9%
9	Potency	10	19.23%
TOTAL		52	100%

Table 4.3 presents the frequency of the lexical features used in iPhone advertisement slogans using formula P = F/T x 100%, with P as a percentage, F as the frequency of each lexical features used in iPhone advertisement slogans, and T as the total number of lexical features usage. From the compiled theories of lexical features in iPhone advertisement slogans, there are nine lexical features used to 46 analyze the data, namely hyperbole, neologism, weasel word, familiar language, simple vocabulary, repetition, euphemism, humor, and potency.

Based on the data, simple vocabulary leads the findings with 38.4% as equal to 20 usages. Following behind, there is 21.15% the use of hyperbole which is equal to 11. The use of potency in the third position with 19.23% as 10 usages. Those three features dominate the results of the findings. Besides, another feature seems to be outnumbered which value below 10%, namely weasel word contributes 9.61%, use of familiar language and repetition contribute 5.7%, use of humor contributes 1.9%, and neologism and euphemism do not contribute at all.

Table 4.4 the Frequency of Syntactic Features Usage

No	Syntactic features	Total	Percentage
1	Short sentence	12	23.5%
2	Long noun phrase	7	13.7%
3	Ambiguity	1	1.92%
4	Imperative	2	3.92%
5	Simple and colloquial	0	0%
6	Present tense	10	19.60%

7	Syntactic parallelism	1	1.96%
8	Association	0	0%
9	Incomplete Sentence	3	5.88%
TOTAL		51	100%

Table 4.4 presents the frequency of the syntactic features which is found in iPhone advertisement slogans using the same formula as lexical features, namely P= F/T x 100% whereas P as a percentage, F as the frequency of the use of each syntactic features, and T as the total number of the features used. From the compiled theories of syntactic features, there are nine features used to analyze the data such 47 as a short sentence, long noun phrase, ambiguity, imperative, simple and colloquial, present tense, syntactic parallelism, association, and potency.

From the findings, the researcher can sum up that short sentence leads the findings with 25.4% as equal to 13 usages. The use of the present tense follows in the second position with 19.60% equal to 10 usages. Following behind, the use of long noun phrases is 11.7% as equal to 6 usages. Those three dominate the results of findings, the last three features are outnumbered value below 10%.

What Characterizes the Uses of the Linguistic Features

In this research, the researcher analyzed two language styles in iPhone slogans which are lexical and syntactic features. The researcher found that there were three dominant lexical features and three dominant syntactic features that were used in the iPhone advertisement slogans. The following explanations will discuss the reason why those three dominant lexical features and three syntactic features dominated in iPhone advertisement slogans.

Simple Vocabulary

A simple vocabulary feature is the most commonly found in iPhone advertisement slogans. In this research, simple vocabulary is frequently used in iPhone slogans where it is indicated through the use of simple vocabularies. It is found that the uses of simple vocabularies are 20 out of 20 data. All iPhone advertisement slogans use simple vocabularies because they can be translated easily, namely, advertisement slogan iPhone 5c (b) "for the colorful" has simple vocabulary where it can be proven from the words for, the, and colorful. The vocabulary can be translated easily, the customer also could understand what the 48 advertisement slogan iPhone 5c means by translating the advertisement slogan and looking at the image of the advertisement. The other example is the advertisement slogan iPhone 5 (d) "it's finally here. iPhone5", the words in that slogan are simple vocabularies because the slogan's vocabularies are easy to be understood. According to Grey (2008), the language of advertisements must enable the audience to always remember the words. Therefore, the language of advertisement should be easy to be understood by the customers, because the customers can be elders or even young people or children. The other reason, the advertisement copywriters minimize the misunderstanding of the advertised product. The point is the message of the advertisement should be accepted

by the customers. Hence, the advertisement copywriters choose simple vocabularies because advertisements should be brief, clear, and simple.

Hyperbole

Hyperbole is the second place of lexical feature which is used in iPhone slogans. The researcher found that the usage of hyperbole is 11iPhoneadvertisement slogans. It has purposes to affect the customers' curiosity to use iPhone. Besides, Based on Leech (1972) the way hyperbole presents the diction as overstating or exaggerate the product to persuade the audience's attention to the product where overstating sentence or phrase makes the advertisement becomes interesting. Indirectly, the customer will attract to that advertised product through the diction of hyperbole itself. Grey (2008) also states that the way hyperbole presents often used by adjectives and adverbs, for instance, the advertising slogan for iPhone 4 "this changes everything. Again", shows the 49 word changes everything is exaggeration whereas buying iPhone did not change everything in the customer's life.

Potency

The third place of three dominant lexical features in iPhone slogans is potency. The use of potency is 10iPhoneadvertisement slogans. Grey (2008) states that potency words are those words which able to give new value, novelty, or immediately. Most iPhone slogans have a new value to advertise the iPhone. In other words, potency words can influence the audience. Grey (2008) also claims some potency words, namely free, how to, suddenly, now, improvement, bigger, amazing, remarkable, miracle, offer, and magic. In iPhone 3G (e) advertisement slogan "touching is believing. The new, faster iPhone now with 3G" proves that there are potency words within. Moreover, that slogan consists of two potency words which are claimed by Grey (2008), they are new and now. The other example could be discovered through the slogan of iPhone 6 (a) where it states "bigger than bigger". Then, it proves the use of potency words bigger. Besides, the advertisement slogan is taken from iPhone 4s (a) "it's the most amazing iPhone yet" shows that the word amazing indicates potency word. Besides those words, there is some word that has a similar meaning, namely finally here, powerful, hello, and waiting for.

Based on the explanation previously, the most common features which are employed in iPhone advertisement slogans are simple vocabulary, hyperbole, and potency words. The next section explains the reason why the three 50 syntactic features most dominated in iPhone slogans. The researcher discusses it as follows:

Short Sentence

The first place most frequently discovered in the syntactic features of iPhone slogans is a short sentence. 12iPhone advertisement slogans are employed in this feature. A short sentence in the advertisement slogans is simple and short. It is frequently used because it has a function to capture customers' attention whereas the customers do not spend much time just to watch the advertisement or even read the long sentences which actually can be made in the short sentence.

The researcher's opinion is along with Grey (2008), who states that a short sentence gives a clear impact on the customers. iPhone advertisement slogans employ this feature, the example is from the advertising slogan for iPhone 4s (a) It's the most amazing iPhone yet, which shows a short sentence because it is clear enough and

understandable. In addition, the advertisement slogan from iPhone 3G (b) It's OK to stare proved as a short sentence because by reading it once that slogan, the customers can understand that slogan asks the customers as the reader to stare at iPhone at that moment.

On the other hand, the rest of iPhone slogan which does not include in a short sentence, they are long noun phrases or even just a noun phrase. An example of a noun phrase is iPhone 3G (c) which states Engage. Captive. Connect prove that those only consist of some verbs. Moreover, a long noun phrase can be found in the advertisement slogan from iPhone 5 "it's finally here. iPhone5".

Present Tense

The present tense is the second place of the second dominant of syntactic features in iPhone slogans. The usage of the present tense exists in 10 iPhone advertisement slogans. Based on Grey (2008) a present tense is a universal timelessness. The present tense is used most commonly because it presents an image of a real situation whenever the customer read or hear. Advertisement is often in form of imperative or present tense but it is rarely in the negative forms. Mostly, iPhone advertisement slogans used this feature, namely, iPhone 3 Say hello to iPhone proved present tense because of the use of the verb in the present tense as saying not said.

Besides, iPhone advertisement slogan from iPhone 5 loving is easy. That's why so many people do show present tense, which can be seen from the word is as the to be (is/am/are) in the form of present tense. In this research, the researcher found that most iPhone slogans are not only used present tense but also present continuous and present perfect continuous, namely, the advertisement slogan touching is believing is taken from iPhone 3G were the words is believing shows present continuous. Also, The new, faster iPhone now with 3G shows present continuous where it can be indicated by the independent sentence Touching is believing. Moreover, the researcher's opinion is supported by Grey (2008), who states a present tense is a universal timelessness because even it is present continuous or present perfect tense, they have a similar purpose to emphasize an image of a real situation.

Long Noun Phrase

Through the use of 13.7% in iPhone advertisement slogans, this feature contributes to the third position of syntactic features. The use of long noun phrases is important in advertising language because it can ease the customers to get the specialty of the advertised product. The use of long noun phrases is one way to stimulate sales. Moreover, the researcher can see Grey's opinion in analyzing the data since they are very few long noun phrases in the data. Besides, he states that a long noun phrase has the purpose to make the advertisement slogan more interesting to the customers to know more about the qualities of iPhone. Hence, in this research, advertisement slogan is taken from iPhone 3G (c) "engage. Captive. Connect" emphasizes the qualities and that slogan consists of three verb phrase, whereas that example is along with Grey (2008), who states a long noun phrase explains that advertisement in three or more words or more independent phrases to impress the customers. Moreover, the slogan from iPhone 5c (b) "for the colorful" showed that long noun phrase because it consists of an independent phrase which emphasizes the qualities of iPhone, itself.

To sum up, 19 language styles have been analyzed and discussed in this part. They are lexical and syntactic features that focus on diction and grammar. Besides, lexical

features are hyperbole, neologism, weasel word, familiar language, simple vocabulary, repetition, euphemism, humor, and potency, whereas syntactic features consist of a short sentence, long noun phrase, ambiguity, use of imperative, simple and colloquial language, use of 53 present tense, association, and incomplete sentence. From 19 language styles, there will be top three between lexical and syntactic features which are chosen as dominant language styles because those features are believed to attract the customers' attention.

Conclusion

Related to the first purpose, the researcher finds that there are seven lexical features and seven syntactic features are employed in iPhone advertisement slogans. Most iPhone advertisement slogans present simple language of advertising to advertise iPhone. Hence, the researcher only finds a few features which appear in iPhone advertisement slogans. Based on the lexical features of advertisement which is proposed by Grey (2008), iPhone advertisement slogans do not have neologism and euphemism. They have weasel words, familiar language, repetition, and humor features although they are only 10% or less. All of iPhone advertisement slogans use simple vocabulary, potency 54 words, and hyperbole to exaggerate 55 iPhone. According to Grey's (2008) theory about the syntactic features of advertisements, iPhone advertisement slogans lack simple and colloquial and association. The majority of iPhone advertisement slogans use short sentences, present tense, and long noun phrases. The other features which those have in the minority are the use of imperative, ambiguity, syntactic parallelism, and incomplete sentence.

The researcher also finds that from nine lexical features and nine syntactic features, there are six figures which characterized lexical features and syntactic features that are used in iPhone advertisement slogans. Those top three lexical features are simple vocabulary, hyperbole, and potency. The use of lexical and features can make the advertisement slogan more interesting. In addition, those top three syntactic features are short sentences, present tense, and long noun phrases. The use of simple grammatical structures can make the advertisement slogan easy to be understood.

The researcher also finds that the uses of those features in advertisement slogans are not merely autonomous. In other words, there could be found two or more features in an advertisement slogan, for instance, an advertising slogan is taken from iPhone 4 which states this changes everything. Again where it contains lexical and syntactic features because an advertisement slogan is not always in a form of a word or a phrase but it can be in a form of a sentence. Hence, since lexical is below the syntax level, it is possible to find out more than one lexical features and syntactic features in an advertisement slogan.

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INDIVIDUAL VARIATIONS IN MONITOR HYPOTHESIS OF MICRO TEACHING STUDENTS

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Abstract

The paper aims to find out the types of users in performing English as a second language and to figure out principal conditions that might affect students' monitoring process as proposed by Krashen (1982). Two research problems were formulated, namely: First, what individual variations are shown by students in the Micro Teaching class? Second, to what extent do Micro teaching students regard the three principal conditions in the monitor hypothesis? Both qualitative and quantitative methods were used. The qualitative method of data collection was participant observation. Nineteen students' Micro Teaching videos were recorded to be observed to answer the first research problem. The quantitative method was applied through a questionnaire to answer the second research problem. An interview was also done to support the analysis of the questionnaire. The results showed that only two types of monitor users occurred in Micro Teaching Class A. The two types were monitor under-users, who were not aware of the conscious checking, and monitor over-users, who seemed to consciously check their L2 output.

Keywords: individual variations, principal conditions, micro teaching class

Introduction

Since English is not a native language of Indonesia, people perform differently. This may be caused by the way people develop English as their second language. Krashen (1981) states that people use the subconscious (acquisition process) and conscious learning (learning process) to deal with a second language and groups these two into what is called "Monitor Theory". In Indonesia itself, English is developed as a second language, mostly through educational platforms meaning the learned system is used. This shows that conscious learning plays a role in a learner's performance. Krashen (1988) argues that language learning is not only described as a conscious process but also as an explicit process of knowing about the language (as cited in Zafar, 2009). Since the acquired system is an implicit process, the learned system cannot become an acquired system.

Speaking is one skill that can effectively show how well a learner performs his second language learning. It gives English learners other benefits not only as a learner but also as a good teacher (Lelita, 2016). Some people may speak fluently and some may not. It depends on how their awareness works while performing.

Ellis (2008) argues "Speaking is the result of an acquisition, not its cause" (p. 247).

Nevertheless, in second language learning, it can be considered that speaking becomes the result of the learning. In a study about learning strategy in speaking class, Lelita (2016) finds out that 95% of the students consider there is a speaking improvement after undergoing some learning activities. Krashen obtains the term "learning" to be referred to conscious knowledge of the L2, knowing the rules, being aware of them, and being able to talk about them (as cited in Gass, 2001).

Considering that English is studied as a foreign language and rarely used in the educational system in Indonesia, the researcher was encouraged to conduct a second language learning study in Micro Teaching class which focuses on monitor hypotheses to see how conscious learning is performed by English teacher candidates. Baskara (2015) points out that "A teacher's professional research goal is to continue to find ways to help students improve their second language acquisition skills." Therefore, Micro Teaching students have to consider the importance of having well-prepared skills as has been stated by Andrews (2003) who comments that Micro Teaching students must consider the 'qualifications' (subject-matter-knowledge and language proficiency) of being an English teacher (p. 82). Considering this fact, the pre-service teachers' spoken English, both classroom language and language they use to explain the materials, will be the focus as it shows individual differences in using English.

Asril (2013) states that teacher candidates are those who are prepared by the Education Faculty to be future teachers (p. 44). English Language Education Study Program (ELESP) as a part of the Faculty of Teacher Training and Education in Sanata Dharma University provides the teacher trainers a course called Micro Teaching to prepare professional future teachers who master English, develop their sense of teaching, and facilitate their needs. Iswandari (2017) explains that "Micro Teaching is specifically aimed to facilitate students to implement some theories of teaching in the previous semesters into practice in the small scope of class-based practicum before they have their teaching practice in real school contexts". As pre-service teachers, Micro Teaching students are trained to develop their English mastery to perform better. They need to learn how to construct good and correct English sentences both in spoken and written form (Iswandari, 2017). Since this study emphasizes students' spoken language, their speaking will be the focus.

In this study, the researcher has two research questions that are in the same discipline of study which is linguistics that is focusing on Second Language Acquisition. Kalebic (2005) on the research of the development of foreign language teacher preparation finds fourteen competencies that are needed by language teachers. One of them is mastering linguistics competence (as cited in Shishavan & Sadeghi, 2009).

In detail, the two research problems are raised to know the differences of individual variations together with the principal conditions in Krashen's monitor hypothesis. Krashen's study on monitor hypothesis shows that individuals perform their L2 learning differently and it may be caused and influenced by some factors. Considering the important role of teachers in L2 learning in Indonesia, it is crucial to know how well they make use of their learned system (monitoring process) to support their L2 performances in the classroom. Two

research problems were formulated in this study, namely: First, what individual variations are shown by students in the Micro Teaching class? Second, to what extent do Micro teaching students regard the three principal conditions in the monitor hypothesis?

Acquisition-Learning Distinction

Second language acquisition is a study of how an individual is capable to use different languages from one's first language. In second language acquisition, there are five main hypotheses. Those are input, acquisition-leaning, natural order, monitor, and affective filter hypotheses. Among those hypotheses, Krashen (1982) mentions that the most fundamental hypothesis is acquisition and learning. These processes are also known as independent systems in which the performers independently get the second language whether through an "acquired system" or "learned system".

Both acquired and learned systems serve different functions. The acquired system is mostly done by subconscious knowledge used by the performers (Krashen, 1982, p.10). This is quite the same as how children develop their second language. The acquired system aims to make sure that the performers can communicate well using the SL. The acquisition process comes as a result of natural communication where it points out the meaning as the main focus (Ellis 1985, p. 261). The result of this process is also subconscious.

The learned system, on the other hand, is said to be done consciously where the performers are aware of what they are learning. According to Krashen (2013), not only do we try to learn but also we know we are learning (p.1). Kounin and Krashen (1978) explain that L2 learners get their explicit knowledge about the rules of the language through their conscious learning (p. 206). Nevertheless, McDonald and Kasula (2005) conclude that by having conscious learning in which the rules are considered as the most important thing, a speaker tends to disrupt their L2 fluency.

Moreover, both acquired and learned systems serve their function. "During a performance in a second language, what is acquired and what is learned are used in very specific ways: acquisition to initiate utterances in L2; and learning to edit or monitor before or after the utterance so the speaker self- corrects" (McDonald & Kasula, 2005).

Monitor Hypothesis in Second Language Acquisition

Krashen (1982) formulates five hypotheses concerning Second Language Acquisition which are Input, Acquisition/Learning, Monitor, Natural Order, and Affective Filter Hypothesis. This research is concerning on Monitor hypotheses. Monitor Hypothesis emphasizes learned knowledge since it provides a conscious check on what the speaker is saying. Krashen (1981) argues that the performers perform conscious learning only as a 'monitor'. Different from the acquired system in which the subconscious process is working, the learned system gains knowledge about a particular language through a conscious understanding of the rules of the language (Cook, 1993). "Monitoring process uses learned knowledge as a quality check on speech originating from acquired language" (p. 52). In other words, the monitor can work before or after we produce the L2 (self-correction). Krashen (1982) draws a diagram to show the relationship:

According to this hypothesis, as it has been emphasized by Krashen (1983), the monitoring process relates to the acquired system.

> When we produce utterance in a second language, the utterance is "initiated" by the acquired system and our conscious learning only comes into play later. We can thus use the Monitor to make changes in our utterances only after the utterance has been generated by the acquired system (p. 30).

He adds that the monitoring process may come after the utterance has been produced and it is called self-repair. It is not responsible for fluency; checking the output of the acquired system (p. 30).

Individual Variations
In the monitor hypothesis, the Cook (1993) states that learners' personality which varies into three, takes place in the monitoring process; learning acts as a 'monitor'. Furthermore, Masciantonio (1988) enlightens the three types of L2 learners to ease them to be known.

> …there are monitor over-users who are constantly checking their output with their knowledge of grammar rules and forms, monitor under-users who are uninfluenced by error correction, and optimal monitor users use their learned competence to supplement their acquired competence (p. 54)

Monitor Over-Users
According to Krashen (1981), monitor over-users are likely to use their conscious grammar all the time when they use the second language. Furthermore, he explains over-users typically have hesitations and usually correct themselves in the middle of the utterance. Krashen (2014) considers the over- users to be introverts and perfectionists. They tend to be overcareful and over-concern with the correctness of the rules in their speaking.

Krashen (1983, p. 44) points out that there may be two things that cause the overuse of the monitor. "Over-use may derive from learning without acquisition which means a performer who has only had formal exposure to a second language in grammar-based classes may have very little acquisition to rely on". The second cause is related to the performer's personality. Over-users are those who have acquired some grammatical rules but have no faith in their acquired competence. This kind of performers is said to speak very little because the user tries to remember and/or apply the rules before speaking. Below is the example of the way over-users perform in speaking.

> *"Everyone has aaaahh I mean has aaaa right to ummm choose what they wants, sorry, what e what they want to do."*

Over-users usually speak hesitantly and it is shown by the pause fillers and self- corrections they use. In the example we have aaaahh and ummm and some grammatical errors are fixed in the middle of the speaking.

Monitor Under-Users

Krashen (1981) states that the monitor under-user does not seem to rely on conscious grammar or does not seem to use a monitor at all even when conditions encourage it. This is a condition in which the performers depend only on the acquired system. He adds, "The under-user typically judges grammatically "by feel", that is, he uses his subconsciously acquired system, rather than a conscious grammar" (p.16). Under-users depend only on the way it sounds. Such performers do not do self-correction and they just use their feeling to be correct. Krashen categorizes those performers as extroverts. The example below shows how this kind of performer speaks using English as their second language.

> *"I go to the hospital yesterday and seeing my old friends. She look gorgeous as I cannot recognize her."*

Monitor under-users are rarely or even never being aware of the grammar or rules of the language they speak.

Optimal Monitor User

Optimal monitor users are said to use 'monitor' appropriately. Krashen (1981) emphasizes that "Successful monitor users edit their second language output when it does not interfere with communication." It is also supported by Masciantonio (1988) who confirms that such a performer uses their learned competence to supplement the acquired competence. McLaughlin (1978) adds "A successful monitor user is one who is capable, given enough time, of correcting errors in spoken language with great accuracy." Somehow in a normal conversation where communication becomes the focus and the time is not enough, these performers will not excessively focus on the grammar rules to perform (Krashen, 1983, p. 45). After all, optimal monitor users are likely to self-correct when mistakes occur in their second language speech and speak without any hesitation. Below is the example of an optimal monitor user.

> *"Making a good plan give, gives a good impact on the process of what we are going to do."*

It is seen from the example that the correction comes directly and the performer does not seem to have any hesitation while speaking.

Principal Conditions

Krashen (1982) suggests that the monitoring process can be used by the performers only when three conditions occur. These conditions are necessary but somehow a performer might not fully use his conscious grammar even when these three conditions are met. Those conditions are as follows:

Time

Performers need to have sufficient time to think about and use the grammar rules consciously and effectively. Krashen (1982) notes that when people have a normal conversation, they will not pay much attention to time; to think and use

the grammar rules. This happens mostly in a society of non-native speakers. When time precludes the monitoring process, errors may occur in L2 learners' performances (McLaughlin, 1978, p. 135). For most second language learners, time gives them chances to think; what, and how to say something, without feeling like being out of time.

Focus on form

Dulay & Burt (1978) says that every performer must also be focused on the form to make sure the correctness (as cited in Krashen, 1982). Gass (2001, p. 200) adds "A learner must be paying attention to how we are saying something, not just to what we are saying." For some performers, it is very difficult to deal with what and how we are saying at the same time. Krashen (1982, p. 16) additionally explains that "The over-use of form in conversation can lead to trouble, i.e. a hesitant style of talking and inattention to what the conversational partner is saying."

Know the rule

To apply a rule, one has to know well what it is. A second language learner is expected to know the grammar of the language learned. Gass (2001) states that one should have an appropriate learned system to apply the competence of the rules. It is supported by Krashen (1981) who argues that this is a very formidable requirement in which the performers need to have a correct mental representation of the rule to apply it correctly. By knowing the rule of the L2, someone can keep the talk accurately and more able to communicate naturally.

This study is conducted based on some theories to support the researcher in answering the two research problems namely 1) Which individual variations are shown by students in Micro Teaching class? and 2) To what extend do Micro teaching students regard the three principal conditions in monitor hypothesis?

Among all the theories that have been reviewed, the researcher takes the theory of monitor hypothesis proposed by Krashen (1982) to answer the two research questions proposed in this research. Krashen's individual variations classification was taken to answer the first research question, and his three types of principal conditions to answer the second problem. Krashen's theory is selected since his study gives a large impact on all areas of second language research and teaching.

Method

This research is conducted using both qualitative and quantitative methods. The first research problem was answered qualitatively and the second research problem was done quantitatively.

Qualitative research is an approach that enables researchers to examine people's experience in detail by using non-numerical data such as in-depth interviews, focus group discussion, observation, content analysis, visual method, and life histories or biographies (Hennink & Bailey, 2011). Furthermore, Merriam (1988) points out that "Qualitative research focuses more on the process that occurs as well as the product or outcome" (as cited in Creswell, 2003, p. 199). Because of that, the researcher did qualitative research to understand a particular

context, in this case about how the learned system is shown through the speaking performance to identify the individual variation of each participant.

There were three types of instruments used by the researcher in answering the first research problem. Those are video observation sheets, questionnaires, and interviews. The observation was done to 19 Micro Teaching students' teaching performances. In this study, the researcher gathered the observational notes by conducting the observation as a complete observer. Creswell (2003, p. 186) mentions one of the advantages of using observation is the researcher can record the information needed as it is revealed.

Document analysis was applied since Bowen (2009) indicates that it is a document that is going to be interpreted by the researcher based on the issue discussed. In this research, the public record was used to support the result of the observation in which some utterances of the participants were noted.

The quantitative method is also used to strengthen the hypothesis of this research which is each of the participants performs different kinds of individual variations during their performances. "Quantitative method typically begins with data collection based on a hypothesis or theory and it is followed with the application and descriptive or inferential statistics" (Leedy, 1993). The second research problem dealt with the questionnaire. The questionnaire itself was designed by reviewing some related theories that emphasize the principal conditions in second language learning. The questionnaire was used to determine students' awareness of the principal conditions in the monitoring process.

The questionnaire is an effective and efficient data collection to gain more information about aspects discussed (Hopkins, 2008). The researcher presented the questionnaire in a form of a Likert scale which consisted of six statements on a scale of 1 - 4.

The setting of this research was in the Micro Teaching laboratory. It took 4 weeks to observe Micro Teaching students class A batch 2015. The data was collected from 25 minutes of teaching practice for each student in the Micro Teaching laboratory of Sanata Dharma University.

The participants of this research were 18 sixth semester students in Micro Teaching class A batch 2015. There were 17 female and 2 male students and they use English in the classroom. The students' 25 minutes of teaching practice was chosen to make sure that the participants have enough time to speak.

As a step to gather the data, the researcher did an observation to see into what kind of individual variation a participant is included. Some characteristics taken from the theory of the three principal conditions were used as the points to be observed. While observing, the participants' utterances that indicated the characteristics of a particular type of users were transcribed. The video recordings of 25-minute teaching practice were taken, as the transcription, along with the questionnaire and interview to be the rough data. The videos had already been taken by the Sanata Dharma laboratory's staff. To ease the data gathering process, the researcher used table 3.2 as the observation sheet to answer the first research problem. To make sure that the observation was reliable, the researcher made the blueprint of the observation that contains the characteristics of the three types of individual variations. Please refer to appendix 1 for the blueprint. The aspects observed were further developed in the observation sheet to ease the researcher to figure out the characteristics shown by each participant.

To answer the second research problem about principal conditions that affect 19 micro teaching students' monitoring performances, questionnaires and interviews were used to gather the data. Therefore, they were asked to answer the questions.

According to Griffee (2012), a questionnaire can be seen as a form of data collection consisted of several questions related to the topic discussed in research (p. 136). The researcher was able to gather the data from a small number of participants by using a questionnaire. The questionnaire was presented using closed-ended questions and the Likert scale was used as the option for the participants to choose. Numbers started from 1 to 4, were used to measure the degree of agreements since Lodico et al. (2006, p. 107) argue that it makes the participants choose one of the agreement scales that presented their response the most. In this case, the agreements consisted of "strongly disagree (1)", "disagree (2)", "agree (3)", and "strongly agree (4)".

To strengthen the results and as a follow up to the questionnaire, an interview was conducted. In-person interviews were applied since it was done face-to-face between the researcher and the interviewee as has been mentioned by Johnson and Christensen (2012, p. 198). The researcher employed an interview to clarify some underlying statements in the questionnaire that were considered as crucial statements to be asked further. Six students were taken to be interviewed. They were asked since the researcher observed their teaching performances through the videos and considered that they were indicated to be in a particular group of individual variations and their answers to the questionnaire were needed to be clarified. The researcher used the same theories as had been mentioned in the blueprint of the questionnaire because they emphasized the same points that needed to be clarified using an interview. Table 3.1 below presents the lists of the questions.

Table 1. Questions of the Interview

No	Questions
1.	While dealing with time, sometimes which one do you think is more important; focus on what you are saying or how you are saying an English sentence?
2.	How intense do you hesitate while speaking? Why?
3.	What do you think about your English competence?

To answer the first research problem, the researcher used some steps to analyze the data that were observed from the videos. First, the researcher watched and listened to 19 videos several times. The researcher checked the characteristics shown by the participants as had been listed in the observation sheet. Moreover, the researcher determined to which group each participant would be by looking at the result of the observation. After that, every participant's utterances that indicated the observed characteristics were listed. The utterances were used to support the reason why a participant is put into a particular type of user.

To get the answer to the second research question which was done through a questionnaire, the researcher presented the result in a form of percentage for each statement. The percentage was found by using the formula below:

$$\frac{\sum x}{\sum n} \times 100\ ^{0}_{0}$$

$\sum x$ = the total number of the participants based on the degree of agreement.

$\sum n$ = the total number of participants.

The percentage of data from the questionnaire would be reported descriptively in the findings.

Finally, the researcher analyzed the result of the interview. First of all, the researcher made a transcript of the interview. Then, the researcher tried to summarize the participants' answers to get the main point of each question delivered to them. Here, the researcher translated the conversation since the interview was done in Bahasa Indonesia. English was not used to avoid misunderstanding and the participants were more comfortable speaking in Bahasa Indonesia. Indeed, the summarized data was used to strengthen and clarify the result of the questionnaire; the interview would be discussed along with the result of the questionnaire.

There were some steps in conducting this research. First of all, was formulating the research problems. The researcher focused on two problems which were individual variations and principal conditions that influenced the monitoring process of the performers. Then, the researcher looked for and selected some theories related to the topic. After that, the researcher asked for permission to get the video recording from the Micro Teaching laboratory. Next, the researcher watched the videos. After watching the videos, the researcher made the transcript based on the time and how the participants corrected their sentences and then classified them of individual variations as seen in Table 3.1.

To answer the second research problem about principal conditions in the monitor hypothesis, the researcher had prepared some statements and questions in the form of a questionnaire and interview. Then, the blueprint of both questionnaire and interview were made. After that, some sheets of the questionnaire were distributed to 19 students of Micro Teaching class A batch 2015. Some of them were asked to do an interview. "The researcher conducted an interview because the researcher wished to obtain more detailed and thorough information on a topic that might be gleaned from a questionnaire" (Adams & Cox, 2008, p. 21). Therefore, the results of the interview were used to clarify some statements of the questionnaire. Then, the researcher discussed the findings and concluded these two research questions to be reported.

Findings and Discussion

Individual Variation in Micro Teaching Class Based on Krashen's Monitor Hypothesis Theory

This section is to answer the first research problem which is individual variations in Micro Teaching Class A. Every participant is described and categorized into a particular kind of user based on the characteristics they show during 25 minutes of their teaching performances. Some of the participants share the same characteristics and those participants are found to be in the same group. The researcher grouped the participants based on the observation sheet's result. Some utterances that indicated the characteristics were also taken to be the examples of certain cases raised in this chapter. Table 4.1 below is used to cover the bigger picture of the results of the individual variations based on the observation.

Table 4.1. Findings on Types of Individual Variations in Micro Teaching Class A

Individual Variations	Participants																		
	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	T7	T8	T9	T10	T11	T12	T13	T14	T15	T16	T17	T18	T19
Monitor Over-users	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Monitor Under-users	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Optimal Monitor Users	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Table 4.1 shows that only two types of individual variations are found in Micro Teaching class A. Those are monitor over-users and monitor under-users. An optimal monitor user is not found because none of the participants shows characteristics that can be said as an optimal user. The characteristics shown by the participants are presented using table 4.2 as follows.

Table 4.2. Characteristics of the Participants in Micro Teaching Class

Participants	Aspects observed				
	Speak fluently	Tend to speak slowly	Hesitate while speaking	Make grammar mistakes	Do Self-correction
T1	✓	-	-	✓	-
T2	-	✓	✓	✓	✓
T3	-	✓	✓	✓	-
T4	-	✓	✓	✓	-
T5	-	✓	✓	✓	-
T6	-	✓	✓	✓	✓
T7	-	✓	✓	✓	-
T8	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
T9	-	✓	✓	✓	-
T10	✓	✓	✓	✓	-
T11	-	✓	✓	✓	-
T12	-	✓	✓	✓	✓
T13	✓	✓	✓	✓	-
T14	-	✓	✓	✓	-
T15	-	✓	✓		-
T16	-	✓	✓	✓	-
T17	-	✓	✓	✓	-
T18	-	✓	✓	✓	-
T19	-	✓	✓	✓	-

The participants are grouped into a particular type based on the characteristics they show during the performances. Many of them share almost the same characteristics, although those, somehow, appeared against the basic characteristics of the type of users they are included into.

Monitor Under-Users

Monitor under users is those who are not paying much attention to how they are saying something but more on which one they feel right. Since this kind of performers does not attempt to their monitor process, in this case, whether checking or editing, they tend to speak fluently but somehow with poor grammar.

The researcher found out that from 19 participants, only one that could be categorized as a monitor under-user. The participant was T1. She is grouped into this kind of user because of the two characteristics below.

1) The participant spoke fluently but did not pay attention to accuracy. In this case, many grammatical errors and ineffective sentences were uttered by the participants. Most of the grammar mistakes are about the subject and verb agreement. The following are the examples:

> *There is a lot of students absent today.*
> *So can you guess what have we aaaa to do today?*
> *Has anyone get?*
> *Grammatical mistakes*
>
> *Introduction is aaaa just not for introduce yourself, but you can introduce your friend to another your friends that haven't know your friend.*
> *In Indonesia we have so many friend and aaaa when we want to aaa introduce our friend or to make friend, make your friend to another your friend.*
>
> *Unclear sentences*

2). One of the characteristics of under users is not to be influenced by error correction. The participant did not seem to do a self-correction at all while speaking whether it is about the grammar or pronunciation.

In some cases, although the participant used fillers that indicate the hesitant style, the researcher keeps grouping this participant into under-users by considering the fluency and the number of hesitation which is not many.

The researcher concludes that although this under-user participant is an English department student who learns English mostly through a conscious learning process, she did not seem to rely on her conscious knowledge but tended to use the acquired system-- by feeling the correctness-- while speaking.

Monitor Over-Users
In this study, the researcher found that out of 19 students in Micro Teaching Class A, 18 of them are monitor over-users. Monitor over-users are said to use the monitoring process all the time, so the performers tend to speak hesitantly. It is also said that because of thinking too much about the correctness, they have difficulty to speak in real fluency. L2 learners usually have different characteristics in performing their L2 learning. In this study, almost all participants that belong to this group share quite the same characteristics. The researcher elaborates on the main characteristics of monitor over-users shown by each participant as presented as follows.

Lack of fluency
One of the characteristics of monitor over-users is that the performers check their L2 output all the time. This is one reason why those performers have a lack of fluency since they are so concerned with the correctness (Khrasen & Terrel,

1983, p. 44). Out of 18 participants who are put together into this group, it was found that only T8, T9, and T13 who spoke quite fluently. The rest were considered not to have real fluency while speaking and even some of them were
seen to speak very slowly. They spoke quite slowly whether to make sure that they could produce correct utterances or they were not sure about what they were saying.

Although they had quite great fluency, the researcher kept categorizing T8, T9, and T13 into over-users considering other characteristics that indicate over-users and are opposite to the other types. They were found to make some grammatical mistakes and rarely did self-correction. Thus, they can be grouped neither to optimal monitor users nor monitor under users.

Hesitant style of talking

Based on the observation, all 18 participants hesitate while speaking. Over-users are said to use their conscious grammar rules of the target language to produce an output that somehow triggers them to hesitate (Khrasen & Terrel, 1983, p. 44). In this study, the participants who are included in this group showed a hesitant style through the use of fillers and pauses while speaking. Almost all the participants produced pause fillers and long silent pauses whether between words or sentences. In this study, it was found that the numbers of using pauses were more dominant rather than the fillers. The following are some examples taken from T2 and T5 that show the hesitant style of talking through the pause fillers.

> *T2: Today eeemm I want aaa I want to ask you. Who is not aaaa coming to our class?*
> *T5: We will aaa do it here aaa maybe you can do it aaaa just five-minute aaaa but if we…if we..if we don't have enough time we will bring it home, okay?*

In both cases above, the participants used the fillers eeemm and aaaa to show the carefulness while talking.

In some cases performed by some participants, the hesitation is also shown by repeating words in a sentence. This case rarely happened during the participants' performances. Only T3 and T12 were observed to repeat words while talking. The others chose to use pauses so they would not interfere with the communication too much. The examples can be seen as follow.

> *T3: Do you know..do you know... what..what is it? What am I…what am I trying to say when I say good morning, how are you, how do you do? What…what am I doing?*
> *T12: Okay. Aaaaa how..how…how was your day?*

Overall, the hesitation that occurred during all the participants' performances showed the monitoring process worked.

Self-correction while speaking

Krashen (1981) confirms that "Over-users will typically self-correct "by the rule", that is, when correcting errors, they will often be consciously aware of the mistakes and can fix them" (p. 16). Based on the observation results, not all participants did correct their mistakes while talking. Nevertheless, T2, T8, and T12 were seen to self-correct. These three participants cannot be said to self-correct successfully because not all mistakes were fixed. The corrections were only made once or twice. The cases below show how the participants (T2, T8, and T12) self-corrected while speaking.

> *T2: So, what greet? Oh sorry, greetings they use?*
> *T8: I'll back to you later. Oh ya back to you later. I'm so sorry.*
> *T12: So I ask your aaaa permission to aaaa give emm to borrow eehh to lend me a pen.*

During their 25-minute performances, the researcher found other characteristics performed by some participants that do not fit the characteristics of over-users. Most of the participants did not correct grammatical errors they made and some of them were likely to switch the language in th middle of talking. These characteristics came against the main characteristics of over-users. Many of the grammatical errors were identified to be subject and verb agreement and forming interrogative sentences. All the participants made these mistakes.

From all the participants, T2 and T5 showed a different characteristic in which they sometimes switched the language into L1 in the middle of talking. This was done because the participants seemed confused about how to say a sentence completely using English as the target language. Considering these findings, in this research, the researcher considers all the 18 participants have not completely shown characteristics of monitor over-users.

How Micro Teaching Students Regard the Three Principal Conditions in Monitor Hypothesis

Principal conditions in the monitor hypothesis are considered as a whole supporting package to use the monitor process. Those conditions are having sufficient time to think, knowing the rule of the language, and focusing on the correctness of the utterances. Krashen (1982) points out that time, however, might not be sufficient but necessary. The other two conditions are said to be very formidable requirements since one defines another.

To answer the second research question about how students regard the principal conditions, the researcher distributed a questionnaire in a form of closed-ended statements to 19 Micro Teaching students class A batch 2015 and interviewed six of them. The result of the questionnaire is presented by using Table 4.3 and described along with the result of the interview.

Table 4.3. Principal Conditions in Micro Teaching Class

No	Statements	The Degree of Agreement							
		SD	%	D	%	A	%	SA	%
1	I need enough time to think and speak English correctly.	0	**0**	5	**26**	10	**53**	4	**21**
2	Even though I have enough time, sometimes I focus more on what I am saying not how I am saying it.	1	**5**	1	**5**	14	**74**	3	**16**
3	While speaking, I become more accurate when I pay attention to the form of the language.	2	**11**	1	**5**	12	**63**	4	**21**
4	I make a hesitant style of talking when I focus on the rules of the language.	2	**11**	0	**0**	12	**63**	5	**26**
5	To be able to speak well, knowing English grammar is important.	0	**0**	3	**16**	8	**42**	8	**42**
6	I can learn English grammar presented to me completely and successfully without making any mistakes.	7	**37**	9	**47**	2	**11**	1	**5**

As has been explained in the previous chapter, according to Krashen, there are three main specific conditions that enable the "monitor" to perform well. They are having enough time, focusing on the form of thinking about the correctness, and knowing the rule of the language. Table 4.3 presents the total number and the

percentage of the participants' responses towards the principal conditions proposed by Krashen.

The first two statements emphasize the importance of time in speaking. The result of the first statement shows that 14 participants (74%) who choose A (agree) and SA (Strongly Agree) in total, have the same deal that time is an important thing to be counted. Having sufficient time to think helps the participants to make use of their conscious knowledge. Nevertheless, five participants (26%) do not agree if having enough time can influence the correctness of their utterances. In this case, the participants might consider the role of having good grammar is the main point in measuring the correctness of a sentence.

Further, the disagreement is proved by the second statement which is still talking about time. 90 % of the participants, 74% A and 16% SA, confess that while speaking, the meaning is more important rather than the grammar although

we are given enough time. Two of the participants who were involved in the interview pointed out their thought regarding this case. Both of them are over-users. They emphasized their thought on how time influenced their speaking performance as shown as follow.

[T4]: *Having much time to speak is important. However, when I speak, I prefer to focus on what I am saying. As long as the message is delivered successfully, I do not think the grammar is really counted here. So, the meaning is the priority.*

[T6]: *In my opinion, focusing more on the meaning is better. I don't think about the grammar in the first place. The most important thing is they understand what I am saying and that is all what I need.*

Although most of the interviewees preferred to focus on the meaning, two of them still thought that how to say something did matter in speaking. It is very surprising to have one of these two participants to consider grammar is more important than meaning since in this study the participant is grouped into the under-monitor user. She admitted her bad English but still considered this case as something she must focus on while speaking. This answer bellow is how she regarded the importance of focusing on the form.

[T3]: *I will focus on how to say something because to say English sentence well is important although I do not have good grammar. I am an ELESP student, so grammar really matters for me.*

The statement of T3 can be referred to as another study done by Stafford and Covitt's (1978). In their study, one under-user, "I", felt that people need to have conscious rules to speak correctly. Covitt adds that "Under-users often feel that grammar is the key to every language" (as cited in Krashen, 1983, p. 45).

The third case is about focusing on the correctness of utterances. Since Krashen stresses that accuracy is a cause of a learned system, focusing on correctness, in here, refers to conscious knowledge. 21% of the participants are found to choose A (Agree) and 63% choose SA (Strongly Agree). It can be concluded that 84% in total are pro that L2 learners will be more accurate when they pay attention to the form or correctness of the language. Meanwhile, 16% of the participants disagree that accuracy can be measured by focusing on the correctness of the utterances.

The reason why some of the participants disagree to deal with correctness or form of the language can be seen in the fourth statement. Almost all the participants agree that focusing on the correctness somehow can cause hesitations and it will disturb the communication. Based on the questionnaire result, 17 participants or 89% admit that hesitation will occur if the focus is on the rules of the language. One of the participants gave her thoughts on this.

[T5]: *I usually hesitate while speaking because I focus more on how I say something and I am afraid whether I make mistakes while speaking or not, moreover when I am running out of time.*

The answer to the first interview question might be another supporting idea in which the participants are likely to point out the meaning rather than how it is said. Only two participants or 11% of them disagree and are confident enough with their learned competence. It is shown through an interview result below.

[T4]: *I rarely do hesitation. I will hesitate only if the listeners seem not to understand what I am saying. The hesitation comes if I just want to simply my sentence but just once or twice. I also need much time to think so that I can minimize hesitation.*

The last two statements deal with the participants' grammar competence. As one of the prerequisite matters to be an English teacher and as one of the main principals in the monitoring process proposed by Krashen, knowing the rules of English is important. In statement number five, there are 84% or 16 participants consider English grammar mastery is a crucial matter as one result of the learning process. Only three participants or 16% disagree. Again, these participants may put the meaning as the point, not the grammar.

To master English as a second language, the learners, in this case, the participants should have an appropriate learned system but Krashen argues this statement. Krashen (1983, p. 31) sees that in learning grammar even the best students fail to learn everything presented to them. It is proved from the result of the last statement in which 84% of the participants disagree that they can learn English grammar presented to them completely and successfully without making any mistakes. Out of six participants who had been interviewed, five of them acknowledge themselves not to have really good English proficiency. Three of them regarded that they had standard English proficiency while the other two considered that they had low English proficiency. Those two participants were T2 and T3. T2 is said to be an over-user who spoke very slow and very little. Based on the observation, this participant avoided answering all the questions given to him. Meanwhile, T3 is considered as an under-user. She admitted that she was not good at remembering rules or the grammar of English.

[T2]: *Honestly, my English competence is not really good. I cannot use English properly although grammar is really important.*
[T3]: *My English proficiency is still poor moreover when I have to speak. Not only because of nervousness but also I don't know grammar. That's the main problem.*

Only one of the six participants thinks she has good English proficiency and based on the result of the observation, this participant is one of the over-users users who have only a few grammatical mistakes.

[T4]: *I can say I have good English proficiency. I am confident enough with my English competence.*

The results both from the questionnaire and interview bring the researcher to an idea that L2 learners consider that having sufficient time to think and knowing English rules as the basic term in learning English are significant matters.

Meanwhile, the participants prefer not to focus on the correctness while speaking but the meaning or the message they want to deliver.

Conclusion

This research studies about individual variations found in 19 Micro Teaching Class A students' teaching performances. Based on the findings discussed in chapter IV, out of three kinds of individual variations proposed by Krashen in monitor hypothesis, only two occur in Micro Teaching Class A. Those two are monitor under-users and monitor over-users. Meanwhile, none of the participants shows an indication of optimal monitor users. From 19 participants in total, 18 of them are found to be monitor over-users, and only one of them that can be grouped into monitor under-user.

The observation results show that the over-users are likely to speak slowly, do hesitations in the form of fillers and pauses, but rarely do self-corrections. The other group, which is monitor under-user, does not show too many hesitations, yet grammatical mistakes were made without any correction.

The second conclusion is drawn based on the result of the questionnaire and interview. Krashen proposes three principal conditions that can support the monitoring process which is having sufficient time, focusing on form, and knowing the rules of the language. Since all the participants who were asked to do the interview were from different kinds of users and they shared different characteristics, the three principal conditions needed to be clarified. Out of these three conditions, only two conditions that the participants think are playing roles in their performances. Those two conditions are having sufficient time and knowing the rules of the language. The participants do not focus on form when they have to do an 'unprepared' speech like what they did in Micro Teaching class. The most important thing for them is the meaning or message is delivered and understandable. Meanwhile, having enough time was considered important but did not give a large impact on their performance.

This study can be beneficial for the educational field and linguistic research since it studies the monitor hypothesis; kinds of second language users and principal conditions. As one of the branches of linguistics, Second Language Acquisition that covers the underlying topic of this study which is monitor hypothesis, English department students can be encouraged to gain more knowledge about second language learning. The other researchers may take this study to be compared or continued in researching the same field.

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FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO STUDENTS' DIFFICULTIES IN ACADEMIC WRITING CLASS: STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS

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Abstract
Writing is one of the most difficult skills in learning English as a Second Language (ESL) or English Foreign Language (EFL). Many language learners encountered difficulties from the writing process. At the tertiary level, students are required to produce academic essays, which are difficult and may frustrate students. The purpose of this study was to analyze factors contributing to students' difficulties in an *Academic Writing* course based on the students' perceptions. This study used a qualitative method. The instruments used were open-ended questionnaires and interview protocol. In this study, all the participants' answers were coded and analyzed descriptively. The participants were 22 students who were taking *Academic Writing* class for repeaters in Semester I, 2018/2019 academic year, in an English Language Education Program, in a university in Central Java, Indonesia. Questionnaire data were coded and classified by the researcher. In conducting the interview, data were audio-recorded and transcribed. Those data were analyzed to answer the research questions in this study. Based on the findings, there were two factors that caused students' difficulties in writing academically. The two factors were internal and external. Internal factors consisted of self-motivation, self-confidence, lack of knowledge and feeling of under pressure. External factors consisted of the teacher's teaching style, classroom atmosphere, materials, and writing aspects. This research hopefully can help teachers and instructors in developing appropriate teaching techniques in *Academic Writing* and minimize students' difficulties in *Academic Writing*.

Keywords: Academic Writing, factors contributing difficulties

Introduction

Writing is one of the most important and challenging skills for English as a Foreign Language (EFL) or English as a Second Language (ESL) student. Writing in English might be more difficult than other skills like listening, speaking and reading. At the tertiary level, students who are learning EFL or ESL required to succeed in written and oral production. Many students are worried about writing especially in English. Unlike speaking, writing requires a lot of preparations and aspects, which have to be considered, causing students to feel frustrated and nervous. One of the most problems students face in writing is what should be written and how to write. One of the writing aspects that most students faced is grammar. Grammar tends to make students hesitant to write. In

this case, students regarded have difficulties in writing. Sometimes, difficulties bring students to feel nervous, anxious, and lack motivation.

In an English Language Education Program (ELEP), in a private university in Central Java, Indonesia, Academic Writing class becomes one of the most challenging courses for students because it is a preparatory class for students before writing a thesis proposal. Students must pass the Intermediate Grammar course before taking this course. Academic Writing is also known as the highest level of writing courses for English Language Education students. Academic writing itself has the importance not only to master English language but also to be successful in learning other disciplines where English is the medium of instruction as stated by Al-Badi (2015).

In Academic Writing class, many students feel nervous and worried about their writing because students have various difficulties in the world of writing such as proficiency level, lack of motivation, lack of knowledge and so on. It can be seen from students' performance in writing classes, like organizing ideas, encountering arguments, paraphrasing, synthesizing, summarizing, and grammatical problems.

Considering those problems and difficulties, we conducted this research with the aim to find out and analyze what possible factors contributing to students' difficulties are in Academic Writing class. Two research questions were addressed: (1) What factors caused students' difficulties in Academic Writing class? (2) How did students handle their difficulties in Academic Writing class? Hopefully, this research will help students gain a better understanding of the factors and efforts in handling those difficulties. Besides, it can also provide meaningful information for teachers and instructors to create a better learning atmosphere suitable for students.

Literature Review
The Definition of Academic Writing
Academic Writing course is the highest writing course in an English Language Education Program, in a private university in Central Java, Indonesia. Previously students would take some writing courses like Creative Writing, Procedural Writing, Narrative Writing, and Writing for the Media. Those are the levels of writing courses from the beginning to the advanced level. Academic Writing is the highest-level writing course in this particular university. Abdulkareem (2013) confirms that "academic writing has a fundamental impact on learners' progress in a second language".

Therefore, students' ability, knowledge, and creativity are needed in order to produce a good piece of writing. In *Academic Writing* class, students are expected to be able to argue, correlate arguments with the results of research done by experts, and encounter arguments. Also, students need to apply writing procedures based on applicable provisions, for example, the logical organization, syntheses, quotes, summaries, grammar, mechanics, and avoidance of plagiarism.

Problems in Academic Writing
There are many problems that students encounter in an Academic Writing course. A research conducted by Bacha (2012) reveals that "teachers find students' academic writing weak". According to Shang (2012) when students are asked to write an English composition, they may get nervous because they are afraid of making mistakes in language forms such as grammar and vocabulary. From a psychological perspective, there are many factors that might occur in writing problems. As stated by Byrne (1988,

p.4), writing is complicated and difficult for most people who learn a second language and native language because of particular psychological, linguistic, and cognitive factors. It means that writing problems are not only faced by second language students but also native language students (as cited in, Alfaki, 2015). Raimes (1983) thinks that: When students complain about how difficult it is to write in a second language, they are talking not only about the difficulty of finding the right words and using the correct grammar but also about the difficulty of finding and expressing ideas in a new language. (p. 13)".

Raimes (1983) confirmed that problems often faced by students in Academic Writing are not only about grammar, diction, and vocabulary, but also how to express the idea into a target language using their language. "Other causes that could lead to the difficulty in academic writing are L1 interference, inadequacy of ideas, and unclear instructions of the task" (Chou, 2011). Similarly, Hedge (1988) thinks that students not only have to consider the writing features, but they also have to be able to write in a high degree of organization, appropriate grammar and vocabulary. Students often avoid or not to put more attention on the content and context in *Academic Writing*. It happens because students may only focus on grammar and vocabulary.

Another problem encountered by students is time pressure. It was proved by Cheng (2004) on his research on National Taiwan Normal University students. He interviewed 27 students by using a semi-structured interview. The results showed that one of the participants felt extremely anxious when writing under time pressure because the teacher asked the students to write a draft in 60 minutes by following the composition of writing.

Difficulties in Academic Writing

Academic Writing is formal writing in which it is different compared to other types of writing. Nunan (1989) stated that writing is a very cognitive activity that requires students to pay attention to various factors in writing (as cited in Fareed, Ashraf & Bilal, 2016). It is true that to be able to write, students have to follow a number of writing aspects. In the case of *Academic Writing*, students are required to convey arguments and develop ideas precisely.

Hyland (2003) classifies the organization of L2 writing in the different focus: language structures, text functions, themes or topics, creative expression, composting process, content, genre and contexts of writing. Referring to those organizations, students need to consider all of the rules in their writing process. Sometimes, some students lack confidence and are unmotivated after knowing the numbers of requirements.

Moreover, many students have difficulty in finding appropriate theories, combining ideas, correcting sentence structure, and they still feel doubts in writing. Those difficulties may occur because students' English language proficiency is relatively low. Furthermore, linguistic aspects such as grammar, vocabulary, punctuation, and spelling are included as factors that affect students' writing performance.

Factors Contributing to Writing Difficulties

Alfaki (2015) classified several factors that contribute to writing problems and difficulties. They are as follows.

The Nature of Writing Process

Writing is a complex process that requires students mastering the grammatical devices, conceptual thinking and judgmental elements (Byrne, 1988 & Heaton, 1990, as cited in Alfaki, 2015). Abu (2001) also stated that writing is a difficult skill for native speakers and non-native speakers because they are required to fulfill writing components such as content, organization, purpose, audience, vocabulary, punctuation, spelling, and mechanics. As supported by Al-Khairy (2013), that "the major problems comprise grammatical errors, the inappropriate choice of vocabulary, irregular verbs, and incorrect punctuation and spelling". The best reason is that the role of writing skills as written production should be communicative and successful in entertaining readers.

Lack of Learners' Motivation

One of the most important things in writing is the topic. Students tend to feel bored and have difficulties writing because of unfamiliar topics. According to Davies (1998), students will be encouraged to write and motivated because they are interested in the topic. Silva (1997) believed that allowing students to choose their topics can increase their motivation to write (as cited in Thomsan, 2003). Students are given freedom to decide their topic in the hope that it will improve their writing quality. Other than that, Zamel (2017) stated that writing class should consider the purpose of writing itself.

Inadequate Time

According to Guantum and Chakraverty (2002), writing is one of the most important parts of language learning, which requires a lot of time to think about the topic. It was shown that students often run out of deadlines because in the writing process students need to brainstorm ideas, organize ideas, draft, re-read their writing (Hedge, 1988, as cited in Alfaki, 2015).

Lack of Practice

Similar to other language skills that writing also required students to practice those languages that they have learned. If students only learn the skill without practice, knowledge means nothing. Grabe and Kaplan (1996) believed that writing never comes instantly; instead, it needs effort and practice. The more students practice, the more they master the skills.

Teachers' feedback

Some students get confused about the teacher's feedback while consulting their writing. Some teachers may give short or unclear feedback to students. Zamel (1985) stated that teacher feedback can be effective in responding to students' writing rather than examiners because some students feel afraid or worry about their own writing (as cited in Alfaki, 2015). Moreover, Can (2009) states that "conflicting feedback provided by instructors from different departments in an institution might lead to the lack of students' confidence in their writing skills".

Previous Studies

Many pieces of research about writing had been done in the language learning process. Writing is complicated because people generally hate to write. Cheng (2004) investigated National Taiwan Normal University students on his research using

primary data from the participants like open-ended questionnaires, writing assignments, and in-depth interviews. Cheng's findings on the results and discussions showed that teachers should provide students the freedom to choose their topic or interested in it. Besides that, teachers should be giving motivation for students to learn to write by creating relaxed communication with the students without worrying about making mistakes.

Fareed, Ashraf, and Bilal (2016) investigated problems and factors that hampered Pakistani undergraduate students in their writing skills. Their research found the major problems in terms of linguistic proficiency, writing anxiety, lack of ideas, L1 reliance, and lack of organizational structure. The other challenges included teachers, teaching methods, the examination system, lack of practice, classroom large, and lack of motivation and ideas.

In Indonesia, research on the factors contributing to students' difficulties in *Academic Writing* class has been done a lot. However, it seems that only a few pieces of research were conducted on how students handle their difficulties. Therefore, this study aimed to fill the gap so that it can help students gain a better understanding of their difficulties and provide information for teachers and instructors in teaching *Academic Writing* or other writing areas.

Method
Context of the Study
This research was conducted in an *Academic Writing* class by the end of Semester I 2018/2019 in an English Language Education Program, in a private university, in Central Java. The total number of subjects was twenty-two students.

Participants
This study involved English Language Education Program students who were taking *Academic Writing* class for repeaters in the Semester I 2018/2019. The 22 students came from different batches: batch 2013, batch 2014, batch 2015, and batch 2016.

Data Collection Instruments
This instrument used qualitative data. Qualitative researchers can use several techniques in data collection namely observation, field notes, interviews, questionnaires, and examining records (Gay et al., 2006). To collect the data, this study employed two of them, namely questionnaires and an interview protocol.

Data Collection Procedures
The research used open-ended questionnaires to collect the data. The questionnaires were distributed at the end of the class session. The questionnaire consisted of six questions to identify factors contributing to students' difficulties. The questionnaire questions and interviews were conducted in the students' native language to avoid misunderstanding. The follow-up interview aimed at clarifying the students' statements in the questionnaires. The interview used semi-structured interviews so that students could share their perspectives and enable the researchers to ask additional questions to explain the particular issue.

Data Analysis Procedures

The data were analyzed through theme analysis. After students filled out the questionnaires, the data were coded and themes drawn by the researchers. The chosen participants who gave unique statements in the questionnaires were contacted and interviewed individually. During the interview process, note taking and audio recording were done. The data from audio-recorded were transcribed. All the data were discussed in the findings and conclusions drawn.

Findings and Discussion

Findings of this study have been divided into three parts, general problems in *Academic Writing*, internal and external factors contributing to writing problems, and student's efforts in handling difficulties in *Academic Writing*.

General Problems in Writing

According to the data, students had different kinds of problems in writing academically. Mostly, students encountered problems in terms of mechanical problems. They are grammatical problems, lack of vocabulary, *Academic Writing* content and context, and the structure of *Academic Writing*.

First, 14 out of 22 students had problems with grammar. One of the problems was stated by Participant 4.

Excerpt 1:
> "I have difficulties in determining appropriate grammar in my writing. In this class, we must understand grammar. This class uses unfamiliar vocabulary, very formal, even there were some words I have not heard yet." (Participant 4/ Questionnaire on November 27, 2018)

Second, 9 out of 22 students had problems with vocabulary. One of the problems was mentioned by Participant 12.

Excerpt 2:
> "I felt confused and had difficulties in choosing academic vocabulary. The lack of academic vocabulary makes my difficulty in understanding articles that have much foreign vocabulary." (Participant 12/ Questionnaire on November 27, 2018)

Besides academic vocabulary, another problem was mentioned by Participant 22.

Excerpt 3:
> "I feel distressed and confused about finding the right conjunctions. The language used differs from the one used in the previous writing class because the language is too academic." (Participant 22/ Questionnaire on November 27, 2018)

Participant 8 recognized she had difficulties in arranging words. *Academic writing* requires formal writing. Students generally had problems in sentence structures and the rules of *Academic Writing*. It was experienced by Participant 19.

Excerpt 4:
"I felt lazy to write because I did not understand the structure and rules in Academic Writing. Also, vocabulary and structures are difficult." (Participant 19/ Questionnaire on November 27, 2018)

In general, students had many ideas in their first language (L1). However, writing in the first language (L1) and the second language (L2) was very different. Therefore, students experienced difficulties in the development of ideas, content and context, writing structures, and mechanical problems. From the various problem that has been mentioned, the researchers classified two factors that caused students' difficulties in *Academic Writing,* they are an internal and external factor.

Internal and External Factors Contributing to Writing Problems
In this study, it was found that the student respondents experienced both internal factors and external factors. Included in internal factors were self-motivation, self-confidence, lack of knowledge and feeling of under pressure. While external factors were the teacher's teaching style, classroom atmosphere, materials, and writing aspects. The detailed explanation about the factors is elaborated below.

Internal Factors
The research found 22 *Academic Writing* students who found internal factors in which they encountered various difficulties in writing academically. From the internal factors, there were four things that affected students' performance in writing academically such as self-motivation, self-confidence, lack of knowledge, and feeling under pressure.

Grammar was found as the major factor encountered by the student respondents. Students could spend so much time checking whether the grammar was correct or not. This problem influenced their motivation in writing. One of the participants who experienced this was Participant 1

Excerpt 5:
"I feel confused and afraid not to get an idea smoothly to write. I also feel difficulty in grammar and lack of vocabulary. My biggest difficulty is grammar and ideas." (Participant 1/ Questionnaire on November 27, 2018)

Similar difficulty was expressed by Participant 18.

Excerpt 6:
"I feel afraid of being wrong because I do not have experience in writing academically. Besides, I have difficulties with vocabulary and grammar." (Participant 18/ Questionnaire on November 27, 2018)

It showed that those participants felt unconfident and lacked knowledge in the case of vocabulary, grammar, and ideas. According to Alves (2008) one the reasons why students are unable to perform good writing is because they lack writing purpose, for example, they do not know what they are writing for, for who and why. To be able to write, students need to brainstorm their ideas in order to know the topic to be written. Brainstorm helps students to organize their ideas before they form their thoughts into writing. One of them was participant 20.

Excerpt 7:
> "I am feeling difficulty in writing because I have to pay attention to all the writing aspects such as grammar, content, explanation of quotation and et cetera. Also, grammar is too difficult." (Participant 20/ Questionnaire on November 27, 2018)

The difficulties experienced by Participant 20 showed that students tend to feel confused about which part of writing to start that caused them to feel unmotivated to write. The lack of motivation caused students to be lazy and lack the confidence to write. The intention is part of the motivation which causes students hard to build. It was mentioned by Participant 9.

Excerpt 8:
> "At first, I felt normal but was a bit afraid of developing the theme and grammar. I also have difficulties in raising my intention in developing a theme for my writing." (Participant 9/ Questionnaire on November 27, 2018)

It is confirmed by Wallace (1996) that students need to articulate their initial intention. Intention to write is necessary for students to avoid their laziness or lack of motivation to write. Moreover, intention helps students to keep writing on track and to make it easier for them to develop their own writing such as organizing thought, and more practice to write. Students' lack of writing intention may cause them to feel under pressure. The feeling of under pressure could cause students difficulties in developing their ideas and writing thousands of words. It was stated by Participant 3, that he felt pressure to write thousands of words and develop his ideas because it was the first time for him to write.

Excerpt 9:
> "I'm feeling confused and pressured because it is the first time for me to write. I have difficulties with grammar. Also, I felt pressured when the teacher asked me to write thousands of words and have to develop the ideas." (Participant 3/ Questionnaire on November 27, 2018)

The other factors affected students' writing difficulties were the students' background knowledge. The difficulties were experienced by Participant 21. She stated that the lack of background knowledge and the low English proficiency level greatly influenced the process of her writing. It is the fact that L2 mastery limitations can inhibit students, not only in writing but also in a variety of skills such as listening, speaking, and reading. The internal factors are summarized in the Table. 1.

Table 1. Internal Factors Contributing to Students' Difficulties in Academic Writing

Internal Factors	The cause of problems felt by students
Student's self-motivation	Laziness in reading essays and journals, the intention to write, confuse, challenged to write, and difficulty in paying attention
Student's self-confidence	The feeling of nervousness, fear, and doubt
Student's lack of knowledge	The fear in developing a theme, grammar and vocabulary, lack of ideas, difficulties in finding the right conjunctions
Student's feeling of under pressure	Revising essay based on teacher's feedback, the requirement to write thousands of words, difficulties to develop ideas

External Factors

In addition to the internal factors, the external factors also contribute to the difficulties faced by students. It was revealed that there were four factors included in external factors are the teacher's teaching style, classroom atmosphere, materials, and writing's aspect. One of the participants who experienced this is Participant 6. She stated,

Excerpt 10:
"I feel awkward for not getting used to academic writing. The teacher's explanation and methods used were a little confusing. I have difficulty adapting to that method." (Participant 6/ Questionnaire on November 27, 2018)

Teacher's teaching styles were different and not all of the styles implemented by teachers were suitable to the students. On the other hand, students have their own learning styles. It is proven by Awla (2014) through her research that there should be a balance between teacher and student's learning style. Then, it could be concluded that once the balance is achieved, the teacher and students may have good communication in the classroom and therefore, it will be easier for students to consult their writing to the teacher.

Furthermore, in the follow-up interview, Participant 6 explained that she did not understand the teacher's instruction clearly especially while the teacher was giving an explanation related to their writing in class. A similar situation was felt by Participant 5 and 7 that they had difficulty in understanding the teacher's explanations.

Excerpt 11:
"First, I felt strained in academic writing. I have difficulty in academic writing because the teacher is boring. Besides, the teacher's explanation is unclear." (Participant 5/ Questionnaire on November 27, 2018)

Excerpt 12:
"I feel challenged to write academically. I have difficulties in understanding teachers' explanations. When a teacher gives explanations, his voice does not sound clear. Also, I have difficulty in comparing paragraphs." (Participant 7/ Questionnaire on November 27, 2018)

Also, students faced difficulties in understanding the teachers' requests. For example, in terms of giving assignments related to students' writing or classroom activities, the instructions were found to be very unclear and confusing. This was expressed by Participant 4 and 22.

Excerpt 13:
"I have difficulty determining the right grammar. We have to understand fully about grammar in this class. Also, finding the right vocabulary is hard for me. I think this class uses unfamiliar vocabulary, very formal, even some vocabulary I have never heard before. Several times the teacher often asked us to do A but at the next meeting he said B. This was enough to make us confused because sometimes we were not ready to do B." (Participant 4/ Questionnaire on November 27, 2018)

It has to be noted that the teacher acted as the facilitator in the classroom. To be a facilitator means to help students who were consulting their work and explain necessary materials related to students' needs.

Likewise, the learning environment influenced a student's successful writing. The effectiveness of student learning in the classroom becomes a factor that is as important as knowledge. This was revealed by Participant 1 and 2. It was stated by Participant 2 in answering questions related to the difficulties encountered.

Excerpt 14:
"I first felt surprised to be academic written by journalists. I had difficulties in grammar and the classroom atmosphere. The factor is the lesson hours take place during sleepy hours." (Participant 2/ Questionnaire on November 27, 2018)

From this situation, students automatically became lazy and concentrated less on writing which caused them to be uncomfortable in class. Student's discomfort in the class causes them to get demotivated. The statements expressed by students were supported by Listyani (2018) on her research on process writing. Her research results showed that the effectiveness and success of the implementation process writing strategy depend on the classroom atmosphere and situation. As a matter of fact, students prefer learning in a comfortable classroom atmosphere and time because it can boost their energy and make it easier in developing ideas, although some students do not care about the situation itself. Therefore, classroom setting in such times needs to be taken into account for the suggestion, for the future classroom design.

Regardless of the classroom atmosphere, the materials used in *Academic Writing* are considered as the factors that cause students' difficulties. In *Academic Writing* there are two skills used which include reading and writing skills. One of the factors

experienced by students that affect their writing performance is reading journals and articles, as mentioned by Participant 12, 13, & 14. These participants mentioned that the language used in those journals and articles are too academic and too difficult to understand. It can be said that the students lacked the ability to read journals and articles while those tools were needed for students to get references for writing. It is shown that there is a relationship between internal factors (the lack of knowledge such as vocabulary and grammar) and external factors (reading journals and articles). This occurs because journals and articles use academic language which is unfamiliar and hard for students to understand. As this result raises the fact, students can experience both of these factors simultaneously. Writing has rigid rules which cause students to be difficult to follow and pay attention to. It was stated by Participant 15.

Excerpt 15:
"I feel very ordinary in this class but to be considerate. In Academic Writing class, the context is more academic because it is not as flexible as other writing classes. I also have difficulties in the context and grammar used." (Participant 15/ Questionnaire on November 27, 2018)

It is true that *Academic Writing* context is more academic compared to the other writing classes such as *Creative Writing, Narrative Writing,* and P*rocedural Writing* which give the opportunity for students to write freely. Hence, the writing pressure is not too much. Students can decide their topic and develop their ideas without relying on experts and reading journals and articles. Therefore, *Academic Writing* as a genre allows students to write academically based on a predetermined context. Moreover, it helps students cultivate critical thinking and creativity in writing. Here, the genre of *Academic Writing* is argumentative writing in which students are required to confront their ideas, seeking supporting statements from experts and rebuttal ideas. The external factors are summarized in Table. 2

Table 2. External factors contributing to students' difficulties in Academic Writing

External Factors	The cause of problems felt by students
Teacher's teaching style	Unclear teacher's explanation and instructions, unfavorable characters of the teacher, confusing teaching and learning methods, Requirements of tasks, difficulties in adapting teacher's teaching style
Classroom atmosphere	Classroom situation, Time and setting of the classroom, Rigid rules in Academic Writing (not flexible)
Materials	Difficulties in reading journals, unfamiliar language, Complicated tasks, Citing from a source (quotation)

Writing's aspect	Difficulties in Academic context and content,
	Academic language (diction, conjunction)

Student's Efforts in Handling Difficulties in Academic Writing

Despite all factors encountered, the student respondents had their own ways of handling those difficulties. There were 18 out of 22 Participants who could handle their difficulties while the rest of the 4 Participants had not yet found an effective way.

From those results, most students were aware of their strengths and weaknesses. The efforts made by these participants were to read related articles (expressed by Participants 1, 7, 15, and 21), consulting dictionary (Participant 2, 10 and 12), consulting writing to teacher and classmates (Participant 3, 14, and 20), using technology such as the internet, *Grammarly*, and plagiarism checker (Participant 11 and 15), and learning from writing template given by the teacher (Participant 13).

One of the participants practiced writing (Participant 16) while Participant 17 decided to have some refreshing moments from the boredom to write. All the efforts mentioned by the participants depended on their feelings about writing. They had various feelings towards writing in which students had a different sense of comfort too.

For example, students felt comfortable working in groups, working with peers, and working individually to write. Students could find their ways to solve their writing problems and difficulties. Some of the participants were well organized, but some of them were not. This phenomenon is normal because each student has their own learning styles and preferences. However, some participants still could not find an effective way and struggled hard to write academically.

After facing various difficulties in this class, some students felt improved during the writing process. The improvements that they experienced specifically are in developing ideas, the use of academic vocabulary, appropriate grammar use, word compose techniques, and paraphrasing techniques. Additionally, students felt that their confidence increased and were not afraid anymore to write.

Conclusion

Writing is a complicated skill in the second language learning or foreign language learning process. At the tertiary level, students encountered various problems and difficulties, especially in *Academic Writing*. This study analyzed factors which contribute to students' difficulties in *Academic Writing*. The two factors, based on the students' opinions, were internal and external factors. To be able to write academically, students should follow the predefined writing rules such as organizing ideas, paraphrasing, synthesizing, summarizing, linguistic, and mechanics. Moreover, the writing stages that require students to complete in the writing process are planning, revising, and editing (Listyani, 2018).

Referring to those rules, the researchers can conclude some related points. First, grammar learning needs to take teachers or instructors who are teaching writing skills into account. Grammar becomes a major factor for *Academic Writing* students. Both teachers and students should pay attention to not only the content of the academic

essays, but also grammar. Without good grammar, the message in the essays may not be successfully delivered and may cause misunderstanding.

Secondly, the teaching styles applied by teachers also need to be considered because several students have difficulty adapting to the teaching styles such as teachers' way of giving materials, giving instructions, and giving feedback. Third, the classroom atmosphere and students' learning hours are also worth considering. Thereby, the learning process can run well and effectively.

Fourth, students need to be encouraged to practice writing and reading skills. By reading, students get many ideas, references, and knowledge. Also, students are accustomed to using academic vocabulary and sentence structures in their writing.

With the existence of problems and difficulties encountered, students can find their ways that can help them perform better in *Academic Writing* class. Students will be aware of their level of writing and encourage them to practice more in their ways. Therefore, *Academic Writing* teachers and instructors should develop appropriate teaching methods, approaches, and styles in which minimize students' difficulties in writing academically. It serves as the pedagogical implication of this present study.

This research only found out and analyzed factors that contributed to students' difficulties in *Academic Writing*. This research still has many shortcomings, and therefore further research is needed. Future researchers can research these factors by using similar methods in different writing classes with larger participants, then these shortcomings can be solved.

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FREQUENCY AND COLLOCATION
OF THE VERBS *REFUSE* AND *REJECT*

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Abstract
This research aims to study the occurrences frequencies and the collocations of the verbs *refuse* and *reject*. By looking at the collocations, it could be seen the context of the verbs occurrences. The objectives of this study are 1) to find out the frequencies of the verbs *refuse* and *reject* in *Corpus of Contemporary American English* (COCA) and 2) to find out the collocations of the verbs *refuse* and *reject*. The study was quantitative research and qualitative research. It used corpus study. The data were from COCA 2011 – 2012. The study used the purposive sampling method. The findings of this study showed that the frequency of the verb *refuse* was higher than the verb *reject*. The percentage of *refuse*'s frequency was 57.59%, while the percentage of *reject*'s frequency was 42.41%. The collocations of the verbs *refuse* and *rejec*t were various. The collocations of the verb *refuse* were nouns, pronouns, and to infinitive forms. The collocations of the verb *reject* were nouns and pronouns. The verbs *refuse* and *reject* shared three similar collocations. They were *money*, *treatment*, *him*, and *her*, which represented a lover or someone who loved. Moreover, this study could support English learning and teaching. English Language Education Study Program students who were teacher candidates would aware of the use of synonymous verbs *refuse* and *reject*. They should clarify that those verbs could not been interchanged to another word.

Keywords: frequency, corpus, token, collocation, *refuse*, *reject*

Introduction
Sometimes it is uncomfortable not to accept someone¨s request, offer, or invitation. It is because actually he/ she has a good intention and he/ she maybe is someone who has a higher authority than us to be not accepted. In daily conversations, it is found that people can say anything to show that they do not want to do or accept something. In English, there are synonymous verbs which show refusal. Based on *Oxford Thesaurus of English*, the verbs *refuse, decline*, *reject,* and *spurn* share the similar meanings. According to *Dictionary of Synonyms and Anonyms*, another synonym of those verbs is *deny*. Although those verbs have identical meanings, they are not used in the similar contexts or situations. Besides, based on Shea (n.d.), sometimes, the use of the synonyms *deny, decline, refuse,* and *reject* is confusing. He assumes that people can look at the opposite of each verb to distinguish the synonyms. Following, the verbs *refuse* and *reject* are the most similar among the other synonyms. Shea (n.d) adds that the opposite of both verbs is *accept*. He utters

that people have different understanding of use the verbs *refuse* and *reject*. People are confused to decide which verb should be used to communicate.

By looking at lexical semantics and etymology, the meanings of the verbs *refuse* and *reject* will be comprehended. Lexical semantics and etymology will show and explain the differences of both verbs. According to *Oxford Thesaurus of English*, *refuse* and *reject* give the basic meaning to say „no" to something. *Refuse* is the most neutral word for simply saying „no" to a request, suggestion, or offer ("Refuse"). *Reject* suggests that what is on offer is felt to be not good enough ("Reject"). Based on *Dictionary of Synonyms and Antonyms*, the synonyms of *reject* are *refuse, turn down, discard, exclude,* and *deny* ("Reject"). Besides, *Online Etymology Dictionary* shows that the verb *refuse* means *reject, disregard,* and *avoid* ("Refuse"). The verb *reject* means *to throw*, which indicates not to accept ("Reject"). Based on the lexical semantics and the etymologies, the verbs *refuse* and *reject* can be used in similar and different situations, contexts, and fields. According to Biber, *et al.* (2002), "synonymous words are typically used in very different ways" (p.43). As well, in the similar contexts, those two synonymous words, *refuse* and *reject*, have a meaning, which is not to accept something.

Semantics theory is employed to understand the differences of the use of the verbs *refuse* and *reject.* Semantics, that gives explanation about the meaning of language, will show the meaning of *reject* and *refuse* in some contexts in which they occur. According to Finegan (2004), semantics is studied by looking at the language structure meaning especially in words and sentences. From sentences which the verbs *refuse* and *reject* are used, the meaning of the verbs can be studied. In sentences, the verbs will collocate with another word. Based on Nesselhauf (2005), collocates are the words that commonly co-occur with a target word. The words can be in the front or following the target word. Biber, *et al.* (2002) say that "there is strong tendency for each collocate of a word to be associated with a single sense of meaning" (pp.35-36). Palmer (2001) states that "collocation is a part of the meaning of a word" (p.76). He adds that the collocation can determine the meaning of the words. The context of situation contains the meaning, which also can be found in all other levels of analysis.

This study focuses on the verbs *refuse* and *reject* comprehensively. According to Kayaoğlu (2013), the verbs *refuse* and *reject* are listed as close synonyms besides *deny*, *decline*, and *rebuff*. Kayaoğlu (2013) uses the verbs *refuse* and *reject*, which are close synonymous verbs, in a vocabulary test. Moreover, Liu (2011) assumes that people are more aware of the importance of synonymous words, especially in writing. Liu (2011) adds that most synonyms are not exactly substituted to each other based on the collocations. He uses a test which questions the collocations of the synonymous verbs *refuse* and *reject* to determine learners" proficiency level in using English. The test consists of 20 questions. The test result shows that lower and higher learners are still confused about the use of *refuse* and *reject*.

Besides, it is found that there are some errors in conveying utterances by English Language Education Study Program (ELESP) students. For instance, the student says *refuse ideas*. It is supposed to use the verb *reject* to substitute *refus* in that context. It is because basically, *reject* is used to say that someone does not support *ideas* ("Reject"). In addition, the verbs *refuse* and *reject* are recommended to be investigated using corpus by University of Essex ("Corpus", 2005). It is interesting to study the

verbs *refuse* and *reject* because both verbs are challenging for English learners, especially beginners; both verbs are used in English competence tests frequently; and both verbs are recommended to be investigated by linguists.

A corpus is used as the data to discover the use of the verbs *refuse* and *reject* in the real life. A corpus which is the collection of written and spoken language that is stored in computers, can be used to present all the contexts in which a word occurs (Biber, *et al*., 2002). In the corpus, it will be seen the tokens of the verbs *refuse* and *reject*. From the tokens, the collocations of the verbs *refuse* and *reject* will be identified. The tokens show the context in which the verbs appear.

The source of the corpus needed will be obtained from *Corpus of Contemporary American English* (COCA). COCA consists of written and spoken language from 1990 to 2012 (Davies, 2009). It is chosen as the data because it contains American English. To comprehend the recent use of the verbs *refuse* and *reject*, the study will use tokens from 2011 to 2012 because the latest tokens in COCA come from those years. It can be seen the use of *refuse* and *reject* in some registers.

This study is useful for English learners and teachers. By studying the synonymous verbs *refuse* and *reject*, ELESP students of Sanata Dharma University will have better understanding of those verbs. The findings from the tokens of the verbs *refuse* and *reject* can deepen the knowledge of lexical meaning. According to Liu (2011), higher and lower learners" understanding of syntactic and lexical collocations of the verbs *refuse* and *reject* are the same. It means that learners in general do not have a good knowledge of the collocations of the verbs *refuse* and *reject* (Liu, 2011).

A corpus shows the collocations which are used to recognize the meaning of the verbs in certain contexts (Hunston, 2002). Thus, the students can put *refuse* and *reject* in the correct context when they use them in producing sentences. As teacher candidates, ELESP students must be aware and emphasize the collocation patterns of synonymous verbs *refuse* and *reject* (Liu, 2011). Teachers introduce a corpus to students as the examples of the use of the verbs *refuse* and *reject*. The understanding of synonyms omits incorrect ideas in teaching and learning English.

Moreover, the collocations can develop English fluency. ELESP students are demanded to be fluent in using English. Collocations help language learners to develop fluency (Shin & Nation, 2008). Pawley and Syder suggest that learners need a similar number for native-like fluency (as cited in Shin, 2006). Shin (2006) states that native-like collocations help learners to speak and write seem native- like. By learning collocations, ELESP students are able to remember the lexical patterns because of the frequent use by native speakers. It is effective to improve language fluency and native-like selection in using language (Shin & Nation,

2008). Besides, ELESP students who are prepared to be teachers can operate corpus software which supports teaching and learning English. For instance, by this study, they will be interested to use COCA to see the examples of English use. The corpus-based evidence gives the instances of the use of English as the second language for learning and teaching (Biber, *et al*., 2002). There are some terms that are mentioned in this study. The researcher gives the definition of the terms to avoid misunderstanding of the topic discussed.

Collocation

Krishnamurthy (2006) defines "*collocation* as the fact that certain lexical items tend to co-occur more frequently in natural language use than syntax and semantics alone would dictate" ("Collocations"). According to Matthew (2007), "*collocation* is a relation within a syntactic unit between individual lexical elements" (p.81). In this study, *collocation* means a word that often be used together and co-occur with the certain word which seems correct and acceptable to people.

Corpus

Corpus (plural *corpora* or *corpuses*) is a large principled collection of natural texts (Schmitt, 2002). Similarly, according to Kennedy (1998), corpus is a body of written text or transcribed speech which can serve as a basis for linguistic analysis and description. In this study, corpus refers to a collection of natural text to be the empirical data for semantics analysis.

COCA

COCA stands for *Corpus of Contemporary American English*. Based on Davies (n.d.), COCA is the largest freely-available corpus of English. It is the only balanced corpus of American English. COCA contains corpora from 1990 – 2012. To know the recent use of the verbs *refuse* and *reject*, the corpora used in this study are taken from 2011 to 2012.

Token

According to McEnery and Hardie (2012), "a token is any instance of particular wordform in a text" (p.50). Similarly, based on Tang (n.d.), token is "the individual forms (words) of a corpus." In this study, token is any instance of the words *refuse* and *reject* in COCA.

Literature Review
Word Classes
Verb

Verb is a word class which contains words referring to actions (Davies & Elder, 2006). According to Davies and Elder (2006), in English, verbs are used for tense marking. Consider these sentences: (1) John *eats* three apples; (2) Jean *walked* home. Those sentences have the endings, *-s* and *-ed* in the verbs *eat* and *walk*. The endings after the verbs are named *inflections* (Aarts, 1997). Inflections express grammatical properties. According to Aarts (1997), there are two forms of verb: *finite verb*, a verb which takes tense; and *nonfinite verb*, a verb which does not take tense. Based on Davies and Elder (2006), there are three types of verb: intransitive, transitive and ditransitive. Intransitive is a verb which only takes one argument. According to Carstairs-McCarthy (2002), intransitive verbs are verbs which lack such an object. The second type of verb is transitive. Transitive is a verb which takes two arguments (Davies & Elder, 2006).

Bloor and Bloor (2004) say that a verb has many forms. For example, the verb *take* has forms: *takes, took, am taking, are taking, is taking, was taking, were taking, has taken, has been taken, have been taken, had been taken, will take, may take*, and so on.

Noun

Aarts (1997) says that nouns are words that represent people, animals, things, or places. Nouns identify *Peter, bird, car, student, New York*, etc. The description given by nouns is called a *notional definition*, because it presents a characterization, in term of concept of meaning (Aarts, 1997). Based on Bloor and Bloor (2004), there are three subdivisions of noun: pronoun, proper noun, and common noun. There are three subclasses of pronouns: personal pronouns, possessive pronouns, and the so-called wh-pronouns.

There is also *Noun Phrase.* According to Azar and Hagen (2009), a noun phrase can be used as a subject or an object. Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad, & Finegan (1999) state that "a noun phrase consists of a noun as a head, either alone or accompanied by determiners (which specify the reference of the noun) and modifiers (which describe or classify the entity denoted by the head noun)" (p.122). The examples of noun phrase are *a house, his bristly short hair, the little girl next door.* Moreover, the head of a noun phrase can be followed by complements, which is *that*-clauses or infinitive clauses (Biber, *et al.*, 1999). The meaning of the noun is completed by complements.

Adjective

Based on Bloor and Bloor (2004), the first function of adjective is to modify nouns, for example, *a pretty boy*. The other function of adjective is to be a head of a group that is the complement of a copular verb (be, seem, become), for example: *the shop is big.* Aarts (1997) states there are some adjectives (adj) that can change (improve) nouns, for examples in: *the red shoes, a patient girl.* The adjectives give more description about the nouns. Adjectives can be formed by adding suffixes −*ful, -less, and* −*ive* and prefix −*un* in some words (nouns, verbs) (Aarts, 1997).

Adverb

Many adverbs are identified from the form which has been related to another form. According to Bloor and Bloor (2004), numerous adverbs are formed from adjectives by adding the morphological feature –*ly,* for examples, *bravely* (the adjective *brave* + –*ly*) and *suddenly* (the adjective *sudden* + –*ly*). Aarts (1997) adds that there are other morphological features of adverb endings: -*ward* (*afterward,*)*, -wise* (*clockwise), -ways* (*sideways*). Besides, there are many common words which are adverbs, such as *soon*, *away*, *tomorrow*, *next*. Based on Aarts (1997), there are seven adverb subclasses. The first one is adverb of manner which indicates how (e.g. *quickly*, *beautifully*, *slowly*). The second subclass is adverb of time. It indicates when (e.g. *now*, *tomorrow*, *then*). The third one is adverb of place which indicates where (e.g. *here*, *there*). The forth subclass is adverb of frequency (e.g. *seldom*, *often*, *always*). The fifth one is adverb of directional (e.g. *upwards*, *sideways*, *forwards*). The sixth subclass is adverb of degree (e.g. *extremely*, *more*). The last subclass is adverb of sentence (e.g. *however*, *perhaps*).

Preposition

Prepositions precede a noun phrase (Finegan, 2004), as in *at the ballroom, on Friday, under the sky*. Finegan (2004) adds that prepositions show a semantic relationship between other units.

Determiner

Determiners specify more exactly the meaning of the nouns they precede (Aarts, 1997). According to Finegan (2004), determiners have some subclasses. The first subclass is definite and indefinite articles (*the*, *a*, *an*). The second one is demonstrative (e.g. *this*, *those*), the third subclass is possessive (e.g. *my*, *your*, *his*). The forth one is interrogative (e.g. *which*, *what*, *whose*). The examples of the use of determiners: *the doll, an apple, those knives.* Determiners precede noun phrase such as *my long hair*, *which big box*, *these red apples*.

Conjunction

Aarts (1997) says that conjunctions have a linking function. Conjunctions connect words in a sentence and/ or sentences. There are two types of conjunctions. The first one is linking or coordinating conjunctions or coordinators, such as *and, but, or, for, so, then* (Bloor & Bloor, 2004). Co-ordinators join expressions which have the same category, for example, *look and feel*, *bread or cake*. The second conjunction is binding or subordinating conjunctions or subordinators, such as *that, whenever, while, because*. Subordinators link clauses to another, as in *She said that she would come*, *He felt regretful while he met her*. In this study, the verbs *refuse* and *reject* are taken to be examined.

Meaning Aspects

Semantics is the study of languages structure meaning in words and sentences (Finegan, 2004). Based on Leech (1981), there are seven types of meaning. The first type is conceptual/ denotative/ cognitive meaning. Leech (1981) says that the meaning is the main factor in linguistic communication. It can be seen to be integral to the essential functioning of language, in a way that other types of meaning are not. Lyons (1996) adds that denotative meaning/ referential is what the meaning refers to (or denotes), or stands for. The examples of it are *cat* means either the general class of cats or the basic property which they all share.

Referential meaning is stated as one of linguistic meanings besides social meaning and affective meaning (Finegan, 2004). Finegan (2004) says that "referential meaning of *Scott's dog* refers to particular domesticated canine belonging to Scott" (p.182). Finegan (2004) adds that "the particular animal can be said to be the referential meaning of the linguistic expression Scott"s dog" (p.182). The second type is connotative meaning. It is the communicative value that an expression has by virtue of what it *refers to*, over and above its purely conceptual content (Leech, 1981). The notion „reference" overlaps with conceptual meaning. The third one is social meaning. It deals with the situation in which an utterance occurs (Leech, 1981). Social meaning is that the language expresses about social circumstances of its use. The forth type is affective meaning. Based on Leech (1981), that meaning is often explicitly conveyed through the conceptual or connotative content of the words used. The fifth type is reflected meaning. It is the meaning which arises in cases of multiple conceptual meaning, when one sense of a word forms part of our response to another sense

(Leech, 1981). The sixth one is collocative meaning. Leech (1981) says that it consists of the associations a word acquires on account of the meanings of words which tend to occur in its environment. The seventh type is thematic meaning is a

communication when the speaker or writer organizes the message, in terms of ordering, focus, and emphasis (Leech, 1981).

In this study, the researcher is going to use the theory of denotative meaning and collocative meaning to answer the research questions. O‟Grady, Archibald, Aronoff, & Rees-Miller (2010) state that semantics approach attempts to equate the meaning of a word or a phrase with the entities to which it refers – its denotation or referents. Denotative meaning or referents explains the meanings and the definitions of the verbs *refuse* and *reject*. Moreover, collocative meaning helps in the analysis of the verbs when they collocate with other words.

The Etymologies of Refuse and Reject

Online Etymology Dictionary shares the definitions of the verbs *refuse* and *reject*. Both verbs come from 1200 – 1500 AD. Based on Old French, the word *refuse* is from the word *refuser* which means reject, disregard, avoid. The verb *refuse* also comes from Vulgar Latin, *refusare* which is formed from the past participle stem of Latin, *refundere*. *Refundere* itself means pour back, give back. According to Old French, *reject* is from the word *rejecter*. In Latin, *reject* comes from the word *reiectus* that means „throw away, cast away, vomit‟. From the origin words, *refuse* and *reject* indicate similar meanings, not to accept something.

The Definitions of Refuse and Reject

In this study, the definitions of the verbs *refuse* and *reject* are given by two dictionaries. The first dictionary is *Merriam-Webster Dictionary Online Version* and the second one is *Macquarie Dictionary* also online version. Each dictionary shares some definitions of each verb.

Based on *Merriam-Webster Dictionary Online Version*, the word *refuse* has two functions, as a noun (which is pronounced /ˈref.juːs/) and a verb *(*which is pronounced /rɪˈfjuːz/). The verb *refuse* has two categories of definition. It is as a transitive verb and an intransitive verb. The transitive verb of *refuse* carries four meanings. The first one is "to express oneself as unwilling accept, e.g. *refuse a gift, refuse a promotion*" ("Refuse"). The second definition is "to show or express unwillingness to do or comply with or deny, for example *refused to answer the question, they refused admittance to the game*" ("Refuse"). The third definition is "give up, renounce (obsolete), as in *deny thy father and refuse thy name* ‒ *Shakespeare*" ("Refuse"). The fourth definition is "to decline to jump or leap over (of a horse)" ("Refuse"). The intransitive verb *refuse* means "to withhold acceptance, compliance, or permission" ("Refuse").

Based on *Merriam-Webster Dictionary Online Version*, the word *reject* has two functions, as a noun (which is pronounced /ˈriː.dʒekt/) and a verb *(*which is pronounced /rɪˈdʒekt/). The dictionary gives seven definitions of the transitive verb *reject*. The first definition is "to refuse to accept, consider, submit, take for some purpose, or use, for example *rejected the suggestion, reject a manuscript*"

("Reject"). The second definition is "to refuse to hear, receive, or admit (rebuff, repel) as in *parents who reject their children*" ("Reject"). The third definition is "to refuse as lover or spouse" ("Reject"). The forth definition is "to cast off (obsolete)" ("Reject"). The fifth definition is "throw back, repulse" ("Reject").

Next, the sixth definition of *reject* is "to spew out ("Reject")." The seventh definition is "to subject to immunological rejection" ("Reject"). Besides, there is another

dictionary used to obtain the definitions of the verbs *refuse* and *reject*. According to *Macquarie Dictionary*, the verbs *refuse* and *reject* share seven definitions of each verb.

Macquire Dictionary is considered as the standard reference of Australian English (Macquire Dictionary, n.d.). It is first published in 1981 and has been online since 2003. *The Macquarie Dictionary and Thesaurus Online* gives annual updates of new words and references of thesauruses. It means that the dictionary is more excellent in giving definitions and references since it is always updated. This study employs the last edition of *Macquire Dictionary*, the Sixth Edition which published in October 2013. The features of the dictionary are gained to find the most update definitions of the verbs.

Synonymy

"Synonymy is the lexical relation of sameness of meanings either among lexical items or among sentences or proportions, although the latter is also called paraphrase" ("Synonymy"). Based on Lyons (1996), "synonymous are expressions with the same meaning" (p.60). Synonyms are words which have the same meanings, but actually synonyms are not identical in meaning. *Logical synonymy* can be substituted in some contexts without changing the truth conditions of its proportion ("Synonymy"). It is also called *sense synonymous* or just *synonyms*. According to Finegan (2004), "two words are said to be synonymous if they mean the same thing" (p.192). Finegan (2004) gives examples of synonyms, the terms are *movie, film, flick,* and *motion picture*. People can use the terms *movie, film,* and *flick* to define the term *motion picture*. The terms *film, flick*, and *motion picture* also can describe the term *movie*. Finegan (2004) states that we can say the term *A* is synonymous with the term *B* if every referent of the term A is a referent of the term B and vice versa. The terms are synonymous if we state that we are taking only linguistic meaning (Finegan, 2004).

Degrees of Synonymy

According to Cruse (2000), there are three degrees of synonymy: absolute synonymy, propositional synonymy, and near-synonymy. Absolute synonymy refers to a complete identity of meaning (Cruse, 2000). Two words are said absolute synonymy if they contain these three conditions: all their meanings are identical; they are synonymous in all contexts; they are semantically equivalent on all meanings, descriptive and non-descriptive (Lyon, 1996). Absolute synonymy is also called *full synonymy*. Full synonymy is logical synonyms in all senses ("Synonymy"). This type of synonyms is rare, usually it is found in words with a rather narrow range of senses. Cruse (2000) adds that "absolute synonyms can be defined as items which are equinormal in all contexts" (p.157). The examples of it are the species names, *gorse* and *furze*. Those words refer to a plant which grows yellow flowers. Secondly, there is propositional synonymy. It is defined as "if two lexical items are propositional synonyms, they can be substituted in any expression with truth-conditional properties without effect on those properties" (Cruse, 2000, p.158). The examples of propositional synonymy are the words *fiddle* and *violin*. Besides, there is *near-synonymy* or *partial synonymy* or *plesionymy*. Lyons (1996) says that "expressions that are more or less similar, but not identical in meaning is called near-synonymy" (p.60). Near synonyms can be substitutable in specific contexts, not in all contexts ("Synonymy"). The examples of nearsynonymy are the nouns *mist* and *fog*.

Thesaurus

To find synonyms of a word, people can look at thesauruses. "Thesaurus carry out three meanings which are (1) „special word list" or „lexicon", (2) „semantic dictionary" or „nomenclator", and (3) „terminological database" or „index"" ("Thesauruses"). Having looked at the definitions, it means that thesauruses help to explain and express ideas of words which have several definitions. *Oxford Thesaurus of English* writes that the verb *refuse* has multiple synonyms which are *decline, turn down, say no to, reject, spurn, scorn*, and etc. ("Refuse"). As it has been mentioned, *reject* is one of the synonyms of *refuse*. People can choose any form of words to express certain meanings. There must be a reason why they prefer use the certain word over the others. "People assume that the word they have chosen is more appropriate to the context than other ones that they do not choose" ("Synonymy"). Since the verbs *refuse* and *reject* have similar meanings, people may substitute the use of those verbs. After studying the verbs *refuse* and *reject*, the researcher will know how far those two verbs synonymous.

Corpus Linguistics

A corpus consists of collections of texts specifically for linguistic analysis stored structurally (Kennedy, 1998). A corpus can be used to discover problems or questions about all the aspects of linguistics. Schmitt (2002) says that corpora are collected from natural occurring sources rather than from surveys and questionnaires. According to McEnery and Wilson (2001), a corpus offers more up-to-date info about language. Corpora give more complete and exact definitions because there are many examples from daily life use. There are written and spoken corpora as sources for studies. Spoken corpora are composed by recording first and then transcribing speech. Based on Hunston (2002), "linguists have always used the word *corpus* to describe a collection of naturally occurring example of language, consisting of anythinvg from a few sentences to a set of written texts or tape recordings, which have been collected for linguistics study" (p.2). In the recent time, the collections of those texts are stored in computers and accessed electronically. Biber, *et al.* (2002) state that there are four characteristics of a corpus-based study of language: (1) it is empirical, analyzing the real patterns of language use in natural texts; (2) it employs a great number and principled collection of natural texts, or „corpus", as the basic data for analysis; (3) it makes wide use of computers for analysis, using automatic and interactive techniques; (4) it can be quantitative and qualitative analytical techniques.

A corpus which is acquired by computers really helps researchers to explore the use of language in real life and eases to sort and analyze words. Nowadays, a corpus-based study facilitates linguistics researchers to explore language use in actual life. Based on Schmitt (2002), a corpus has a main contribution to investigate patterns of the use of language, so it is empirical and reliable. By using a corpus-based study, researchers can find how language varies in different situations, for example in formal and informal conversations, or in spoken and written language.

Besides, researchers take a corpus as an important data for describing language use that shows how lexis, grammar, and semantics interact accurately (Davies & Elder, 2006). In addition, researchers are able to find out how knowledge of language actually works in a certain real-life context. Hunston (2002) states that a corpus can show frequencies, phraseologies, and collocations. It means that a corpus-based study allows

researchers to see what collocation patterns co-occur. Additionally, a corpus which shows collocations of words can indicate the relevant senses of words from word lists.

Moreover, a corpus-based study has several benefits to comprehend more about language. The evidences from corpora help researchers and learners to develop dictionaries, handbooks, and teaching materials (Biber, *et al.*, 2002). Corpora show the accuracy of the use of language for language learners of all levels. Corpus linguistics as the base theory is used to conduct this study. From a corpus, the researcher will see the occurrences of the verbs *refuse* and *reject*. Furthermore, the corpus shows the collocations of each verb, which will be examined in this study.

The Main Data Source: Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA)

Corpora which are stored in computers help researchers to sort data easier. Schmitt (2002) says that the feature of modern-day corpora is created accessible to researcher, for free of charge. The computer technology stores a large number of corpora from variety of sources (Biber, *et al.*, 2002). Hunston (2002) adds that computers maintain and process large amounts of information, the electronic corpora which are used to study aspects of language. Biber, *et al.* (2002) state that corpora are written in complete texts, so they will be not limited to sentencelength excerpts to be analyzed. There are corpora that are available online on *corpus.byu.edu*. That website, which consists of billions words, is created by Mark Davies, a Professor of Linguistics at Bringham Young University, USA. It consists of corpora from three languages, English, Spanish, and Portuguese.

There are seven English corpora: *Global Web-Based English* (GloWbE), *Corpus of Contemporary American English* (COCA), *Corpus of Historical American English* (COHA), *TIME Magazine Corpus*, *Corpus of American Soap Operas*, *British National Corpus* (BYU-BNC), and *Strathy Corpus* (Canada). The corpora are built to find out how native speakers actually speak and write, look at language variation and change, design authentic language teaching materials and resources, and find the frequency of words, phrases, and collocates (Davies, n.d.). Davies (n.d.) says that there are more than 100.000 people each month who use this site for teaching, learning, and personal interest.

The website also provides the publication of corpus study by researchers all around the world. In early 2008, COCA was released online (Davies, 2009). COCA is the first large and diverse corpus of American English. It has 450 million words from 1990 to 2012, balanced between spoken (20%), fictions (20%), popular magazines (20%), newspapers (20%), and academic journals (20%). Davies (2009) adds that the composition of the texts can compare data diachronically across the corpus. The changes in the language will be shown by looking at the equivalent of text compositions which consist of spoken and written from year to year. The spoken texts are almost entirely the transcription of unscripted conversation from television and radio programs (Davies, 2009). The spoken corpora are accurate although they are completely spontaneous.

Frequency

Hunston (2002) defines a frequency list as "a list of all the types in a corpus together with the number of occurrences of each type" (p.67). The list has some kinds of section which present frequency order, alphabetical order, and the first occurrence of the type in the corpus. By investigating the frequency of words, it will be known the most

common and uncommon words in English (Biber, *et al*., 2002). In the online corpus, including COCA, it gives an automatic list of words. COCA shows the number of occurrences frequency of certain words. Hunston (2002) says that "the words in a corpus can be arranged in order of their frequency in that corpus" (p.3). Biber, *et al*. (2002) explain that the frequency lists of all of the words in a corpus can be produced by COCA.

They add that each form of a word will appear in the list, for example the words *deal*, *deals*, *dealing*, and *dealt*. Researchers may discuss the frequency of all the words or just one word. "The term „lemma‟ is used to mean the base form of a word, disregarding grammatical changes such as tense and plurality" (Biber, *et al*., 2002, p.29). The frequency of each word is compared to another word through some sections or registers. COCA has the sections to limit the frequency findings such as spoken, fiction, magazine, newspapers, academic, and based on the year 1990 to 2012. Hunston (2002) says that the list of frequency of the words is useful for identifying possible differences between corpora. Biber, *et al*. (2002) also verify that "one use of frequency lists is to compare the frequency of a target word to other words" (p.29).

To determine the occurrences of a word which contains two lexical categories, such as *deal*, the researchers must look at the forms in the context, determine the grammatical category, and keep count (Biber, *et al*., 2002). It facilitates to study the corpora of each word in details.

The Role of Collocation

Collocation required a quantitative basis, giving actual numbers of cooccurrences in some texts ("Collocations"). Stubbs (2003) suggests that all lexical items have collocations. Leech, Cruickshank, and Ivanic (2001) state that "collocations are not part of grammar, but they make use of grammar, and part of what it means to use English naturally" (p.104).

Types of Collocation

Based on Hunston (2002), "collocation is tendency of words to be biased in the way they co-occur" (p.68). Hunston (2002) gives the example of collocation: *children toys.* The word *toys* collocates with the word *children* because those two words are frequently co-occur comparing to the other words, such as *women* or *men*. The collocation is said to be motivated since there is a rational explanation that the word *toys* belong to *children* rather than to *women* or *men.* Another example of collocation is *high mountain.* The word *high* collocates with the word *mountain*, not to the words *man* or *tree*, if it is compared. The word *high* commonly co-occurs with the word *mountain.* Lyons (1996) says about the *collocational range*, which means the set of contexts in which it can occur. The collocational range of an expression is completely determined by its meaning. Thus, synonyms must be essential having the same collocational range. Take for instance, the adjectives *large* and *big.*

There are some contexts that *large* cannot be substituted for *big*. It can be considered from these sentences: (1) *He is making a big mistake*; (2) *He is making a large mistake*. Besides, there is unmotivated collocation. Unmotivated collocation has no logical explanation for clarifying the form of collocation (Hunston, 2002). The examples of unmotivated collocation are *strong tea* and *powerful car.* Biber, *et al*. (2002) add that "in some cases, the observed patterns seem completely obvious once we see them, while in other cases they can be quite unexpected" (p.25). Nesselhauf (2005)

defines collocation as "the co-occurrence of words at a certain distance" (p.11). The frequent (or more frequent than could be expected if words combined randomly in a language) co-occurrences make the distance on the collocations (Nesselhauf, 2005).

Sinclair describes collocation as "the occurrence of two or more words within a short space of each other in the text" (as cited in Nesselhauf, 2005, p.12). He adds that the „short space" refers to a distance of around four words to the left and right of the target word explored. The target word is called *node* by Sinclair (as cited in Nesselhauf, 2005, p.12). The example for the node *refuse* is in this sentence, *Your mother says that you refuse all their invitations.* The words *your, mother, says, that, you, all, their, invitations* are counted to form collocations with the node *refuse*. Those words are called *collocates*.

As cited in Nesselhauf (2005), Sinclair terms *collocation* as *significant collocation*. It senses as "co-occurrence of words such that they co-occur more often than their representative frequencies and the length of text in which they appear would predict" (p.12). Take a look at the phrase *the wedding*, the words *the* and *wedding* would not be a significant collocation. The word *the* often occurs in every kind of text. The words *dog* and *barked* are more considered as a significant collocation. The word *barked* is likely to be found near the word *dog*. Phoocharoensil (2010) gives an example that the noun *pride* has a strong tendency to co-occur with the adjective *immense*, as in *immense pride*, rather than the adjective *colossal*, as in *colossal immense*. The adjectives *immense* and *colossal* are considered having a close meaning. In that context, *immense* is selected because *immense pride* sounds common for English native speakers rather than *colossal pride*.

The Benefits of Learning Collocations

There are two main benefits of learning collocations especially for language teachers and learners. Shin and Nation (2008) state that collocations facilitate learner"s language use to develop fluency and native-like selection. According to Kaci and Zimmermann (n.d.), native-like selection is "the ability of native speakers routinely to convey their meaning by an expression that is not only grammatical but also native-like" (p.1). Pawley and Syder suggest that L2 learners need a similar number for native-like fluency (as cited in Shin & Nation, 2008). Native-like fluency is "a speaker"s ability to produce fluent stretches of spontaneous connected discourse" (Kaci & Zimmermann, n.d., p.1). Pawley and Syder argue that "there are hundreds of thousands of „lexicalized sentence stems" that adult native speakers have at their disposal" (as cited in Shin & Nation, 2008, p.340). Thus, "the chunked expressions help language learners to reduce cognitive effort, to save time, and to have language available for immediate use" (Shin & Nation, 2008, p.340). Shin and Nation (2008) assume that learning collocations is very effective to develop learners" language fluency and native-like selection of language use. Collocations will ease the language learners to remember lexical patterns since frequent collocations have bigger chances of being used, especially by native speakers. Shin and Nation (2008) also assume that "the most frequent collocations will usually be the most useful" (p.340). In this study, the collocations of the verbs *refuse* and *reject* will be investigated. Those verbs which are synonymous may have different collocational range. By exploring the collocations of *refuse* and *reject*, it will be known the similar collocations which can determine the contexts of those synonyms.

Previous Corpus Studies

There are some corpus studies which help the researcher to understand and explore the study deeper. One of the studies has been conducted by Liu (2011). In his study, Liu (2011) uses COCA and BNC to investigate the collocations of *refuse* and *reject*. Liu (2001) gives a test to Taiwanese learners which questions the collocations of the verbs *refuse* and *reject*. The result of the test shows that lower and higher learners are still confused about the use of the verbs *refuse* and *reject*. In conclusion, the understanding of syntactic and lexical collocations of the verbs *refuse* and *reject* of learners in general is the same.

The second study is conducted by Kayaoğlu (2013). Kayaoğlu (2013) uses COCA to conduct his study. He examines the feasibility of using a corpus to help students differentiate between close synonyms which have similar meanings but cannot be substituted one for another (Kayaoğlu, 2013). He employs t-test analysis to find the results of the study. He lists *reject* as the close synonym of *refuse* besides *deny*, *decline*, and *rebuff*. Kayaoğlu (2013) gives a vocabularies test about close synonyms for English learners. His study shows that the use of a corpus for deciding on close synonyms proved to be very effective. It is because there is a statistically significant different result between the pre-test and the posttest.

In the researcher‟s batch, there are four other researchers who conduct corpus study. The first researcher is Samodra (2014). She examines the modal *shall* in two registers. The second researcher is Krismaheryanti (2014). She studies collocation patterns of the words *pupil* and *student* which convey their meanings. The third researcher is Duanaya (2014, in process), who investigates the syntactic patterns of the synonymous conjunctions, *since* and *because*. The last researcher is Riski (2014, in process), who studies the collocations of the verbs *suggest* and *advice*. Having same basic idea, the researcher shares the references and knowledge through doing the study.

Method
Research Method

The research methods of this study were quantitative research and qualitative research. Quantitative research would be employed to answer the first research problem. According to Biber, *et al*. (2002), quantitative research was important to compare synonymous words. This study would know the frequencies of synonymous verbs *refuse* and *reject* in a corpus. Thus, this study employed descriptive statistics to analyze the data. Xiao (n.d.) said that "frequencies are a type of descriptive statistics" (p.8). He added that "descriptive statistics were used to describe a dataset" (p.8). Based on Tebbs (2006), "statistics is the development and application of methods to the collection, analysis, and interpretation of observed information (data) from planned investigation" (p.1).

Besides, another research method of this study was qualitative research. Ary, Jacobs, and Sorensen (2010) stated that by using qualitative research, the researcher looks for the understanding of a phenomenon by emphasizing on the entire picture. It did not need to break the entire idea into some variables. According to Lichtman (2013), in qualitative research, the researcher played an 38 important role. The researcher collected and gathered the data and the information through his or her eyes and ears. The goal of qualitative research was a full and depth understanding of a picture (Ary, *et al*., 2010). Hunston (2002) said that corpus software would show the number of

frequency without doing calculation. The purpose of qualitative research was to "understand and interpret social interactions" (Lichtman, 2013, p.15).

Furthermore, the qualitative research would assist the researcher to dig the collocations of the verbs *refuse* and *reject* deeper which could occur in the similar contexts. The explanation of the verbs discussed was qualitative. This study used corpus study since this study would find out the frequencies and the collocations of the verbs *refuse* and *reject* from a corpus. Corpus study would facilitate the questions about the frequencies of the occurrences of the words (Hunston, 2002). Stubbs (2001) stated that corpus study assisted in studying language in which observational data from a corpus were used as the main evidence for the uses and the meaning of words and phrases. A corpus would show the occurrences of the verbs *refuse* and *reject*. Next, corpus study helped to explore the collocations of the synonymous verbs *refuse* and *reject*. According to Schmitt (2002), corpus study contributed to investigate patterns of the use of language. The researcher considered that corpus study could be the best method to answer the research problems of this study.

Research Setting

The study was conducted in Yogyakarta from February 2014 until July 2014. This study needed the tokens of the verbs *refuse* and *reject* from COCA as the data. The corpus is obtained from a website, *corpus.byu.edu/coca/*. Because the corpus stored in a computer, it meant that the researcher could conduct the study virtually. She needed a good internet network to look for the data on COCA. Thus, the researcher could conduct the study in any given time and place.

Data Source

The data source of this study were the tokens of the verbs *refuse* and *reject* from COCA. COCA had 450 million words from time period 1990 until 2012. "It is the only large and balanced corpus of American English" (Davies, n.d.). The data given from COCA showed the collocations of the verbs. To analyze the collocations deeper, the researcher chose 100 tokens for each verb. Those 100 tokens would represent the context in which the verb occurred. Therefore, to conduct this study, the role of COCA was really helpful since it was easy to use and access. Besides, according to Biber, *et al*. (2002), COCA gave the data which was reliable because of the excellent store in computers.

Instruments and Data Gathering Technique

The instruments of this study were the researcher and tokens of the verbs *refuse* and *reject*. The researcher was the instrument of this study because the researcher who was going to conduct the study. The second instrument for conducting this study was the tokens of the verbs *refuse* and *reject* from COCA. The researcher would see the occurrences of the verbs *refuse* and *reject* in different registers, which could indicate the meaning and the context they were used.

Data Analysis Technique

In qualitative research, the first stage in analyzing data was organizing to ease the data retrieved (Ary, *et al.*, 2010). The researcher selected *purposive samples*, which was sufficient to provide minimum insight and understanding of what the researcher was

studying (Ary, *et al*., 2010). Ary, *et al*.(2010) said that purposive samples had to be relevant to the topic of the study. To do the sampling, the researcher used her experience and knowledge, specially which was related to this study. Thus, the tokens used had to represent all meanings of the verbs *refuse* and *reject*. Moreover, the collocations of the verbs would present the meanings and contexts they took place. The analysis would be conducted based on the definitions on the dictionaries and the related references mentioned in Chapter II.

Research Procedure

There were six steps to conduct this study. Ary, *et al*. (2010) gave the steps to conduct qualitative study. The first step was specifying the phenomenon to be investigated. The second step was selecting the source from which the observations were to be made. The researcher chose COCA as the source of the data in this study. Next, the researcher would copy the tables of the tokens because the tokens could not be downloaded. After doing it, the third step was classifying the data (Ary, *et al*., 2010). The data were classified into two: the data of the tokens of the verb *refuse* and the data of the tokens of the verb *reject*. Then, it was selected 100 tokens for each verb to be digged more in the next step. The researcher highlighted the occurrences of the synonymous verbs and their collcoations in every token. After that, the forth step was analyzing the data (Ary, *et al*., 2010). Then, the fifth step was drawing conclusions (Ary, *et al*., 2010).

Findings and Discussion
The Frequencies of the Verbs Refuse and Reject

To conduct this study, the data needed were taken from COCA. The tokens of the verbs *refuse* and *reject* were from 2011 to 2012. It would be a discussion about the comparison of the frequencies of the verbs *refuse* and *reject*. It would be seen which one of the verbs that was used the most. The words *refuse* and *reject* in COCA were not classified into the word classes. Thus, in the lists of each word, *refuse* and *reject* could occur as a noun and as a verb. This was the table of the occurrences frequencies of *refuse* and *reject* in COCA 2011 – 2012.

Table 4.1 The Frequencies of *Refuse* and *Reject* in COCA 2011 – 2012

Word	Frequency		Total
	2011	2012	
refuse	288	146	434
reject	217	93	310

Table 4.1 above showed that *refuse* had more number of occurrences than *reject* from 2011 to 2012. *Refuse* occurred 288 times in 2011 and 146 times in 2012. In the total, *refuse* occurred 434 times. *Reject* appeared 217 times in 2011 and 93 times in 2012. The total occurrences of *reject* were 310. In result, *refuse* had a higher number of the frequency rather than *reject*. It indicated that *refuse* was commonly used more than *reject*.

The Frequency of the Verb Refuse

The occurrences of *refuse* in COCA from 2011 to 2012 were not only as a verb. There were 16 tokens from COCA 2011 which showed *refuse* as a noun which meant "something (such as paper or food waste) that has been thrown away" ("Refuse"). Take for instance in the tokens below.

(3) events, today 119 souls have come to watch the Dotsons sell off the abandoned <u>refuse</u> of shattered lives. # " Here are the rules, folks, " says (COCA: USA Today)

(4) pausing briefly to collect $50 from a resident planning to take 20 loads of <u>refuse</u> to the town dump. " I'm not supposed to have to leave my (COCA: NY Times)

(5) and go right back into the nest. Finally, midden workers toil over the <u>refuse</u> pile and over the pebbles that the ants bring back to cover the mound. (COCA: Natural Hist)

This case also happened in the tokens of *refuse* in COCA 2012. After examining the tokens, it was found that there were 11 tokens which used *refuse* as a noun. The tokens below were the examples which indicated the use of the noun *refuse*.

(6) has command. They came in at night unseen, buried themselves amid wreckage and <u>refuse</u>, two rifles, two cones of fire, and a long wait for a (COCA: Alpha)

(7) vampire's remains just lying there, trickling into the gutter with all the other <u>refuse</u> of the city. On the other hand, I couldn't do anything to (COCA: Wicked City Zephyr)

(8) debris, and dirt, so, in this overflow of passions, all the <u>refuse</u> of men's souls was washed up and brought to the surface; this added (COCA: Iowa Rev)

As explained above, in year 2012, *refuse* as a verb was used only 135 times after it was reduced from *refuse* as a noun in 11 tokens. Consequently, to find out how many the verb *refuse*, the frequency of *refuse* in COCA 2011 to 2012 was reduced by the tokens of the noun *refuse*. The noun *refuse* occurred 27 times in two years. As a result, in COCA 2011 to 2012, the verb *refuse* occurred 407 times.

The Frequency of the Verb Reject

The occurrences of *reject* in COCA from 2011 to 2012 were not only as a verb. As well as *refuse* occurrences, the word *reject* also had a role as a noun. There were six tokens of the noun *reject* in COCA 2011. Three tokens below were the examples which indicated that *reject* took a part as a noun which meant "something that is not good enough for some purpose/ something that cannot be used or accepted" ("Reject").

(13) with disabilities recognized to have APE needs must receive APE services (i.e., zero <u>reject</u> and zero fail, Sherrill, 1998; USDE, 1996). Thus, (COCA: Teaching Exceptional)

(14) in an alpha level of.936; thus demonstrating homogeneity of variance by failing the <u>reject</u> the null hypothesis and allowing us to proceed with analysis using one-way ANOVA. # (COCA: Education)

(15) in an alpha level of.360; thus demonstrating homogeneity of variance by failing the <u>reject</u> the null hypothesis and allowing us to proceed with analysis using one-way ANOVA. # (COCA: Education)

Moreover, there were other two tokens of the noun *reject.* The definition of the noun *reject* was "a person who is not accepted or liked by other people" ("Reject"). The tokens below presented that intention.

(16) up to new people. FAUX BREAK-DANCE What it looks like: He's a <u>reject</u> from America's Best Dance Crew. What it means: Yes, he's (COCA: Cosmopolitan)

(17) " Bubba " Ball. From the sidelines, Gingrich lashes out like the <u>reject</u> who can't stand the letter-jacket handsome. " What we need is a president (COCA: Newsweek)

The noun *reject* also occurred in COCA 2012. By examining the tokens, there were five examples which used *reject* as a noun. These were three tokens of the noun *reject* which had a sense that "something that is not good enough for some purpose" ("Reject").

(18) continues to sport his snaggle-toothed smile -- a collection of bright white Chiclets from the <u>reject</u> bin, all of them chipped and unmatched, widely set. " PAGE 80 (COCA: Esquire) "

(19) of the Individuals With Disabilities Education Act (IDEA; 2006): zero <u>reject</u>, nondiscriminatory evaluation, individualized and appropriate education, least restrictive environment, procedural due (COCA: Teaching Exceptional)

(20) in their neighborhood schools (Smith, 2000). The IDEA principle of zero <u>reject</u> applies in this case: special education services must be available wherever there are students (COCA: Teaching Exceptional)

The discussion showed that the word *reject* could be a verb and a noun. By investigating the role of the word *reject*, the verb *reject* occurred 299 times. That number was the result after reducing the frequency of *reject* in COCA 2011 to 2012 (310) from the frequency of the noun *reject* (11).

After examining the occurrences of *refuse* and *reject* deeper, it was found that not all those words in COCA 2012 to 2011 referred to a verb. By looking at each token, the words *refuse* and *reject* were also used as a noun. In this study, one of the aims was to find out the occurrence frequency of each word as a verb. The table below presented the occurrences frequencies of the verbs *refuse* and *reject*.

Table 4.2 The Frequencies of the Verbs *Refuse* and *Reject* in COCA 2011 – 2012

Verb	Frequency		Total	Percentage
	2011	2012		
refuse	271	135	406	57.59%
reject	211	88	299	42.41%
		Total	705	100%

From Table 4.2, it was shown that the verb *refuse* had a higher number than *reject*. In total, the verb *refuse* occurred 406 times and the verb *reject* occurred 299 times. In calculation, the verb *refuse* had 107 more tokens than the verb *reject*. The occurrence percentage of the verb *refuse* was 57.59% and the verb *reject* was 42.41%. The ratio of those two verbs occurrences was 15.18%. The number of ratio percentage given was not really considerable since it was not 50% or nearly 50%, which was a half of 100%. This finding was compared to BNC. BNC was a well-known corpus of British English. The tables below showed the frequencies of *refuse* and *reject* in BNC.

Table 4.3 The Frequencies of *Refuse* and *Reject* in BNC

Verb	Frequency	Percentage
refuse	106	62.35%
reject	64	37.65%
Total	170	5100%

Table 4.4 The Frequencies of the Lemmas *Refuse* and *Reject* in BNC

Verb	Frequency	Percentage
refuse	22	59.45%
reject	15	40.54%
Total	37	100%

Based on Table 4.3, *refuse* and *reject* had different occurrences frequency. Based on Leech, Rayson, & Wilson (2001), the verb *refuse* which was in four forms (lemma, past participle, present participle, continuous) occurred 106 times (62.35%). Compared to the verb *reject*, it (in the same forms like *refuse*) occurred 64 times (37.65%) (Leech, *et al*., 2001). *Refuse* had more 42 occurrences rather than *reject*. Table 4.4 presented the frequencies of the lemmas *refuse* and *reject*. According to Table 4.4, the lemma *refuse* occurred 22 times and the lemma *reject* occurred 15 times (Leech, *et al*., 2001). The percentage of the lemma *refuse* was 59.45% and the lemma *reject* was 40.54%. It meant that *refuse* was used more than *reject* although the ratio was not really significant (18.91%). The result in BNC showed that the verb *refuse* was used more than the verb *reject*. The findings showed that the verb *refuse* was commonly used rather than the verb *reject* to express denial. There were some dictionaries which did not list *reject*. *Longman Dictionary of Common Errors* did not have the verb *reject* in the list. The explanation of the verb *reject* was in the verb *refuse* section. In that dictionary, the use of *reject* was compared to *refuse*. In *Dictionary of Word Origins*, *reject* was not found in the list of words. In addition, there was an explanation of *refuse*. In *Google*, the occurrences frequency of *refuse* was higher than *reject*, which the words *refuse* and *reject* could be a verb and a noun. The word *refuse* occurred about 170.000.000 times in 0.19 second, while the word

reject occurred about 93.200.000 times in 0.20 second. As a result, the percentage of the word *refuse* in *Google* was 64.59% and the percentage of the word *reject* was 35.41%. The results showed that the word *refuse* (as a verb and a noun) had a higher occurrence than the word *reject* (as a verb and a noun) From the discussion, it could be concluded that the verb *refuse* had a higher frequency than *reject*. As stated by Biber, *et al.* (2002), it would be known the most common words by investigating the frequency of words. The verb *refuse* was commonly used to express denial rather than the verb *reject*.

The Collocations of the Verbs Refuse and Reject

The tokens in COCA gave the clear use of the verbs *refuse* and *reject* in their own utterances. There were 100 tokens from each verb to be investigated. Each verb had some meanings that would be explained one by one according to the certain meaning. As *refuse* and *reject* were transitive and intransitive verbs, the study of collocation was adjusted to each kind of verb. The transitive verbs focused on the right collocations. Biber, *et al.* (2002) wrote that the researchers could investigate the right collocation of a certain word. They added that to find some contexts of the word meaning, it could be looked at the right collocations only.

It had explained about the definitions of the transitive verbs *refuse* and *reject* in Chapter II. *Refuse* and *reject* were followed by words which intended to express something that was being refused or rejected. To give a clear description, here were the tokens of the transitive forms of *refuse* and *reject*.

(18) There were ladies who would travel miles in order to have a handsome young werewolf <u>refuse</u> to sell them a hat. # He looked up to see Madame Lefoux. (COCA: Timeless)

(19) too dangerous for vampires and humans alike. Which explained why Aileen thought I would <u>refuse</u> to set foot in any establishment that served the brew. # But the truth (COCA: Wicked City Zephyr)

(20) a dry lab? Dr-PATEL: No, not at all. We reject -- we <u>reject</u> products as well. HANSEN: (Voiceover) In this email he blamed us for misleading him (COCA: NBC_Dateline)

Based on the examples, there were two different forms of the collocations. As it was seen, the left collocations of each example were subjects (*a handsome young werewolf, I, we*) and could be followed by a modal (*would*). The right collocation could be in the form of *to infinitive* (*to reject*) and another word such as a noun (*products*). The examples showed that *refuse* and *reject* wanted to make clear the things which were not accepted by the subjects. Besides, the right collocations gave the context meaning of each verb used.

The verbs *refuse* and *reject* had similar and different collocations based on the sentences they occurred. The collocations could show the certain meanings of the verbs. Each verb had several specific meanings which made the differences in the use of them. A corpus could show the examples of the use of words in some contexts they occurred (Biber, *et al.*, 2002). From the contexts, it could be identified the different meaning associated with a word (Biber, *et al.*, 2002). Thus, by investigating the tokens of *refuse* and *reject*, it would be known the context where *refuse* and *reject* occurred.

After exploring the occurrences of the verbs *refuse* and *reject* in COCA 2011 – 2012, it was found that there were numerous collocations of each verb. There were left collocations and right collocations which could describe the meanings of the verbs. Furthermore, it would be seen the similar collocations of the verbs *refuse* and *reject*.

Refuse
1. Refuse as a Transitive Verb
As a transitive verb, *refuse* collocated with other words which explained the meaning of its occurrences. For the transitive verb *refuse*, the study only focused on the right collocation. It was because the right word clarified the things which were being denied. There were 75 tokens which contained *refuse* as a transitive verb. This table below showed the collocations of *refuse* as a transitive verb.

Table 4.5 The Collocations of Transitive Verb *Refuse*

No	Type of Collocation	Total
1	noun	31
2	to infinitive	44
	Total	75

Table 4.5 showed that there were two types of right collocation which occurred after a transitive verb *refuse*. The first type of collocation was a noun, which had 31 occurrences after *refuse*. There were various kinds of noun which collocated with *refuse* such as *challenge, proposals, invitations, help, treatment, procedures, fare,* and *insurance*. Those collocations were found in some registers. As it was known, COCA made tokens from several kinds of sources such as from spoken, magazines, newspapers, and fictions (Davies, 2009). From Table 4.5, the right collocation of *refuse* could be in the form of *to infinitive*. As stated by Azar and Hagen (2009), the verb *refuse* was one of common verbs which were followed by infinitives. The occurrences of that form were in 44 tokens. The infinitives which followed *refuse to* were various, e.g. *to excuse, to meet, to share, to give, to commit, to trade, to play*.

The transitive verb *refuse* had several meanings according to *Merriam- Webster Dictionary* and *Macquarie Dictionary*. After examining the tokens, the researcher found that the definitions given by the dictionaries were used in the real life by the people. However, not all the definitions gave many examples presented in the corpus. For the definition "to renounce (obsolete)" ("Refuse"), the researcher found one token only. Next, there was no token which shared the meaning "decline to leap over a fence (horse)" ("Refuse"). To answer the research problems, the explanation given was according to the meanings of the verb occurrences in the tokens. By investigating the tokens, the transitive verb *refuse* occurred in four meanings. The study investigated those four meanings which could indicate the context of *refuse*.

a. The *First Meaning of Refuse*

The first definition of *refuse* was "to decline to accept something offered" ("Refuse"). From COCA, the researcher found the examples of that meaning. Based on that meaning, it was found that *refuse* collocated with other words which were shown in the some contexts. The researcher had picked 25 tokens of 407 which presented that meaning. All of the right collocations for this meaning were *nouns*, which presented things offered that was denied. There were a lot of offered things which were refused. Having looked at the right collocations, the verb *refuse* was used in many contexts.

Here, the researcher would explain some of the collocations. Firstly, it was found that there were three occurrences of the noun *treatment* as the right collocations of *refuse*. The occurrences of *treatment* were on the tokens below.

> (21) that may not be the best practices, or even quackery. The option to <u>refuse</u> a given <u>treatment</u> is still offered. In my 37 years in medical practice I (COCA: Christ Century)
> (22) to court. Even though the court decided that the parents had the right to <u>refuse</u> <u>treatment</u>, the hospital refused to remove the ventilator. Instead, they slowly weaned (COCA: Social Work)
> (23) it, the U.S. Supreme Court held that a competent person has the right to <u>refuse</u> medical <u>treatment</u> even if the lack of treatment will lead to their death (Colby (COCA: Social Work).

The use of *refuse* in the examples above showed a denial to offered *treatment*. According to those three examples, people had a right to decide whether they would accept or refuse the treatment. The collocation of *refuse + treatment* related to medical field. Secondly, the noun *help* appeared twice in the tokens of *refuse*. The tokens were in magazine and academic registers. Here were the tokens which carried *help*.

> (24) Shopping Tips # ln-store # Ask to unpack and pitch the tent yourself (politely <u>refuse help</u> from sales clerks). Is it quick to lay out and erect? (COCA: Backpacker)
> (25) 66521244 ADULTS # ROUGH SLEEPING # A group of women who sleep rough in London <u>refuse help</u>, seeing homelessness as their choice. They do not take drugs or abuse (COCA: Community Care).

The tokens above presented the collocations of *refuse help*. The verb *refuse* was used to decline *help* which was offered by other people. *Help*, which was a good act, could be refused by the people who seemed to need it.

Next, *refuse* occurred with the noun *proposals* as the right collocation. The occurrence of it was in fiction register. This token below had its occurrence.

> (26) lining up the Eligibles is beyond me. " # " Sheer determination. You <u>refuse</u> the <u>proposals</u> one by one, and honestly, Evie, Papa isn't as (COCA: Lady Maggies Secret)

Based on the example, Evie did not want to have the proposals which were offered to her. There was more than one proposal which were declined by her. In that context, *proposal* was being a wonderful thing which was offered by men who asked a woman to marry.

To stretch the use of *refuse* that carried the meaning discussed in this section, next, *refuse* collocated with the noun *money*. The token of it was in fiction register. Here was one of the tokens in which *money* occurred.

> (27) favorite restaurant, an Italian place in Santa Monica where the ardent and merry owners <u>refuse</u> to take his <u>money</u> and ask only permission to take his photo, to have (COCA: Southern Rev)

From that example above, a man would like to give money to the ardent and merry owners. They did not want to accept the money given by him. *Money*, which was considered as a valuable thing, was denied although it might be in a big number. Those collocations showed that there were things offered which were declined. From the collocations, it was clear that anything could be denied. *Refuse* was used to "say no when someone wants you to accept something" ("Refuse"). The verb *refuse* was used in the daily life and in many contexts.

b. The Second Meaning of Refuse

The second meaning of *refuse* was "to decline to give/ deny a request demand, etc." ("Refuse"). That meaning referred to "not allow someone to have something ("Refuse")" which sensed as a "request" or "demand." By investigating, that meaning was found in some tokens. The researcher had picked 25 tokens to understand the use of *refuse* in this meaning deeper. The right collocations of *refuse* were mostly *to infinitive* forms which were 19, and the others were nouns. From 25 tokens, there were 7 *to let* forms, 4 *to give* forms, and 4 *to allow* forms. The other collocations were *to excuse, to meet, to share*, and *to have vaccinated. To infinitive* form was followed by a noun which described something that was declined or a verb which expressed "something could not to do." The tokens below presented *to infinitive* forms that indicated "deny a request or demand" ("Refuse").

> (28) shape. # As Denver Restaurant Week gets underway, we found five chefs who <u>refuse to let the demands</u> of their jobs interfere # with their physical and mental fitness (COCA: Denver)
> (29), for example, they publicly exaggerate the resulting civilian deaths. Meanwhile, they <u>refuse to give</u> the United States <u>permission</u> to conduct commando raids in Pakistan, swearing that (COCA: Foreign Affairs)
> (30) just liberals who oppose spending cuts. Conservative members of Congress from farm states <u>refuse to allow</u> major cuts in farm subsidies, an antiquated program born back in the (COCA: USA Today)

The first and the second tokens ((28) and (29)) described that someone declined *to let* and *to give* somethings which were considered as a "request" and a "demand." The following words of those two tokens were *demands* (as in (28)) and *permission* (as in (29)), which were nouns. It clearly described that the tokens presented the use

of *refuse*, "to deny request and demand." The following words of the collocations clearly referred to the meaning discussed. The next example showed that *refuse to allow* was followed by a verb which explained the thing which was demanded by the people. Other tokens obviously showed that the words *request* and *demand* were the collocations of *refuse*. The tokens below showed that intention.

(31) mermaid this year. " # I almost laugh, knowing that Dad would never <u>refuse</u> Sam's <u>request</u>. # But Tm too upset to laugh. # Sam goes (COCA: Storyworks)

(32) a local farmer to supply eggs for thebakery, he'd been unable to refuse Mrs. Becroft's <u>request</u>. "Theyneed our help, " he'd told (COCA: Storyworks)

(33) are now trained upon your remaining ships. You are hardly in a position to <u>refuse</u> our <u>demands</u>. Relations between the Hegemony and your Syndicate are of no concern to (COCA: Analog)

The examples showed the meaning of *refuse* as "refuse to give something that someone needs or have asked for" ("Refuse"). The words *request* (as in (31)), *request* (as in (32)), and *demands* (as in (33)), which followed *refuse*, clearly showed the meaning discussed. The collocations of this meaning were directly the words *demand* and *request*. Thus, it strengthened the explanation of the second meaning of *refuse*.

c. The Third Meaning of Refuse

The third meaning of *refuse* was "will not to do something" ("Refuse"). There were 24 tokens of this meaning which had been investigated. The tokens showed that *refuse* collocated with other words to support the meaning. The right collocations of *refuse* were in the form of *to infinitive*. The collocations of 24 tokens were various. Every token had different collocations such as *to metamorphose*, *to remember, to contemplate, to sit down, to pray, to trade*, and *to play*. The verb *refuse* could collocate with other verbs (in the form of *to infinitive*) to convey a determination not to do something. The tokens below presented *refuse* which were used in the different registers.

(34) Proving he was more than just a highly paid mercenary, Curtin would not only <u>refuse to commit</u> what amounted to perjury, but he also offered in each case to (COCA: Kill Switch)

(35) the most robust surge in filmmaking since the 1960s. France, Italy and Germany <u>refuse to be ignored</u>. # And then there is Greece. Your hazy recollections of (COCA: NY Times)

(36) 's sunny but in this heart of mine the world is gloomy, the sun <u>refuse to shine</u>. I've done the best that I could do all for you (COCA: NPR_Fresh Air)

Those tokens appeared in the different registers. The first token (34) occurred in a fiction book, the second one (35) appeared in news, and the last one was in spoken. The subject who did the refusal could be various in those tokens (*Curtin*, *France, Italy and Germany*, *the sun*). Those tokens used *refuse* and then were followed by a verb which described an act which was denied to do.

d. The Forth Meaning of Refuse

The forth definition of *refuse* was "to renounce" ("Refuse") which was used to say formally or publicly. From 407 tokens, the researcher only found one token which referred to this meaning. The token below showed that meaning.

> (38) national borders. " Nothing will stop us, " Hlne promises. " We <u>refuse to have</u> Louis Renault <u>remembered</u> as a collaborator for eternity. It's our duty (COCA: Town Country)

The verb *refuse* collocated with *to have*, and was followed by *remembered*. The context of that example was announcing publicly. As *Macquarie Dictionary* said about this meaning, the context of *refuse* here was used on the past time, which was not used anymore at the recent time. That token occurred in magazine register entitled „*Town Country*".As it was seen, *refuse* which referred to the meaning discussed was still used in the year 2012.

2. As an Intransitive Verb

Besides, based on the definition in the dictionaries which had been mentioned in Chapter II, *refuse* was also an intransitive verb. Here, the study needed to investigate the left collocations since intransitive verbs lacked objects (Carstairs-McCarthy, 2002). By looking at the left collocations, it would be obtained the meaning of the verb *refuse*. The last meaning of *refuse* which was discussed in this study was "to decline acceptance, consent, or compliance" ("Refuse"). It implied that there was no right collocation of *refuse* which indicated its" context.

The researcher had examined the tokens of this intransitive verb. Unfortunately, not all tokens could show the objects which were being refused. From 25 tokens, there were 18 tokens which presented the objects or actions refused. Mostly, the left collocations of these 18 tokens were the word *offer*, which occurred in 7 tokens. The other collocations were the words *option, wine, weapons, date, abortion, deals,* and *cuts*. Those words signified to something offered and agreement.   There were *to infinitive* forms as the left collocations which were *to press* and *to cut*. Those two collocations indicated a determination not to do something. Seven other tokens did not show the certain object or action. The tokens below showed the intransitive verb *refuse* which presented something or action refused.

> (39) If it is still technically optional, it's an <u>option</u> you can't <u>refuse</u>. # In a recent debate, moderator John King invoked Romney's father George (COCA: Town Country)
>
> (40) federal funding is " coercive " by luring states into an <u>offer</u> they can't <u>refuse</u>. They say it also will pull others into Medicaid who already qualify but have (COCA: USA Today)
>
> (41) against her dark skirt like a starry sky, there was simply no way to <u>refuse</u>. # It had worked once. It had to work again. # " (COCA: Paradise Dogs)

The examples above proved that *refuse* was an intransitive verb. *Refuse* had no object and ended with a full stop. The first and second tokens ((39) and (40)) showed that the left collocations of *refuse* could indicate the meanings, which were refusing

an option (as in (39)) and refusing an offer (as in (40)). However, in the third token (41), it could not certainly indicate the object or the action which was refused.

From the finding, *refuse* was used in many contexts and fields. The collocations of *refuse* were various. Additionally, *refuse* can be followed by *to infinitive* to indicate the meaning. It might be the reason that *refuse* was common used rather than other synonyms which referred to decline to do something.

Moreover, excluding 100 tokens which had been discussed above, *refuse* seemed to be used to convey another meaning besides its own definitions. The dictionaries listed that meaning as the definition of *reject*, which was "to refuse as lover or spouse, not love" ("Reject"). In this discussion, there were two tokens of *refuse* which carried that meaning. The tokens of *refuse* below showed that intention.

(42) asked the Cutters. Sam had never asked her for anything. How could she <u>refuse him</u> this? Pros: working on an engine that really needed her. She (COCA: Undertow)

(43) moon about Tom's return. He sent this e-mail, and I couldn't <u>refuse him</u>, even though I'm the shyest person on earth. I trust Tom (COCA: Harpers Bazaar)

The collocations of *refuse* from those tokens above were *him*. Those tokens ((42) and (43)) occurred in fiction and magazine registers. In this context meaning, the definition of *reject* was used by *refuse* (as in *refuse him*) might be because *refuse* and *reject* were near-synonymy words. As a result, people used *refuse* to utter that someone did not accept someone else"s love, which should be use *reject* to say that.

Reject

The verb *reject* shared several specific meanings according to the dictionaries mentioned in Chapter II. COCA had the occurrences of *reject* in the specific meanings. There were 100 tokens of the verb *reject* which would be discussed deeper in this section. As well as *refuse* tokens, the tokens of *reject* were taken by considering the intention of the utterances.

Since *reject* was a transitive verb, the analysis would be on the right collocations only. The right collocations would explain the context meanings of *reject*. Table 4.6 below presented the right collocations of *reject*.

Table 4.6 The Right Collocations of the Verb *Reject*

No	Type of Collocation	Total
1	noun	84
2	pronoun	16
	TOTAL	100

After exploring 100 tokens, the verb *reject* collocated with two word classes: noun and pronoun. The collocations were 84 nouns and 16 pronouns. Those nouns and pronouns were various. Actually, those 84 nouns also contained the noun phrases. When investigating the noun phrases, the researcher listed them into noun by looking at their heads. The complements of the head were completed the meaning of the noun (Biber, *et al.*, 2002). Thus, only the heads of the noun phrases which were considered in the collocation analysis.

There were 7 definitions appeared among 100 tokens. However, 5 definitions only occurred in 1 – 10 tokens. Two definitions occurred in a lot of tokens. The explanation of the collocations would be based on the definitions.

1.   The First Meaning of Reject

To start the discussion, the first meaning of *reject* was "to refuse to have, take, recognize, etc." ("Reject"). Carrying this meaning, *reject* had collocations which occurred in some certain contexts. In COCA, there were many *reject* occurrences in this meaning. By investigating the tokens of *reject*, there were 50 tokens which contained the meaning discussed. The collocations of *reject* were the nouns, such as *idea, bill, tax, money, proposal, treatment, argument, teaching, beliefs, agreement* and *offer*. From 50 tokens, there were some nouns which appeared more than 2 times, which were *agreement* (3 times), *bill* (4 times), *tax* and *taxes* (the plural form of *tax*) (4 times), and *idea* and *ideas* (the plural form of *idea*) (12 times). The occurrences of *idea* and *ideas* were the highest among other collocations. Here were the examples of the *idea*"s and *ideas*" occurrences which were in the different registers: the first token (44) was in news, the second token was in fiction, and the third token (46) was in academic.

(44) but the President sat on our set, talking to you, saying I categorically <u>reject</u> the <u>idea</u> that this is a tax. I think you"ll appear on the (COCA: ABC_This Week)

(45) it themselves. # Or had they? Maybe they'd fabricated some reason to <u>reject</u> the <u>idea</u>. Half of my joy balloons popped at that thought, but I (COCA: Analog)

(46) treatment of enemy combatants captured in unconventional conflicts, both wings of the Tea Party <u>reject</u> liberal internationalist <u>ideas</u> and will continue to do so. The U.S. Senate, in (COCA: Foreign Affairs)

According to the examples, i*dea* and *ideas* were being something which was not considered by the subjects. Basically, *reject* was used to say that you did not support an idea ("Reject"). Therefore, it was reasonable if the occurrences of *idea*/ *ideas* were high.

Next, this study would like to discuss *money* as a collocation of *reject*. The noun *money* occurred twice in the tokens. The appearances of *money* were in the tokens below.

(47) of which $10,000 came from his own pocket. As part of his pledge to <u>reject</u> special-interest <u>money</u>, Roemer has said he will not take PAC donations and will limit (COCA: CS Monitor)

(48) we care? COKIE-ROBERTS-1-A# (Off-camera) Well, I should just say that they did then <u>reject</u> that <u>money</u> and sent internal e-mails basically saying this is totally unacceptable. We have (COCA: ABC_This Week)

The examples occurred in the different registers. The first example occurred in news and the second one was in spoken. The noun *money* was also the   right

collocation of *refuse* in fiction register. The collocation of *reject/ refuse + money* could be in the different registers but in the similar context.

In this meaning, the verb *reject* also collocated with the noun *treatment*. The occurrence of that collocation was only one. The token below presented its occurrence.

(49) options available? # Patient preferences may conflict with the prevailing evidence or they may reject a treatment because they do not understand the risks or benefits correctly. Some of (COCA: Practice Nurse)

The example above occurred in academic register about medical matter. *Treatment* was being the thing that was refused to take by the patients. This noun also appeared as the right collocation of *refuse*. Both *refuse* and *reject* collocated with *treatment* in the medical environment. Thus, the context meaning of the use of those both verbs were similar. Another collocation of *reject* was the noun *proposal*. *Proposal* occurred twice in the tokens. Here were the tokens which contained *proposal*.

(50) a panel appointed by the governor and lawmakers, also will have the power to reject or accept the proposal. # Gov. Jerry Brown has pushed for some type (COCA: San Fran Chron)
(51) in place. # In Oklahoma, for example, the EPA is likely to reject a proposal, state officials say, after the state determined it wasn't cost-effective (COCA: Assoc Press)

Those two tokens ((50) and (51)) appeared in news registers. The *proposal* which were refused referred to "something (such as plan or suggestion) that is presented to a person or group of people to consider" ("Proposal"). Principally, *reject* was used to say that someone did not support proposals (plan or suggestion) ("Reject"). The verb *refuse* had *proposal* as its collocation too. However, *proposal* which occurred in *refuse* meant "the act of asking someone to marry you" ("Proposal"). Although *reject* and *refuse* had the collocation *proposal*, that noun shared different definitions. Thus, the context meanings were absolutely different.

2.   The Second Meaning of Reject
The second meaning of *reject* was "refuse to grant (demand)" ("Reject"). By investigating COCA, there were some objects which were considered to be not granted. It was found 9 collocations of *reject* which held this meaning. The collocations were *request* and *requests* (the plural form of *request*) (4 times), *demand* and *demands* (the plural form of *demand*) (2 times), *appeal*, *plea*, and *orders*. The examples of those occurrences were presented below.

(52) the paperwork (some of it in English) in order definitively and legally to reject any further demands for maintenance from her or her heirs. This must be possible (COCA: New Statesman)
(53) Lawyers for Mr. Rumsfeld and the other military officials, urged the high court to reject the appeal. # " Petitioners seek to provide enemy combatants fighting against the United (COCA: CS Monitor)

(54) from Summit and WorldCat to avoid ILL requests, they decided it was simpler to <u>reject</u> the few incoming loan <u>requests</u> when they were made. # Using PCC Vendor Neutral (COCA: Library Resources)

The tokens above proved that *reject* was used to decline a need asked. The words *demand* (as in (52)) and *appeal* (as in (53)), as the collocations of *reject*, sensed something which were strong needed. Those words had the same idea as the word *requests* (as in (54)). Followed by the occurrence of *requests* (as in (54)), that noun also occurred in the token of *refuse* as its collocation. However, *request* which followed *refuse* was less formal which referred to "something (such as a song) that a person asks for" ("Request"), as had explained in the previous section. The noun *request* which occurred once in the token of *refuse* was in fiction register. Thus, *request* as *reject*"s collocation was likely to be "an act of politely or formally asking for something, the state of being sought after" ("Request"). These tokens below showed other occurrences of *request* as *reject*"s collocation.

(55) has thrown out her files and cut off her company email, gotten employees to <u>reject</u> her <u>requests</u> for information on the company's finances and activities, fired the company (COCA: Assoc Press)
(56) in particular Pacific Gas and Electric Co. TURN often urges the commission to <u>reject</u> PG&E's <u>requests</u> for rate hikes, usually without success. # Sandoval's expertise (COCA: San Fran Chron)
(57) a two-week- long protest at the White House, hoping to persuade the administration to <u>reject</u> the permit <u>request</u>. About 1,000 people were arrested. A few days into the (COCA: PBS_News Hour).

Those tokens above appeared in some registers. The tokens ((55) and (56)) occurred in news register, and the next token (57) was in spoken register, specifically in a news program. Although *request* appeared as the collocations of *reject* and *refuse*, the context of each verb"s collocation seemed to be different. In addition, in this meaning, *reject* referred "to use official powers to formally refuse request" ("Reject"). Thus, the collocation of *request* in *reject* was more formal rather than in *refuse*.

3. The Third Meaning of *Reject*

The third definition of *reject* was "to refuse to accept (a person)" ("Reject"). Having this meaning, there were 31 tokens which took place in some contexts and all registers. The collocations of *reject* in this meaning were 15 nouns and 16 pronouns. The nouns were *candidate, someone, children, kids, person*, and also proper nouns such as *Jesus, Nari, Perry, Bin Laden*, and *Mitt Romney*. The pronouns were *you*, *him, them, me, her,* and *us*. The tokens below showed the use of a pronoun, a proper noun, and a noun as *reject*"s collocations.

(58) difficult. The painters either modify the use of these familiar images or <u>reject</u> <u>them</u> completely, often evolving a style of complete abstraction. The film repeats (COCA: Framework)

(59) have no ability to sin nor moral conscience, do not have an ability to <u>reject</u> <u>Jesus</u>, " therefore they get a free pass to heaven (USA Today, (COCA: Christ Century)

(60). # That makes long-term joblessness a problem that feeds on itself. When employers <u>reject someone</u> who has been out of work awhile, it only adds to the time (COCA: Atlanta)

Those three examples were in the different registers. The first token (58) was in fiction; the second token (59) was in magazine; and the third token (60) was in news. The use of *reject* which collocated with *them*, *Jesus*, and *someone* obviously gave examples of the meaning.

4.   The Forth Meaning of *Reject*

The forth meaning of *reject* was "to throw away, discard, or refuse as useless or unsatisfactory" ("Reject"). After exploring, it was found two tokens which contained this meaning. These tokens below presented the meaning discussed.

(61) a dry lab? Dr-PATEL: No, not at all. We reject -- we <u>reject products</u> as well. HANSEN: (Voiceover) In this email he blamed us for misleading him (COCA: NBC_Dateline)

(62) speaker, the child will be able to perceive smaller acoustic differences between productions and <u>reject</u> some <u>productions</u> as produced badly, whereas such sounds would be acceptable for a low-acuity (COCA: J Speech Language)

Based on those tokens, the collocation of *reject* was *products* and *productions*, which described something discarded. *Products* and *productions* were "thrown away because the quality was not good enough" (Reject"). The tokens were in spoken and academic registers.

5.   The Fifth Meaning of *Reject*

The fifth meaning of *reject* was "to cast out or off" ("Reject"). In this definition, it was found 4 tokens which held this meaning. The collocations of *reject* were *oil, plant, addresses,* and *words*. The tokens below presented the collocations of *reject* in this meaning.

(63) vines, grading them for root length and even spacing. # " I would <u>reject</u> this <u>plant</u>, " she said, holding one Friulano sapling, " because it (COCA: San Fran Chron)

(64) adept at finding substitutes, but it still took his brain time to recognize and <u>reject</u> the S <u>words</u> that came to mind automatically. # " Mr. Grant, of (COCA: Win Her Heart).

The examples above were in the different registers. The first token (63) was in news register and the second one (64) was in fiction register. The two other tokens occurred in news and academic registers. Those tokens described that the subjects did not want some things which irritated them. Consequently, they threw out those things.

6. The Sixth Meaning of *Reject*

The sixth definition of *reject* was "(of an organism) to not accept (a graft or transplant)" ("Reject"). From 100 tokens, there was only one token which held this definition. This token below showed that intention.

(65) Drugs the remainder of his or her life so is or her body does not reject the transplanted organ. Besides the expense involved, thedrugs reduce the effectiveness of (COCA: Tech Engineer Teacher)

The token obviously showed the meaning discussed. The token showed the collocation of *reject* was *organ*, from a noun phrase *the transplanted organ*. Moreover, this meaning occurred in the medical environment.

7. The Seventh Meaning of *Reject*

The seventh definition of *reject* was "to refuse as lover or spouse, not love" ("Reject"). After exploring the tokens of *reject*, there were 3 tokens which beared this definition. The collocations of *reject* were *her* (twice) and *love*. Here were the tokens of that defintion.

(66) feels superior to him... and for a moment he wants to hate her... <u>reject her</u>... but to his surprise she suddenly looks more sensual and beautiful than he (COCA: Framework)

(67) from me. She turns away each time I kiss her. She continues to <u>reject</u> my <u>love</u> towards her. I truly long to serve Jesus, but I became (COCA: NBC_Dateline)

Those tokens occurred in the different registers. The token (66) occurred in fiction and the next token (67) occurred in spoken. Those tokens clearly described someone who was not accepted in love with another else. This context also occurred in *refuse*. *Refuse* collocated with *him*, while *reject* collocated with *her*, which both *him* and *her* indicated to someone who loved.

The findings showed that *reject* was used in many contexts and situations. *Reject* collocated with various nouns and pronouns which formed the meanings of its used. Comparing to *refuse*, it had another form of collocation, *to infinitive*. *Reject* did not have *to infinitive* form as its collocation.

Based on the discussion, the collocations of the verbs *refuse* and *reject* were various. The collocations of *refuse* were nouns and to infinitive forms. The new finding showed that the verb *refuse* was also used to deny a lover, which presented by the words *him*. Thus, pronoun was also the collocation of the verb *refuse*. The collocations of the verb *reject* were nouns and pronouns.

There were five similar collocations of the verbs *refuse* and *reject*. The words which were the collocations of the verbs *refuse* and *reject* were *money*, *treatment*, *proposal*, *request*, and *him* and *her*, which represented someone who loved. However, not all those collocations had the similar contexts in use. The words *proposal* and *request* had different definitions when they were used as the collocations of *refuse* and *reject*. Thus, the similar collocations of the verbs *refuse* and *reject* which

occurred in the similar contexts were *money*, *treatment*, *him,* and *her*. People could use both verbs *refuse* and *reject* to express that they did not accept *money*, a *treatment* in the medical field, and, someone who loved, which represented by the words *him* and *her*.

Conclusion

This study examined the frequencies and the collocations of the verbs *refuse* and *reject* in COCA. COCA 2011 and 2012 were taken as the data to discover the research problems. After examining and discussing the data, this study found the answers of the research problems.

The first research problem was the frequencies of the verbs *refuse* and *reject* in COCA from 2011 to 2012. Based on the occurrences in COCA, the frequency of the verb *refuse* was higher than the verb *reject*. The verb *refuse* occurred 406 times, while the verb reject occurred 299 times from 705 tokens. In the percentage, the occurrence frequency of *refuse* was 57.59% and the occurrence frequency of *reject* was 42.41%. The ratio of *refuse* and *reject* occurrences was 15.18%. That number of ratio percentage was not really significant. As a result, *refuse* was used more than *reject* to convey denial, as the basic sense of those synonymous verbs. The second research problem of this study was the collocations of verbs *refuse* and *reject*. The verbs *refuse* and *reject* had various collocations. The collocations of the verb *refuse* were nouns, pronouns, and to infinitive forms. The collocations of verb *reject* were nouns and pronouns. The verbs *refuse* and *reject* had three similar collocations. Based on the finding, the first collocation was *money*. The second collocation was *treatment*. The third collocation was *him* and *her*, which represented someone who loved. Thus, the verbs *refuse* and *reject* could be used to deny money, a treatment in the medical field, and a lover or someone who loved.

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ENGLISH EDUCATION STUDENTS' CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT PROBLEMS DURING THE SCHOOL PRACTICE PROGRAM

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Abstract
This research aims to answer two research problems, namely: What are the English Language Education Study Program (ELESP) practice teaching students' classroom management problems during the School Practice Program? Second, what are the solutions to the ELESP practice teaching students' classroom management problems during the School Practice Program? To answer the research problems above, the researcher used a quantitative method in the form of descriptive research. The instruments were a questionnaire and an interview. Based on the data gathered, most of the practice teaching students gave positive responses on the close-ended statements distributed to the students of the English Language Education Study Program of Sanata Dharma University, Yogyakarta. From the four classifications of classroom management components, the researcher found that management of discipline was the only classification received negative responses. Besides, the open-ended question generated other problems. As a result, a total of eight problems were found based on the questionnaire analysis and were categorized into teacher factors, student factors, and school factors. Furthermore, the major solutions to the problems were setting rules, designing interesting learning activities, approaching directly, and giving caution and rewards. Finally, the researcher also gave recommendations to ELESP lecturers, future practice teaching students, and future researchers.

Keywords: classroom management, English education, School Practice Program

Introduction

The School Practice Program is a compulsory subject for all students of the English Language Education Study Program of Sanata Dharma University. After accomplishing Micro Teaching subject, students can take this subject in the next semester. However, it is very different from Micro Teaching subject in which students practice teaching their classmates and lower grade students. The School Practice Program requires practice teaching students to teach real students in a certain Junior or Senior High School. From the difference between School Practice Program and Micro Teaching subject, it can be seen that School Practice Program is a kind of new challenge for ELESP students since it requires them to practice teaching in the real context called classrooms.

Despite the challenge above, the researcher believes that the School Practice Program is not enough for ELESP students to acquire real teaching management.

While teacher preparation programs are dedicating more time to the study of classroom management and working with challenging students, such programs alone cannot successfully address the myriad issues that teachers face in motivating students and addressing student behavior problems (Wiseman & Hunt, 2014). Practice teaching students have to spend more time after they have entered the profession. Teachers themselves must remain active learners and continue to develop their skills in working with their students to develop classrooms that are active, positive, safe, and successful learning environments (Wiseman & Hunt, 2014).

In addition, motivating students and managing students' behavior are challenges of critical importance to today's teaching profession. Therefore, it is important for practice teaching students to be ready with their profession as early as possible. In relation to the issue, the researcher aims to find out the classroom management problems during the School Practice Program. The reason why focusing on classroom management is that it is an important aspect to succeed learning goals in teaching. As stated in Olive and Reschly (2007), the ability of teachers to organize the classroom and manage behavior of their students is critical to achieving positive educational outcomes. They state that although it does not ensure effective instructions but it establishes the environmental contents that make good instructions possible. It is also stated in Hue and Li (2008) that how a teacher manages the classroom will have an important influence on whether most of the time is spent on promoting learning or on confronting management and discipline problems.

Despite the crucial term of classroom management, as beginner teachers, practice teaching students have to deal with real teaching management such as managing learning, managing discipline, and other teaching activities they are not accustomed to. As stated in Quanglia (1989), classroom management is the most seriously perceived problems of the beginning teacher. As a result, practice teaching students who can be considered as beginner teachers will certainly experience problems and it is important for them to be capable of managing classroom to make effective instructions possible. Since practice teaching students who can be considered as beginner teachers are likely to experience problems in dealing with classroom management, the researcher aims to find out the problems. Besides finding the problems, the researcher also aims to find the solutions to the problems. Finding the classroom management problems during the School Practice Program and the solutions to the problems will surely help practice teaching students increase their readiness on their teaching profession as well as enable them to do a better practice. Therefore, the aims of this research are to find the classroom management problems during the School Practice Program and the solutions to the problems.

To specify what the researcher aims to find out, two research problems are formulated as follows. First, what are the ELESP practice teaching students' classroom management problems during the School Practice Program? Second, what are the solutions to the ELESP practice teaching students' classroom management problems during the School Practice Program?

School Practice Program

The School Practice Program is a compulsory subject for all students of the English Language Education Study Program of Sanata Dharma University. It is the continual subject from Micro Teaching subject. Through this subject, students will

experience real teaching management in a certain Senior or Junior High School, which is done as the form of teaching practice.

Practice Teaching Students

Practice teaching students in this research refer to the students of the English Language Education Study Program who have taken or are taking the School Practice Program subject. They are eighth semester students of the English Language Education Study Program of Sanata Dharma University batch 2011. Practice teaching students are the subjects of this research.

Classroom Management

Classroom management refers to teachers' ability to organize the classroom teaching and learning. It consists of two major abilities. The first one is to manage what is done in the classroom and the second one is to manage students' behavior in teaching and learning activities. In this research, classroom management is considered as the most important aspect in teaching because it enables to make effective instructions possible.

Literature Review

Effective Teacher

Definition of an Effective Teacher

The definition of an effective teacher may vary because experts have their own view to define how and what an effective teacher is. As cited in Darhim (n.d.), an effective teacher is a teacher who can motivate students to learn and increase their motivation to learn based on students' willingness. In another definition, an effective teacher is a teacher who is obviously able to increase his/her students' knowledge (Clark, 1993). Moreover, as stated in Vogt (1984), an effective teacher is a teacher who has the ability to provide instructions to different students of different abilities while incorporating instructional objectives and assessing the effective learning mode of the students. Therefore, an effective teacher is needed just like what stated in Tauber (2007), no classroom management technique will be effective for long if effective management and engaging teaching are absent.

According to Stronge, Tucker, and Hindman (2000), an effective teacher is a teacher who can adapt the changing in the school and navigate successfully complexities of the classroom. The changing can be some changes in terms of students, curriculum, building issues, colleagues, administrators, finances, health and safety concerns, families, communities, and a host of other influences on the daily lives of a teacher. Therefore, an effective teacher can be defined as a teacher who can make students learn and understand what they are progressively learning with his/her way and effectiveness of teaching.

Characteristic of an Effective Teacher

From the various definitions of an effective teacher, the characteristics of an effective teacher are also variant. According to Collins (1990), an effective teacher is mentioned as having five characteristics. Those characteristics are an effective teacher: 1) is committed to students and learning, 2) knows the subject matter, 3) is responsible for managing students, 4) can think systematically about their own practice, and 5) is a

member of the learning community. Those characteristics show that an effective teacher does not only master the subject to teach but also needs to develop his/her competency by being a member of the learning community. Other characteristics also show that an effective teacher is the one who shall be responsible for managing students. Therefore an effective teacher should think of two aspects, which are the mastery of the subject and his/her students.

In addition, Stronge, Tucker, and Hindman (2002) suggest that an effective teacher has six qualities. Those qualities are categorized into: 1) prerequisites of an effective teacher, 2) a teacher as a person, 3) classroom management and organization, 4) organizing for instruction, 5) implementing instruction, 6) monitoring students' progress and potential. One of the qualities is prerequisite of an effective teacher. It is related to a professional teacher because it defines that an effective teacher should have prerequisites which also include verbal ability, content knowledge, educational coursework, teaching certification, and teaching experience. However, the other qualities show the identical characteristics of an effective teacher as stated previously.

Similarly, Muijs and Reynolds (2005) mention an effective teacher is to have these following characteristics: 1) having a positive attitude, 2) developing a pleasant social/psychological climate in the classroom, 3) having high expectations of what pupils can achieve, 4) communicating lesson clarity, 5) practicing effective time management, 6) employing strong lesson structuring, 7) using a variety of teaching methods, 8) using and incorporating pupil ideas, 9) using appropriate and varied questioning.

Furthermore, according to Hue (2005), an effective teacher has common approach to promoting classroom discipline. It includes these following features: 1) adopting effective approaches to teaching and learning, 2) having plans for avoiding disruption, 3) establishing a positive relationship with students, 4) using knowledge of individual students and the class to develop appropriate strategies for discipline 5) being sensitive to the influence on classroom management factors such as the student seating plan, the arrangements for floating classes, and the examination schedule.

Moreover, Jones, Jenkin, and Lord (2006) have their own view about an effective teacher. They find that an effective teacher has these characteristics: 1) a professional but relaxed appearance, 2) using of exaggerated facial expressions, e.g. a gaze or raised eyebrows, 3) confident and relaxed non-verbal behaviors, e.g. relaxed shoulders, resting on one leg, sitting down when a pupil is standing, hands loose – not clenched, 4) illustrative gestures to show how the class should respond, 5) kneeling or getting down to the level of the child, 6) controlling gestures, 7) smiling face, 8) self-pointing gestures, 9) calm and relaxed quality of voice for the majority of the time, and 10) resistance to pupil-instigated interruptions.

What Makes an Effective Teacher Effective

An effective teacher can be effective or can be less effective. According to Muijs and Reynolds (2005), there are factors influencing the teacher's effectiveness. They state that teaching methods are context specific, what is needed for a teacher to be effective can vary depending upon factors such as: 1) the type of activity in the lesson, 2) the subject matter, 3) the pupil backgrounds (such as age, ability, gender, socio-economic status and ethnicity), 4) the pupils' personal characteristics (such as personality, learning style, motivation and selfesteem), and 5) the culture/organization

of the department, and school . It can be seen that the teacher's effectiveness is influenced by some factors. The factors can come from the students, the organization, and the teacher himself/herself.

Classroom Management
Definition of Classroom Management

Classroom management can also be defined differently from one to another. As cited in Oliver and Reschly (2007), classroom management is the ability of a teacher to organize the classroom and manage behavior of his/her students that is critical to achieving positive educational outcomes. Moreover, in Yasar (2008), classroom management is defined as all efforts that a teacher takes in order to maintain classroom activities including learning, social interaction, and students' behavior. Hue (2005) also mentions that classroom management refers to the teacher's actions which lead to the creation of a learning environment where positive interpersonal interaction is promoted and effective learning is facilitated. It aims to enhance the cognitive, personal and social growth of students, developing in particular their self-motivation, self-understanding, self-control, self-evaluation, and self-management.

Moreover, Hue (2005) characterizes classroom management into three basic concepts. The first concept is managing classroom behavior which refers to managing the actions or reactions of classroom participants. The second concept is disciplining which means the act of responding to misbehaving students in an effort to restore and maintain order, authority, and control. The last concept is managing misbehavior which refers to managing behavior that interferes with teaching, violating the right of other students to learn, and sometimes makes them feel psychologically uncomfortable and physically unsafe. Nevertheless, Hue and Li (2008) also say that classroom management is concerned not just with discipline and students' behavior but, in a wider sense, can be considered a mean by which the broader purposes of classroom life can be achieved.

Hue and Li (2008) also specify the term of classroom management into smaller components. They state that classroom management can be very taxing, especially for novice teachers and will be much easier to learn if it is broken down into smaller components which include: 1) management of physical environment, 2) managing of learning, 3) classroom procedures and rules, 4) management of discipline. Those components refer to what a teacher needs to manage in the classroom. In other words, what a teacher needs to manage based on the four components includes the class, the learning, the procedures and rules, and the students. The description of four components of classroom management by Hue and Li (2008) can be seen as follows:

1. Management of Physical Environment
    Teachers need to create the best possible physical environment to ensure that their students have a comfortable and pleasant atmosphere in which to learn such as ensuring appropriate heating and ventilating, ensuring a good classroom condition, enabling active participation from students by setting a good seating arrangement.

2. Management of Learning
    Teachers must prepare learning objectives, select content, prepare teaching and learning materials, and design activities with the goal of devising a curriculum that

meets their students' diverse needs. It includes an effective planning, making enjoyable and challenging learning, and giving effective instructions. In other words, this management includes the ability to select appropriately what to teach and how to teach.

3. Classroom Procedures and Rules

Teachers have to set guidelines for the smooth and efficient running of classrooms as these are important for conveying their expectations, for establishing classroom norms, and for "house-keeping" purposes. The housekeeping purposes include entering and leaving the classroom, accessing to the materials, talking and listening in the classroom, and passing out the exercise books.

4. Management of Discipline

Apart from such guidelines, teachers need to set up a discipline system to deal with difficult and bad behavior. It includes the need of direct intervention, giving appropriate praise or reinforcement, and tolerating certain behavior. Teachers do not only need to handle what disrupts the classroom activities but also manage the students' behavior that causes the disruption than ignoring the misbehavior and let it happen.

Importance of Classroom Management

Each individual has different characteristics, needs, and ability to learn. It has been noted that classroom management skills are essential in the classroom for a teacher to get anything done (Brophy & Evertson, 1976). Poplin et al. (2011) also mention that classroom management skills are important factors in enhancing students' achievement and in schools successfully serving very diverse students. Having good classroom management is important to enhance students' achievement due to the fact of diverse students. As stated in Oliver and Reschly (2007), the ability of a teacher to organize the classroom and manage behavior of their students is critical to achieving positive educational outcomes. It becomes clear that classroom management is an important aspect to enable students to achieve the goals of learning. Moreover, from the importance of classroom management, it can also be concluded that students' success depends greatly on how effective a teacher manages the classroom.

Goals of Classroom Management

Defining the goals of classroom management can also vary. It depends on the focuses. According to Hue and Li (2008), there are two specific goals of classroom management. Those specific goals are listed as follows:

1. Creating a Positive Learning Climate in the Classroom

Effective teaching and learning can take place only if there is good order and a positive learning climate in the classroom which include supportive students, respectful relation between students and a teacher, and between students and students. Therefore, the goal of classroom management is to make effective teaching and learning in the classroom as it attempts to create a positive learning climate in the classroom.

2. Promoting the Growth of Students

Classroom management is to promote the growth of students, in terms of their personal, social, and emotional selves. There is a commonly held perception that classroom management, particularly when it refers to discipline and punishment, is related to reactive control and sterile practices. However, classroom discipline shall never be considered in isolation from the students' academic, personal, and social growth. This is because positive classroom management has enormous potential to increase students' motivation, learning, self-esteem, and more specifically, positive disciplinary practices can give students a sense of achievement and of control over their classroom behavior.

As indicated above, classroom management has two basic goals which include creating and maintaining a positive learning climate and promoting students' whole-person growth. Moreover, it is also mentioned that positive classroom management can increase students' motivation, learning, and selfesteem. A teacher has the ability to determine students' success through his/her classroom management. In other words, good classroom management can maximize students' achievement and learning opportunity and the maximization will be based on how good a teacher manages the classroom and creates a supporting learning climate.

Factors Influencing Classroom Management Success
Some factors can influence classroom management success. The factors can be either student or teacher factors or both factors. As mentioned in Kapalka (2009), there are two factors that can influence classroom management success. Those two factors are student factors and teacher factors. The description of the factors can be seen as follows:
1. Student Factors

Some personality factors can exhibit students a difficult behavior. Of these, impulsivity is the most notable. The more prone students to quick reactions without much forethought, the more likely they are to misbehave. Often, those actions result in negative consequences that the individual does not anticipate, and the result is a negative reaction, including frustration and anger. Impulsive students require exposure to consistent consequences before they eventually begin to think before they act and start to learn from previous experience. Dealing with impulsive students is often difficult for a teacher to manage.

2. Teacher Factors

The overwhelming majority of teachers are educator professionals who want to help their students become smart and successful. When students' behavior interfere with teaching, this makes teachers frustrated because they feel that it prevents them from accomplishing the goals of learning. When frustrated, many teachers lose control over their own reactions and a conflict ensues. Consequently, helping teachers manage their own reactions is an important component of effective students' behavior management.

Issues on Classroom Management
Discussing classroom management problems, it is closely related to classroom discipline and students' misbehavior. Both classroom discipline and students'

misbehavior can influence classroom management success and create classroom disruption (Pagliaro, 2011). It has been reported consistently that 95 percent of all classroom behavior problems consistently fall into the category of class disruptions (Jones, 2000). Of these, 80 percent are talking problems such as chatting with a friend, speaking out of turn, whispering, speaking loudly, or calling out. The remaining 15 percent are movement problems such as passing notes, tossing or shooting objects (paper airplanes, rubber bands, spitballs), fooling around, gesturing, and getting out of the seat to go to the pencil sharpener or the lavatory without permission.

The other 5 percent of problems in order of least to most severe include: 1) goofing off. Students may be off tasks, daydreaming, doodling, sleeping, or doing work not related to the lesson, 2) defying authority. Students refuse to do what the teacher wants, and may even become hostile in not cooperating with any school activity, 3) moral issues. Students may be involved in stealing, cheating, lying, or improper sexual activity, 4) aggression/violence. Students may physically or verbally attack the teacher or another student. Carrying lethal weapons to the school and dealing in or taking drugs are serious misbehavior that could disrupt the entire school. Many of these students are subjected to severe problems. These problems include homelessness, depression, tendency toward suicide, eating disorders, alcoholic parents, attention deficit and hyperactivity disorder, incarcerated parents, poverty, sexual and physical abuse, and the statistics associated with these problem areas are shocking (Marzano, 2003).

Research has indicated that new teachers especially may lack the training to handle more severe behavior and their causes as described above (Smart & Igo, 2010). Even if the teachers are experienced, they may not be able to handle more serious problems as discussed above. A teacher therefore needs to consult with the more experienced teacher in the school. From the issues discussed, it can be seen that the primary or the more serious classroom management problems refer to managing discipline than managing physical environment, learning, and also procedures and rules of learning.

Specific Problems in Managing Classroom

In regard to classroom management, there are some common classroom management problems that have been most frequently identified by teachers (Veenman, 1984). Those common problems include: 1) classroom discipline, 2) motivating students, 3) dealing with individual difference, 4) assessing students' works, 5) relationships with parents, 6) organization of class work, 7) insufficient and/or inadequate teaching materials and supplies, and 8) dealing with problems of individual students. These problems occur because of student factors and teacher factors. Some problems occur outside of the teacher's classroom management ability such as students' relationship with parents and different students, while the other problems occurring is related to the teacher's classroom management ability.

Recent Research on Classroom Management
Classroom Management Problems for Teaching Assistants

This research was conducted by Luo, Bellows, and Grady (2000). This research aimed to find four research questions in which, one of them, included the term of common classroom management problems. The respondents of this research were 749

graduate students working as teaching assistants at the University of Nebraska-Lincoln (UNL). A mailed survey questionnaire was used in order to collect the data. Moreover, from the 749 respondents, the survey yielded 304 usable responses. From those responses the researchers found some common problems experienced by teaching assistants.

The problems themselves differed from different teaching assistants' disciplines. Teaching assistants in soft pure disciplines (that includes such disciplines as English, history, communication studies, classics, philosophy, psychology, sociology, and political science) reported the most problems than the teaching assistants in hard disciplines. Nevertheless, those responses yielded approximately the same problems which included: 1) the students challenge the teacher's comments or lecture, 2) the students are eating and/or drinking during the class, 3) the students question or contradict the teacher during lecture, 4) the students arrive late for the class, 5) the students monopolize the class discussions, 6) the students promote their own political/social agenda each time they speak, 7) the students miss the class frequently, 8) the students make comments that are offensive to the teacher/peer in the class, and 9) the students come to the class unprepared.

Classroom Management in Japanese EFL Classroom

This research was conducted by Sakui (2007). One of the aims of this research was to find teachers' difficulties in managing Japanese EFL classroom when teachers tried to teach English communicatively. All the participants chosen for this research were members of a self-study group consisting of 30 Japanese teachers of English. Interviews were used to collect the data. From the interviews, some difficulties could be found included: 1) the spatial arrangement of the classroom, 2) the students' and the teachers' expected roles, and 3) the cognitive complexity activity.

Method
Research Method

In this study, researcher used descriptive research. As mentioned in Gall, Gall, and Borg (2003), descriptive research is a type of quantitative research that involves in making careful descriptions of educational phenomena. It is also stated that a research question "what is" is very concerned with the term of descriptive study. Furthermore, the researcher used a survey as the research design. Survey research is a type of research in which a researcher can gain respondents' opinion, belief, experience, and perception (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2009).

The research was conducted in the even semester of the 2014/2015 academic year to the students of the ELESP who have ever experienced the School Practice Program subject as the intended subjects. It took place at the English Language Education Study Program of Sanata Dharma University and online by using a Google form questionnaire. The researcher opened an online questionnaire on 26th of June 2015 up to 2th of July 2015. Moreover, interviews were conducted on 4th and 5th of July 2015 at PGSD Student Hall and the interviewees' house.

In choosing the respondents, the researcher used a convenience sampling method. The reason why the researcher used a convenience sampling method was because the students in the batch 2011 were in the last semester which meant that most of them

had not had credits left on subjects to take. It was not doable for the researcher to use either a random sampling or a systematic nonrandom sampling method. According to Fraenkel and Wallen (2009), at such time when it is extremely difficult or sometimes even impossible to select either a random or a systematic non-random sampling, a researcher may use a convenience sampling. Nevertheless, before deciding to use the convenience sampling method, the researcher also opened an online questionnaire on Google form which was shared on the Facebook group of the ELESP students in the batch 2011.

In analyzing the data based on the close-ended questionnaire, the researcher used frequency agreements of strongly disagree (SD), disagree (D), agree (A), strongly agree (SA). The researcher calculated the responses into percentage in order to generate conclusion from the responses. In addition, the researcher also calculated the average of the percentages had been calculated to make generalization of each classification on the questionnaire. The researcher calculated the response percentage using the formula . *RA* represented the response average. Meanwhile, $\Sigma responses$ represented the total responses on the item and *N* represented the total respondents.

Nevertheless, the researcher also divided the statements on the close-ended questionnaire into two types. The first type was a positive statement while the second one was a negative statement. In the positive statement, the highest score was strongly agree (SA) while in the negative statement was strongly disagree (SD). Therefore, in each of the items, the point was ranged from 1 up to 4, in which the score was 1 point if the answer was SD and 4 point if the answer was SA for the positive statement and vice versa the negative statement. The results of the close-ended questionnaire were presented on tables to enable easier further analysis and readers to understand the findings.

Differently, in analyzing the data based on the open-ended question, the researcher presented them into a list of problems and selected the problems which were experienced the most by the respondents. After analyzing the questionnaire, the researcher combined all the problems found based on the close-ended statements and the open-ended question to identify the major problems experienced by the respondents. Moreover, in analyzing the data based on the interview, the researcher used an audio recorder to keep the data when doing the interview. From the audio recordings, the researcher listened to them and read a list of an interview form before noting down the information and the data. In addition, the researcher presented the results of the interview into description forms.

Findings and Discussion
The Classroom Management Problems
In order to answer the first research problem, which is about the practice teaching students' classroom management problems during the School Practice Program, the researcher used a questionnaire as the research instrument to collect necessary data. The questionnaire consisted of close-ended statements and an open-ended question.

Data Presentation
Since the questionnaire consisted of close-ended statements and an open ended question, the researcher divided the data presentation into two parts. The first part would be the data presentation of the close-ended questionnaire and the second part

would be the data presentation of the open-ended questionnaire. The data presentation of each part on the questionnaire was as follows:

1. Data Presentation of the Close-Ended Questionnaire
    The close-ended questionnaire consisted of 15 items that were classified into four major classifications. The classifications were based on Hue and Li's theory about four classroom management components which included the management of physical environment, the management of learning, the classroom procedures and rules, and the management of discipline. The researcher presented the results of the close-ended questionnaire as follows:

a. Management of Physical Environment
    The first classification of classroom management components was about the management of physical environment. It included the ability of the teacher to create the best possible physical environment to ensure comfortable and pleasant atmosphere for the students to learn. The researcher set four statements to find the problems experienced in this classification. The results are presented as follows:

Table 1.1. The Percentage Results of Questionnaire Number 1-4

No	Statements	Agreement Frequency Points			
		SD (1)	D (2)	A (3)	SA (4)
1.	I always have my students feel comfortable about the classroom during the learning activity.	1 (2.3%)	6 (13.6%)	26 (59.1%)	11 (25%)
2.	I always adjust the classroom condition, such as turning on the lamp when it is dark, adjusting the classroom ventilation.	1 (2.3%)	3 (6.8%)	18 (40.9%)	22 (50%)
3.	I always have my students avoid sitting in the front row when it is empty.	12 (27.3%)	20 (45.4%)	9 (20.5%)	3 (6.8%)
4.	I always have a clean classroom before starting the class.	4 (9.1%)	9 (20.4%)	23 (52.3%)	8 (18.2%)
	Average	10.25%	21.55%	43.20%	25%

From the table above, there were 43.2% "agree" responses and 25% "strongly agree" responses. As a result, the responses in this classification were positive since "agree" and "strongly agree" responses were mostly selected. It showed that most of the practice teaching students did not have problems in managing the physical environment.

b. Management of Learning
    The second classification of classroom management components was about the management of learning. It included the ability of the teacher to manage learning which was well-prepared, appropriate to the students' needs, and challenging as well as motivating the students. The researcher set four statements to find whether the practice teaching students experienced problems in this classification. The results are presented as follows:

Table 1.2. The Percentage Results of Questionnaire Number 5-8

No	Statements	Agreement Frequency Points			
		SD (1)	D (2)	A (3)	SA (4)
5.	I start the class immediately after the bell rings.	1 (2.3%)	5 (11.3%)	19 (43.2%)	19 (43.2%)
6.	I always have my students feel motivated during learning activity.	0 (0%)	11 (25%)	26 (59.1%)	7 (15.9%)
7.	I always give my students good instructions so that there is no need of several repetitions.	1 (2.3%)	4 (9.1%)	34 (77.3%)	5 (11.3%)
8.	I always finish all teaching activities I have prepared as the class over.	0 (0%)	8 (18.2%)	28 (63.6%)	8 (18.2%)
	Average	1%	16%	61%	22%

Based on the responses, 61% of the respondents answered "agree" while 22% of them answered "strongly agree". The percentage showed that there were positive responses on the management of learning classification. As a result the problems related to the management of learning were not likely to be experienced by most of the practice teaching students.

c. Classroom Procedures and Rules

The third classification of classroom management components was about the classroom procedures and rules. It included the ability of the teacher to set procedures and rules in the classroom such as the way students entered or left the class, the way learning material was distributed, and talking and listening rules. The researcher set three statements to find whether the practice teaching students experienced problems in this classification. The results are presented as follows:

Table 1.3. The Percentage Results of Questionnaire Number 9-11

No	Statements	Agreement Frequency Points			
		SD (1)	D (2)	A (3)	SA (4)
9.	I always have my students ask permission before entering or leaving the class.	0 (0%)	1 (2.3%)	19 (43.2%)	24 (54.5%)
10.	I always have my students raise their hand before asking or answering questions.	0 (0%)	8 (18.2%)	18 (40.9%)	18 (40.9%)
11.	I always have my students help me distribute the material for learning and teaching activity.	0 (0%)	8 (18.2%)	20 (45.4%)	16 (36.4%)
	Average	0%	12.90%	43.17%	43.93%

The table showed that most of the responses were positive. 43.17% and 43.93% of the respondents answered "agree" and "strongly agree". As a result, the problems related to the classroom procedures and rules were not likely to be experienced by most of the practice teaching students.

d. Management of Discipline

The fourth as well as the last classification of classroom management components was about the management of discipline. This management included the ability of the teacher to deal with difficult and bad behavior. The need of direct intervention and giving appropriate praise or reinforcement were the parts of this classification. The researcher set four statements in order to find whether the practice teaching students experienced problems in this classification. The results are presented as follows:

Table 1.4. The Percentage Results of Questionnaire Number 12-15

No	Statements	Agreement Frequency Points			
		SD (1)	D (2)	A (3)	SA (4)
12.	I have some of my students in my class not pay attention to the learning and teaching activity.	0 (0%)	6 (13.6%)	31 (70.5%)	7 (15.9%)
13.	I have some students in my class busy with themselves, talking to friends and playing with their gadgets.	1 (2.3%)	6 (13.6%)	29 (65.9%)	8 (18.2%)
14.	I always ignore students who do disruptive behavior in the class.	17 (38.6%)	23 (52.3%)	3 (6.8%)	1 (2.3%)
15.	I always get impatient when dealing with disruptive students and directly give them negative reinforcement.	20 (45.5%)	19 (43.2%)	3 (6.8%)	2 (4.5%)
	Average	22%	31%	38%	10%

Management of discipline as the last classification of classroom management components received negative responses on the negative statements number 13 (70.5%) and 14 (65.9%). Conversely, the negative statements number 14 (52.3%) and 15 (43.2%) received positive responses. The table showed that even the practice teaching students experienced problems which occurred because of the students' disruptive behavior, the problems management was positive.

2. Data Presentation of the Open-Ended Questionnaire

The open-ended questionnaire consisted of one question only. The question was to mention the other classroom management problems that were not listed in the close-ended questionnaire but experienced by the practice teaching students during their School Practice Program. After summarizing the responses, the researcher classified the problems experienced into two different classifications. Those classifications were internal problems and external problems. The researcher noted that the internal problems were the problems that occurred because of the teacher factors, which were the practice teaching students themselves. Conversely, the external problems were found to be the problems that occurred because of other factors outside of the practice teaching students, such as the students' disruptive behavior and the school facility.

Discussion

After presenting the close-ended and open-ended questionnaire results, the researcher analyzed the data in order to answer the first research problem about the

ELESP practice teaching students' classroom management problems during the School Practice Program. From the four classroom management components which included the management of physical environment, the management of learning, the classroom procedures and rules, and the management of discipline, the researcher analyzed the results as follows: The first classification of classroom management components by Hue and Li (2008) was about the management of physical environment. In this category, there were four items to discuss. The first item was about whether the practice teaching students ensured their students had a comfortable learning class. Based on the responses, the majority of the respondents (59.1%) answered "agree" and (25%) answered "strongly agree". It indicated that the majority of the practice teaching students always ensured a comfortable learning class for the students. The second item was about adjusting the classroom condition. The responses for this item were positive since 40.9% "agree" and 50% "strongly agree" were selected. It meant that the majority of the practice teaching students realized the importance of adjusting the classroom condition.

The responses for the third negative item were also positive. The responses were 45.4% "disagree" and 27.3% "strongly disagree" which meant that the students were not likely to be the factor of problems on the seating arrangement. The last item received "agree" (52.3%) and "strongly agree" responses (18.2%) which also indicated that the majority of the practice teaching students were aware of their class' cleanness before starting the lesson. Based on the highest average (43.20%) from the statements number 1-4, it could be clearly seen that the problems regarding the management of the physical environment were not likely to be experienced by the majority of the practice teaching students since the importance was understood.

The second classification of the close-ended questionnaire was about the management of learning. Four items in this classification received positive responses. The majority of the respondents answered "agree" for every item in this classification with an average percentage of 61%. It showed that the problems regarding the management of learning were not likely to be experienced by the majority of the practice teaching students. Most of them answered "agree" (43.2%) and "strongly agree" (43.2%) for the first item on this classification. The majority of the practice teaching students always started the class immediately after the bell rang. In other words, there were no problems such as the students' lateness and learning media preparation to start the class as the bell rang. For the second item, as many as 59.1% of the respondents answered "agree". It proved that the majority of the practice teaching students could motivate their students very well in the learning and teaching activity.

The third item on the management of learning classification received positive responses. Good instructions were always delivered by the majority of the practice teaching students. It was proved since the majority of the respondents answered "agree" (77.3%). For the last item in this classification, positive responses were also received. A total of 63.6% "agree" responses were selected by the majority of the respondents. It showed that the majority of the practice teaching students had good time management and planning on the teaching activity. Since four items received positive responses on this classification, the problems regarding the management of learning were not likely to be experienced by the majority of the practice teaching students.

The third classification of the close-ended questionnaire was about the classroom procedures and rules. In this classification, three items received positive responses. The majority of the practice teaching students applied classroom procedures. A total of 43.2% "agree" and 54.5% "strongly agree" responses were selected by the majority of the respondents. It indicated that the majority of the practice teaching students set procedure on the way the students left and entered the class whether directly or indirectly. For the second item, there were 40.9% "agree" and the same 40.9% "strongly agree" responses. It indicated positive responses for the item. The majority of the practice teaching students had the students raise their hand when asking and answering questions. In the third item, the majority of the practice teaching students used the method of distributing the learning materials by the help of the students while the rest used other methods. It was proved since 45.4% "agree" and 36.4% "strongly agree" responses were selected. As a result, the problems regarding the classroom procedures and rules were not likely to be experienced by the majority of the practice teaching students.

The last classification of the close-ended questionnaire was about the management of discipline. In this classification, two out of four items received negative responses. For the first item, the majority of the practice teaching students answered "agree" (70.5%) and "strongly agree" (15.9%). It showed that there were problems regarding the students' attention in the classroom. For the second item, it could be concluded that the majority of the practice teaching students also had problems regarding the students' behavior, such as talking to friends and playing with their gadgets. The responses for the second item were 65.9% "agree" and 18.2% "strongly agree". Nevertheless, the other two statements for number 14-15 received positive responses. The responses were positive even the selected responses were mostly "strongly disagree" and "disagree". It was because those two items were negative statements.

The first negative statement on this classification (number 14) received a total of 52.3% "disagree" and 38.6% "strongly disagree" responses. The second negative statement (number 15) also received the same positive responses with a total of 43.2% "disagree" and 45.5% "strongly disagree" responses. The responses showed that the majority of the practice teaching students did not ignore the students who did disruptive behavior in the class and remained in control by being patient in dealing with them. It also showed that they did not give negative reinforcement to the disruptive students. In other words, the majority of the practice teaching students experienced problems regarding the students' disruptive behavior but did not experience problems in disciplining the students.

Having discussed the results of the close-ended questionnaire, the researcher found that the problems experienced by the majority of the practice teaching students were about the students' disruptive behavior. The problems were not about the practice teaching students but more to the student factors. In addition, the open-ended questionnaire generated more classroom management problems. The problems found were selected based on the problems which were experienced the most by the practice teaching students. Based on the analysis the researcher made, the problems generated from the open-ended question could be classified into two major classifications. The classifications were as follows:

1. Internal Problems: the internal problems were the problems that occurred because of the teacher factors or the practice teaching students' classroom management ability.
2. External Problems: the external problems were the problems that occurred outside of the teacher factors, but occurred because of other factors such as the student factors and the school factors.

From those two classifications, it could be seen that the problems in each classification had its own factors to occur. While the internal problems occurred because of the teacher factors, the external occurred because of the student and school factors. The researcher explained the problems based on the open-ended question starting from the internal problems and followed by the external problems.

In the internal problems classification, the cause of the problems was the teacher factors. Based on the open-ended question, the problems occurred because of the teacher factors were related to the practice teaching students' unclear instructions and difficulty in enabling the students' active participation and encouraging them to speak in English. For instance, it was mentioned that the teacher spoke too fast which made the students confused and when the practice teaching students used English instructions, sometimes the students did not understand. Moreover, the respondents also mentioned that it was difficult to build an English environment. If the practice teaching students spoke in English, the students always responded by using *Bahasa Indonesia*. Some of the students also did not want to speak in English when asked to perform a certain task.

Differently, the source of the external problems classification was divided into the student factors and the school factors. The problems arising from the students happened when the students misbehaved and did disruptive activities such as being busy with themselves, not paying attention, talking to friends, walking around the class, working on a task of another subject, and playing with their gadgets. Those disruptive behavior problems were often mentioned in the open-ended questionnaire. Moreover, some of the students entered the class lately. It was mentioned that the students still stayed in the canteen even the bell had rung. The students were often late in entering the class especially when having a morning class and after doing an outdoor activity such as having a break, sport course, and other outdoor activities.

It was also mentioned that the students did not submit take-home assignments. The students often gave some reasons for not submitting their takehome assignments. In addition, some respondents mentioned that the closerelation between the students and the teacher could affect the learning activity. The problems happened when the misunderstanding made the classroom become not conducive. It was mentioned that the students considered the practice teaching student as a friend and acted whatever they wanted in the class. In other words, the students could not place themselves and misunderstood their close-relation with the teacher in the classroom learning.

The second source of the external problems was the school factors. Some respondents mentioned that the school facility could be problems in the management of learning such as when the practice teaching students were to use a projector to deliver the learning material using a PowerPoint presentation. The problems happened when the school had either an incomplete facility or the school had a complete facility but not in good condition. It was mentioned that the practice teaching students

experienced an error when using a projector. When the practice teaching students were about to teach, the projector did not work.

In addition, it was also mentioned that the school's inconsistent time allocation became problems for the practice teaching students. It could disturb the time management that had been planned. In other words, the practice teaching students could not finish all the learning activity as expected. The problems happened when the school reduced the time allocation in every meeting on a certain day because the teachers had to have a meeting or other school activities. When the learning activity in the class was on going, the bell as a sign of the end of the learning session rang earlier. As a result, the learning activity was unfinished and the goals of learning were not fully accomplished.

Having described the problems generated from the open-ended question, the researcher analyzed and combined all the problems generated from the closeended statements and the open-ended question. The problems were categorized into three categorizations. Those categorizations included the teacher factors, the student factors, and the school factors. Thus, the overall problems found based on the questionnaire were as follows:

Table 1.5. The Classroom Management Problems Based on the Questionnaire

Source	Specific Problem
Teacher Factors	1) The teacher's instructions were not clear enough.
	2) The teacher had difficulty encouraging the students to speak English.
Student Factors	3) The students did disruptive behavior in the classroom such as talking to friends, playing with gadget, walking around the class, working on a task of another subject, and other disruptive activities.
	4) The students did not submit take-home assignments.
	5) The students were always late in entering the classroom.
	6) The students misunderstood the teacher-student close relation in the classroom learning.
School Factors	7) The school had inconsistent time allocation on certain special days.
	8) The school had an incomplete facility or had a complete facility but not in good condition.

A total of eight classroom management problems were found based on the close-ended statements and the open-ended question. The first two problems occurred because of the teacher factors. The next four problems occurred because of the student factors. Moreover, the last two problems occurred because of the school factors. After finding those eight problems above, the researcher explored the solutions below.

The Solutions to the Classroom Management Problems

In regard to the eight classroom management problems during the School Practice Program that had been identified and found based on the questionnaire, the researcher conducted an interview with four English Language Education Study Program

students who were the members of the 44 respondents who had filled in both the online and printed questionnaire. The interview consisted of four questions that the interviewee needed to response. The first question was about the interviewee's experience on their School Practice Program. The second was about the most difficult problem experienced by the interviewee and how the problem was managed. These two questions aimed to reflect and recall interviewee' experience before answering the third and the fourth question, which were to find the solutions to the classroom management problems during the School Practice Program.

The third question itself consisted of eight questions to find the solutions to the eight classroom management problems found which had been categorized into three categorizations. Meanwhile, the fourth question was about the important things needed in dealing with classroom management problems in general. The fourth question was relevant to answer the second research problem since it attempted to find important things in dealing with classroom management problems. It suggested what should be ensured and prepared in overcoming the problems. Therefore, these two questions contributed to answer the second research problem about the solutions to the eight classroom management problems.

Through the interview process, the researcher got some solutions to each problem and also the important things in dealing with classroom management problems. The researcher explained the solutions based on the factors of the problems followed by the specific problems on each factor. The solutions and the important things in dealing with the classroom management problems found based on the interview were elaborated in order as follows:

The Solutions to the Problems Arising from Teacher factors
The problems in this category included the teacher's unclear instructions and difficulty in engaging and encouraging the students to speak in English. The solutions to those problems were as follows:

1. Teacher's Unclear Instructions
    Clear instructions were important to achieve the goals of learning. To maintain good instructions, there were some solutions the interviewees suggested. The first one was to make sure whether the students understood the instructions by asking them directly. If the students did not understand the instructions, the practice teaching students needed to repeat the instructions and could possibly simplify the instructions into the easier one and slow down the instructions. When the students still did not get it, frequent translation could be done. The last solution was to plan effective instructions for the students. It could be concluded that the practice teaching students should both make sure and clarify unclear instructions to the students. In other words, repetitions were needed but the effective one should be maintained.

2. Engaging and Encouraging the Students to Speak in English
    Based on the interview, there were some suggested solutions to the problems. The first one was to give chances for the passive students to speak in English. The practice teaching students needed to know who were the active students as well as who were the passive students to mix a turn. It would enable the students to have equal participation. Another solution was to make learning activities that encouraged the

students to speak in English. The activity would indirectly increase the students' motivation to speak in English. The next solution was to encourage the students by telling them how to say in English certain sentences the students spoke in the class by using *Bahasa Indonesia*. The solution could shape the students' concept in speaking English. Another solution was to make a kind of agreement between the teacher and the students. The agreement for example would be "if the students did not speak in English, they had to pay for their fault for every word not spoken in English". What should be paid for the fault could be based on the agreement.

The solutions to the problems were mainly about exposing and motivating the students more to speak in English. It could be done by ensuring students' equal participation in the classroom learning. The practice teaching students should not focus only on the students who were active. Moreover, setting up an agreement and designing learning activities that encouraged the students to speak in English would also be useful since it indirectly motivated the students to speak in English more. On the other hand, it was also important to shape the students' concept of English by giving them examples through their daily conversation.

The Solutions to the Problems Arising from Student Factors
The problems in this category included the students' disruptive behavior, the students' not submitting take-home assignments, the students' lateness in entering the classroom, and the students' misunderstanding of the teacher-student close relation. The solutions to those problems were as follows:

1. Students' Disruptive Behavior
The first problem in the student factors categorization was mainly about the students' not paying attention and doing other activities that disrupted the learning activities such as playing with their gadgets, talking to friends, and working on a task of another subject. To solve the problems, there were several solutions suggested by the interviewees. The first one was to approach them directly and asked what they were doing. If the students were playing with their gadgets, the practice teaching students could ask whether to give the gadget to the teacher or keep it in the bag. When the students were still doing the same, the practice teaching students could take the gadget and gave it to the real teacher. In other words, several levels of caution should be made in order to control behavior.

Another solution was to keep silent for what the students had done wrong. The practice teaching students could be silent and look at the students and wait until they realized what faults they made. It would enable the practice teaching students to control the class. In another case, if the students worked on a task of another subject, the practice teaching students could take the book and give it back after the class ended. Moreover, setting up rules also became one of the solutions to the problem. By setting up rules, it could make the students understand that certain behavior was not acceptable in the classroom. The practice teaching students could tell the students what was acceptable and was not in the classroom according to the school rules and the learning importance.

2. Students' Not Submitting Take-Home Assignments

The second problem in the student factors categorization was about the students' not submitting take-home assignments. To solve the problem, each interviewee gave different solutions. However, it was basically to make the students realize they were doing wrong by not scoring them, setting up a rule about not accepting late submission, giving high expectations, and giving advices as well as additional information such as their assignments would be accumulated as their final remark. The practice teaching students could either tell the information to the students by themselves or ask for help to the practice teaching students' advisors. It would give the students a sense of fear of not having a good score in their final remark.

In addition, the practice teaching students could also give rewards for the students who finished and submitted their take-home assignments. The rewards were not necessarily to be something big and expensive but that of motivation boost for the students. It could be candies, stars, or even an extra score. Those solutions would motivate those who did not finish and submit take-home assignments to work on them better. From those solutions, it could be said that the practice teaching students needed to motivate the students through giving rewards, expect them to do better, and also tell them the importance of submitting their take-home assignments.

3. Students' Lateness in Entering the Classroom

The third problem in the student factors categorization was about the students' lateness in entering the class especially when they were having a morning class, sport course, and break. To solve the problem, the solution was basically to facilitate the students to change their lateness habits. There were several solutions to solve the problem. The first one was to ask the late students to tell the reason of their lateness in front of the class and let the other students decide whether they could join the class. The second one was to make an agreement that the students would have an extra assignment for their lateness. It would make them think twice for coming late to the class.

The third solution was to ask the captain of the class or another random student to call their friends who were still outside the class. However, before doing so, the practice teaching students needed to make sure that the student to call their friends was not he or she who were likely to join those who were outside. Moreover, to deal with the late students' understanding of the missed lesson, the practice teaching students could approach them when the other students worked on the assignment and asked whether they understood. If they did not understand, the practice teaching students could explain the material to them in a brief. Dealing with the students' lateness, the practice teaching students needed to ensure two things. The first one was to facilitate the late students to change their lateness habits while the second one was to ensure that they could follow the learning material in the class. By giving them an extra assignment, and asking them to tell the reason of their lateness to the whole class would facilitate them to change. Moreover, asking and explaining the material to the late students while the other students were working on the assignment were effective since the practice teaching students did not need to repeat the missed explanation to the whole class.

4. Students' Misunderstanding of the Teacher-Student Close Relation

The fourth and the last problem in the student factors categorization was about the students' misunderstanding of the teacher-student close relation in the classroom learning. The misunderstanding could affect the learning activity when the students acted as if they were a friend with the practice teaching student in the classroom learning. The solution to this problem was to set up a rule from the beginning of the first meeting. Setting up a rule and communicating them with the students how they should behave in the class and should not would minimize the close-relation misunderstanding and enable the students to set their position.

Another solution was that the practice teaching students needed to place themselves and be firmer to the students who misunderstood the close relation. By being firmer and setting up a rule, the students would know the distance between the teacher and the students in the classroom learning. In other words, if the practice teaching students could place themselves, the students would also be able to place their position. Although having close relation with the students was important, the practice teaching students needed to maintain the positive one.

The Solutions to the Problems Arising from School Factors
The problems in this category included the school's inconsistent time allocation and the school incomplete facility. The solutions to those problems were as follows:

1. School's Inconsistent Time Allocation
The first problem in the school factors categorization was about the school's inconsistent time allocation on certain special days that made the learning activity planned disturbed. Based on the interview, the solution to this problem was mainly about having a plan A and plan B. For instance, the plan A would spend a whole time learning while the plan B would only spend a half from the whole time learning. Thus, whenever the school reduced the time allocation for the teaching on the day, it could be anticipated by using the plan B. Another solution was that the practice teaching students could change the learning activity into homework. When it was not possible to change the learning activity into homework, the practice teaching students could take an initiative by giving the students homework of the related material. This kind of unpredictable problem occurred because of the school factors could be managed by having a plan A and B and changing the learning activity into homework.

2. School Incomplete Facility
The second problem in the school factors categorization was about the school incomplete facility or the school not in good condition facility that could not be used to enhance the learning and teaching activity. To solve this problem, several solutions were suggested by the interviewees. The first one and the most important was to check whether the facility the practice teaching students was going to use was available and in good condition. If the practice teaching students were unsure, a changing of plan was still manageable. The second solution was to maximize the use of traditional facilities such as blackboard or whiteboard, books, and handouts. The practice teaching students could turn the material delivered using the traditional facilities into something interesting for the students. From the traditional facilities, the practice teaching students could design and make interesting learning activities and media using games, pictures, and real examples or even the students' close environment for

learning. For instance, the practice teaching students could ask the students to find some signs in the parking area. In other words, the practice teaching students should not rely on technology to create interesting learning activities, since as long as it was effective, it could replace the importance of technology.

Important Things in Dealing with Classroom Management Problems

Based on the interview, there were some important things the practice teaching students needed to do and ensure in dealing with classroom management problems during the school Practice Program. The first one was to make a comfortable class. If the students felt comfortable, they would follow the instructions and learning better. The second one was to have good attitude that would make the students trust the practice teaching students. When the students trusted the teacher, they would set their rule as nice students. The third one was to have authority. The practice teaching students needed to be close to the students but aware with the role as their teacher.

The fourth was that the practice teaching students needed to know their students very well and differentiate who were the disruptive students. It included knowing the students' names and characteristics. After knowing the students very well, the practice teaching students needed to pay more attention to the disruptive one and encouraged them to be better students. The fifth was about time management. The practice teaching students needed to have good time management that would not make the students bored. The last one was about designing interesting learning activities. Interesting learning activities could make the students pay more attention to the practice teaching students as well as making enjoyable learning for them.

Conclusion

Having discussed the research results in the *Chapter IV*, it was proven that the ELESP practice teaching students in the academic year of 2011 experienced eight major classroom management problems during the School Practice Program. The researcher classified all the problems found into two major classifications, namely internal and external problems. The researcher categorized the internal problems into one category, teacher factors; and categorized the external problems into student factors and school factors. In addition, the total of the problems in all the two classifications and all the three categorizations were eight problems.

The first one was the teachers' unclear instructions. To solve this problem, the practice teaching students could check the students' understanding, repeat the instructions, and give necessary translation. The practice teaching students could also plan the instructions to make sure effectiveness. The second problem was encouraging the students to speak in English. Dealing with this problem the practice teaching students could give examples in the daily conversation about certain sentences spoken in English, mix a turn between the passive and active 59 students, and designing learning activities that would encourage and motivate the students to speak in English.

The third problem was about the students' disruptive behavior. To solve the problem, the practice teaching students could approach the students and being silent to make the students realize what faults they made. The fourth problem was about

the students' not submitting take-home assignments. Experiencing this problem, the practice teaching students could motivate the students by giving notice and high expectations, rewards, and also information about the importance of submitting their assignments. The fifth problem was about the students' lateness. Dealing with this problem, the practice teaching students could ask other students to find them outside the class, and give an extra assignment for those who were late more than the expected time. It would give sense of fear of being late and facilitate them to change.

In the sixth problem, when the students misunderstood the teacher-student close relation, the practice teaching students could communicate rules and be firmer to the students. The seventh problem was about the school's inconsistent time allocation. The problem about the inconsistent time allocation could be managed by having a plan A and plan B. The practice teaching students could always switch the activity into homework. The last problem was about the school facility. The solution to this problem was to maximize the traditional facility to create an interesting learning activity. The practice teaching students could also check the facility first before planning the lesson.

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