

## CHAPTER II

### LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter aims to clarify several issues related to vocabulary. First, the writer explains the meaning of vocabulary and its branches. Second, the writer views the importance of vocabulary and its relationship with English skills (reading, writing, speaking, and listening). Third, the writer describes the model of vocabulary instruction. Fourth, the writer explains what a workbook is and its importance in English instruction. Contextual is the last point the writer describes as one of the themes in this thesis.

#### **A. Vocabulary**

##### **1. Definition of vocabulary**

Before we define vocabulary, we must first know what a *word* is. According to Webb & Nation (2017, p. 19) and Fasold (2006, p. 56), words are the building material of language. Words are essential to almost every aspect of our lives and are central to listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Bloomfield (1993) in Aziez and Aziez (2019, p. 4) stated that word is the most diminutive free form. Lardiere in Fasold (2006, p. 56) defined words as the smallest independent language unit. So, the word is 1) an independent unit, 2) meaningfulness, 3) undividable (Aziez & Aziez, 2019, p. 5), or a small unit of language that has meaning.

Language consists of words; all the existing words we learn are called vocabulary. According to Linse (2005, p. 121), vocabulary is a

collection of words, explicitly the number of words an individual knows. Pikulski and Templeton (2004, p. 1) also define vocabulary as many vocabulary words, which is the number of words students use and understand. So, vocabulary is a collection of words learners have used and understood.

## 2. The type of vocabulary

### a. Receptive and productive vocabulary

Vocabulary is a collection of words that learners have used and understood. However, "use" and "understand" need to be clarified. Nation (2000, pp. 39–49); Pikulski and Templeton (2004, p. 2); Webb & Nation (2017, p. 43); and Schmitt (2000, p. 4) classify the knowledge of vocabulary into receptive and productive skills. The activity in which learners "use" vocabulary is when they speak to others and write something. It is called *expressive vocabulary* since we use vocabulary to express ourselves. Meanwhile, we "understand" vocabulary when listening to speech and reading. It refers to *receptive vocabulary* since the activities are listening and reading. In short, the competency required to listen or read is called *receptive* competency, and the competency required to speak and write is called *productive* competency (Aziez & Aziez, 2019, p. 22).

Aziez and Aziez (2019, p. 23) (Pikulski & Templeton, 2004, p. 2) explain *receptive* and *productive* or *expressive* vocabulary. Receptive vocabulary covers students' whole words, whereas productive

vocabulary includes speaking and writing activities. Nevertheless, productive vocabulary is also a part of receptive vocabulary; instead it is only in speaking and writing activity. Pikulski and Templeton (2004, p. 2) also explain *oral* and *literate* vocabulary. *Oral vocabulary* means listening and speaking, whereas *literate* vocabulary refers to reading and writing. The figure below shows those terms.

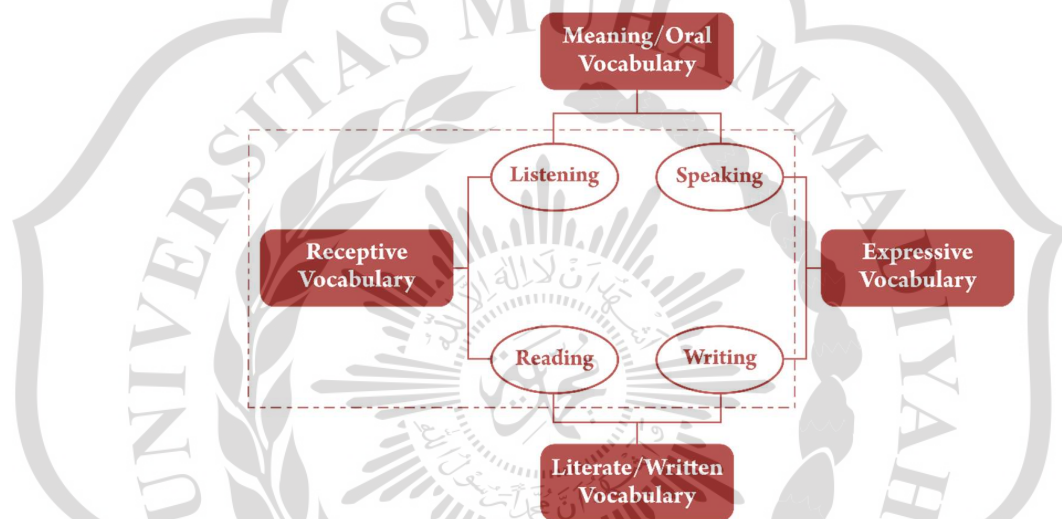


Chart 1. The relationship of receptive and productive vocabulary  
(Adapted from Aziez and Aziez (2019) & Pikulski and Templeton (2004))

In childhood, students do not have a literate vocabulary. Still, they have been involved in obtaining a meaning/oral vocabulary (words they understand through hearing and can even use in their speech). Most of them get reading and writing skills upon entering school, and they need to acquire a basic knowledge of how printed letters relate to the sound of spoken words and how printed words relate to spoken words. They will

need to translate or transcode print into speech when they have known meaning/oral vocabulary for their literate vocabulary (Aziez & Aziez, 2019, pp. 22–24); (Pikulski & Templeton, 2004, p. 2). So, children have a more meaningful vocabulary than a literate vocabulary. It differs from older students or adults, who may use more words in reading and writing than in their speech. The reason is that written language is more formal, complex, and sophisticated than spoken language.

b. Academic words

Academic words are collected from specific scripts by considering the level of education and grade. The types of words are verbs, nouns, adjectives, and adverbs. Aziez and Aziez (2019, p. 25) mentioned some academic word lists, namely Academic Word List/AWL from Coxhead (2000), Academic Word List/AWL from Burke (2015), and University Word List/UWL from Xue and Nation (1984) in Nation (2000). In English learning, academic words are significant for students because those words have a purpose for understanding the material in the learning process Coxhead 2000, p. 213. Marzano (2005) in Aziez and Aziez (2019, p. 28) stated that teachers need to deliver academic words in English instruction to support the students in understanding information they read and listen during teaching learning process.

c. Number of words in a language

The English language has a vast vocabulary. The most prompting question for EFL is, "*How much vocabulary do learners need to know?*".

In this discussion, we will take three fundamental questions from Nation (2000, pp. 9–15) and Schmitt 2000, pp. 3-4: *How many words are in the language? How much vocabulary do learners need to know? How much vocabulary do learners need to use another language?*

1) How many words are there in the language?

According to Nation (2000, p. 9), to know all the words in a language is too ambitious since it's almost impossible to say precisely the number of words in English (McCarten, 2007, p. 1). Word entry in some dictionaries is different from one another. Aziez and Aziez (2019, p. 29) stated that a large English dictionary load 400.000 words. Goulden, Nation, and Read (1990) in Nation (2000, p. 9) said that *Webster's Third International Dictionary* contains around 88,000-114,000 word families excluding proper names (Nation, 2000, p. 9, 2006, p. 59). Whereas, Schmitt (2000, p. 3) cited some reports that explained several words in the English language, i.e., 400,000 to 600,000 words (Claiborne, 1983); a half million to over 2 million (Crystal, 1988); about 1 million (Numberg & Rosenblum, 1977); and 200,000 words in everyday use. Therefore, to know the number of words, we should count words in a comprehensive dictionary (Aziez & Aziez, 2019, p. 29).

2) How much vocabulary do learners need to know?

Nation (2000, p. 9) and Agernas (2014, p. 3) stated that knowing all of the languages is a very ambitious thing; even native speakers do

not know all the vocabulary of the language. Some experts suggested that learners must comprehend all words based on their expertise.

In his study, Agernas (2014) states that the vocabulary size needed to understand spoken English is lower than that required to practice written English. His study indicated that a vocabulary size of 8,000-9,000 words is necessary for families to gain adequate reading comprehension. Aziez and Aziez (2018a, p. 67) stated that if learners' understanding of words in a textbook is less than 95%, they cannot read it independently.

Nation (2006) in Agernas (2014, p. 9) has concluded that learners need 7,000 words in families to comprehend what is said in the movie and gain 98% coverage. Still, learners with 4,000-word families could acquire approximately 95% coverage. Note, this 7,000 does not need to watch and enjoy the movie, but it is required to manage and fully comprehend what is said.

### 3) How many words do native speakers know?

This question seems strange since, logically, a native speaker must master the whole vocabulary. Schmitt (2000, p. 3) and Nation (2000, p. 12) stated English native-speaking university graduates had learned 20,000-word families. This consists of a headword and its closely related inflected and derived forms. Native speakers add their vocabulary an average of 1,000 words families a year. According to Agernas (2014, p. 3) and Nation (2006, p. 60), native English speakers are estimated to

be approximately 1000-word families per year in childhood or up to the age of 20 and 20,000-word families for a university graduate or well-educated people.

Therefore, Nation (2000, p. 10) explains several ways of counting words in which it decides what will be counted, e.g.;

#### 1) Tokens

When we are going to count the whole words in a spoken or written text, it is called *tokens*. The way is to count every word form; if the same word form occurs more than once, then each occurrence is counted. For example, a sentence that is not easy to say correctly would contain eight words, even though two are the same word form. Tokens call that, or sometimes it is called *running words* (Nation, 2000, p. 10). In short, we would count tokens to answer the following questions:

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*How many words are there on a page or in a line?*

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*How long is this book?*

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*How fast can you read?*

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*How many words does the average person speak per minute?*

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#### 2) Types

*Types* are different from *tokens*. We count the words in the sentence: *it is not easy to say it correctly* that consists of seven other words or *types*. The same words are only counted once, although they occur more than once. So, we count *types* to answer questions like *how large Shakespeare's vocabulary was. How many words do you need to*

*know to read this book? How many words does this dictionary contain?*

(Nation, 2000, p. 10).

### 3) Word families or lemmas

Words are counted as *lemmas* or as *word families*. Lemmas consists of a headword; some commonly have inflected and possibly reduced forms. Examples of inflections are the plural, third-person singular present tense, past tense, past participle, present participle, comparative, superlative, and possessive forms (Agernas, 2014, p. 4).

Word families are larger units, which are also categorized under a heading. They include all the lemma forms and other closely related forms, e.g., affixes *-ly*, *-ness*, and *un-*nation. Further, word family consists of a headword, inflected forms, and closely related derived forms (Nation, 2000, pp. 10–11). Thornbury (2002, p. 4) explained the word families simply. He stated that each word in English may share the same base or **root** (e.g., *look*) but have different endings: *looks*, *looking*, *looked*. It can be called **affixes**, using adds-on (added at the end of the word called **suffixes**, while at the beginning of the word called **prefixes**).

Then, if the affixes' purpose is grammatical, the word resulting from this addition is called **inflection**. *Walked*, *walking*, and *walks* are inflections of the root word *walk*. However, if the affixes change the word class of a stem, the result is called a **derivative**. So, the word *stimulating* (adjective) and *stimulation* (noun) are derivatives of *stimulate* (verb)

(Schmitt, 2000, p. 2; Thornbury, 2002, p. 4). It has a different meaning from the root as well. For example, the origin of the word is *play*.

<i>Play</i>
<i>play + er</i>
<i>re + play</i>
<i>play + ful</i>

So, when *plays*, *played*, and *playing* are the inflections of the word *play*, the word *player*, *replay*, and *play* are derivative. The process of affixation forms both inflection and derivative. Now, we can identify **word families** in which it comprises the base word plus its inflections and its most common derivatives. Another example, we take the base word *understand* and its family's members:

<i>Understand</i>
<i>Understanding</i>
<i>Understood</i>
<i>Understandable</i>
<i>Misunderstand</i>
<i>Misunderstood</i>

Learners are assumed to know how words are inflected and constructed in the language. When they see the word 'undoubtedly,' they will see the prefix *un-*, the root word *doubt*, the inflection *-ed*, and the suffix *-ly*, and be able to decipher the meaning from this information (Argenas, 2014, p. 4). Schmitt (2008) in Argenas (2014, p. 4) explained the difference between word families and lemmas, which is that the lemmas are more transparent and represent smaller units. Word families

can sometimes become quite large, and research has not proved that knowing a headword means knowing all of its derived forms.

#### 4) Corpus

Corpus is one of the developments of word frequency. Some definitions of corpus meet at the same point, that is, a collection of words. However, what words exactly need to be discussed? According to Aziez and Aziez (2019, p. 31), the corpus is a group of words that are studied in the running text. Whereas Sinclair (2004, p. 23) explains that a corpus is a collection of pieces of text in the form of electronic, selected through some criteria to represent a variety of language as research resources. Then, Read (2000), cited by Aziez and Aziez (2019, p. 31), defines corpus as large text or discourse, selected as the core of counting word frequency. So, a corpus is a collection of words from the text or discourse selected through some criteria in electronic form to represent a variety of a language or count word frequency. The requirements for creating a corpus are as follows:

- a) Representativeness: The corpus mode varies, whether it is speech, writing, or electronic mode.
- b) Frequency and range: A list of words covers the most appearance words in various text
- c) Word families: in developing a list of words, they must consider the type of words from the same word families. For example, we

may not input *looks*, *looking*, and *looked* as three types of words because those originated from one word, *look*.

- d) Idiom and phrase: An idiom could be classified as one input, whereas a phrase is included in the main word.
- e) Range of information: each word carries some information, i.e., type, frequency, basic meaning, variety of meaning and its collocation, and usage (formal or informal).
- f) Level of usage: in creating a list of words, a researcher should consider difficulty, interest, scope, and style.

(Aziez & Aziez, 2019, p. 33)

Still, following those criteria would meet the intended use as explained by McCarten (2007, p. 3) that corpus essentially tells us about:

- a) Frequency: the most frequent and rare of words and expressions.
- b) Differences in vocabulary which is more often used in speaking and which is more often used in writing.
- c) Contexts of use: what situations in which people use particular language.
- d) Collocation: words are often used together
- e) Grammatical patterns: how words and grammar combine to form patterns
- f) Strategic use of vocabulary: which words and expressions are used to organize and manage discourse

### 5) Word-frequency list

According to Aziez and Aziez (2019, p. 37), a word-frequency list contains words and their frequency (in a corpus). This word frequency is ordered from the highest to the lowest, for example, 2,000 most frequent words. However, the list may be created from particular text per its needs. In L2, word frequency is an attempt for the teacher to formulate the needs analysis (what needs to be learned by the students) (Nation, 2004, p. 3). (McCarten, 2007, p. 4) gives a word-frequency list in spoken language as follows:

Table 1. List of the most common words appear in spoken language

Category	Word
Subject	<i>I</i>
Verb	<i>know, think, get, go, mean</i>
Noun	<i>people, time, things</i>
Adjective	<i>good</i>
Similar or related words	<i>Yeah, it is more frequent than yes</i>
	<i>Little is more frequent than small.</i>
Plural-singular	<i>things, years, kids, children are more frequent than thing, year, kid, child</i>
Another (question)	Adverbs are more frequent than grammatical items like <i>doesn't</i>
	<i>Something is more frequent than anything, everything, nothing.</i>

McCarten (2007, p. 4) suggested that it is better for the primary learner for the teacher to deliver the top 2,000-word list in the order in which they appear. In determining word frequency, the teacher may use

the software. This software produces lists of word types and their frequency in the corpus. It also shows some statistical profiles of the relation of types to tokens in the corpus. Still, from this software, teachers would know the indications of the distribution of types across the text categories. Besides that, it provides graphical displays to summarize these lists in a form that can be assimilated by the corpus user (Atkins et al., 1992, p. 3). As an option, the teacher may use a vocabulary profile. Yet, teachers must undertake the following procedures (Aziez & Aziez, 2019, p. 39):

- a) collecting many texts from any resources proportionally
  - b) inputting the words into a computer
  - c) counting the number of appearances of a word
  - d) ordering the words based on the number of appearances (including percentage)
  - e) sorting words, numbers, symbols, or other words which do not match with the criteria
  - f) even sorting some words that are possibly to be classified as single entry
- 6) Text coverage

Text coverage is defined as a collection of words in a text (Fengxiang, 2013, p. 288), lexical coverage, and vocabulary coverage (Schmitt et al., 2011, p. 26). Nation 2006 p. 61 explained that text coverage is the percentage of running words in a text known by the

readers. It is calculated by counting the number of the known words in a text, multiplying them by 100, and then dividing the result by the total number of running words. The illustration of the formula is as follows:

$$x = \frac{A \times 100}{B}$$

Which,

X : text coverage

A : the known words

B : number of words in the running text

For example, if students have reached 95% or 98% lexical coverage, they may understand 95% or 98% of the text's running words. Even so, ninety-five percent and 98% lexical coverage are not equal to 95% and 98% comprehension (Hsu, 2011, p. 248). Aziez and Aziez's (2018a, p. 71) study revealed that Junior High School Textbooks (JHS TBs) in grade VII reach 4,000 words level and 95.26% of text coverage. In other words, when students OF grade VII know the same amount of 4,000 words level, they will know 95.26% of the total words in the textbooks.

### 3. The goals of vocabulary learning

In Thornbury (2002, p. 13), David Wilkins stated that very little can be conveyed without grammar. *Without vocabulary, nothing can be conveyed.* Dellar H and Hocking D also stated in their book that *if you spend most of your time studying grammar, your English will not improve very much.* Thornbury (2002, p. 13) added that learners can say almost anything when they have more words but can only speak very little if they have few

words. This clarifies that words are the key to communication (Webb & Nation, 2017, p. 19). As children, we distinguish all words spoken around us and implicitly enhance our ability to produce these words ourselves. Besides that, when we were in school, the books were typically designed to introduce vocabulary. Sometimes, it is illustrated by pictures to tell meaning. Then, to support students' spelling ability, the book provides forms of words. A dictionary also helps students increase the number of new words they encounter.

Still, according to Webb & Nation, vocabulary is the core of learning content at all educational levels (2017, p. 19). Teachers introduce useful or key vocabulary in each topic delivered during the teaching and learning process. Teachers also explain unknown words when they encounter them. They explain the words with definitions, diagrams, translations, and examples to illustrate their usage. Teachers might model the spelling and pronunciation of words in class.

Further, teachers give some common exercises (word searches and crossword puzzles) to familiarize learners with the forms. Still, teachers may use multiple-choice and matching words to strengthen knowledge of the meaning. Then, writing and speaking tasks are then applied to develop learners' ability to use words correctly. Webb and Nation (2017) added that vocabulary is one aspect of language learning that satisfies learners. Therefore, teachers need to deliver vocabulary in their instruction.

In the preliminary stage, we must know the goals of vocabulary learning. According to Aziez and Aziez (2019, pp. 79–82), there are four goals in vocabulary learning those are:

a. Word meaning

When teachers deliver the meaning of a word, they need to consider three essential points: most words have more than one meaning; the meaning of words relates to the context; students may comprehend the meaning of words if they understand the words relate to them.

b. Word using

Word use may help students practice language, especially in three aspects, i.e., increasing the linguistic variation of speech, strengthening vocabulary internalization in mind, and facilitating word retrieval. One of the most critical indicators in English learning is mastering lexical variety because students will have rich utterances in speaking activity.

c. Word formation

Mastering word formation will enrich students' vocabulary mastery and even help them guess the meaning of words they did not know before.

d. Word grammar

A word's grammatical connection to others gives students an understanding that a word is derived from a headword and has roots. Each part of them has a different meaning, function, and purpose. For

example, the word can be a noun, verb, adverb, or adjective. When students understand them well, they can memorize the words correctly.

#### e. Pronunciation

Language is oral, in which students listen to a word and then practice pronouncing it. This process starts in childhood when we do not understand a word's meaning. As childhood is the best period to form students' vocabulary input, pronunciation is vital when introducing a word. Moreover, pronouncing a word will affect or be affected by a word that goes before or after. So, if students pronounce words regularly, it will form a habit of understanding and memorizing more words. In conclusion, teachers must introduce pronunciation in their instruction since the more practice pronouncing a word in its context, the longer it will stay in memory. Further, teachers are models because students imitate teachers' pronunciation.

#### 4. Content of vocabulary

Aziez and Aziez (2019, p. 86) stated that only students (beginners) need to master many words and respond to some questions about daily activity, such as *things around us: family members, color, clothes, weather, the day, months; date; year; and time*. In Indonesia, junior high school students are categorized as beginners since English is not comprehensively taught in elementary school. Besides that, English is local content, so English learning in each school differs from the previous year. Those ten contents are the development of ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines (American

Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages). ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines describe what individuals can do with language in terms of speaking, writing, listening, and reading in real-world situations in a spontaneous and non-rehearsed context (ACTFL, 2012). Besides, teachers must consider the appropriateness between the vocabulary content and the textbooks. He & Seepho (2010, p. 1) stated that essential words EFL students need to learn must be well selected for effective teaching and efficient learning.

### **5. The strategy to learn words**

In an early section of this chapter, it is mentioned *receptive* and *productive* vocabulary. Receptive vocabulary is when students encounter words during reading or listening activities. On the other hand, productive vocabulary is the condition if students want to express speaking or writing. Therefore, this section will discuss those two *receptive* and *productive* vocabularies in defining words during reading (receptive vocabulary) and memorizing (productive vocabulary).

#### **a. To memorize the words**

Students need not only to master many words but to memorize them. The way to remember words, Thornbury (2002, pp. 23–26) explains three systems, i.e., short-term storage, working memory, and long-term storage.

### 1) Short-term store (STS)

STS is the brain's capacity to hold words that have been heard for a few seconds or repeat words that the teacher has just heard. However, in learning vocabulary, students will understand and use a word if it proceeds with various operations.

### 2) Working memory (WM)

The function of working memory is that students study in-depth current words to use them in various types of operations.

#### a. Long-term store (LTS)

LTS is a filing system with an enormous capacity, and its contents are long-term memory. However, students may maintain the vocabulary obtained only during the lesson. After switching to another lesson, students tend to forget. The big challenge for students is to change material from being quickly forgotten to never being forgotten. Many principles need to be considered to ensure that material moves to permanent long-term memory, as follows:

- a) Repetition: this is the most effective and applied way of memorizing new words through continuous articulation. However, repetition will have long-term effects when encountered or met at least seven times over spaced intervals.
- b) Retrieval: This is retrieving a word into such practices as using the new word in written sentences or recalling speaking activities in the future.

- c) Spacing: teachers will present new words; they may deliver the first two or three items, then go back and test them, then explain some more, backtrack again, and so on. For better results, the test may be extended and increased.
- d) Pacing: The teacher allows students to 'pace a word,' such as organizing or reviewing their vocabulary silently and individually, since they have different learning styles and process data at different rates.
- e) Use it or lose it: putting words to be used excitingly is the best way to ensure they are added to long-term memory.
- f) Cognitive depth: students will know the word well when they decide its part of speech, whether it is a noun, adjective, or verb. When it is known deeply, students may use it in complete sentences.
- g) Personal organizing: in research, students who had read a sentence aloud containing new words showed better recall than students who had merely silently practiced the words. But students who had made up their sentences containing the words and read them aloud did better still.
- h) Imaging: still, in the research, visualized words are more easily memorable than words that don't immediately evoke a picture. Even abstract words can be easily memorized when visualized, whether the image is highly imaginative or vivid, so long as it is self-generated rather than acquired second-hand.

i) Mnemonics: it is a device that helps students remember things. Students associate the information they want to remember with the mnemonics technique with something they know very well, like a picture, place, person, or even word. Some of the most common mnemonic devices are acronyms, acrostics, rhymes, or songs, for example, PNG for Portable Network Graphics (acronyms); Never Eat Sour Watermelons for memorizing the words North, East, South, West (acrostics). Another example is that students want to remember the year Columbus landed in the Americas: "In fourteen hundred and ninety-two, Columbus sailed the Ocean Blue."

b. To define the words

According to Read (2000, p. 35) and Aziez and Aziez (2019, p. 109), there are some strategies students can apply when they encounter new words that they have never seen before as follows:

1) Read the word

Read on without trying to understand the word. The more students pronounce the word, the more productive they will be. A word can be mastered when they are pronounced sixteen times.

2) Relate the word

Students may relate the word to other words and need to remember the words close to the new word they find.

### 3) Analyze word grammar

Students may identify structural components and morphemes as prefixes, suffixes, infixes, and their roots to find the meaning.

### 4) Guess the meaning from the context.

Teachers should teach students that 1) a word has more than one meaning; 2) the meaning of words close to where they appear; 3) the meaning of words can be understood when students know other words go before or after.

### 5) Look it up in a dictionary.

Students must be taught to open the dictionary, and teachers should guide them.

## **B. Book**

In this study, what is meant by a book is a textbook that teachers and students generally use in learning language. A textbook is an information resource of the content that students are learning, and it is a theoretical framework or guidance in delivering material in class. The difference between writing a textbook for teaching and using a textbook in education is that a textbook is written. When teachers use textbooks in teaching, they should consider whether the textbook is appropriate to the students' needs. Meanwhile, in writing textbooks, teachers directly set students' needs and provide them with textbooks. Aziez and Aziez (2018a) stated that textbooks facilitate and become a central tool for teachers and students. It provides not only well-structured texts but also exercises.

## 1. Definition of textbooks

Graves and Gak (2000, p. 175) stated that a textbook is a book used as a standard source of information for a formal study of a subject and an instrument for teaching and learning. Whereas, according to Richard (2001, p. 1), textbooks are the key component for both teacher and learner in providing language practice that occurs in the classroom: the content of lessons, the balance of skills taught, and the kinds of language practice the students take part in. Thomas (2014, p. 9) defines a textbook as a major or minor source of background information that helps guide the students' understanding of the subject matter presented by a college faculty member, regardless of the source's format. Sources may be printed, audio, digital, etc.

So, a textbook is a book teachers and learners use as a standard source of information, providing content of lessons, skills taught, and kind of language practice. According to (Gak, n.d., p. 1), the textbook represents a helpful resource for teachers as course designers and learners who are acquiring the English language.

## 2. The importance of textbook

Textbooks are essential tools to develop the linguistic competence of English foreign language learners. Therefore, the quality of textbooks affects the quality of instruction a lot. At the same time, the quality of textbooks is affected by the quantity and the quality of language input (Orío, 2014).

Textbooks have also affected the output quality as an instrument or stimulus in teaching and learning. However, the textbook also has advantages and disadvantages (Graves, 2000, pp. 174–175):

- a. It provides a syllabus since the authors set the material learned and ordered.
- b. It becomes a map of the course: students know what to expect, and they also know what is expected.
- c. It provides a set of visuals, activities, readings, etc.
- d. It provides teachers with an assessment, while some texts may include tests or evaluation tools.
- e. It may carry supporting materials like videos, worksheets, cassettes, and a teacher's guide.
- f. It provides consistency

In contrast, Graves (2000, p. 174) also mentioned some disadvantages of using textbooks:

- a. The content or examples may not be relevant or appropriate
- b. The content may not be at the right level
- c. There may be too much focus on one or more aspects of language and not enough focus on others
- d. There may not be the right mix of activities
- e. The sequence has been designed in lockstep
- f. The content: activities, readings, visuals, maybe boring
- g. The material may not be up to date

h. The timetable may be unrealistic

Meanwhile, according to Richards (2001, p. 2), textbooks provide some ideas on how inexperienced teachers set the plan and teach lessons so that they can use the format for teacher training. We find that language teaching occurs worldwide. So that is why, for a teacher's professional knowledge, learning how to use and adapt, even develop textbooks, is an important part of language instruction.

Still, as cited by Margarana and Widyantoro (2017, p. 28), Richards (2001) documented seven advantages of the textbook, including (1) providing a description of the structure and syllabus of the program, (2) preparing standardized instruction, (3) maintaining the quality of learning process, (4) offering varied resources in learning process, (5) facilitating students and teachers to create efficient teaching and learning process, (6) conferring effective model and input, (7) serving medium and visualizing appealing model.

Further, Knight (2015, p. 1) indicates that textbooks are generally viewed as reliable tools that provide credible information that supports and enhances students' understanding of critical concepts and that they present bite-size chunks of information to cement student learning. However, with few advantages, a single textbook frequently does not meet the diverse needs of the learners. This requires textbook adaptation at the activity, unit, and syllabus levels. Adapting allows teachers to use their professional skills and engage learners in learning (Gak, n.d., p. 5).

## C. Contextual Teaching

### 1. Definition of contextual teaching and learning

Contextual Teaching and Learning (CTL) uses certain active learning techniques to deliver content to help learners connect what they already know to what they are expected to learn and constitute new knowledge. Still, CTL is defined as the concept of teaching and learning that assists teachers in relating matter content to genuine daily life and supports students to make connections between subject matter and its applications to them as students, family members, and citizens (Hudson & Whisler, 2007, p. 54).

CTL's basis theory focuses on connection, constructivism, and active learning. CTL commonly applies three types of learning scenarios (project-based, goal-based, and inquiry-oriented), illustrating how practitioners can use CTL.

### 2. Theoretical basis of CTL

#### a. CTL and Connection Theory

As cited by Hudson and Whisler (2007, p. 54) and Berns and Erickson (2001), they explained CTL learning helps students connect the content they are learning to the life contexts and that content could be used. As they know subjects in an integrated, multidisciplinary manner and appropriate contexts, they can (Hudson & Whisler, 2007, p. 55): review what they already know related to the new concept, learn about and practice new ideas, tie what they have learned to a real-life scenario.

#### b. CTL and Constructivist Theory

Incorporating contextual teaching principles helps promote authentic learning and increases students' success by allowing them to make connections as they construct knowledge. Piaget argued that knowledge acquisition is a process of continuous self-construction. Mayer contends in Hudson and Whisler (2007, p. 55) that constructivist learning is active learning where the learner possesses and uses a variety of cognitive processes during the learning process. The main cognitive processes include focusing on relevant information, arranging that information into thought, and integrating thought with existing knowledge.

#### c. CTL and Active Learning Theory

Students need to do more than listen. Teachers could implement some approaches to encourage inquiry and stimulate higher-order thinking, such as cooperative and collaborative learning, integrated learning, problem-based learning, and work-based learning. Lankard (1995) in Hudson and Whisler (2007, p. 55) categorized active learning as "learning by doing" and divided it into three types: *active learning* based on the premise that learning requires action and action requires learning; *situation learning* knowledge and skills are taught in context reflected activity in real-life situation; and *incidental learning* in which learning is spontaneous activity refers to experience in real-life.

### 3. CTL in practice

With the growing population in Indonesia, of course, teachers have the challenge of setting learning strategies that meet learners' needs. Blanchard (2001) provided some strategies in CTL for meeting learner's distinct needs. They are:

- a. Emphasize problem-solving
- b. Recognize the needs, for example, various contextual materials such as home, community, or work sites.
- c. Guide students to be self-regulated learners
- d. Accommodate all students' diverse life contexts
- e. Encourage students to learn from each other and together
- f. Employ authentic assessment

So, CTL is required to provide an activity that constructs student's knowledge, not just listen to the teacher and receive it. Teachers may create scenarios and guide them to explore the content actively to reach a goal, solve a problem, complete a project, or answer a question. The following scenario examples (goal-based, project-based, and inquiry-oriented) offer ideas for incorporating CTL in the classroom:

- a. Goal-Based Scenarios

Schank et al. (1999) in Hudson and Whilser (2007, p. 56) explained the Goal-Based Scenario (GBS) as a design to help students understand that achieving the goal needs the acquisition of knowledge and skills. Here are some components of GBS:

- 1) The learning goals: It is a process (focussing on students' skill) and content knowledge.
- 2) The mission: learning goal that students will relate to.
- 3) The cover story is a scenario that allows students to practice their skills and seek knowledge.
- 4) The role: motivate students to show competence
- 5) The scenario operations: all activities students do during the learning process
- 6) Resources: feedback through three ways (a consequence of actions, coaching, experts' experience)

b. Project-Based Scenarios

This scenario allows students to draw on their prior expertise and knowledge, to build on their experience gathered at their different sites of practice and learning, and to construct new knowledge through social action while gaining academic recognition and accreditation (Hudson & Whisler, 2007, p. 57).

Cotze and Cooper (2000) in Hudson and Whisler (2007, p. 57) explained some approaches to Project-Based Scenario:

- 1) Students choose a topic and form groups;
- 2) They plan the project and present plans to each other;
- 3) They report on work done, discuss the evaluation, plan next agenda
- 4) They present the project

### c. Inquiry-Oriented Scenarios

This approach allows students to express, confront, and analyze assumptions and misconceptions actively. Bevevino (1999) in Hudson and Whilser (2007, p. 57) describes some phases below:

#### 1) Exploration

It requires students' prior knowledge and experience to solve problems presented through simulation to examine concept to be developed throughout the learning cycle.

#### 2) Discussion and Presentation of New Content

Students propose their solution, describe conflicts they experienced, explain strategies they used, and then the teacher introduces new content related to the issue.

#### 3) Application and Expansion

It requires the students to apply the knowledge, skills, and insights acquired in Phases 1 and 2 to a new situation or creatively extend their knowledge into new exploration areas. Each group develops alternative solutions to a new problem, and the learning cycle ends with the whole class coming to the best solutions. Through scenarios in learning, students have opportunities to construct their knowledge actively. The process's input may be varied. Still, as students work to solve the problem, they can learn the content and develop their knowledge.

#### D. The Relevance Research

The researcher refers to some studies as the framework for this study. Those studies discuss the role or effect of vocabulary in English learning, the development of textbooks, and the role or impact of contextual material (target material). To give a view, these are some studies used as the reference of this research. Most of the issues that influence this study are vocabulary's role and effect in English learning. The researcher cited some studies of the role and impact of vocabulary on English language skills (listening, reading, speaking, writing) as follows:

1. Sen and Kuleli (2015), entitled *The Effect of Vocabulary Size and Vocabulary Depth on Reading in the EFL Context*, concluded that knowing a lot of vocabulary items also helps to know those items more deeply. As a result, this improves reading comprehension better.
2. Shen (2013), entitled *The Effects of Vocabulary Knowledge and Dictionary Use on EFL Reading Performance*, has revealed that a high score on specific vocabulary knowledge is noticeable for students' prediction in reading comprehension. It was seen from how good students' ability to infer from the context, activating content schemata and the knowledge of polysemy of the words.
3. Tze and Chou (2011), entitled *The Effects of Vocabulary Knowledge and Background Knowledge on Reading Comprehension of Taiwanese EFL Students*, showed that the participants who received a list of vocabulary

study performed significantly better on the reading comprehension test than those who relied on background knowledge.

4. Vieira (2017), entitled *Vocabulary Knowledge in the Production of Written Texts: A Case Study on EFL Language Learners*, revealed that the treatment group outperformed the control group in language production. Vocabulary knowledge of foreign language is necessary; it provides learners a broader ability to produce well-structured written texts and contributes to the comprehension of utterances.
5. Khan et al. (2018), entitled *The Role of Vocabulary Knowledge in the Speaking Development of Saudi EFL Learners*, stated that lack of vocabulary is one of the significant factors in students' inability to speak English. Thus, students should learn a variety of strategies in the course of developing a vocabulary to be able to speak fluently.
6. He and Seepho (2010), entitled *A Corpus-Based Vocabulary Selection for Grades 1-3 Thai EFL Learners*, found a list of the first 500 words most frequently appearing in textbooks that young learners needed to learn and to compare the list with three other most frequently quoted lists. A corpus of 146,192 running words was compiled from 501 lessons of the 14 series of textbooks. They suggested that essential words EFL/ESL students must learn must be well selected because it will create effective teaching and efficient learning.

7. Hakim and Anggraini (2015), entitled *Developing English Textbook for Fourth Grade Students in Elementary School*, developed an English textbook for the fourth Grade Students of SDN Rampal Celaket I Malang 2013/2014, which introduced English from the first students to the sixth students. They found that the book's product applies to students in terms of their attractiveness, the content's appropriateness, and the difficulty level. The content itself is appropriate because it relates to the student's life.

Those studies show how vocabulary mastery affects students' English skills (reading, writing, speaking, and listening). Vocabulary is important; students can understand the material with sufficient vocabulary. English instruction lacks suitable vocabulary material. Therefore, the researcher intends to contribute to the area by developing a contextual vocabulary workbook for students in the seventh grade of SMP Al Irsyad Al Islamiyyah Purwokerto. Contextual vocabulary means that the researcher discusses vocabulary already provided in the textbook, "When English Rings a Bell," but it is not studied as vocabulary learning. In other words, the teacher selects vocabulary from the textbook so the selection will meet the students' needs.