

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

A. Previous Research

Considering the topic of this research, there are some researches have been done related to the topic are :

The first research by Hanik Amaliyah Firdaus (2006) whose study with title *“The Use Of Pictorial story to improve the students’ Understanding on English Vocabulary (A Classroom Action Research With Fourth Grade of SDN 01 Mulyoharjo Jepara in the Academic Year 2010/2011)”*.¹The background of her study was the students still have difficulties in understanding the vocabulary. The teacher still uses conventional methods; the teacher only translates the words and monotone, so the students are easy to get bored. So the researcher wants know the significant effect of using Pictorial Story as medium to teach vocabulary. The study was conducted at SDN 01 Mulyoharjo Jepara in the academic year 2010/2011. The subject of this study was the students of fourth graders in class IVA. The number of the subject was thirty three. The design of research that used was classroom action research. This research conducted pre cycle,

¹Hanik Amaliyah Firdaus (063411025) *The Use Of Pictorial Story to Improve the Students’ Understanding on English Vocabulary A Classroom Action Research With Fourth Grade of SDN 01 Mulyoharjo Jepara in the Academic Year 2010/2011*, (Semarang: Tarbiyah Faculty, IAIN Walisongo Semarang, 2010)

and three cycles in classroom action research. The techniques which were used to collect the data are observation, test, and interview. The researcher analyzed the result of from observation and achievement test from each cycle. In the pre-test, the average of the students' achievement was 57.4. In the first cycle there are about 64% or many of the students joined the class, and the average of the students' achievement was 64.7. In the second cycle there are about 74% or almost majority of the students joined in the class, the average of the students' achievement was 71.8. In the third cycle there are 80 % or majority of the students' joined the class, the average of the students' achievement was 75.7. The data showed that the use of Pictorial Story is recommended for the English teacher, especially for Elementary school teachers to attract the students' interest and to improve their knowledge in learning English.

The similarities between this previous research and my research are the same material that is focus on vocabulary. The difference is about the method. this previous research used *Pictorial Story* and my research used *List-group-label Strategy*.

The second a study by Zahro Asfiyah (2006) , her thesis is "*The Use of Picture Message to Improve Students' Vocabulary in Concrete Noun*" (*An Experimental Research At The Second Grade of Mts Miftahut Thullab An-Nawawy Surodadi Jepara in*

Academic Year of 2010/2011).²The background of the study is to find out whether there is or not a significant difference in vocabulary score of students taught using picture message and those taught using non- picture message. The method of the research is experimental study. The data were obtained by giving test to the experimental class and control class after giving a different learning to both classes. The instruments used to collect the data were: documentation and test. The result of the research: The mean of vocabulary score of experimental class (the students taught using picture message) are 75.25 and the mean of vocabulary score of control class (the students taught without using picture message) are 71.38. There is a difference in vocabulary score between students taught using picture message and those taught without using picture message. It is showed of the mean of experimental class is higher than control class ($75.25 > 71.38$). On the other hand, the test of hypothesis using t-test formula shows the value of the t-test is higher than the value of the t-table. The value of ttest is 1.850, while the value of t-table on $\alpha = 5\%$ is 1.66 ($1.850 > 1.66$). The hypothesis is accepted. Based on the result of this study, it is expected to be an information material for many teachers especially English

²Zahro Asfiyah (063411056), *The Use of Picture Message to Improve Students' Vocabulary in Concrete Noun An Experimental Research at the Second Grade of Mts Miftahut Thullab An-Nawawy Surodadi Jepara in Academic Year of 2010/2011*, (Semarang: Tarbiyah Faculty IAIN Walisongo Semarang, 2011)

teachers in teaching modal. So, that can produce students who master English well.

The similarities between this previous research and my research are the same material that is focus on vocabulary. The difference is about the teaching method and the research method. The teaching method of this previous research used *Picture Message* and my research used *List-group-label Strategy*, for the research method this previous research used *Experimental Research* and my research used *Classroom Action Research*.

The third study is a journal with the title “*A Comparative Study on Vocabulary Learning Strategies and Learner Autonomy in Intermediate and Elementary EFL Learners*” was written by Naraghi Sara, and Seyyed Hassan Seyyedrezaei. The background of this research regarded as the building block of language, vocabulary has been considered as the main language component in language learning and teaching. Accordingly, strategies for vocabulary learning have been the cornerstone of a lot of studies. Studies, however, on the relationship between vocabulary learning strategies and learner autonomy is few. The purpose of this study is to compare the relationship between Iranian EFL learners' vocabulary learning strategies and learner autonomy in intermediate and elementary levels. The instrument of this research were Oxford Placement Test (OPT), Language Learning Strategies Questionnaire, and Learners' autonomy questionnaire were given to 85 female language learners. SPSS 16 was used to

analyze the data and to examine the research question. The data analysis of the results revealed that there is a significant difference between vocabulary learning strategies used by intermediate and elementary learners.

The similarities between this previous research and my research are the same material that is focus on vocabulary. The difference is about the research. this previous research used *Comparative Research* and my research used *Classroom Action Research*.

B. Literature Review

1. Vocabulary

Definition of vocabulary can be said as the words we teach in the foreign language. However, a new item of vocabulary may be more than a single word: for example, post office and mother-in-law, which are made up of two or three words but express a single idea.³

Vocabulary is a center component of language proficiency and a lot of the basis for how well learners speak, listen, read and write is provided by vocabulary. Learners often achieve less without an extensive vocabulary strategies for acquiring new vocabulary.⁴ Vocabulary is the

³Penny Ur, *A Course in Language Teaching*, (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1991), p.60.

⁴Jack C. Richards, *Methodology in Language Teaching*, (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2002), p.255.

units of meaning from which larger structures, such as sentences, paragraphs and whole texts are formed. It is the basic building block on language.⁵

According to Vygotsky, word is a human consciousness microcosm. All languages have words. Language appears first as word, both historically, and in terms of the way each of us learned our first and any subsequent language. The creating of new words never stop.⁶

David Wilkins said that very little can be conveyed without grammar, nothing can be conveyed without vocabulary. Your English will not improve very much, if you spend most of your time studying grammar. You will see most improvement if you learn more words and expressions. You can say almost anything with words but you can say very little with grammar.⁷ Evelyn hatch and Cheryl brown state that vocabulary is list or set of words that

⁵John Read, *Assessing Vocabulary*, (United Kingdom : Cambridge University Press, 2000),p. 1.

⁶Scott Thornburry, *How to Teach Vocabulary*, (England : Pearson Education Ltd, 2002),p.1.

⁷Scott Thornburry, *How to Teach Vocabulary*, (England : Pearson Education Ltd, 2002), p.13.

individual speakers of language might use or a list or set of words for a particular language.⁸

Based on explanation above, the researcher concludes that vocabulary is list of word which important component in language and it needs to be learned in language learning.

a. Parts of Speech

Traditionally a noun is defined as a word that names “a person, place, thing, or idea”. This defines the noun category according to what its members are assumed to typically denote, so it is a meaning-based or semantic definition.⁹ A compound noun is a single noun made up of two or more words. The compound noun may be written as one word, as a hyphenated word, or as two or more words.¹⁰

Here are some examples for person are brother, cindy, doctor, Ms. O’connor. For places are park, San Diego Zoo, store, Mid-Cities Mall. For thing are mailbox, baltic Sea, mouse, Main Street. For ideas are truth, humor, freedom, frienship.

⁸Evelyn Hatch, *Vocabulary, Semantic and Language Education* (United Kingdom:Cambridge University Press,1995), p.1.

⁹Delahunty, G. P., & Garvey, J. J.*The English language: From sound to sense*, (Fort Collins, Colo: WAC Clearinghouse, 2010), p. 148

¹⁰John Warriner, *Developmental Language Skills* (Eolang : Holt McDougal, 2009),p. 7

An adjective is a word that is used to modify a noun or pronoun. To modify a word means to describe the word or to make its meaning more definite. An adjective modifies a noun or pronoun by telling what kind, which one, how many, or how much. Adjectives usually come before the words they describe or modify. Sometimes, however adjective comes after it describes.¹¹

Here are some examples of adjectives are *what kind?* *sunny* day, *blue* eyes, *british* writer, *kind* person *which one or ones?* *those* students, *second* one, *that* hat, *any* volunteer *how many?* *or how much?* *some* pencils, *two* bears, *no* e-mails, *much* happiness. Take the example in a sentence “these grapes are sour”. The adjective sour describes the noun grapes.

A verb is a word that expresses action or a state of being. Verb can be divided into main and helping verbs. The main verb is a verb that expresses action or state of being. Sometimes, other verb added to main verb to make the main verb more specific. These other verbs are called helping verbs. A helping verbs helps

¹¹John Warriner, *Developmental Language Skills* (Eolang : Holt McDougal, 2009),p. 14

the main verb express action or state of being. Helping verbs are called auxiliary verbs.¹²

Here are some examples of verb in sentences, “We *played* a game of basket ball”. (The verb *played* expresses the action we performed). “Hellen *will* attend the music concert”. (The helping verb *will* helps the main verb *attend* express a future action). The most common helping verbs are *Am, being, do, have, must, were, are, can, does, is, shall, will, be, could, had, may, should, would, been, did, has, might* and *was*.

An adverb is a word that modifies a verb, an adjective, or another adverb. To modify a word means to describe it or make its meaning more specific. Adverbs make the meaning of a verb, adjective, or another adverb more definite.¹³

Here are some examples of adverb in sentences, “Cindy strolled the shore, and she *frequently* stopped to collect shells”. The adverb *frequently* modifies the verb stopped. The positions of adverbs, it may come before, after, or between the words they modify for example “*Quietly*, the cat was stalking a bird”. *Quietly* comes

¹²John Warriner, *Developmental Language Skills* (Eolang : Holt McDougal, 2009), p. 17

¹³John Warriner, *Developmental Language Skills* (Eolang : Holt McDougal, 2009), p. 21

before was stalking, the verb phrase it modifies. “The cat was stalking a bird *quietly*”. *Quietly* comes after was stalking, the verb phrase it modifies. “The cat was *quietly* stalking a bird”. *Quietly* comes between was and stalking, the verb phrase it modifies.

A pronoun is a word that is used in place of noun or more nouns or another pronouns. The example of pronoun in a sentence is “Chase said that he must study in this weekend”. The pronoun *he* is used in place of the noun *Chase*. Kinds of pronoun, the first is personal pronoun refers to the one speaking (first person), the one spoken to (second person), or the one spoken about (third person). The examples are “ We were sure that the birds would eat the bread. The personal pronoun *We* refers to people speaking. “*Your* dad is on the phone. The personal pronoun *your* refers to person to whom someone is speaking. “Holly and Jon got to school early and talked with *their* friends. The personal pronoun *their* refers to the people, *Holly and Jon*, about whom someone is speaking. The second is reflexive pronoun, it refers to the subject of a sentence. A reflexive pronoun is necessary to the basic meaning of the sentence. The example is “They recognized *themselves* in the photo”. The reflexive pronoun *themselves* refers to subject *they*. The third is intensive pronoun, it

emphasizes the word to which it refers. An intensive pronoun is unnecessary to basic meaning of sentence. The example is “she *herself* built the bookcase”. The intensive pronoun herself emphasizes *she*.¹⁴

An interjection is a word that expresses emotion. An interjection can be left out of a sentence without changing the meaning of the sentence. The most common interjections are *aha*, *ouch*, *wow*, *oh*, *yikes*, *hurray*, *oops*, *well*, and *yippee*. Interjections that express strong emotions are followed by an exclamation point. For example : “Wow! What an exciting game that was!”. “Hey, what are you doing”. Interjections that express mild emotion are set off from the rest of a sentence by commas. The example is “Well, I will try my best”.¹⁵

A preposition is a word that shows the relationship between a noun or a pronoun and another word in the sentence. The most common prepositions are *above*, *before*, *down*, *of*, *under*, *across* *behind*, *for*, *on*, *underneath*, *after*, *below*, *from*, *since*, *until*, *against*, *beside*, *in*, *through*, *up*, *around*, *between*, *into*,

¹⁴John Warriner, *Developmental Language Skills* (Eolang : Holt McDougal, 2009),p. 9-10

¹⁵John Warriner, *Developmental Language Skills* (Eolang : Holt McDougal, 2009),p. 26

*throughout, with, at, by, like, to, and without.*¹⁶ Preposition are often small words such as *to, by, of, in, on, up, off and from*. They make up for their size by performing important task. Prepositions show how one thing relates to something else. The example is suppose that we have a pencil, and we want to show its relationship to a desk. We might say it is on the desk or in the desk or by the desk or under the desk. *On, in, by and under* are prepositions showing how the pencil “relates” to the desk.¹⁷

Some prepositons are made up of more one word. They are called compound prepositions. The example in a sentence is “The story *according to* Janice is different”, the prepossession *according to* shows relationship of story to Janice. Some compound prepostions are *according to, aside from, because of, in addition to, in place of, next to, on account of out of.*¹⁸

A conjunction is a word that joins words or groups of words. There are two kinds of conjunctions. The first is coordinating conjunctions, it joins words or word

¹⁶John Warriner, *Developmental Language Skills* (Eolang : Holt McDougal, 2009),p. 23

¹⁷Randy Larson, *Hot Fudge Monday* (Fort Collins : Cottonwood Press, 2007),p. 47

¹⁸John Warriner, *Developmental Language Skills* (Eolang : Holt McDougal, 2009),p. 24

groups that are used in the same way. Coordinating conjunctions join words, phrases to phrases, and clauses to clauses. Some common coordinating conjunctions are *and, but, for, nor, or, so, and yet*. The second is correlative conjunctions, it is pairs of conjunctions. The pairs work together to join words or word groups that are used in the same way. They join words, phrases, and clauses to clauses. Some correlative conjunctions are *both... and, not only... but also, either... or, whether... or, neither... nor*.¹⁹

Here are some examples of coordinating conjunction, “shy but friendly”, the conjunction *but* joins two words. “Doing homework and listening to music”, the conjunction *and* joins two phrases. “ I arrived early, so I waited patiently. The conjunction *so* joins two clauses. The example of correlative conjunction is “he is saving money not only for a pet but also for pet supplies”. (the correlative conjunctions *not only... but also* join two phrases).

¹⁹John Warriner, *Developmental Language Skills* (Eolang : Holt McDougal, 2009),p. 25

b. The Principles of Teaching and Learning Vocabulary

According to Caroline T. Linse, there are several principles of teaching and learning vocabulary, as follows:²⁰

The first is emphasize about direct and indirect teaching. Direct and indirect vocabulary instruction should be included as part of a vocabulary development program. Direct instruction refers to teaching the words and their meanings. An example of direct instruction would be pre-teaching vocabulary items students will encounter in a reading selection. Indirect instruction refers to helping children learn appropriate strategies so they can figure out the meaning of words on their own. For example, teaching the prefixes uni, bi, and tri to students and then having them point to pictures of a unicycle, bicycle.

Second, teach vocabulary words before a new activity. When vocabulary words are taught before a new activity, students benefit in two ways. First, they are able to comprehend the activity. Second, teaching vocabulary words in advance makes it more likely that students will actually acquire the target vocabulary

²⁰ Caroline T. Linse, *Practical English Language Teaching: Young Learners* (New York:Mc Graw Hill,2005), p.123-127.

words. This principle holds true for stories (oral and written), songs, and many other language-rich activities.

Third, teach how to use context clues appropriately. Students can benefit from learning how to use context clues and guessing the meaning from the context. This is a strategy that learners can use when they encounter unfamiliar words. Conversely, Beck and McKeown point out that in addition to teaching how to use context clues, students also need to be taught that context clues do not always help readers to understand the meanings of unfamiliar words.

Fourth, presents multiple exposures to new vocabulary items. Students make educational gains when they are exposed to vocabulary items repeatedly in rich context. In other words, teacher shouldn't expect that a vocabulary word taught on Monday will be remembered on Wednesday. As part of teaching repertoire, a new word should appear many times and in different situations for the next several weeks of instruction.

Fifth, give opportunities for deep processing of vocabulary items. Deep processing means working with information at a high cognitive and/or personal level. Deep processing makes it more likely that information will be remembered. Part of deep processing is having

students establish connections between new words and their prior knowledge. Simply memorizing lists of words and their meanings is not adequate for students to integrate the vocabulary words into their personal vocabularies.

Sixth, teach students to use dictionaries. The use of dictionaries of tool for EFL and ESL instruction has come back into style. Students can benefit from using dictionaries. Students under the age of six, can use a picture dictionary where words are grouped into different categories.

The last, have students keep vocabulary notebooks. Vocabulary notebooks provide students with opportunities to develop a variety of vocabulary acquisition strategies and also help students have more control over their learning. Students who are in the beginning stages of language and literacy development can create their own picture dictionaries while older learners can make more sophisticated notebooks and dictionaries.

Based on the explanation above, it can be concluded that there are some principles in teaching and learning vocabulary can be used by English teachers. Then the goal of teaching learning can be achieved.

c. Techniques in Teaching Vocabulary

In the teaching learning process the teacher has to be able to make the interesting materials for the students, and he has to know all of methods in order to be able to use one of them when situation demands it. The creativity of the teacher will get a good result. According to Scott Thornbury, there are some techniques in teaching vocabulary. The first is using mnemonics, it involves devising an image that typically connects the pronunciation of the second language of word with the meaning of a first language. Second, by using word cards this technique, there are many activities as the variety such as peer teaching and testing, association games, guess my word, De-vowelled words, Gost writting, categories. Third, guessing from context is one of the most useful skiils learners can acquire and apply both inside and outside the classroom. It seems to be one that can be taught and implemented relatively easily. It also one that we all already use, perhaps unconsciously when reading and listening in our mother tongue. Fourth, coping strategies for production, this strategies learners can use gadgets and tools in their learning process. For the example is using tape, then apply it through role plays. Fifth, using Dictionaries, it is useful when learners are generating

text and looking for the resources of word for vocabulary acquisition. Sixth is spelling rules, dictionaries are often used to check spelling, and spelling in English is somewhat problematic. This is because there is often more than one way of spelling sound, and more than one way of pronouncing a letter (or combination of letters). Seventh is keeping records, the keeping of vocabulary notebooks is a skill that usually requires some classroom training. It is probably good if probably their own preferred method of recording vocabulary. The last is motivation, beside activities in making interest of words teachers able to share their own learning experiences or other learner experiences, both successful and unsuccessful.²¹

From the techniques above, the teacher can use one of them that is considered as the best technique and suitable with the condition of the students.

d. Conjunctive Relation

The time sequence now become a cohesive agent, and it is semantic relation in cohesive function, it is called as conjunction. There is no single, uniquely correct inventory of the types of conjunctive relation; different classifications are possible, each of which

²¹Scott Thornbury, *How to Teach Vocabulary* (England: Bluestone Press, 2013), p.145-160.

would highlight different aspects of the facts. Conjunction is classified becomes four categories: additive, adversative, causal, and temporal.²²

Considering cohesive relation, additive relation is divided into two types, the 'and' type and the 'or' type. There are some expressions of 'and' type, they are: *further, futhermore, again, also, moreover, what is more, besides, additionally, in addition, in addition to this, not only that but*. Some expression of 'or' type, there are: *I mean, that is, that is to say, (or) in other words, (or) to put it another way, in the exemplificatory sense, for instance, for example, thus*.²³

Summary of the conjunctive relation of the additive type:²⁴ Simple additive relations : Additive (*and; and also, and ... too*), Negative (*nor; and ... not, not ... either, neither*) and Alternative (*or; or else*). Complex additive relations : Additive (*furthermore, moreover, additionally, besides that, add to this, in addition, and another thing*) and Alternative (*alternatively*). Complex additive relations:

²²M. A. K. Halliday and Ruqaya Hasan, *Cohesion in English*, (Hong Kong: sheck Wah Tong Press, 1976), p.233

²³M. A. K. Halliday and Ruqaya Hasan, *Cohesion in English*, (Hong Kong: sheck Wah Tong Press, 1976), p.248

²⁴M. A. K. Halliday and Ruqaya Hasan, *Cohesion in English*, (Hong Kong: sheck Wah Tong Press, 1976), p.249

Afterthought (*incidentally, by the way*). Comparative relations: Similar (*likewise, similarly, in the same way, in(just) this way*) and Dissimilar (*on the other hand, by contrast, conversely*). Apposite relation: Expository (*that is, I mean, in the other words, to put it another way*), Exemplificatory (*for instance, for example, thus*).

The basic meaning of the adversative relation is contrary to expectation. The expectation may be derived from the content of what is being said, or from the communication process, the speaker-hearer situation. So that here too, as in the additive, we find cohesion on both the external and the internal planes.²⁵

Summary of the conjunctive relation of the adversative type:²⁶ Adversative relation : (*yet, though, only, but, however, nevertheless, despite this, all the same*). Contrastive relations: (*in fact, as a matter of fact, to tell the truth, actually, in point of fact*). Corrective relations: (*instead, rather, on the contrary, at least, rather, I mean*). Dismissal closed: (*in any/ either case/event, any/either way, whichever*).

²⁵M. A. K. Halliday and Ruqaya Hasan, *Cohesion in English*, (Hong Kong: sheck Wah Tong Press, 1976), p.250

²⁶M. A. K. Halliday and Ruqaya Hasan, *Cohesion in English*, (Hong Kong: sheck Wah Tong Press, 1976), P.255

Dismissal open-ended: (*anyhow, at any rate, in any case, however that may be*).

The simple form of causal relation is expressed by *so, thus, hence, therefore, consequently, accordingly*, and a number of expressions like *as a result (of that), in consequence- (of that), because of that*. All these regularly combine with initial *and*. It is outside the scope here to go into the various positions that can be occupied by these items in the sentence, but the same general types exist as with the adversatives. Thus *so* occurs only initially, unless following *and*; *thus, like yet*, occurs initially or at least in the first part (the Modal element) of the clause: *therefore* has the same potentialities as *however*. Again adverbs such as *consequently* resemble the adversative adverbs like *nevertheless*; and the prepositional expressions such as *a result (of this)* have on the whole the same potentialities of occurrence as those with an adversative sense.²⁷

Summary of the conjunctive relation of the causal type:²⁸ causal relation, general: (*so, thus, hence,*

²⁷M. A. K. Halliday and Ruqaya Hasan, *Cohesion in English*, (Hong Kong: sheck Wah Tong Press, 1976), p.256

²⁸M. A. K. Halliday and Ruqaya Hasan, *Cohesion in English*, (Hong Kong: sheck Wah Tong Press, 1976), p.260

therefore, consequently, accordingly, because of this). Causal relation, specific: (*for this reason, on account of this, it follows, on this basis, as a result, in consequence, arising out of this, for this purpose, with this intention, to this end*). Reversed causal relations general: (*for, because, then, in this case, that being the case, in such an event, under those circumstances, otherwise, under the circumstances*). Respective relations: (*in this respect/connection, with regard to this, here, otherwise, in other respect, aside/apart from this*)

Temporal relation is expressed in its simplest form by then: In this sequential sense, not only *then* and *and then* but also *next, afterwards, after that, subsequently* and a number of other expressions.²⁹

Summary of the conjunctive relation of the temporal type:³⁰ Simple temporal relations: (*then, next, afterwards, after that, subsequently, just, then, at the same time, simultaneously, earlier, before, then/that, previously*). Complex temporal relations: (*at once, there upon, on which, just before, soon, presently, later, after*

²⁹M. A. K. Halliday and Ruqaya Hasan, *Cohesion in English*, (Hong Kong: Shek Wah Tong Press, 1976), p.261

³⁰M. A. K. Halliday and Ruqaya Hasan, *Cohesion in English*, (Hong Kong: Shek Wah Tong Press, 1976), p. 266

a time, some time, earlier, formerly, next time, on another occasion, this time, on this occasion, the last time, on a previous occasion, next day, five minutes later, five minutes earlier, meanwhile, all this time, by this time, up till that time, until then, next moment, at point/moment, the previous moment). Conclusive relations: *(finally, at last, in the end, eventually).* Sequential and conclusive relations: *(first... then, first... next, first... second... , at first ... finally, at first ... in the end).* Temporal relations: *(then, next, secondly ..., finally, as a final point, in conclusion).* ‘Here and now’ relation: *(up to now, up to this point, at this point, here, from now on, henceforward).* Summary relations: *(to sum up, in short, briefly, to resume, to get back to the point, anyway)*

2. Recount Text

There are two main categories of texts, those are literary and factual. Within these are various text type has a common way of using language. Literary texts include aboriginal dreaming stories, movie scripts, limerics, fairy tales, plays, novels, song lyric, mimes and soap operas. They are constructed to appeal to our emotions and imagination. Literary texts can make us laugh or cry, think about our own life or consider our beliefs. There are three main types in this category : narrative, poetic, and dramatic. Media texts such as

films, videos, television shows and CDs can also fall in this category. The second is factual text, including advertisements, announcements, internet web sites, current affairs shows, debates, recipes, reports and instructions. They present information or ideas and aim to show, tell or persuade the audience. The main text types in this category are recount, response, explanation, discussion, information report, exposition and procedure.³¹

In genre, recounts are the simplest text type. Formally, recounts are sequential texts that do little more than sequence a series of events.³² Basically, recount is written out to make a report about an experience of a series of related event. Theoretically, the technique to write a recount is similar to the way a narration is written. Specifically, a recount is written out to inform an event to entertain event.³³

Often we will want to tell other people about something that has happened in our life. We might want to tell about what we did at the weekend. It might be about exciting things that happened when we were in holidays last year. Speaking

³¹Mark Anderson and Kathy Anderson, *Text Types in English*, (South Yarra: McMillan Education), p.1.

³² Peter Knapp and Megan Watkins, *Genre, Text, Grammar Technologies for Teaching and Assessing Writing*, (Sidney: University of New South Wales Ltd, 2005), p.223

³³Sanggam Siahaan Kisno Shinoda. *Generic Text Structure*, (Yogyakarta: Graha Ilmu, 2008), p.35.

or writing about past events is called a recount. A recount text is a piece of text that retells past events, usually in the order in which they happened.³⁴ Recount text has some examples such as newspaper reports, conversations, speeches, television interviews, eyewitness accounts, and letters.³⁵

The purpose of recount text is to give the audience a description of what occurred and when it occurred, or to give information to the readers.

a. Generic Structure of Recount Text

The recount text type retells past events, usually in the order in which they happened. The steps for constructing a written recount are : the first is orientation, it is a first paragraph that gives background information about who, what, where and when on the context of the recount. Second is event, it is a series of paragraph that retell the events in the order in which they happened. The last is re-orientation is closure of events or concluding of paragraph.³⁶

³⁴Mark Anderson and Kathy Anderson, *Text Types in English*, (South Yarra: McMillan Education,1997), p.48.

³⁵ Mark Anderson and Kathy Anderson, *Text Types in English*, (South Yarra: McMillan Education,1997), p.49.

³⁶Mark Anderson and Kathy Anderson, *Text Types in English*, (South Yarra: McMillan Education,1997), p. 50.

From the statement above, the writer concludes that recount introduces orientation to lead the readers to the context. It is continued by sequence of events, which tell the context of the text. Then, it is concluded in re-orientation or coda.

b. Grammatical Features of Recount Text

The grammatical features usually found in a recount are :Proper nouns to identify those involved in the text, descriptive words to give details about who, what, when, where and how. The use of past tense to retell the events and the use of conjunctive relation or transitional words (moreover, although, furthermore, etc)³⁷

c. Example of Recount Text

Travel on the Plane for the First Time

Orientation

When I was young, I did not really like travelling. I preferred palying games on the computer. I never travelled aboard on the plane until 1998. At that time, I was 21 years old.

Events

My first trip was a 4-day trip to Taipei. Before I came to the airport, I did not know how to check-in. All

³⁷Mark Anderson and Kathy Anderson, *Text Types in English*,(South Yarra: McMillan Education,1997), p. 50.

procedures were so new to me. I remembered I was so excited when the plane took off. I really enjoyed my trip at that time.

Re-Orientation

After that trip, I like travelling. I also travelled to Korea, France, Germany, Switzerland, Italy, and Austria.

3. List-Group-Label Strategy

a. Definition of List-Group-Label Strategy

List-Group-Label is a brainstorming and categorizing activity that provides students with the opportunity to think about, discuss, categorize, and label words related to a central concept.³⁸

List-Group-Label (LGL), also called semantic mapping, is designed to encourage students to improve their vocabulary and categorization skills, organize their verbal concepts, aid them in remembering and reinforcing new words, and activate their prior knowledge about the subject. The brainstorming and categorizing strategy can be used prior to beginning a unit. Teachers in any content area can use the same

³⁸Jannet Allen. *Inside Words: Tools For teaching Academic Vocabulary*, (Portland : Stenhouse Publisher, 2007), p. 69.

instructional strategy by generating a term or concept that will be the focus of study in the classroom.³⁹

List-Group-Label is strategy that helps students to improve their vocabulary and categorization skills and learn to organise concepts. This strategy helps students organize new concepts in relation to previously learned concepts through grouping and labeling words.

b. The Implementation of List-Group-Label Strategy

As the name indicates, List-Group-Label asks students to follow the steps in competing the activity. Prior to begining a book or unit of the study, the teacher chooses a central concept or reading text. In this study, students are given recount text and asked to participate in the following activities:⁴⁰

First activity is listing. Each student brainstorms words by reading a recount text given by teacher. Ask students to list as many word as they found that they do not know the meaning.

The second is Grouping. When each student completes the brainstorming part of this activity (List), devide the class into small group. Students then work in small group to share and combine their words into logical

³⁹Jannet Allen. *Inside Words: Tools For teaching Academic vocabulary*, (Portland : Stenhouse Publisher, 2007), p. 72.

⁴⁰Jannet Allen. *Inside Words: Tools For teaching Academic vocabulary*, (Portland : Stenhouse Publisher, 2007), p. 70

categories. Each group will work to cluster the class list of words into subcategories. As students attempt to combine three to five individual words lists, they begin to discover patterns of words. In this process, they are refining their knowledge of the concept. Students have to work together to combine their individual list into a common group list that cover all of their words. Once students create their categories, they give label each of them by giving part of speech. After that ask students to look for the meaning of each words.

After students know the meaning, they should find the synonym each of them. Synonyms are group of words that have the same or almost the same meaning.⁴¹

Implementation of List-group-label strategy

Text

Travel on the Plane for the First Time

When I was young, I did not really like travelling. I preferred palying games on the computer. I never travelled aboard on the plane until 1998. At that time, I was 21 years old.

My first trip was a 4-day trip to Taipei. Before I came to

⁴¹Carl Bernard Smith,*Buliding A Strong Vocabulary* (USA: Edinfo Press, 2013),p. 1.

the airport, I did not know how to check-in. All procedures were so new to me. I remembered I was so excited when the plane took off. I really enjoyed my trip at that time.

After that trip, I like travelling. I also travelled to Korea, France, Germany, Switzerland, Italy, and Austria.

List-Group-Label

List	Group – Label	Meaning	Synonym
Young	Noun : - travelling	- Bepergian	- Tour
Travelling	- procedure	- Cara	- Way
Came	Adj : - young	- Muda	- Youth
Procedure	- new	- Baru	- Fresh
New	Verb : - came	- Datang	- Arrived
Remembered	- remembered	- Ingat	- Recall
Excited	- excited	- Gembira	- Glad

C. Hypothesis

Hypothesis is a provisional answer to the problem of research which started a question sentence. It is the expectation of

The research before doing the research by paying attention to the raised problem of the research.⁴²

The hypothesis of this research is that the implementation of list-group-label strategy in teaching vocabulary can improve students' understanding vocabulary.

⁴²Sugiono, *Metode Penelitian Pendidikan*, (Bandung: Alfabeta, 2010),p.96.