CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This section discusses about the review of related literature that is consisted of developing material, vocabulary (the definition of vocabulary, the usage of vocabulary, how to learn vocabulary), CALL (the definition of CALL, three phases of development CALL), and previous of the study.

2.1. Developing Material

Developing material is basically dealing with selection, adaptation, and creation of teaching materials (Nunan, 1991). In practice, it focused on evaluation, adaptation of published materials and creation (development of teaching materials by teacher in line with the existing syllabus). After we know about the definition of developing material, we can develop the material well. Firstly, we must know about the characteristic of the students. The researcher takes 4th grade students of elementary school as the subject. In this level (4th grade of elementary school) is young students. Its‟ mean that in this level, the students still like to play and also they like to study that is related with the game, pictures, singing, story, etc. Based on Suyanto (2004:7), “there are 3 things which make the students pay attention in a classroom. Those are pictures, fables or stories, and games. The students in this level like to study with seeing the pictures which is interesting, and colorful. Even, they like to hear and read something that have the colorful of picture, it can increase their desire to study hard. Secondly, the researcher must also combine it with the syllabus that is used in the school. So, she will be more easy to develop the material. Finally, the researcher develop the material by using

CALL that is full of pictures and make the students more enjoy and comfortable to study.

2.2. Vocabulary

Vocabulary is an important aspect in communication that support four skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing). Vocabulary is also the important thing to be learned. Based on the Webster dictionary, “Vocabulary is a list or collection of words arranged in alphabetical order and explained, a dictionary or lexicon, either of a whole language, a single work or author, a branch of science or the like, a word-book”. To know more about the vocabulary will be showed in the next explanation.

2.2.1. Definition of vocabulary

There are some definitions of Vocabulary based on the expert, they are ; based on Barnhart (2008:697), ”vocabulary is stock of words used by person, class of people, profession, etc. vocabulary is also a collection or list of words, usually in alphabetical order and defined”. Based on Broadly, “vocabulary is knowledge of words and word meanings. However, vocabulary is more complex than this definition suggests. First, words come in two forms: oral and print. Oral vocabulary includes those words that we recognize and use in listening and speaking. Print vocabulary includes those words that we recognize and use in reading and writing. Second, word knowledge also comes in two forms, receptive and productive. Receptive vocabulary includes words that we recognize when we hear or see them. Productive vocabulary includes words that we use when we speak or write. Receptive vocabulary is typically larger than productive vocabulary, and may include many words to which we assign some meaning, even if we

don‟t know their full definitions and connotations – or ever use them ourselves as we speak and write (Kamil & Hiebert, in press). Besides, Steven Stahl (2005) defined, Vocabulary knowledge is the knowledge of words and word meanings. As Steven Stahl (2005) puts it, "Vocabulary knowledge is the knowledge of a word not only implies a definition, but also implies how that word fits into the world." There are four types of Vocabulary, they are ; in descending order according to size, listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Listening vocabulary, the largest, is made up of words we can hear and understand. All other vocabularies are subsets of our listening vocabulary. The second-largest vocabulary, speaking vocabulary, is comprised of words we can use when we speak. Next is our reading vocabulary, or words we can identify and understand when we read. The smallest is our writing vocabulary, or words we use in writing. These four vocabularies are continually nurtured in the effective teacher‟s classroom.

2.2.2. The Usage of Vocabulary

In the learning language, Vocabulary is the most important things. The vocabulary is the basic lesson that support four skills, those are ;listening, speaking, reading, and writing. We will difficult to study those four level, if we less the vocabulary. Based on the partner shop for reading : 2001, “the four types of vocabulary (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) have usages, as like ; in listening vocabulary, vocabulary can help and increase our listening. By studying vocabulary, we can listen and understand about what we hear. Not only in a word, but also in phrase, sentences, paragraph, and also a communication. In speaking vocabulary, vocabulary can give us knowledge about words that we will say, or communicate with other people.

We can understand and doing conversation well. In reading vocabulary, the usage of vocabulary is helping us to identify and understand when we read. In writing vocabulary, we can use vocabulary when we write. So, our writing is good and easy to read by other people. Finally, vocabulary has some usages for our lesson.

2.2.3. How to Learn Vocabulary

As we know that learn English is not easy. Even it is in elementary level. They will get difficulties to study if they do not know and understand about the vocabularies in their lesson. The students also feel bored and lazy to study vocabularies because they do not understand the meaning. To solve the problem, the teacher must know how to teach vocabulary to the students in elementary level. There are many ways to teach vocabulary. The teacher can use media, as like ; cassette, CD, dictionary, Video, computer, etc. Besides, the teacher can use some method or strategy in teaching process, as like ; picture and picture, snowball throwing, Simon says, snake and ladders, puzzle, hangman, etc. “Picture and picture” strategy, the teacher can show some pictures then the students must answer what is the pictures that is showed by the teacher. And it is done one by one. “Snowball throwing” strategy, the teacher can throw the ball or paper that is made as a ball to the students. The students who get the ball, they must answer what is asked by the teacher. “Simon says” strategy, the teacher ask the students to guess what is hold by the teacher. And it is to examine students‟ vocabulary about part of body and others. “Snakes and ladders” strategy. The teacher divides the students in groups. One group consist of five students, and everyone went from the start and tried to reach the finish as soon as possible by answering correctly to questions which were prepared by the teacher. “Hangman” strategy, the teacher asks the students to guess

words that belong to the topic of job. For this time, the teacher can teach the students by using CALL (computer assisted language learning). It‟s mean that the teacher use computer as the media and also supporting the materials. So, the students can study vocabulary more interesting than before. As we know that students in elementary school like to study with doing game, because they still like to play. Huyen and Nga (2003), “most of teacher use games as the media of teaching. So that, the children will feel fun and enjoyable”. The teacher must choose the good strategy. So, it can make the students enjoy to study.

2.3. CALL

In this research, the researcher use CALL to develop the material in vocabulary. This part will explain more about the CALL ; the definition of CALL, and three phases of development CALL.

2.3.1. The definition of CALL

CALL is succinctly defined in a seminal work by Levy (1997) as "the search for and study of applications of the computer in language teaching and learning". CALL embraces a wide range of ICT applications and approaches to teaching and learning foreign languages, from the "traditional" drill-and-practice programs that characterised CALL in the 1960s and 1970s to more recent manifestations of CALL, for the example; as used in a virtual learning environment and Web-based distance learning. It also extends to the use of corpora and concordancers, interactive whiteboards, Computermediated communication (CMC), language learning in virtual worlds, and Mobileassisted language learning (MALL). Computer-Assisted Language Learning

(CALL), defined as „the search for and study of applications of the computer in language teaching and learning‟ (Levy 1997: 1), it has been used in pronunciation training, speech recognition and analysis, “voiced” dictionary, and as a stimulus to provide a speaking environment. The introduction of computers in language classrooms has opened a new door to both teachers and learners. Computers, accompanying software packages and networks can be used in a number of ways to assist language learning. The computer environment is highly motivating and less threatening psychologically. The emergence of the web broadens interaction to a great extent and enables learners to be exposed to a real audience. However, compared with how computers are used to enhance the learners‟ writing skills, reading skills and listening skills, the application associated with the improvement of the learners‟ speaking skills is rather weak. Nevertheless, the potential of the computer medium for the spoken language curriculum has been realized. So, CALL is a media that use computer to do the learning process. And it is important to be though by the teacher.

2.3.2. Three phases of Development CALL

Though CALL has developed gradually over the last 30 years, this development can be categorized in terms of three somewhat distinct phases which I will refer to as *behavioristic CALL*, *communicative CALL*, and *integrative CALL* (Barson & Debski 1996). As we will see, the introduction of a new phase does not necessarily entail rejecting the programs and methods of a previous phase; rather the old is subsumed within the new.

2.3.2.1. Behavioristic CALL

The first phase of CALL conceived in the 1950s and implemented in the 1960s and '70s, it was based on the then-dominant behaviorist theories of learning. Programs of this phase entailed repetitive language drills and can be referred to as "drill and practice" (or, more pejoratively, as "drill and kill"). Drill and practice courseware are based on the model of *computer as tutor* (Taylor 1980). In other words, the computer serves as a vehicle for delivering instructional materials to the student. The rationale behind drill and practice was not totally spurious, which explains in part the fact that CALL drills are still used today. Briefly put, that rationale is as follows: First, a computer repeated exposure to the same material is beneficial or even essential to learning. Second, a computer is ideal for carrying out repeated drills, since the machine does not get bored with presenting the same material and since it can provide immediate non-judgmental feedback. Third, a computer can present such material on an individualized basis, allowing students to proceed at their own pace and freeing up class time for other activities.

Based on these notions, a number of CALL tutoring systems were developed for the mainframe computers which were used at that time. One of the most sophisticated of these was the PLATO system, which ran on its own special PLATO hardware, including central computers and terminals. The PLATO system included vocabulary drills, brief grammar explanations and drills, and translations tests at various intervals (Ahmad, Corbett, Rogers, & Sussex 1985).

In the late 1970s and early 1980s, behavioristic CALL was undermined by two important factors. First, behavioristic approaches to language learning had been rejected at both the theoretical and the pedagogical level. Secondly, the introduction of the

microcomputer allowed a whole new range of possibilities. The stage was set for a new phase of CALL.

2.3.2.2. Communicative CALL

The second phase of CALL was based on the communicative approach to teaching which became prominent in the 1970s and 80s. Proponents of this approach felt that the drill and practice programs of the previous decade did not allow enough authentic communication to be of much value. One of the main advocates of this new approach was John Underwood, who in 1984 proposed a series of "Premises for 'Communicative' CALL" (Underwood 1984:52). According to Underwood, communicative CALL: focuses more on using forms rather than on the forms themselves, teaches grammar implicitly rather than explicitly, allows and encourages students to generate original utterances rather than just manipulate prefabricated language, does not judge and evaluate everything the students nor reward them with congratulatory messages, lights, or bells, avoids telling students they are wrong and is flexible to a variety of student responses, uses the target language exclusively and creates an environment in which using the target language feels natural, both on and off the screen, and will never try to do anything that a book can do just as well. Another critic of behavioristic CALL, Vance Stevens, contends that all CALL courseware and activities should build on intrinsic motivation and should foster interactivity - both learner-computer and learner-learner (Stevens 1989).

Several types of CALL programs were developed and used during this the phase of communicative CALL. First, there were a variety of programs to provide skill practice, but in a non-drill format. Examples of these types of programs include courseware for

paced reading, text reconstruction, and language games (Healey & Johnson 1995b). In these programs, like the drill and practice programs mentioned above, the computer remains the "knower-of-the-right-answer" (Taylor & Perez 1989:3); thus this represents an extension of the *computer as tutor* model. But - in contrast to the drill and practice programs - the process of finding the right answer involves a fair amount of student choice, control, and interaction.

In addition to *computer as tutor,* another CALL model used for communicative activities involves the *computer as stimulus* (Taylor & Perez 1989:63). In this case, the purpose of the CALL activity is not so much to have students discover the right answer, but rather to stimulate students' discussion, writing, or critical thinking. Software used for these purposes include a wide variety of programs which may not have been specifically designed for language learners, programs such as *Sim City, Sleuth,* or *Where in the World is San Diego?* (Healey & Johnson 1995b).

The third model of computers in communicative CALL involves the *computer as tool* (Brierley & Kemble 1991; Taylor 1980) or, as sometimes called, the *computer as workhorse* (Taylor & Perez 1989). In this role, the programs do not necessarily provide any language material at all, but rather empower the learner to use or understand language. Examples of *computer as tool* include word processors, spelling and grammar checkers, desk-top publishing programs, and concordancers. Of course the distinction between these models is not absolute. A skill practice program can be used as a conversational stimulus, as can a paragraph written by a student on a word processor. Likewise, there are a number of drill and practice programs which could be used in a more communicative fashion - if, for example, students were assigned to work in pairs or small groups and then compare and discuss their answers (or, as Higgins

1988, students can even discuss what inadequacies they found in the computer program) In other words, the dividing line between behavioristic and communicative CALL does involves not only *which* software is used, but also *how* the software is put to use by the teacher and students.

On the face of things communicative CALL seems like a significant advance over its predecessor. But by the end of the 1980s, many educators felt that CALL was still failing to live up to its potential (Kenning & Kenning 1990; Pusack & Otto 1990; Rüschoff 1993). Critics pointed out that the computer was being used in an ad hoc and disconnected fashion and thus "finds itself making a greater contribution to marginal rather than to central elements" of the language teaching process (Kenning & Kenning 1990: 90).

These critiques of CALL dovetailed with broader reassessments of the communicative approach to language teaching. No longer satisfied with teaching compartmentalized skills or structures (even if taught in a communicative manner), a number of educators were seeking ways to teach in a more integrative manner, for example using task- or project-based approaches . The challenge for advocates of CALL was to develop models which could help integrate the various aspects of the language learning process. Fortunately, advances in computer technology were providing the opportunities to do just that.

2.3.2.3. Integrative CALL : multimedia

Integrative approaches to CALL are based on two important technological developments of the last decade - multimedia computers and the Internet. Multimedia technology - exemplified today by the CD-ROM - allows a variety of media (text,

graphics, sound, animation, and video) to be accessed on a single machine. What makes multimedia even more powerful is that it also entails *hypermedia*. That means that the multimedia resources are all linked together and that learners can navigate their own path simply by pointing and clicking a mouse. Hypermedia provides a number of advantages for language learning. First of all, a more authentic learning environment is created, since listening is combined with seeing, just like in the real world. Secondly, skills are easily integrated, since the variety of media make it natural to combine reading, writing, speaking and listening in a single activity. Third, students have great control over their learning, since they can not only go at their own pace but even on their own individual path, going forward and backwards to different parts of the program, honing in on particular aspects and skipping other aspects altogether. Finally, a major advantage of hypermedia is that it facilitates a principle focus on the content, without sacrificing a secondary focus on language form or learning strategies. For example, while the main lesson is in the foreground, students can have access to a variety of background links which will allow them rapid access to grammatical explanations or exercises, vocabulary glosses, pronunciation information, or questions or prompts which encourage them to adopt an appropriate learning strategy.

An example of how hypermedia can be used for language learning is the program *Dustin* which is being developed by the Institute for Learning Sciences at Northwestern University (Schank & Cleary 1995). The program is a simulation of a student arriving at a U.S. airport. The student must go through customs, find transportation to the city, and check in at a hotel. The language learner using the program assumes the role of the arriving student by interacting with simulated people who appear in video clips and responding to what they say by typing in responses. If the responses are correct, the

student is sent off to do other things, such as meeting a roommate. If the responses are incorrect, the program takes remedial action by showing examples or breaking down the task into smaller parts. At any time the student can control the situation by asking what to do, asking what to say, asking to hear again what was just said, requesting for a translation, or controlling the level of difficulty of the lesson. Yet in spite of the apparent advantages of hypermedia for language learning, multimedia software has so far failed to make a major impact. Several major problems have surfaced in regarding to exploiting multimedia for language teaching. First, there is the question of quality of available programs. While teachers themselves can conceivably develop their own multimedia programs using authoring software such as *Hypercard* (for the Macintosh) or *ToolBook* (for the PC), the fact is that most classroom teachers lack the training or the time to make even simple programs, let alone more complex and sophisticated ones such as *Dustin*. This has left the field to commercial developers, who often fail to base their programs on sound pedagogical principles. In addition, the cost involved in developing quality programs can put them out of the market of most English teaching programs. Beyond these lies perhaps a more fundamental problem. Today's computer programs are not yet intelligent enough to be truly interactive. A program like *Dustin* should ideally be able to understand a user's *spoken* input and evaluate it not just for correctness but also or *appropriateness*. It should be able to diagnose a student's problems with pronunciation, syntax, or usage and then intelligently decide among a range of options (e.g. repeating, paraphrasing, slowing down, correcting, or directing the student to background explanations).

Using multimedia may involve an integration of skills (e.g. listening with reading), but it too seldom involves a more important type of integration - integrating

meaningful and authentic communication into all aspects of the language learning curriculum. Fortunately, though, another technological breakthrough is helping make that possible - electronic communication and the Internet. Finally, there are some phases of development CALL that is can used as the development material.

2.4. Previous Study

The researcher found some journals and article that was related and support the strategy of using CALL to develop material about vocabulary skill at MI Al-Husnah Manyar Gresik in the 4th Grade. The majority of studies on teacher technology education explore the following issues: what teachers are and/or should be learning in technology courses (Hargrave & Hsu, 2000; Johnson, 1999); teacher-education students' knowledge of and attitudes toward technology (Atkins & Vasu, 2000; Milbraith & Kinzie, 2000); and how teachers think about and use computers in the classroom (Ertmer, Addison, Lane, Ross, & Woods, 1999; Levy, 1997a; Pilus, 1995; Walker, 1994). Much of this research shows that teacher-education technology courses and programs have a limited impact on how teachers think about and implement technology- supported teaching (Cuban, 1996; Feiman-Nemser & Remillard, 1996). Finally, the technology is so important to use in teaching process, especially in teaching vocabulary class.