High Frequency Words in English Textbooks for Indonesian Senior High Schools

Rizki Meliani Rustan*
Erna Andriyanti

Department of English Language Education, Graduate School, Universitas Negeri Yogyakarta, Yogyakarta 55281, INDONESIA

Abstract
This content analysis study focused on three main purposes, including to analyse the High Frequency Words (HFWs) of Dolch's list in reading texts from three English textbooks of Indonesian senior high schools, to analyse the language features of HFWs in reading texts of the English textbooks, and to propose strategies that can be used in teaching HFWs. The reading texts were grouped into three types including recount text, narrative text, and descriptive text. The reading texts were further analysed using an online word-counter to find out the HFWs of Dolch's list in the texts. The findings show that there were 124 words found as the HFWs. The HFWs found were mostly articles, prepositions, pronouns, nouns, verbs, adverbs, adjectives, and conjunctions. Those were the most frequent words that should be known by students. Moreover, the language features of HFWs in each text were varied according to its context and the types of the texts. Hence, some strategies could be applied to facilitate English teachers in teaching HFWs, such as the word card strategy and direct teaching strategy, so that their students master the HFWs. The implication of this study also suggested textbook writers to provide additional content in textbooks such as the word list of HFWs.

Keywords: High frequency words, English textbook, Indonesian senior high schools.

* Corresponding author, email: rizkimeliani5@gmail.com

Citation in APA style: Rustan, R. M., & Andriyanti, E. (2021). High-frequency words in English textbooks for Indonesian senior high schools. Studies in English Language and Education, 8(1), 181-196.

Received September 28, 2020; Revised December 15, 2020; Accepted December 16, 2020; Published Online January 3, 2021

https://doi.org/10.24815/siele.v8i1.18141
1. INTRODUCTION

In language acquisition, the level of word-recognition correlates with the reading ability of students (Ali, 2010; Faliyanti, 2015; Grabe, 2014). Most formal tests use written language and require the reading ability for assessing the success of the test takers (Brown, 2003). In Indonesia, teaching reading takes more portion in English language instruction than other skills. The reason is that in the national examination of English subjects which examined some skills of the English language, the reading test contributed about 70% in the test (Mustafa, 2019). Therefore, most English teachers emphasize English teaching and learning activities for reading comprehension. In doing so, vocabulary mastery takes an important role.

Moreover, every educational level has a targeted number of vocabulary mastery. Mokhtar et al. (2010) assert that adult students at their level can learn around 2650 words per year. Similarly, Nation (2000) also claims that to become a fluent reader, students need to learn at least 3000 words. It means that English students need to acquire around 2500-3000 words before they can comprehend the text they read.

However, the vocabulary size of students in Indonesian senior high school level is still below the required target. Several scholars reported that students of senior high schools still faced difficulties in vocabulary mastery (Desiana & Mahripah, 2018; Pajo, 2017; Trisnasih, 2017). They found that the students still had difficulties in recognizing words in texts and had problems with the size of vocabulary that led to the lack of motivation in reading. As a result, these students found it difficult when they interpret the meaning of words/utterances contextually. Furthermore, students had not received proper media to enable them to master the vocabulary. Likewise, the research conducted by Mustafa (2019) also showed the students’ limitations in vocabulary mastery, in which he claimed that the graduate students of Indonesian senior high school had not achieved the target vocabulary from the current curriculum. Therefore, students in senior high schools still need to improve their vocabulary mastery to achieve the targeted size of the vocabulary.

There are two ways to provide students with sources of vocabulary. First, students should be taught to memorize unfamiliar vocabulary with some interesting learning strategies, for example through extensive reading and word mapping activities (Ayuningtyas, 2011; Wardani & Myla, 2015). Second, students should be provided with learning materials related to vocabulary mastery, for example by giving the students a list of words that are frequently used in texts, so it will help the students become familiar with those words. The use of high-frequency words can be instilled in this way. The studies about the instruction of high frequency words (HFWs) have been done by many scholars (Hayes, 2016; Hinzman & Reed, 2018; Masrai, 2019; Murray & Kelly, 2018). The studies were done to find out the importance of HFWs on students’ reading comprehension. Moreover, the scholars claimed that the instruction of HFWs contributed to students’ reading comprehension (Hayes, 2016; Hinzman & Reed, 2018; Masrai, 2019; Murray & Kelly, 2018).

To enhance the reading comprehension of English students, the role of English textbooks used in schools also needs to be considered. Various studies using content analysis have been done to measure the qualities of English textbooks used in senior high schools (Betri, 2018; Dilla et al., 2017; Kinasih, 2014). The studies conducted by Kinasih (2014) and Betri (2018) show that the analysed English textbooks were categorized as good according to the evaluation aspects from Pusbuk (Pusat
Perbukuan or bookkeeping centre) 2007 and BSNP (Badan Standar Nasional Pendidikan or National Education Standards Agency). On the other hand, the study conducted by Dilla et al. (2017) shows that the analysed English textbook was categorized as poor due to the incompleteness of the material.

Despite several studies on the HFWs and the evaluation of English textbooks have been conducted in the Indonesian context (Betri, 2018; Dilla et al., 2017; Hayes, 2016; Hinzman & Reed, 2018; Kinasih, 2014; Masrai, 2019; Murray & Kelly, 2018), there have been few studies discussing textbook analysis on HFWs. In relation to the significance of vocabulary mastery, a study of HFWs in senior high school English textbooks needs to be conducted. This study aims to analyse HFWs of Dolch’s list in reading texts of three English textbooks (Bahasa Inggris, Interlanguage: English for Senior High School Students, and Developing English Competencies), to find out the language features of HFWs which exist in the reading texts and to describe several strategies that can be used in teaching HFWs.

There are two references of HFWs list that can be used in teaching vocabularies, such as the revised Dolch’s list and the Fry list. Accordingly, Johns and Wilke (2018) recommend using the revised Dolch’s list for teaching vocabulary. The words’ list is expected to be very useful for students, especially in recognizing HFWs and in using the words contextually in the sentences. Thus, the students may increase their fluency in reading since the HFWs list facilitates them to understand the meaning of texts.

Therefore, this present study attempts to answer the following questions:
1. Which HFWs of Dolch’s list is found in reading texts of Bahasa Inggris, Interlanguage: English for Senior High School Students, and Developing English Competencies textbooks grade X for senior high schools?
2. What are the language features of HFWs found in reading texts of Bahasa Inggris, Interlanguage: English for Senior High School Students, and Developing English Competencies textbooks grade X for senior high schools?
3. What strategies can be proposed in teaching HFWs for senior high school students?

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Vocabulary

Alizadeh (2016) describes vocabulary as the knowledge of words that contains how words are formed and arranged into particular meanings. Vocabulary knowledge is seen as central in language acquisition. Having a large number of vocabularies seem to be the main determinant that ensures students to speak fluently and contributes a good influence on other language skills (Moghadam et al., 2012).

As the basis of language skill development, vocabulary takes an important role in language acquisition. Nation (2000) points out the main role of vocabulary is to convey messages in extended spoken and written texts. He further claims vocabulary knowledge as a basic knowledge of the world which requires reading extensively. Thus, vocabulary can be defined as a component of language consists of words that have particular meanings. Learning the knowledge of vocabulary becomes crucial for students to support their ability in acquiring the target language.

Developing vocabulary knowledge can be done in several ways. One of them is by memorizing words using flashcards (Wardani & Myla, 2015). Unfortunately,
improving the knowledge of vocabulary is not sufficient by memorizing word by word. As stated by Nation (2000) vocabulary is multi-interpretation, in other words, the meaning of one word is contextualized. This underlines the importance of mixing words in use as a way of developing vocabulary knowledge (Nation, 2000).

Some scholars classified several categories of words in vocabulary (Haskelmath, 2001; Katamba, 2005; Nation, 2000; Thomas, 1993). Thomas (1993) classifies word categories into five parts, namely noun, determiner, verb, adverb, and adjective. On the other hand, according to Haspelmath (2001), word category consists of the ten traditional categories such as noun, adjective, verb, adverb, pronoun, preposition, conjunction, numeral, article, and interjection. Similarly, Katamba (2005) proposes that the word category includes nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, pronouns, conjunctions, and articles.

Moreover, based on the word frequency, vocabulary is classified into two categories, high frequency words and low frequency words (Nation, 2000). Generally, high frequency words are a group of words that appears frequently in texts. These words are also known as sight words or words that can be recognized by sight. Hence, low frequency words are a group of words that rarely appears in texts. Low frequency words are usually from unpopular words or may be very formal words, or foreign words (Marzouk, 2008; Nation, 2000). However, since HFWs are considered as words that have more proportion in texts, this can be concluded that introducing HFWs to students may become a proper way to improve their reading skill.

2.2 High Frequency Words

A number of scholars state several definitions of high frequency words (HFWs). According to Nation (2000), HFWs are the words that cover the majority portion in any English text. Similarly, Schmitt (2000) also claims that HFWs are generally the most familiar words in texts and they make up the majority of tokens in any discourse. HFWs are also believed as the only predictors of reading comprehension (Masrai, 2019). Students who are able to recognize all the HFWs by sight will possess a solid foundation for reading (Johns & Wilke, 2018; Marks et al., 1974). Therefore, HFWs can be defined as words that appear most in texts which play an important role to determine the meaning of texts.

In order to master English skills properly, students need to know HFWs. As mentioned by Schmitt (2000), students who are familiar with HFWs can accurately guess the meaning of the texts they read, even though some words are still unfamiliar to them. Schmitt (2000) further states that in this condition, students also can learn the less frequent words through a combination of some HFWs in texts.

The requirement of word recognition is different from one to another scholar. According to Johns and Wilke (2018), a list of 100-200 HFWs will make up over 50% of the words in texts. If students can recognize the 100-200 HFWs, they will know more than half of the words they encounter in their reading. These words commonly occur in written form and contribute more to enabling students to interpret or predict the meaning of the text. On the other hand, Nation (1990) reveals that students need to learn 3000 HFWs to begin reading authentic texts. The more HFWs was known by the students, the more fluent the students become in reading texts. However, recognizing at least 2000 HFWs in the language is sufficient to enable students to comprehend about 87% of ordinary texts. In conclusion, there is a need to encourage students to
recognize about 2000-2500 HFWs to enable them to become fluent in understanding and interpreting English texts.

Accordingly, Nation (2000) classifies HFWs into two different types of word categories, those are function word and content words. Nation (2000) defines function word as a group of words that consist of prepositions, pronouns, conjunctions, articles, and other words that have a grammatical role in texts. Function words are highly frequent words in common as they dominate most of the whole text. Therefore, HFWs are usually found in a form of function words rather than content words. Meanwhile, content words are words consisting of nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. These words usually have contextual meanings in different types of texts. Function words can consist of conjunctions (such as that, which, and), determiners (such as a, an, the), prepositions (such as for, of, in), and pronouns (such as, he, she, it, you). Meanwhile, content words can consist of nouns (such as government, forests, production), main verbs (such as go, call, say), adjectives (such as little, hot, long), and adverbs (such as very, more).

2.3 Language Features in Texts

Moohebat et al. (2017) define language features as specific language styles used to indicate characteristics of the texts. In most situations, language features enable readers to differentiate text types or interpret the meaning of texts. Schleppegrell (2001) mentions that words which are produced in texts reflect on the context of the texts themselves. Thus, texts produced for different purposes and different contexts have different language features.

The recognition of the word categories helps students to distinguish between word-forms and the grammatical meaning of words (Katamba, 2005). For example, in the sentences, “she took the flute” and “she has taken the flute”. The first sentence can be indicated as the action that happened in the past, while the word taken (after has/had) in the second sentence indicates that the action is complete. Other examples can be found in the sentence ”you hit me”. The word-form hit is a verb that can have different interpretations based on the context. It can represent either the present or the past form of the verb. Concerning the grammatical meaning of words, the word hit can be interpreted as [+verb, +present] and hit as [+verb, +past]. By knowing the language features of the text, students can understand that the words that have the same form in speech and writing can still have different meanings in context.

Since the language features of texts vary according to context, the recognition of text types becomes important. There are six types of texts according to Gerot and Wignell (1994) such as narrative text, biography text, recount text, descriptive text, factorial explanation text, and argument text. However, based on the current curriculum in Indonesia, the text types for senior high school level are specified to narrative, descriptive, and recount texts. In relation to this, Gerot and Wignell (1994) further state that every type of text has a different kind of language features.

Gerot and Wignell (1994) define several language features of narrative, descriptive, and recount texts. In the narrative text, the language features should be fulfilled with the text that has a narrative structure, such as orientation as an introduction part in the text, complication which contains a conflict among participants in the text, and resolution as a part of the end story in the text. Furthermore, the order of the text should be driven by the order of the past event that happened in the world,
the text uses past tense, and the text is focused on participants, what they did and what happened to them. Additionally, in the descriptive text, the language features should be fulfilled with the identification of a particular phenomenon or object in the text, the text is in a form of the simple present tense, the sequence of the text can be from general to specific or the opposite, and the text is marked with a specific description of a particular phenomenon or object. Furthermore, the language features of recount text should be fulfilled with the focus on specific events or participants described in the text, it is quite similar to descriptive text but recount text uses words in a form of simple past tense, and the circumstances of time and place focus on a temporal sequence; usually, it is indicated with the order of an event.

2.4 The Role of HFWs in English Textbook

Recently, some scholars claim that HFWs help students to increase their reading fluency (Hayes, 2016; Hinzman & Reed, 2018; Masrai, 2019; Murray & Kelly, 2018). The studies found that the HFWs list: 1) is effective and useful for students in building their reading fluency, 2) helps students to enhance their comprehension while reading texts, 3) enables students to predict the meaning of the texts, and 4) enables them to interpret the texts without recognizing each word in the texts.

The existence of HFWs list in the textbook has an important role for students. The HFWs list in textbooks eases the students to enhance their reading comprehension. This is in line with Hayes (2016) who states that learning HFWs is the basis of reading skill improvement. There are two additional reasons for considering HFWs as a crucial part of the textbook content. The first reason is that word analysis cannot be applied to many of the HFWs, such as the word was and the word of. The second reason is that few of the sight words such as if, was, and an are used to support texts that should be understood by students as prior knowledge in reading (Marzouk, 2008).

There are two references of HFWs list that can be introduced to English students, such as the revised Dolch’s list and the Fry list (Johns & Wilke, 2018). Both references of HFWs lists can be used in teaching and practice activities. However, Johns and Wilke (2018) recommend using the revised Dolch’s list for teaching vocabulary. The revised Dolch’s list presents 272 HWFs to be learned by students. The HFWs of Dolch’s list consists of determiners, prepositions, nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, and verbs.

Having a list of HFWs in textbooks is very essential for English students, especially in reading activities. Besides, it can also become supplementary materials in the process of learning reading skills. The recognition of HFWs is necessary and needed by students at all levels, particularly because mastering a large number of HFWs enables them to enhance their ability to comprehend texts. This has been proven by many researchers (Hayes, 2016; Hinzman & Reed, 2018; Masrai, 2019; Murray & Kelly, 2018). Therefore, the provision of the HFWs list in the textbook is essential and effective to improve the students’ reading comprehension as the HFWs list provides a background of knowledge for students in reading activities. However, the HFWs cannot be mastered only by memorizing the words or applying strategies to recognize them by sight (Marzouk, 2008). Thus, teachers should provide the students with some interesting ways of acquiring HFWs, and textbook writers may present the HFWs list as a part of textbook materials.
3. METHODS

This study used a descriptive quantitative method with content analysis (Mayring, 2019), focusing on HFWs in the reading texts from three English textbooks for senior high schools, grade X. The first textbook is entitled Bahasa Inggris (textbook 1), the second textbook is entitled Interlanguage: English for Senior High School Students (textbook 2), and the third textbook is entitled Developing English Competencies (textbook 3). The textbooks are published by the Indonesian government that provides students with various reading texts and enables them to increase their vocabulary knowledge.

The sample textbooks were divided into three types of texts including recount texts, narrative texts, and descriptive texts. The chosen text types were based on the current curriculum in Indonesia for senior high schools. Furthermore, the 220 HFWs of Dolch’s list was used to determine the HFWs in the textbooks (Johns, 1976). The identification of HFWs was done by analysing each text in the textbooks through an online word counter application, wordcounter.net. The presentation of the result of the study was done by presenting the HFWs of Dolch’s list found in the three types of texts. Afterward, the HFWs found in the texts were compared to analyse the language features. The language features were analysed descriptively according to the theories proposed by Gerot and Wignell (1994). Hence, the researchers linked the result of data analysis with the theories from experts and previous studies to propose strategies that can be used in teaching HFWs. A theoretical literature review was applied in this step to consider whether the results answered the research questions of the study.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 HFWs of Dolch’s List Found in the Reading Texts

The analysis of HFWs is divided according to the types of texts in the English textbooks. Those are recount texts, narrative texts, and descriptive texts. Table 1 shows the list of HFWs in recount texts found in the English textbooks and the frequency the words appear in the texts.

Table 1 shows that there are different kinds of words found in recount texts. Based on Dolch’s list, those words are considered as articles, prepositions, pronouns, conjunctions, nouns, adjectives, and verbs. In addition, the appearance of different kinds of words also varied in the total of word frequency. It can be seen from the table that the most dominant HFWs is a determiner of the which was found 233 times in the texts. Some words also had high frequency, with appearances for more than 70 times. Examples of those words were to that appeared 131 times, I appeared 119 times, and appeared 116 times, and was appeared 112 times. Furthermore, there were also some words with the lowest number of frequencies found in the texts, which appeared only two times. Those words were taken, morning, and saw. The use of HFWs found in the text can be seen in the following example, determiner the in the following phrases, such as “in the same class”, and “the radio station” from textbook 1. In these phrases, determiner the could be used to indicate the exact places. Meanwhile, in the other texts, determiner the could also be used to indicate a particular situation, for instance, “…one of the best days…”.
Another example could be seen in the use of prepositions in recount texts. For example, the word *when* in the sentence "*when she doesn’t get what she wants, she acts like a child and stamps her feet*" in textbook 1. The single word-form of *when* could indicate a question word, but according to the grammatical meaning of the sentence, *when* in the sentence was interpreted as a statement that had the same meaning as *while*. From the data, it could be concluded that in recount text, students had to be aware of the function of each article, preposition, pronoun, and other kinds of words which were frequently used in this text, particularly because those words contribute a large portion in the text.

### Table 1. HFWs of Dolch’s list that appears in the English textbooks for recount text.

| Words | Frequency | Words | Frequency | Words | Frequency |
|-------|-----------|-------|-----------|-------|-----------|
| The   | 233       | As    | 17        | Back  | 4         |
| To    | 131       | Him   | 16        | People| 4         |
| I     | 119       | When  | 16        | Three | 4         |
| And   | 116       | Day   | 16        | Say   | 4         |
| Was   | 112       | After | 14        | Walked| 4         |
| In    | 100       | Very  | 13        | Even  | 4         |
| A     | 103       | Is    | 11        | Never | 4         |
| Of    | 77        | Because| 9      | Are   | 4         |
| Her   | 58        | School| 8         | Last  | 4         |
| She   | 53        | Go    | 8         | Call  | 4         |
| We    | 51        | All   | 8         | Face  | 4         |
| It    | 38        | Home  | 8         | Little| 4         |
| He    | 37        | Get   | 7         | Some  | 3         |
| My    | 36        | Time  | 7         | Girls | 3         |
| On    | 33        | Next  | 6         | Eyes  | 3         |
| For   | 31        | Just  | 6         | Like  | 3         |
| That  | 28        | Wanted| 6         | Another| 3        |
| His   | 26        | Took  | 6         | Take  | 2         |
| Had   | 25        | See   | 5         | Morning| 2        |
| At    | 24        | Door  | 5         | Saw   | 2         |
| From  | 22        | Friends| 5     |       |           |
| Were  | 20        | First | 4         |       |           |
| But   | 18        | House | 4         |       |           |
| About | 18        | Two   | 4         |       |           |

The next text type is a narrative text. Table 2 shows the result of textbook analysis on HFWs in narrative texts. Table 2 demonstrates that the narrative texts consisted of more articles than other kinds of words. It was found that the articles appeared more than 200 times in the texts. Moreover, the distribution of prepositions, pronouns, and nouns was also dominant in the texts. Some prepositions, such as *of, in, by,* and *on,* appeared up to 100 times. Some pronouns, such as *she, her, him, his,* and *it,* appeared about 140 times, and some nouns, such as *man, mother, father,* and *boy,* appeared up to 22 times in the texts. Regarding the context of sentences used in the texts, some prepositions could have different meanings in different contexts. For example, the phrase “*a lot of hobbies*” in textbook 1 used the preposition *of* to indicate numbers. Meanwhile, in the phrase “*burst of light*” in textbook 2, the preposition *of* was used to indicate a part of a particular object. Another example could be seen in a sentence of “*Bars may come and bars may go, but crow bars last forever*” in textbook 2. The word *last* in the sentence was interpreted as something that happens for a long time. Meanwhile, in the sentence of “*Rumours that a secretary working for the*
Ministry of Defence has been arrested were confirmed last night” in textbook 1, the word last indicated a past time. Thus, it could be concluded that in narrative texts, students also needed to concern about the use of articles, prepositions, adverbs, and other word categories that express different meanings according to the context of sentences.

Table 2. HFWs of Dolch’s list that appears in the English textbooks for narrative text.

| Words  | Frequency | Words   | Frequency | Words   | Frequency |
|--------|-----------|---------|-----------|---------|-----------|
| The    | 459       | Mother  | 19        | Never   | 6         |
| A      | 210       | Father  | 18        | School  | 6         |
| To     | 209       | Red     | 17        | Now     | 6         |
| And    | 204       | Girl    | 14        | Cold    | 5         |
| He     | 141       | Came    | 13        | House   | 5         |
| Was    | 138       | Told    | 12        | Found   | 5         |
| Of     | 112       | Because | 12        | Door    | 5         |
| His    | 103       | Day     | 12        | People  | 5         |
| Her    | 102       | About   | 11        | Come    | 5         |
| In     | 99        | Dog     | 10        | Upon    | 5         |
| Him    | 64        | Tree    | 15        | May     | 5         |
| That   | 76        | Go      | 10        | Water   | 5         |
| Had    | 62        | Could   | 10        | Long    | 4         |
| You    | 63        | Away    | 10        | Many    | 4         |
| She    | 69        | Do      | 9         | Time    | 4         |
| It     | 49        | Back    | 8         | Only    | 4         |
| When   | 39        | Make    | 8         | Let     | 4         |
| I      | 38        | How     | 8         | Near    | 3         |
| Be     | 36        | Some    | 7         | Last    | 3         |
| By     | 31        | Old     | 7         | Town    | 3         |
| On     | 28        | Out     | 7         | Want    | 3         |
| All    | 24        | After   | 7         | Every   | 2         |
| Is     | 24        | Small   | 7         | Big     | 2         |
| Who    | 24        | Home    | 6         | Boy     | 2         |
| Very   | 23        | Told    | 6         |         |           |
| Man    | 22        |         |           |         |           |

The third text type is descriptive text. Table 3 contains the data showing the result of textbook analysis on HFWs. It illustrates the result of the analysis, which also shows that the list of HFWs consisted of various kinds of words such as articles, prepositions, pronouns, verbs, nouns, and adjectives. As seen in the data, article the appeared 375 times in the texts, presenting the highest number of frequencies among other words. Meanwhile, pronouns, nouns, and adjectives appeared only up to 28 times in the texts. Based on the findings, it could be concluded that HFWs in descriptive texts were dominated by articles followed by the appearance of prepositions, verbs, nouns, and other word categories. The use of these HFWs can also be different in each context. For example, in the sentence “she dyed her hair black since last year” in textbook 3, the word-form since could be interpreted in two ways. First, the word since could indicate an adverb of time, and second, it could also indicate conjunction. However, in this context, the word since was determined as an adverb of time. Another example could be seen in the use of the word to. In the sentence “If you go to Batu city, do not forget to visit Cuban Rondo”, the preposition to in “If you go to Batu city” indicated a destination. Meanwhile, in the main clause “do not forget to visit Cuban
Rondo”, the word *to* was a part of an infinitive and used to indicate the situation to do something. To summarize, the data showed that in descriptive texts, students also needed to acquire more knowledge related to the words that were frequently found in the texts. Those words could be articles, pronouns, prepositions, verbs, nouns, or adjectives.

### Table 3. HFWs of Dolch’s list that appears in the English textbooks for descriptive text.

| Words | Frequency | Words | Frequency | Words | Frequency |
|-------|-----------|-------|-----------|-------|-----------|
| The   | 375       | Have  | 18        | More  | 5         |
| And   | 159       | On    | 15        | Some  | 5         |
| Is     | 153       | By    | 14        | Since | 4         |
| Of     | 150       | Your  | 14        | First | 4         |
| A      | 107       | Can   | 13        | Water | 4         |
| In     | 93        | About | 12        | Like  | 4         |
| To     | 81        | Most  | 11        | Red   | 4         |
| It     | 54        | Which | 11        | When  | 3         |
| Are    | 46        | Know  | 10        | Go    | 3         |
| For    | 30        | people| 10        | Small | 3         |
| You    | 29        | Many  | 9         | Hot   | 2         |
| She    | 28        | They  | 9         | Been  | 2         |
| One    | 27        | But   | 7         | Best  | 2         |
| At     | 26        | Very  | 7         | Always| 2         |
| Was    | 24        | Friends| 7        | Top   | 2         |
| From   | 22        | School| 6         | Cold  | 2         |
| His    | 22        | Place | 6         | Enough| 2         |
| That   | 22        | Looks | 5         |       |           |
| This   | 21        | White | 5         |       |           |
| Her    | 18        |       |           |       |           |

The findings show that, as seen in Tables 1, 2, and 3, the lists of HFWs contain various kinds of word categories. The results of this study showed that from the 220 HFWs of Dolch list, HFWs found in the English textbooks were dominated by function words rather than content words. It could be seen in Table 1, in which the words such as *the, to, I, and, of in, at, on, from* were articles, preposition, and other kinds of function words in recount texts. It is in line with Johns and Wilke (2018) who emphasize that teaching language students about the 13 HFWs (i.e., *on, as, are, they, with, be, his, at, or, from, had, I*) is highly recommended since, in most of the texts, these words contribute a large portion. If students were able to recognize these words by sight, they could automatically get the meaning from the text they read. Likewise, Brown and Bown (2014) assert that learning vocabulary in incidental exposure (reading and listening) is more efficient if the students can recognize words according to their word families and affixes.

### 4.2 The Language Features of HFWs Found in the Reading Texts

Based on the data in Tables 1, 2, and 3, it can be seen that the language features of the texts are different from one to another. The HFWs in Table 1 such as the word *last, next, and after* indicating the language features of recount text that focused on a temporal sequence. For example, the word *next* in the sentence, “The next day, we
spent our time observing plantation and insects while the girls were preparing meals’’ in Textbook 2 indicates a sequence of an event.

Meanwhile, in Table 2, the language features of narrative texts are mostly indicated by words in the form of past tense such as came, could, told, and was. For example, the sentence “A dragon came out of the underwater, but it was so friendly to him’’ in Textbook 3, this sentence shows that narrative texts are used to describe an event in the past.

In Table 3, there are words such as looks, small, cold, and hot that indicate the language features of descriptive texts marked with a specific description of an object. For example, in the sentence “My house looks ugly and the paint is faded’’ in Textbook 2, the word looks is used to describe the condition of a particular object. From the result of the analysis, it can be seen that each text has a different kind of language features.

Consequently, the findings show that the language features of HFWs are found in each text of the textbooks. Nation (2000) states that the frequency of HFWs which occur in the text is based on the characteristics of the text types. Based on the word frequency calculated in this present study, some words which appeared in the textbooks had a various number of frequencies. For example, the word when was found in all texts (see Tables 1, 2, and 3). But the number of its frequency was different in each text type. As seen in Table 1 (recount text), the word when appeared 16 times; in Table 2 (narrative text), it appeared 39 times; while in Table 3 (descriptive text), it was rarely used, shown by three times of occurrence.

The varieties of word frequency in texts occur since each text has its topic vocabulary to convey the message from the text (Nation, 2000). Another example could be seen in the recount and descriptive texts (see Tables 1 and 3). The texts mostly contained infinitive verbs and some adjectives, which indicated that the words were used to describe or modify an object, for instance, the words go, call, see come, red, cold, and hot. Meanwhile, according to Bentz et al. (2017), the most frequent verbs in modern English tend to be irregular. It could be seen in narrative texts (Table 2), in which some words were found as irregular verbs, such as came, told, could. Since the texts were considered as narrative texts, those words were used to tell the situation in the past (Gerot & Wignell, 1994).

However, in relation to the language features of HFWs, there is no exact explanation of which factors influence the shape of word frequency (Bentz et al., 2017). The reason may because a different type of text has a different contextual meaning. That is why teachers are not supposed to restrict the teaching of HFWs to the students as the HFWs’ types appear variously in each kind of text. In doing so, language students are required to continue to learn new words (Nation, 2000).

4.3 Strategies Proposed in Teaching HFWs for Senior High School Students

The third research question deals with the strategies that can be proposed in teaching HFWs for senior high school students. As explained in the Methods section, an approach or reviewing the literature was done to answer this question, such as Nation (2000) and Johns and Wilke (2018) as well-known experts in this field.

The first strategy is the teaching of HFWs through the word card (Nation, 2000). This strategy consists of three steps, including choosing words to learn, making word cards, and using the cards. In making the word cards, students can provide some
pictures and develop the level of words’ frequency. Nation (2000) further asserts that
the word card strategy is an applicable strategy that can be used in teaching not only
high-frequency words but also low-frequency words. These strategies help students in
learning the written form of the words, learning the concept of the words, and making
the connection between the forms and the meanings. Learning from word cards can
also provide students with knowledge of the grammar of each word particularly its part
of speech, its spoken form, and also its collocations. He further emphasizes the
efficiency of word card strategy in learning the word concept. Learning words by
concept helps students to be aware of how the meaning of words changes to suit
particular contexts and how the range of word contexts can be used.

Meanwhile, Johns and Wilke (2018) propose that teaching HFWs can be done
through a direct teaching strategy. This strategy can be delivered in several ways
including explicit instruction, learning through repetition, and see/hear/write/chant
strategies. In explicit instruction, students will learn words by sight. They should say
the words and spell them. This activity may be done independently or in pairs.
Concerning learning through repetition, students are required to learn words
continuously through repetition. It allows students to acquire HFWs by reviewing and
practicing the words until they can automatically recognize each word three times in a
row. This strategy may be done by using flashcards. Moreover, in teaching HFWs by
see/hear/write/chant strategy, students will learn to recognize words by sight. They are
required to chant the words on the whiteboard and know how to spell the words. This
strategy should also be repeated continuously until students can master the HFWs.

Creating a list of HFWs must be essential and effective in language acquisition.
Mustafa (2019) also suggests that the curriculum should provide word lists for students
to give a representation of vocabularies used. Hence, Brown and Bown (2014) claim
that to engage students with words, teachers need to provide them with cluster words
which are made into various meaningful groups. For example, they can categorize
words according to theme or connotation. By finding the list of HFWs in the textbooks,
the teaching of reading comprehension is expected to be easier for the students.

The lists of HFWs are expected to facilitate language students in reading
comprehension by recognizing the context of sentences. Thus, the differences in the
contextual meaning of each word become an essential part that English teachers and
students need to consider. The word list might further become students’ preparation in
preparing for a test such as the national examination. Through the list of HFWs, it is
expected that students can easily get the meaning of the discussed topic in the
textbooks since they have been familiar with those words.

5. CONCLUSION

In this section, three main points needed to be highlighted. First, it was related
to the HFWs of Dolch’s list found in the reading texts of English textbooks 1, 2, and
3 which consisted of recount texts, narrative texts, and descriptive texts. Based on the
result, there were 124 HFWs of Dolch’s list found in the texts. The HFWs found were
mostly articles, prepositions, pronouns, nouns, verbs, adverbs, adjectives, and
conjunctions which were classified as function words and content words. Moreover,
function words were found as the majority of HFWs in all texts compared to content
words. It was seen in Tables 1, 2, and 3 that the function words such as articles, pronouns, and prepositions most frequently appeared in the texts.

Second, the result of the study also highlighted the language features of HFWs in the analysed texts. In recount text, the language features are mostly indicated words in the past form, such as was and wanted, there is also conjunction such as that, because and also adverb such as after and next. In descriptive texts, the language features tended to be verbs and adjectives, as the text functions are to describe an object. Meanwhile, in narrative texts, some words were found in a form of irregular verbs such as came, told, could, which indicated the language features of the text telling the situation in the past.

Third, the result of this study also provided teachers with an understanding of which vocabulary they needed to teach to fulfil the curriculum expectation. The teachers who are aware of students’ needs will have more structured and focused learning objectives. In doing so, the students will also learn vocabulary at their portion, and the learning process will become more successful. Teachers might apply various strategies in teaching HFWs through the use of the word card strategy proposed by Nation (2000) and through the direct teaching strategy proposed by Johns and Wilke (2018). Hence, the implication of this study also suggested textbook writers to provide additional content in textbooks such as the word list of HFWs.

Finally, the results of this study also showed some limitations. First, the list of HFWs needs to be tested whether those words were efficient in improving the learner’s vocabulary mastery. Second, the analysis of the HFWs list in this study is restricted since it only analysed the texts in three textbooks. Third, it is also necessary to prove that the HFWs that appeared in the analysed texts were the same words as the words used in some tests, such as the national examinations, especially in Indonesia. Therefore, further studies are expected to explore further issues related to HFWs.

REFERENCES

Ali, I. R. (2010). The correlation between students’ vocabulary mastery and reading comprehension [Unpublished bachelor’s thesis]. Universitas Islam Negeri Syarif Hidayatullah.

Alizadeh, I. (2016). Vocabulary teaching techniques: A review of common practices. International Journal of Research in English Education, 1(1), 23-30.

Ayuningtyas, D. (2011). Improving students’ vocabulary mastery through extensive reading activities at grade XI IPA 2 of SMA N 1 Pleret Bantul in the academic year of 2011/2012 [Unpublished bachelor’s thesis]. Universitas Negeri Yogyakarta.

Bentz, C., Alikaniotis, D., Samardziq, T., Buttery, P. (2017). Variation in word frequency distributions: Definitions, measures and implications for a corpus-based language typology. Journal of Quantitative Linguistics, 24(3), 128-162.

Betri, R. (2018). Content analysis of English textbook entitled Talk Active used by the senior high school (student’s book) [Unpublished bachelor’s thesis] Universitas Islam Negeri Sultan Thaha Saifuddin.

Brown, H. D. (2003). Language assessment: Principles and classroom practices. Longman.
Brown, T., & Bown, J. (2014). *Teaching advanced language skills through global debate*. Georgetown University Press.

Desiana, K., & Mahripah, S. (2018). Improving the reading comprehension ability through the use of Herringbone technique of XI grade students of SMA Negeri 11 Yogyakarta. *English Language Teaching Journal, 7*(6), 398-402.

Dilla, R. G. S., Damayanti, I., & Hati, G. M. (2017). The content analysis of Bahasa Inggris textbook for senior high school grade X published by Kemendikbud 2014. *Journal of English Education and Teaching, 1*(1), 1-8.

Faliyanti, E. (2015). The correlation between students’ vocabulary mastery and their interest in English toward reading comprehension in descriptive text. *Premise Journal of English Education, 4*(2), 68-76.

Gerot, L., & Wignell, P. (1994). *Making sense of functional grammar*. Gerd S. Stabler.

Grabe, W. (2014). Key issues in L2 reading development. In X. Deng & R. Seow (Eds.), *Alternative pedagogies in the English language and communication classroom: Selected papers from The 4th Centre for English Language Communication (CELC) Symposium Proceedings* (pp. 8-18). National University of Singapore.

Haspelmath, M. (2001). Word classes and part of speech. In N. J. Smelser & P. B. Baltes (Eds.). *International encyclopaedia of the social and behavioural sciences* (2nd ed.) (pp. 16538-16545). Elsevier. https://doi.org/10.1016/B0-08-043076-7/02959-4

Hayes, C. (2016). *The effects of sight word instruction on students’ reading abilities* [Unpublished master’s thesis]. St. John Fisher College.

Hinzman, M., & Reed, D. K. (2018). *Teaching sight words as a part of comprehensive reading instruction*. IOWA Reading Research Center.

Johns, J. L. (1976). Updating the Dolch basic sight vocabulary. *Reading Horizons, 16*(2), 105-111.

Johns, J. L., & Wilke, K. H. (2018). High-frequency words: Some ways to teach and help students practice and learn them. *Texas Journal of Literacy Education, 6*(1), 3-13.

Katamba, F. (2005). *English words*. Taylor & Francis e-Library.

Kinasih, A. K. (2014). *A content analysis on English textbooks for the tenth graders: Look Ahead an English course for senior high school students year X and Pathway to English for senior high school student grade X* [Unpublished bachelor’s thesis]. Universitas Negeri Yogyakarta.

Marks, C. B., Doctorow, M. J., & Wittrock, M. C. (1974). Word frequency and reading comprehension. *The Journal of Education Research, 67*(6), 259-262.

Marzouk, N. (2008). *Building fluency of sight words* [Unpublished master’s thesis]. State University of New York.

Masrai, A. (2019). Vocabulary and reading comprehension revisited: Evidence for high-, mid-, and low-frequency vocabulary knowledge. *SAGE Open, 9*(2), 1-13.

Mayring, P. (2019). Qualitative content analysis: Demarcation, varieties, developments. *Forum: Qualitative Social Research, 20*(3), 1-26.

Moghadam, S. H., Zainal, Z., & Ghaderpour, M. (2012). A review on the important role of vocabulary knowledge in reading comprehension performance. *Procedia: Social and Behavioural Sciences, 66*, 555-563.
Mokhtar, A. A., Rawian, R. M., Yahaya, M. F., Abdullah, A., Mansor, M., Osman, M. I., Zakaria, Z. A., Murat, A., Nayan, S., & Mohamed, A. R. (2010). Vocabulary knowledge of adult ESL students. *English Language Teaching, 3*(1), 71-80.

Moohebat, M., Raj, R. G., Thorleuchter, D., & Kareem, S. B. A. (2017). Linguistic feature classifying and tracing. *Malaysian Journal of Computer Science, 30*(2), 77-90.

Murray, C. M., & Kelly, M. P. (2018, March 11-12). *The first 100 high-frequency words list: Building fluency in delayed readers [Conference abstract].* ECAE’s 3rd International Conference on Educational Neuroscience. Abu Dhabi, Uni Emirate Arab.

Mustafa, F. (2019). English vocabulary size of Indonesian high school graduates: Curriculum expectation and reality. *Indonesian Journal of English Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics, 3*(2), 357-371.

Nation, P. (1990). *Teaching and learning vocabulary.* Newbury House.

Nation, P. (2000). *Learning vocabulary in another language.* Cambridge University Press.

Pajo, M. N. (2017). *Using games to improve vocabulary knowledge of the eleventh grade students of senior high school [Unpublished bachelor’s thesis].* Universitas Sanata Dharma Yogyakarta.

Schleppegrell, M. J. (2001). Linguistic features of the language of schooling. *Linguistics and Education, 12*(4), 431-459.

Schmitt, N. (2000). *Vocabulary in language teaching.* Cambridge University Press.

Thomas, L. (1993). *Beginning syntax.* Blackwell.

Trisnasih, A. S. (2017). Improving reading comprehension ability of XI grade students of SMA Negeri 1 Tawangsari through the implementation of Collaborative Strategic Reading in the Academic Year of 2015/2016. *English Language Teaching Journal, 6*(1), 13-16.

Wardani & Myla, N. (2015). *Teaching vocabulary to young students using flashcard AT BA Aisyiyah Kadilangu in 2014/2015 academic year [Unpublished bachelor’s thesis].* Universitas Muhammadiyah Surakarta.

**APPENDIX**

| Table A1. The HFWs of Dolch’s list. |
|------------------------------------|
| A | Could | He | Might | Same | Told | Air |
| About | Cut | Heard | Might | More | Saw | Too | Back |
| Across | Did | Help | Most | Say | Took | Book |
| After | Didn’t | Her | Much | See | Toward | Boy |
| Again | Do | Here | Must | She | Try | Car |
| All | Does | High | My | Short | Turn | Children |
| Always | Done | Him | Near | Should | Two | City |
| Am | Don’t | His | Need | Show | Under | Day |
| An | Down | Hold | Never | Six | Up | Dog |
| And | Draw | Hot | Next | Small | Upon | Door |
| Another | Eat | How | New | So | Us | Eye |
| Any | Enough | I | No | Some | Use | Face |
| Are | Even | I’m | Not | Soon | Very | Father |
| Around | Every | If | Now | Start | Walk | Feet |
| Table A1 continued… |
|----------------------|
| As | Far | In | Of | Still | Want | Friend |
| Ask | Fast | Into | Off | Stop | Warm | Girl |
| At | Find | Is | Oh | Take | Was | Group |
| Away | First | It | Old | Tell | We | Hand |
| Be | Five | Its | On | Ten | Well | Head |
| Because | For | Just | Once | Than | Were | Home |
| Been | Found | Keep | One | That | What | House |
| Before | Four | Kind | Only | The | When | Man |
| Began | From | Know | Open | Their | Where | Men |
| Best | Full | Last | Or | Them | Which | Money |
| Better | Gave | Leave | Other | Then | While | Morning |
| Big | Get | Left | Our | There | Who | Mother |
| Black | Give | Let | Out | These | Why | Mr. |
| Blue | Go | Light | Over | They | Will | Mrs. |
| Both | Going | Like | Own | Think | With | Name |
| Bring | Gone | Little | Play | This | Work | Night |
| But | Good | Long | Put | Those | Would | Nothing |
| By | Got | Look | Ran | Thought | Yes | People |
| Call | Green | Made | Read | Three | Yet | Place |
| Came | Grow | Many | Red | Through | You | Road |
| Can | Had | May | Right | To | Your | Room |
| Close | Hard | Me | Round | Today | Time | School |
| Cold | Has | Mean | Run | Together | Top | Side |
| Come | Have | Tree | Said | Table | Town | Thing |
| Water | Way | Year | | | | |