THE EFFECT OF CONTEXTUAL GUESSING STRATEGY ON IDENTIFYING THE MEANING OF LOW-FREQUENCY WORDS AND BEHAVIOURS OF TURKISH EFL STUDENTS IN IDENTIFYING THE MEANING OF UNKNOWN WORDS

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Abstract:
This study explores the contribution of Contextual Guessing Strategy (CGS) to identify the meaning of unknown low-frequency words within the context, and to identify the habits of English language majoring students in employing CGS. The participants in this study are ninety-three male and female ELT students randomly selected. Data collection tools were a reading text and two questionnaires identifying three major areas. These are: 1. which sources students apply in the first instance to identify the meaning of unknown words, 2. which contextual clues they look for, and 3. how often these clues are employed to reveal the meaning of unknown words.

Keywords: contextual guessing strategy, ELT students, low frequency words, contextual cues

1. Introduction

Words are the foundation of comprehension in learning any language. While L1 learning context provides a rich range of vocabulary, the L2 context has limited input of vocabulary for L2 learners. Numerous studies have been conducted on how to reveal the meaning of unknown words within the contexts, and to reduce the stress that unknown words may cause. Although vocabulary competence is accepted as essential in comprehension (Nation, 2001, 2000a, 2000b, 1993; Ling, 2005; Schmitt, 2008; Schmitt, 2000; Schmitt, 2014; Prince, 1996; Thornby, 2002; Walters, 2004; Mart, 2012; Alsaawi, 2013; Zaid, 2013; Ranalli-Ralli, 2009; Oxford, 1994), it is also seen as a ‘momentous hurdle’ (Askari, 2013) to English L2 learners as it takes a long time to accommodate, internalize and retain new words.

On the other hand, to Stah (1999), when L2 learners are not able to understand the text due to the unknown words, they either give up reading or rely on outside resources.
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(al-Yousef, 2005; Askari, 2013) which will create stress as well as affecting learner’s comprehension, which eventually may lead to bad reading habits of L2 learners. Additionally, since L2 learners spend much time on identifying the meaning of unknown words, they always need effective tools to help them understand a text quickly. Vocabulary learning strategies (VLS) are believed to help a learner’s understanding and to contribute to learner’s lexical repertoire (Oxford, 2011; Heidari, Izadi & Ahmadian, 2012). To Oxford (2011) “the more students use strategies, the more success they achieve”. Among VLS, contextual guessing strategy (CGS ) is one of the oldest (see Gray and Holmes, 1938; Seibert, 1945) and considered as the most popular (Amirian & Heshmatifar, 2013) and important (Nation, 1989: p, 66) strategy.

1.1. Contextual Guessing Strategy
CGS is a metacognitive strategy which is believed to increase a learner’s understanding to help the learner to identify the meanings of unfamiliar words. The presumption behind CGS is that there are always clues to enable reader to decipher the meaning of unknown words from the context in which they are used. To Nation (2001), “we draw inference from the known to name the unknown”, which means that the unknown is always detected in the neighbourhood area, and the clue functions like “a magnet-comprehensible supporting context”, according to Nation (2000a). (Brown & Yule, 1983) see that “inference is the connection that the learner makes to establish meaning in order to understand the text”. Nation (2000a) maintains that the most common clues are mainly conjunction relationships and the affixes as “60% of the low frequency words (LFWs) of English are from French, Latin or Greek, and thus are likely to have word parts”. To Fengning (1994), CGS helps readers develop a holistic approach toward reading a text, as looking for the clues makes them pay attention to larger language units. Edward (2009) and Nation (2002b) believe that guessing in a context helps to develop long-term retention as well.

2. Studies on Contextual Guessing Strategy
Some of the studies revealed the efficacy of CGS in identifying the meaning of words (Istifci, 2009; Samiyan & Khorasani, 2014; Bakhtiarvand, 2007; Kanatlar & Peker, 2009). These studies have found the effect of CGS on different levels of L2 learners; some of the findings showed that beginners use guessing strategies more frequently than the upper-intermediate level learners. For example, Parel (2004) found that using inferencing strategies improve the reading skills of learners with low receptive vocabulary.

On the other hand, some studies on CGS have revealed contradictory findings: for example, (Lynn & Posnansky, 1977; Schatz and Baldwin, 1986; Jenkins, Matlock, & Slocum, 1989; cited in Zaid 2009) Carins et al., 1981) suggested that there are no advantages of CGS on long-term retention and recalling in the context is not significantly more advantageous over any other vocabulary techniques.
A significant interaction was found between strategy use and proficiency level as poor reader scored lower than good reader in their use of vocabulary strategies (Schmitt, 1997; Fan, 2003). Similarly, to Ellis & Beaton, (1993) beginners learn words using a list of words and memorize them, whereas other scholars have found that advanced students use the context to learn the meaning of unknown words, (Ellis, 1994; Carter, 1987; as cited in Lawson & Hogben, 1996).

Studies accept that CGS improves comprehension skills but also have found a relationship between employing CGS language proficiency, (Swerling, 2006; Barnett, 1989; Kaivanpanah and Alavi (2008 cited in Huang & Elzami, 2013; Block, 1992). Similarly, to Swerling (2006), good readers can make use of CGS, improving a good reader’s understanding skills. However, they observe that this is not the case for poor readers, as “the development of skilled reading involves increasingly accurate and automatic word identification skills, not the use of “multiple cueing systems”. Hulstjin (1992) underlines that L2 contexts do not always provide adequate cues for correct guessing. Similarly, Herman (1987) Stein (1993: 204), and Deighton (1959, cited in March, 2012), state that CGS is an ineffective strategy, for only a small percentage of contexts give enough information about the meaning of a word. Additionally, mainly only one of the possible many meanings of the word is supported by the context, supplying only some aspects of the meaning of that word.

Nassaji (2003); Parry (1991); Walters (2006); Prince (1996), Yongqi Gu (2003) also note that CGS is not effective for beginners as it has a limited lexical repertoire to prevent guessing.

Mokhtar and Rawian (2011) as with other scholars in this field, believe that rewording CGS fails to help ESL / EFL students to increase their vocabulary knowledge, as they have artificially limited exposure to language and cannot make an effective and correct guess. Native English speakers on the other hand, have a rich exposure to the language in daily life, which explains why CGS works well for native English speakers. To Martin (1984), this lack of exposure makes L2 learners unable to utilize the strategy to the fullest and they become incompetent when applying it, (cited in Mokhtar & Rawian, 2011).

The results of a longitudinal study with four subjects carried out by (Bornmann & Munby, 2004) showed improvement in two of the four participants’ guessing skills whereas the other two showed no improvements.

Up to this point, the role of CGS in revealing the meaning of unknown words, its efficacy on L2 lexical repertoire and comprehension have been discussed. However, CGS is also considered as a way of developing vocabulary learning skill for dealing with low-frequency vocabulary, particularly in the reading of authentic texts, (Celce, Murcia, 2001, p.290). Word frequency is a way to systematize words for learners, (Schmits, 2014). To Nation, (1990; 2001) categorizing words such as low and high frequency is to choose different types of words and tailor them to classroom teaching. Unlike LFWs, high frequency vocabulary is accepted as the core vocabulary and appears in any text (Cvrček,
2011, p.1) and they are easily learned, whereas the LFWs are not seen very often in the teaching text and require certain ways to learn. Therefore, Schmitts (2014, p. 485) states that these rare words should be taught through vocabulary learning strategies. Similarly, Nation (1985) stresses the necessity of using CGS to learn LFWs:

“Guessing the meanings of words from context is the most important strategy for dealing with low frequency vocabulary in written texts. There are many low frequency words, and their occurrence is largely unpredictable, so it is not possible to learn them in advance. It is better to use context clues to infer their meaning than to spend time on learning them” (p, 33).

Paul Nation categorized words into four groups: academic, technical, and low and high frequency. He then added mid-low frequency to his classifications of frequency designing a word list for each frequency band. “A frequency list is a list of all the types (words) in a corpus together with the number of occurrences of each type”, (Brindle, 2016). So, the frequency of word refers to how many times the word occurs within a text. The defined word lists of the high-frequency word family (1000-2000), mid-frequency (3000-9000 and low-frequency (9000 and onwards) have a range of frequency used or appeared in a written text. Based on this, the boundary between the frequency bands is defined by Brysbaert & Mandera (2017) as “the low-frequency words are lower than 5pm (frequency per million and high-frequency words are higher than 100 fmp”.

To Mondor (2014), traditional vocabulary teaching focuses on HFWs and the academic word List is no longer sufficient to attain the needed quantity of vocabulary for English learners. Therefore, more pedagogical focus should be on knowledge of LFWs, which has been overlooked in ELT departments. With respect to this, ELT students, in order to be able to gain adequate reading comprehension of literature, novel and other topics taught at ELT Departments, should expand their low-frequency repertoire as ELT students unavoidably encounter a number of low-frequency words during and after their study.

Although researchers (Celce, Murcia, 2001 and Schmitts, 2014) consider CGS as a way of learning low-frequency words, in literature reviews, only one study was found relating to the topic. This study by Askari and Shokouhi (2010), showed the impact of a CGS on LFW and reading authentic texts with one-hundred university students selected randomly. One of the two groups received CGS instruction to infer the meaning of LFW while the other group was treated by a direct method. The results revealed that CGS instruction was more effective than direct vocabulary instruction and was more effective than the non-context method in improving reading.

All discussions on CGS so far have showed that there is still a need for more empirical studies. CGS may also be used as a tool to determine its relationship with ELT students’ knowledge of LFWs, and to examine its effect on their identifying the meaning of LFWs. While identifying the role of CGS in revealing the meaning of LFWs we also
need to know whether students make use of CGS in identifying the meaning of unknown words and which contextual cues are used and found helpful by L2 learners.

1.4 Contextual cues
Different factors such as familiarity of the text, individual differences and clues affect the learner’s guessing ability in a context. The most common clues are affixes, conjunctions, synonyms, and antonyms, as well as appositives (APs), as APPs follow just the word referred to. To Fengning (ibid), roots, prefixes, suffixes and compound nouns are good indicators of how a word is structured, and the learner can detect them. Both Nation (2000a) and Lauger & Sim (1985b) suggest that the number of unknown words negatively affect the status of guessing in the text. To Laufer and Sim (ibid), this is because “learners with low sizes of vocabulary are unable to make use of guessing effectively as their limited vocabulary knowledge prevents them to do this”. Therefore, a person with a good vocabulary repertoire can make use of the contextual clues. To Kelly (1990: p. 203), “unless there is a relationship with a known word identifiable on the basis of form and supported by context, there is a little chance of guessing the meaning”.

Up to this point, clearly almost no studies were found particularly on the impact of CGS in identifying the meaning of LFWs within a context. Therefore, this research will focus on this aspect of CGS as well, because ESL/EFL teachers need to know more about how ELT students respond to the meaning of an unknown word in a context, how successful they are in employing CGS, and what their habits are in guessing their meanings. Therefore, we strongly believe that any studies to contribute to the effectiveness of CGS may be an encouraging idea for L2 learners as well as for educators.

2.2 Significance of the Study
So far, studies haven’t concluded with a clear indication between LFWs and CGS. Furthermore, the attitudes of ELT students in employing CGS have not been sufficiently investigated in relation to LFWs. Therefore, it is believed that more empirical studies from the classroom setting are needed to help teachers shape their way of teaching LFWs to L2 learners, for a rich lexical repertoire is a critical tool for L2 learners in comprehension and effective communication. Additionally, LFW may not be used in the class very often since their usage is rare in a non-native context.

2.3 Objectives of the Study
The current study attempts to investigate the effects of CGS on comprehension of ELT students in determining the meaning of unknown LFWs in a context and examines the ways L2 learners use to identify the meaning of unknown words, the contextual cues to guess the meaning and the frequency of employing these cues and ways.

Regarding the objectives of the study, the following research questions are put forward:
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1) What is the effect of CGS in comprehension of ELT students in figuring out the meaning of unknown LFW words?
2) What are ways ELT students deal with unknown words and how often do they use them?
3) Which contextual cues do ELT students use to deduce the meaning and how often do they use them?
4) Is there any difference between male and female students identifying the meaning of unknown words and their gender status?

3. Material and Methods

A section intended to contain a detailed description of all the methods, materials, collaborators

3.1 Participants

Ninety-three randomly selected 4th year students of whom 22 males and 71 females enrolled in ELT department were recruited for this study with ages ranging from 19 – 25 years. Of particular note is that the number of female students is higher than male students in ELT departments in Turkey, as girls consider teaching (English in particular) as a prestigious, safe and secure profession to be appointed by the ministry of national education of Turkey.

The participants’ first language (L1) is Turkish. Regarding their English level, in principle in Turkey students must prove English language competence at B1 level on entering to the ELT department. Although there is no specific assessment of pure English language at the end of their education, students’ proficiency levels are expected to be either B2 or C1. At the time of the application, they candidates must have already taken various courses such as reading, writing, listening, speaking, contextual grammar, second language acquisition, teaching methodology and approaches in ELT, communication skills, teaching young learners, English literature and teaching practice.

Table 1: The Participant’s Information

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>( f )</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>75.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>24.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

24.7 % of the 93 participants are male and 75.3 % them are female.

3.2 Reading passage

The reading passage was given to students to explore the effect of CGS in identifying unknown LFWs. It is a single 532-word reading passage entitled “Male and female brains:
the REAL differences” taken from The Guardian (4 December 2013) published as a daily newspaper. This topic was chosen in particular in that it would more likely attract a student readership. The students found it interesting mentioning that they had enjoyed reading it, but unknown words overshadowed their full comprehension. The article was modified (shortened and amended) for the purposes of the study in the following ways: Jargon was deleted and some of the redundant sentences were deleted in order not to overwhelm the reader with long sentences. Sixteen high frequency target words were replaced with their synonyms which are considered as LFWs. These consisted of two verbs, four nouns, six adjectives and four adverbs, all in boldface type. In order to provide a range of frequency words for L2 learners, all words were chosen from a 69-2300 frequency band level. This was to provide more opportunity for comprehension. It was thought that the range of frequency level would serve the purpose of the study more accurately rather than providing one single frequency band. With this approach, it is anticipated to see if CGS will help to identify the LFWs from various levels of frequency bands. The classification of low-frequency words was determined according to the values (the frequency of occurrence of each word) provided by Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) database with its 560-million word size, and also has free online access (see the database in the appendix). The frequency search shows how many times the word type occurs in the 560 million-word corpus.

The passage was sent to two TEFL/TESOL teachers working in the UK to verify content validity and text suitability. It was edited by the two native speakers working as ESL instructors and both commented on the comprehensibility of the passage and acceptability of the target words.

The words in the passage were pretested with the participants, and they were asked to circle the words they did not know. This is to ensure that they are not familiar with the target words. All of the sixteen words were defined as unknown by the participants (see Appendix 1 for the passage). Three weeks later, the text was administered to students who were asked to write the meaning of the target words either in Turkish or English.

3.4 Questionnaires
The participants were asked to specify their gender in the section for personal information, and three administered questionnaires were used to identify their behaviour to discover the meaning of unknown words. In the first questionnaire, the respondents were asked how often they resort to a dictionary, ask teachers/friends, rely on context knowledge and personal experience to identify the meaning of unknown words in a context, and whether they skip or give up reading when they encounter unknown words. It contains seven statements each of which is ranked and valued as very often:5, often:4, sometimes:3, rarely:2 and never:1.
The second questionnaire with nine statements aims to reveal the frequency of contextual cues used by L2 learners to estimate the meaning of unknown words. Each statement is valued as for very often 5, often 4, sometimes 3, rarely 2 and never 1.

Questionnaire number one with eight items, explores the most helpful contextual element preferred by L2 learners and valued as 1 (very helpful) 2 (sometimes helpful); 3 (not helpful).

The whole application required approximately 50 minutes for the participant to complete.

3.5 Data analysis

T-test was used to find if there is any difference between male and female L2 learners in using CGS to identify the meaning. The responses of the students to the second and third questionnaires were calculated as percentages. The correct guessing of each target word was assigned as 1 and the wrong guessing was valued as 0. The percentage of correct responses was analysed and the values were given as percentages.

The frequency of each target word was checked in COCA which is one of the largest databases with 560 million words recorded from 1990, (according to Harvard Data verse). “COCA in terms of size, balance and currency is the best corpus of general English in existence” (Schmit, 2012).

4. Results and Discussion

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Words</th>
<th>Number of correct responses</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Freq by COCA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. substantiate</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. roundly</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.23%</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>749</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. inverted</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.23%</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>1219</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. lead-lined</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. shank</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>888</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. rundown</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>1300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. cranials</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>544</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. fortuitously</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>147</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. inclined</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>1454</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. torsos</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>316</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. scoff</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>442</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. queuing</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.23%</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>201</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. professedly</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. figment</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>313</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. preconceived</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>638</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 illustrates that only 80 correct responses for one word and 4 correct responses were recorded for two different words and 12 of the fifteen words were left unanswered. It was found that the word roundly is in the 749-frequency band which in lower band
level compared to some of the target words and 80 students responded it correctly. The words inverted and queuing were also guessed correctly by four students, two for each. On the other hand, none of the participants were able to define the meaning of the words rundown, cranial, substantiate, scoff, shank, torsos, lead-leaned, fortuitously, queuing, figment, preconceived and professedly.

Table 3: t-test result: Gender differences according to figuring out the meaning of unknown words

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>X</th>
<th>ss</th>
<th>Sd</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>2,74</td>
<td>0,38</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>0,59</td>
<td>0,55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>2,80</td>
<td>0,51</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

t(91) = 0,59, p > 0,05

Students’ figuring out the unknown words and their gender status does not show any significant relationship.

4.1 The ways students’ use to figure out the meaning of an unknown word

Bar Graph 1: The use of the dictionary

The use of dictionary was chosen very often by 35% the participants.

Bar Graph 2: Asking friends to help for identifying the meaning
Students sometimes ask their friends for the unknown words and 40% of are in favour of asking a friend to help with the meaning.

**Bar Graph 3: Skipping the unknown words during reading**

As it is seen above, the graph shows that the participants never skip the unknown word.

**Bar Graph 4: Relying on the context and personal experience to figure out the unknown words are often used**

**Bar Graph 5: Giving up reading when unknown words come up in the text**

Nearly 60% of the students never give up reading when they face unknown words.
Bar Graph 6: Relying on personal experience in identifying unknown words

Students often rely on their personal experience to identify the meaning of unknown words.

Bar Graph 7: The word part (i.e. root, affixes)

Bar Graph 7 shows that nearly 50% of the students often prefer looking at the meaning of different parts of the word (i.e. compound nouns, note-book) to guess the meaning.

Bar Graph 8: Guessing the meaning of unknown words from different parts of a word
The relationship between the meaning of different parts of the new word is often preferred by nearly 50% of the students.

**Bar Graph 9:** The relation between the new word and other words in the sentence (i.e. walk quickly, verb-adverb relation)

The majority of the students often prefer to look at the relation between the new word and other words in a sentence.

**Bar Graph 10:** The relation between sentences and words through linking verbs is used very often

In the Bar Graph 10, 55% of the students prefer often to look at the linking words.
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Bar Graph 11: Words and phrases showing cause and effect (i.e. on condition, providing that)

Words and phrases are chosen often by the participants.

Bar Graph 12: The main idea of the message in defining the unknown word

Main idea of the passage is preferred very often and often equally.

Bar Graph 14: The title

According to Bar Graph 14, the title is preferred often by the students.
The results related to the above findings provide some information about the effectiveness of CGS with LFWs. Although (Celce, Murcia, 2001 and Schmitts, 2014) underline the necessity and effectiveness of CGS to teach LFWs, this study has not empirically established the significance of CGS in identifying the meaning of unknown LFW in a text. As the results show, when the words are low-frequency, CGS does not help the reader to uncover the meaning of LWF words within a text and none of the contextual cues help to guess the meaning correctly in this study. The researcher felt that the nature of the word contributes to guessing the meaning correctly in this study.

This study also reveals that there are certain ways that L2 learners use when dealing with the meaning of unknown words in a context. To this end, L2 learners very often use a dictionary, sometimes ask friends, never skip the unknown word, very often rely on contextual knowledge and personal experience (40%), and often look at different parts of an unknown word (compound nouns, note-book) to identify the meaning of unknown words. The findings has also showed that the word parts such as root, and derivational affixes (nearly 50%), the relation between the new word and other words in a sentence such, as verb-adverb, adjective-noun matchup relation, linking words, connecting words and sentence; the relation between sentences in the paragraphs (50%) (transition words were used in particular), words and phrases showing cause and effect such as: -on condition, providing, if- (55%) main idea often (50 %), title and common sense (40%) are the most common contextual cues often used by L2 learners to identify the meaning of unknown words.

According to Fenning (1994), “the word formation helps L2 learner in identifying the meaning of a word” however in this study, although there are other adverbs with –ly endings in the text, the participants were unable to find their meanings. For example, –ly in professedly did not help the learner to uncover the meaning. However, the adverb roundly, also ending with -ly, was guessed correctly by 80 participants.

This may be due to their frequency bands as the root of roundly is round the frequency of which is 35.407 however as a noun profess 3579 which shows the lower band of frequency. One can draw a conclusion from this finding in such a way that, if a word root is included in a high frequency band and student is familiar with at least one part of
a word in particular this may help students identify the meaning. But word formation solely may not be an effective clue as shown in this study. Additionally, regardless whether the word being in LWFs or HFWs band, the recognition of word is more related to the exposure and familiarity of the word. The identification of the word *roundly* by the majority of students can be considered in terms of its adjective form and familiarity. The adjective form of *roundly* is *round* whose frequency is 70074 in the frequency band, which is in a high frequency band level and is one of the most common adjectives in English that L2 learners are frequently exposed to. This might be one of the reasons of why 80% of the students guessed the word *roundly* correctly as the more we expose to a word or image we can make more connection with other things as Thompson (2015) states “*familiarity breeds association*.”

The correct guessing of the words *inverted* and *queuing* does not reveal any significant effect and students might have guessed these two words simply by blind random guessing. Thome (2009) maintains that sophisticated guessing is based on partial knowledge and facilitates comprehension whereas blind guessing does not base on knowledge and is used sometimes when students encounter difficulty in a given task.

Another finding appeared in this study is, although some researchers like Lantolf & Poehner (2014) state that the length of a text has impact in identifying the meaning of a word, this study does not establish such relation with LFWs and longer texts do not promote identifying the meaning of these words. This might be related to the researcher’s choice of words from various low frequency levels, that the chosen words are not equally placed in the same frequency band level. Another reason for this might be each word was used once within the text and have not been repeatedly appeared within the text and therefore the participants might have not found the meaning. Thus, not using the target words repeatedly within the text may have affected the performance of the participants. Based on this finding, we can say that it may be well worth repeating the LFWs several times within the text and choosing all the words from the same frequency band level.

Another possible reasons of why L2 learners were not able to use CGS effectively might be that they are not capable of using CGS with LFWs. Therefore, practicing CGS with LFWs in reading classes will make students familiar with more LFWs which they may not be found very often in the course books. The value of authentic materials such as news articles, journals, video, audio materials, tv shows and radio interviews in reading course are laid bare in reading classes.

Based on the findings in the Table 1 the researcher did not find any relationship between the ways L2 learners identify the meaning of an unknown word and their gender status, (t(91)= 0.59, p > 0.05.)

Another result which contradicts current research Stah (1999); Alyousef (2005); Askari, (2013) claiming that L2 learners give up reading when they do not know the meaning of a word. However, this study did not establish such relationship.

Although the students’ preference based on the questionnaire shows that L2 learners often rely on the context and this is overlapped with the study of Buikema &
Graves (1993) and others’ saying that students guess the meaning of unknown words through the context, the results of this study does not reveal such finding. This might be due to a few reasons, firstly, as mentioned above the infrequent appearance of words might have prevented students to guess the meaning correctly; secondly, the participants may not know how to employ CGS; thirdly, the choice of the target words from various bands of frequency might have affected the performance of the participants. Introducing gradual levels of LFWs may help with the third obstacle.

5. Conclusions

The findings of this study help us to understand how L2 learners handle the unknown words, which elements they find most useful to figure out the meaning and factors that contribute to L2 lexical inferencing ability. The results may have noteworthy implications for teachers and materials developers. L2 learners should expose to various authentic and extensive reading to meet LWFs as the books mainly contain high frequency words. The teachers and researchers should be cautious with bringing LFWs as they do not provide any clues and also make other clues ineffective and unnoticing.

This study focused on the impact of CGS in identifying LFWs in reading, however, future attention and research could be helpful to consider the relationships between other language skills as well as affective variables and CGS in L2 context and the role of CGS on retention of the inferred words. The role of culture in applying CGS also remains to be explored.

Conflict of Interest Statement
The author declares no conflicts of interests.

About the Author
Sevim Inal is working as an Associate Professor at the ELT department, Canakkale Onsekiz Mart University. She received her PhD degree in ELT. She attended numerous national and international conferences and has publication in various journals. She is a member of IATEFL and served as committee member in SATEFL for three years. She was nominated for the Excellent Teaching Award by the University of Edinburgh Student Association in 2011 and 2012.

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Link for the Reading Passage
For the reading text please visit the following link: “Male and female brains”
THE EFFECT OF CONTEXTUAL GUESSING STRATEGY ON IDENTIFYING THE MEANING OF LOW-FREQUENCY WORDS AND BEHAVIOURS OF TURKISH EFL STUDENTS IN IDENTIFYING THE MEANING OF UNKNOWN WORDS