CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURES

This chapter presents some theories that are relevant with the research. The researcher divides the chapter into three parts. The first part presents about reading, the second part presents about contextual guessing meaning, and the last part presents about the previous studies. Each part is presented as follow:

A. Reading

1. Nature of Reading

Reading is the activity for getting information from the book or the text. By reading, we can increase our knowledge. In other word, if we always read the book or other every day, we can get much knowledge. For improving the reading ability, students should practice their reading more and more. However, students may find difficulty in practicing so it can make them frustrated. It can be solved if they always keep practicing, they will have a good sense of English and will help them to comprehend the complete meaning of the words.

Harmer (1983:153) stated that reading is an exercise dominated by the eyes and the brain. The eyes receive messages and the brain has to work out the significance of these messages, unlike listening text, a reading text moves at the speed of the reader to decide how fast he wants read a text, whereas listeners often have to do their best with a text whose speed is chosen by

speaker. Besides, Boer and Dalmann (1964:17) stated that reading is an activity which involves the comprehension and interpretation of ideas symbolized by written or printed language.

Reading is a complex conscious and unconscious mental process in which the reader uses a variety of techniques to reconstruct the meaning that the author is assumed to have intended, based on the data from the text and from the reader's prior knowledge (Mikulecky, 1990 : 50).

Based on Ontario Ministry of Education (2008 : 3), reading is the active process of understanding print and graphic texts. Reading is the thinking process. Effective readers know that when they read, what they read is supposed to make sense. They monitor their understanding, and when they lose the meaning of what they are reading, they often unconsciously select and use a reading technique (such as rereading or asking questions) that will help them reconnect with the meaning of the text.

From those definition, the writer can says that reading is some activities that involves a thinking to catch the information that given. An activity in reading shows the interaction between a thinking and text, not only the prior knowledge can help the students to understand reading, but also the techniques the way they do are important too.

Reading is a mental process. Although the eyes are involved to sending information about print to brain, the brain performs the real act of reading. The mental process we call "reading" has two parts: word recognition and comprehension Gough, Hoover, & Peterson (in Collin, 2005: 13).

a. Word recognition

Word recognition occurs when a reader sees a sequence of letters (a word) in print and matches that sequence of letters with a pronunciation and meaning(s) located in his or her brain where information about words is stored. It means that the reader tries to match between the first paragraphs with another paragraph.

b. Comprehension

Comprehension requires the reader to combine the meanings of a number of words in his working memory until he can think about their collective meaning. It means the reader try to find the meaning from what they read.

2. Reasons in Studying Reading

There are several reasons why we study reading. According to Collin (2005) as follows:

a. Reading is essential to success in school and in information-driven society.

b. A significant number of young children experience difficulties in learning to read. The proportion of students in America schools who are identified as learning disabled is increasing, and the most common characteristic of these children is difficulty in reading.

c. The debate over reading instruction continues to be hated and divisive. This debate does not appear, however, to engage teachers in collective inquiry into instructional practices.

d. Teachers would benefit from a deeper, while still practical, understanding of how children actually learn to read and develop as readers.

e. Knowledge of how teachers can use what they know about individual children, their family environments, and the larger community in which the children live to predict and prevent reading difficulties is available but not typically accessible to teachers.

f. At the point, reading is much needed for us, whereas we in school or in societies environment. Reading should give to children since in children. We have to guide them if reading is very useful in life. As teaching and learning English we should try the best way to get read come habit.

3. Activities in Reading

Clearly, reading involves perceiving the written form of language, either visually or kinesthetically (using Braille). Here we already encounter the first problem: do readers then relate the printed form of language to the spoken form? If so, then once that translation has taken place, reading is the same sort of activity as listening, and the only specific aspect of reading that

we need to concern ourselves with as testers is the process of transformation from print to speech. One argument, put forward by theorists like Smith (1971), is that readers proceed directly to meaning, and do not go via sound. They claim that readers can process print much faster than sounds, and so there would be an upper limit on the speed with which we read if we had to go from print to sound. Fluent reading is frequently done at speeds up to three times as fast as many people speak in everyday conversation.

When we are reading, we are clearly engaged in a great deal of mental activity, some of it automatic, some of it conscious. For example, we may consciously decide to skip a page or two in a rather boring text, we may decide just to focus on the headlines in a news-paper, or to read the end of the detective story first before reading the introduction. We may scan through a telephone directory ignoring all names except the one we are looking for; or we may read every letter and word of a memorandum we are writing to our boss, in which we want to be sure we have made no spelling mistakes, and have ex-pressed ourselves diplomatically but clearly.

These conscious techniques involve a deliberate choice of process or task, each of which may involve different constellations of skill and knowledge (being able to spell words in English, for example, or knowing the order of the alphabet). Such techniques may be semi-conscious, or at least recoverable to consciousness, as when we try to figure out the meaning of a word we have never met before by thinking about the context in which it comes, its form, the sort of word it is (noun, verb and so on) and the sort of

meaning it is likely to have. We may consciously decide to look the word up in a dictionary, or not to worry about its 'exact meaning', since we have sufficient idea of what it must mean to be able to continue reading without disruption (Alderson, 2000: 15-16).

4. Variables that Affect the Nature of Reading

There are several variables that affect the nature of reading, that are:

a. Reader variables

Research has looked at the way readers themselves affect the reading process and product, and has investigated a number of different variables. The state of the reader's knowledge, broadly speaking, constitutes one significant field of research, as does the reader's motivation to read, and the way this interacts with the reasons why a reader is reading a text at all. The techniques that readers use when processing text have received considerable recent scrutiny, to some extent superseding earlier attempts to establish what skills are required by good readers in order to process text efficiently. In addition, relatively stable characteristics of readers, like sex, age and personality, have been studied alongside physical characteristics, like eye movements, speed of word recognition, automaticity of processing and such like.

b. Schemata and background knowledge

Ever since the work of Bartlett in the 1930s, it has been clear that the nature of the knowledge that readers have will influence not only what they remember of text (the focus of Bartlett's own research), but the product - their understanding of the text - and the way they process it. The development of schema theory has attempted to account for the consistent finding that what readers know affects what they understand. Schemata are seen as interlocking mental structures representing readers' knowledge. When readers process text, they integrate the new information from the text into their preexisting schemata. More than that, their schemata influence how they recognize information as well as how they store it.

Slightly different theories have developed over the years to account for the influence of what is sometimes called background knowledge: some theorists refer to scripts for common events like eating in a restaurant or going to the laundry, and others write about frames, into which new knowledge is slotted. The differences between the theories are trivial compared with what they have in common: an insistence that the state of the reader's knowledge influences process, product and recall.

c. Knowledge of genre/text type

Knowing how texts are organized - what sort of information to expect in what place - as well as knowing how information is signaled,

and how changes of content might be marked - has long been thought to be of importance in facilitating reading. For example, knowing where to look for the main idea in a paragraph, and being able to identify how subsidiary ideas are marked, ought in principle to help a reader process information. However, there has been surprisingly little empirical research into readers' knowledge of the text features of particular genres, and its relationship to reading process or product. Most research has tended to concentrate on the textual features themselves, and how they contribute to text readability, rather than on the state of the readers' knowledge of such features.

d. Metalinguistic knowledge and metacognition

Block (1992) provides a useful review of metacognition and its relation to reading. Metalinguistic awareness plays a part in learning to read; bilinguals profit from sensitivity to metalinguistic information. With first-language readers, evidence suggests that comprehension monitoring operates rather automatically, and is not readily observable until some failure to comprehend occurs. Older and more proficient readers have more control over this monitoring process than younger and less proficient readers; good readers are more aware of how they control their reading and more able to verbalize this awareness. They also appear more sensitive to inconsistencies in text, although even good readers do not always notice or report all inconsistencies, perhaps because they are

intent on making text coherent. Good readers tend to use meaning-based cues to evaluate whether they have understood what they read whereas poor readers tend to use or over-rely on word-level cues, and to focus on intra sentential rather than inter sentential consistency.

e. Criticism of schema theory

The value of schema theory is that it attempts to explain how new information is integrated with old, but it does not explain how completely new information is handled. Although similarities may be perceived with related information (schema theory is after all a prototype theory), it does not explain how the similarities are noticed in the first place, nor how readers can misunderstand text on the basis of false similarities and comparisons/parallels.

Critics of schema theory point out that it does not lead to explicit definitions or predictions of comprehension processes, although it has stimulated a considerable amount of research into the products of understanding.

f. Reader skills and abilities

So far, the discussion has been of knowledge that readers have. However, readers not only have knowledge, they have abilities: abilities not only to learn new knowledge, but also abilities to process information. Researchers have long been concerned that readers may

have relevant knowledge but that they may not possess, or have learned, the ability or skill to process text. Here I use the terms ability and skill interchangeably.

It is possible that what distinguishes good readers from poor readers, or poor understanding from good understanding, is not so much the existence of relevant schemata or even the ability to activate them, but a more general cognitive ability, what some researchers have called Schematic Concept Formation. This may be verbal or non-verbal. Perkins (1987) showed a very close relationship for second-language readers between proficiency in finding the common set of features which constitute a single graphic pattern or multiple patterns in a set of stimuli, and the ability to understand text and especially the story structure of texts. He suggests that the operations of detecting the conventional structure of stories and performing a non-verbal schematic concept formation task might be similar.

g. Reader purpose of reading

Another possible cause of the variation between readers and readings which we need to consider is that different readers read texts with different purposes. If all you wish to do is get a general idea of text content, you will pay less attention to the detail of the text, and you may well read in very different ways than if you are studying a text in order to identify key information. And so you may well need different skills

suited to these different purposes. Thus it has become almost a platitude to say that the reason you are reading a text will influence the way you read it, the skills you require or use, and the ultimate understanding and recall you have of that text.

h. Beginner readers and fluent readers

The interest of research into the difference between beginning readers and fluent readers is in how beginning learners actually become fluent readers, what variables affect their progress and how educators in particular might intervene in order to improve the teaching of reading.

This is of obvious interest to testers, since, if we can characterize what differentiates successful from unsuccessful readers, we can focus on those differences if we wish to diagnose reading ability, or to predict reading proficiency. Similarly, a knowledge of what beginning readers have to do in order to become better readers would influence instruction, placement in suitable classes or schemes of instruction, and the assessment of achievement. Equally, what distinguishes those children who eventually become good readers from those who show less rapid, or no, development, has implications for both diagnosis and placement, and for the assessment of reading readiness.

Good readers are more effective in using metacognitive skills than less fluent readers, and older readers are better than younger readers. Among such metacognitive skills are:

1) recognizing is the more important information in text

2) adjusting reading rate

3) skimming

4) previewing

5) using context to resolve a misunderstanding

6) formulating questions about information

7) monitoring cognition, including recognising problems with information presented in text or an inability to understand text

8) Self-regulation techniques like planning ahead, testing one's own comprehension, and being aware of and revising the techniques being used are also said to be typical reading techniques of fluent readers.

5. The Purpose of Reading

Similar with the other skills, reading have purpose and techniques to develop reading skill. Rivers and Temperly (1978) suggest there are seven main purposes of reading:

a. To obtain information for some purpose or because we are curious about some topic.

b. To obtain instructions on how to perform some tasks for our work or daily life (e.g. knowing how an appliance works)

c. To act in play, play game, do a puzzle.

d. To keep in touch with friend by correspondence or to understand business letter.

e. To know where and where something will take place or available.

f. To know what is happening or has happened (as reported in newspaper, magazine, reports)

g. For enjoyment or excitement.

From the writer side, reading has purposes to get information and knowledge, everything what read, surely provide some information, whether it was novel, magazine, text book, story, and announcement.

6. The Techniques of Reading

For most second language learners who are already literate in a previous language, reading comprehension is primarily a matter of developing appropriate, efficient comprehension techniques. Some techniques are related to bottom-up procedures, and others enhance the top-down processes. Following are ten such techniques for reading comprehension that are stated by Brown (2000: 318):

a. Identify the purpose of reading.

Efficient reading consists of clearly identifying the purpose in reading something. By doing so, you know what you are looking for and we can weed out potential distracting information. Whenever you are in

teaching a reading technique, make sure students know their purpose in reading something.

b. Use graphemic rules and patterns to aid in bottom-up decoding (especially for beginning level learners).

c. At the beginning level of learning English, one of the difficulties students encounter in learning to read is making the correspondences between spoken and written English. In many cases, learners have become acquainted with oral language and have some difficulties learning English spelling conventions. They may need hints and explanations about certain English orthographic rules and peculiarities. When you can often assume that one-to-one grapheme-phoneme correspondences will be acquired with ease, other relationships might prove difficult. Consider how you might provide hints and pointers on such patterns as these:

- "short" vowel sound in VC patterns (bat, him, leg, wish, etc.)

- "long" vowel sound in VCe (final silent e) patterns (late, time, bite, etc.)

- "long" vowel sound in VV patterns (seat, coat, etc.)

- Distinguishing "hard" c and g from "soft" c and g (cat vs. city, game vs. gem, etc.)

These and a multitude of other phonics approaches to reading can prove useful for learners at the beginning level and especially useful for teaching children and non-literate adults.

d. Use efficient silent reading techniques for relatively rapid comprehension (for intermediate and to advance levels).

If you are teaching beginning level students, this particular technique will not apply because they are still struggling with the control of a limited vocabulary and grammatical patterns. Your intermediate – to – advanced level students need not be speed readers, but you can help them increase efficiency by teaching a few silent reading rules:

- You do not need to "pronounce" each word to yourself.

- Try to visually perceive more than one word at a time, preferably phrases.

- Unless a word is absolutely crucial to global understanding, skip over it and try to infer its meaning from its context.

Aside from these fundamental guidelines, which if followed can help learners to be efficient readers, reading speed is usually not much of an issue for all but the most advanced learners. Academic reading, for example, is something most learners manage to accomplish by allocating whatever time they personally need in order to complete the material. If your students can read 250 to 300 words per minute, further concern over speed may not be necessary.

e. Skim the text for main ideas.

Perhaps the two most valuable reading techniques for learners (as well as native speakers) are skimming and scanning. Skimming consist of quickly running one's eyes cross a whole text (such an essay, article, or chapter) for its gist. Skimming gives readers the advantage of being able to predict the purpose of the passage, the main topic, or message, and possibly some of the developing or supporting ideas. This gives them a head start as they embark on more focused reading. You can train students to skim passages by giving them, say, thirty second to look through a few pages of material, close their books, and then tell you what they learned.

f. Scan the text for specific information.

The second in the most valuable category is scanning, or quickly searching for some particular piece or pieces of information in a text. Scanning exercises may ask students to look for names or dates, to find a definition of a key concept, or to list a certain number of supporting details. The purpose of scanning is to extract specific information without reading through the whole text. For academic English, scanning is absolutely essential. In vocational or general English, scanning is important in dealing with genres like schedules, manuals, forms, etc.

g. Use semantic mapping or clustering.

Readers can easily be overwhelmed by a long string of ideas or events. The technique of semantic mapping, or grouping ideas into meaningful cluster, helps the reader to provide some order to the chaos. Making such semantic maps can be done individually, but they make for a productive group work techniques as students collectively induce order and hierarchy to a passage. Early drafts of these maps can be quite messy – which is perfectly acceptable.

h. Guess when you are not certain.

This is an extremely broad category. Learners can use guessing to their advantage to:

- Guess the meaning of a word

- Guess a grammatical relationship (e.g., a pronoun reference)

- Guess a discourse relationship

- Infer implied meaning ("between the lines")

- Guess about a cultural reference

- Guess content messages.

You can help learners to become accurate guessers by encouraging them to use effective compensation techniques in which they fill gaps in their competence by intelligent attempts to use whatever clues are available to them. Language based clues include word analysis, word

associations, and textual structure. Nonlinguistic clues come from context, situation, and other schemata.

i.   Analyze vocabulary.

One way for learners to make guessing pay off when they do not immediately recognize a word is to analyze it in terms of what they know about it. Several techniques are useful here:

1) Look for prefixes (*co-, inter-, un-, etc.*)

2) Look for suffixes (*-ion, -tive, -ally, etc.*) that may indicate what part of speech it is.

3) Look for roots that that are familiar (e.g., *intervening* may be a word a student doesn't know, but recognizing that the root *ven* comes from Latin "to come" would yield the meaning "to come between").

4) Look for grammatical context that may signal information.

5) Look at the semantic context (topic) for clues.

j.   Distinguish between literal and implied meanings.

This requires the application of sophisticated top-down processing skills. The fact that not all languages can be interpreted appropriately by attending to its literal, syntactic surface structures make special demands on readers. Implied meaning usually has to be derived from processing pragmatic information.

k.   Capitalize on discourse markers to process relationships.

Many discourse markers in English signal relationships among ideas as expressed through phrases, clauses, and sentences. A clear comprehension of such markers can greatly enhance learners' reading efficiency.

7. Testing Reading

Similar to listening skill, reading skill is a receptive skill. The task of language tester is, then, to set the reading tasks which will result in behavior that will demonstrate their successful completion.

The reading macro – skill (directly related to course objectives) are scanning the text to locate specific information, skimming text to obtain general idea, identifying stages of argument, and identifying examples presented in support of an argument. The micro – skill underlying reading skills are identifying the referents of pronouns, using context to guess meaning of unfamiliar words, and understanding relations between parts of text.

The techniques that might be used to test reading skills are multiple choice, true/false, completion, short answer, summary cloze, information transfer, identifying order of events, identifying referents, guessing the meaning of unfamiliar words from context. (Isnawati, 2015: 40)

B. **Guessing Technique**

1. **Definition of Guessing Technique**

> The ability to determine the meaning of unfamiliar words from their context is an essential skill for reading comprehension. Sometimes, there will be unfamiliar words whose meaning you cannot determine without a dictionary. But more often than not, a careful look at the context will give you enough clues to meaning. (Elizabeth, 2009: 38)

> Over-reliance on a dictionary not only shows down your reading but may interfere with your comprehension as well. A better strategy is to use the **context,** the words and sentences surrounding a particular word, to help you **guess** that word's meaning. Usually the guesses you make will be accurate enough for you to understand the author's ideas. When they are not, or when the terms require an exact technical definition, you can use your English dictionary as a back-up resources. (Brown, 2000:323)

Guessing technique was commonly used to infer the meaning of unfamiliar words in situations when language learners have a lack of knowledge in vocabulary, grammar, or other linguistic elements to read a given text. According to Oxford (1990), guessing technique can be made based on a wide range of clues; namely, linguistic and nonlinguistic clues. Language learners establish the meaning of a new word based on interpretation of its immediate text, which is one or two words before or following the unknown word. Learners also use other linguistic clues, such as semantic or syntactic knowledge to unlock the meaning of new words. With regard to nonlinguistic clues, language learners apply the knowledge of context, text structure, and general world knowledge.

2. Definition of Context

The context of a piece of language (..) is its surrounding environment. But this can include as little as the articulatory movements immediately before and after it, or as much as the whole universe, with its past and future (Werth, 1999: 78-79). The context here refers to the sentence or paragraph where the unfamiliar word appears, which provides the reader with information to make sense of the term. A context is a sentence, paragraph, or longer unit of writing that surrounds a word and may state or imply its meaning (Shepherd: 1984). The context is the part of the reading that immediately surrounds the word and makes it meaningful. (Johnson, 1994: 67). Context may include the whole sentence, paragraph, situation, chapter, or even the entire book in which the strange word appears (Barnett, 1988).

In order to reasonably delimit the scope of context, it is widely agreed that context can be divided into linguistic and situational context. Linguistic context would encompass the phonetic, morphological, syntactic or textual material surrounding to the word, whereas situational context entails anything to do with the immediate situation and the socio-cultural background in which the language event takes place. Note that it is not only the objective situational context that should be taken into account, since the individual experiences, beliefs, intentions and perceptions of the participants can also affect the way in which meaning is constructed for a particular communication event.

Words do not occur in isolation but within the context of sentence or a large discourse. Words derive meaning from their context, the sentences and paragraphs in which they are found. Identifying how words function in their sentences and what those sentences are about getting the general sense of the passage helps readers to understand new words. The readers can try to guess the meaning from other words around them, or their context. Sometimes the words surrounding a word will explain that word, or the meaning of the word may become clear in another sentence. In any case the context of a word is important in term of understanding its meaning and its function or usage as well (Romanoff in Marlindha 2003).

3. Context Clues

Context clues is used as a hint for learners to predict the unfamiliar word meaning by studying surrounding words, phrases, or clauses, and their relationships to the unfamiliar words (Lin, 1991). The first line of attack on a new word is to try to figure out the meaning from the context in which it appears. The context of a word refers to the way the word is used in the sentence or paragraph. There are several different types of context clues:

a. Definition

The unknown word is equated to a more familiar word or phrase; usually a form of **to be** is used.

e.g.: ***Archaeology*** <u>is</u> the scientific study of prehistoric cultures by excavation of their remains.

b. Restatement or synonym

The meaning is usually right after the unfamiliar word and often separated from the rest of the sentence with commas, dashes, or parentheses; sometimes, or that is, or in other words is used.

e.g.: The goslings--those fuzzy baby geese--waddled after their mother.

c. Contrast or antonym

The unfamiliar word is shown to be different from or unlike another word, and is often an opposite; but, however, although, otherwise, unless, instead, on the contrary, on the other hand, while, never, no, or not may be used to signal contrast.

e.g.: Mike's parrot was loquacious, but Maria's said very little.

d. Comparison

The unfamiliar word is shown to be the same as or like another word; too, like, as, similar to, or in the same way may be used to signal the comparison.

e.g.: My brother is enthralled by birds similar to the way that I am fascinated by insects.

e. Example

The unfamiliar word is cleared up by giving an example; for instance, such as, and for example may be used as signals.

e.g.: The archeologist found different amulets, such as a rabbit's foot and bags of herbs, near the ancient altar.

f. List or series

The unfamiliar word is included in a series of related words that give an idea of the word's meaning.

e.g.: North American predators include grizzly bears, pumas, wolves, and foxes.

g. Cause and effect

The meaning of an unfamiliar word is signaled by a cause-and-effect relationship between ideas in the text.

e.g.: Due to a dearth of termites, the aardvark starved to death.

h. Description or inference

The meaning of an unfamiliar word can be inferred from the description of situation or experience.

e.g.: The monkey's vociferous chatter made me wish I had earplugs.

4. Steps in guessing technique

Nation and Coady (1988: 104) suggest a-five-step technique for guessing from context:

1) Finding the part of speech of the unknown word.

2) Looking at the immediate context of the unknown word and simplifying this context if necessary.

3) Looking at the wider context of the unknown word. This means looking at the relationship between the clause containing the unknown word and surrounding clauses and sentences.

4) Guessing the meaning of the unknown word.

5) Checking that the guess is correct.

6) The things which will help you work out the meaning of an unknown word are:

7) the meaning of the text which surrounds it.

8) the way the word is formed.

9) your own background knowledge of the subject.

C. Previous Studies

This technique was successfully implemented by Bakhtiarvand (2007) under the title "The Effect of Contextual Guessing Technique on Vocabulary Recognition in Reading Comprehension texts of Iranian EFL Junior High school students." In this research, the treatment which was the application of "Contextual Guessing" technique with the purpose of improving reading comprehension ability of Junior High School students through expanding their vocabulary scope, proved very effective. It was indicated , at least through this study ,that the ability of the participants in understanding the meaning of unfamiliar words in a context and there by their reading comprehension ability improved a lot from the pre-test to the post-test .

The following pedagogical implications were drawn:

1) The participants came to the conclusion that they were not required to know meaning of all the words provided in a text to grasp the whole text. They can use some techniques and tactics, one most effective of which is "Contextual Guessing".

2) During the class time students were deeply engrossed in guessing unknown words using their knowledge, and even their grammatical knowledge. This deep involvement in activities culminated in the removal of the boredom and monotony the students experienced in traditional classes in which they had to sit passively to be attacked by mass of new information. They responded to the contents presented in the classroom in a way that has proved to be beneficial and understood.

Another research study was conducted by Hardanti (2015). Her study was aimed to investigate whether there was a significant difference of students' reading comprehension achievement before and after being taught by using guessing meaning from context technique and to find out in terms of techniques for guessing meaning from context which techniques produced better achievement by the students. She carried out quantitative study with one group Pre-test Post-test Design, involving one class as experimental class. The instrument of her research was reading test. The result of data analysis showed there was a significant difference on students' reading achievement after being taught by using guessing meaning from context technique. It could be concluded that

guessing meaning from context technique increase the students' reading comprehension in all aspects.

Besides, a research study conducted by Merawati (2003) showed that the teaching of guessing meaning of words from context could improve reading skills and techniques. Applying a classroom action research design, she had the students study vocabulary by following three cycles. First, the students were given short texts and asked to practice guessing word meaning from context. Second, they were introduced to patterns of expository texts with more difficult words and asked to follow the guessing process more naturally. Finally, the students were given longer texts containing unknown or nonsense words that can stimulate them to find out more clues to the word meaning from more extensive textual context. Merawati's study showed that practice on guessing meaning from context helped students understand word meaning from sentences and paragraphs within the text and understand the meaning of a large amount of conceptual words.

The difference among three previous studies above with the study can be seen from the design used. One of them used classroom action research design, while the researcher uses pre experimental research design of the first grade science students at MA Darul Huda Wonodadi Blitar.