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ABSTRACT
        Sight word lists have been used since prior to 20
B.C. and have changed forms many times. Today sight word lists are
numerous and are widely and variously used. They differ in source,
intended purpose and/or audience, and criteria for including specific
words. Despite the differences, there is much agreement that they do
reflect the most basic words in our language and that there is a high
degree of commonality among them. This report identifies the 100
sight words which appear in 16 major sight word lists, including "A
Basic Word List from Basal Readers," "Gates Primary Reading
Vocabulary," and "Thorndike-Lorge Reading Vocabulary." (Author/TS)

Theoretical Paper No. 60

ONE HUNDRED ESSENTIAL SIGHT WORDS

by

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Report from the Project on
Conditions of School Learning and
Instructional Strategies

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The University of Wisconsin
Madison, Wisconsin

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INTRODUCTION

Many sight word lists have been developed in the past few years. They vary widely in origin, in the specific purposes for which they are intended, and in the criteria employed to select the words. Although these differences exist, many words on these lists are the same. This report identifies the words common to sixteen major sight word lists. Sight word lists are reviewed historically and the procedures used to identify basic sight words are described. The major outcome of this work is the identification of a core of one hundred words, identified by many different studies, as those possessing highest utility in the written and/or oral language of children and adults.

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A BRIEF HISTORY OF SIGHT WORD LISTS

Although the exact date that the first sight word list was devised may never be known, it may have been created in the following way. A teacher recognized a specific difference between the good and poor readers in his or her class: The better readers were able to recognize instantly the words which occurred frequently while the poorer readers lacked this ability. To eliminate this difference, the teacher selected those words that occurred regularly, listed them, and then drilled the poorer readers until they were able to recognize each word every time it appeared.

A speech by Dionysius of Halicarnassus, 20 B. C., is an indication that this practice began long ago:

> When we are taught to read, first we learn off the names of the
> letters, then their forms, and their values, then in due course,
> syllables and their modifications, and finally words and their
> properties, viz., lengthenings and shortenings, accents, and the
> like. After acquiring the knowledge of these things, we begin
> to drill on words . . . syllable by syllable and slowly at first.
> And when the lapse of a considerable time has implanted the forms
> of words firmly in our minds, then we deal with them without the
> least difficulty, and whenever any book is placed in our hands we
> go through it without stumbling and with incredible facility and
> speed [Roberts, 1910, p. 269].

Evidently deviations from this system occurred very, very slowly; other accounts of reading practices in the Greek civilization are almost identical to that of Dionysius. In fact, descriptions of this process are found throughout Roman and early European history (see Mathews, 1966, pp. 3-38). Variability in the methodology of teaching reading did not appear until the early 1500's, when the importance of learning to read became more apparent. The invention of the printing press, personal desire to read the Bible, and the emergence of the democratic principle that all people have a right to read increased the number of materials and methods used to teach reading. However, differences in methods did not eliminate the significance of sight words; they were simply used in different ways. For example, John Hart (A Methode or Comfortable Beginning for All Unlearned, Whereby They May Bee Taught To Read English; In A Very Short Time, With Pleasure, 1570), John Brinsley (Ludus Literarius, 1612), and Charles Hoole ("How A Child May Be Taught With Delight To Know All Letters In A Very Little Time", A New Discovery, 1912) evolved sight word lists to be used with their "regularized" reading programs. They created symbols used to regularize orthography. These symbols were graphemic representations of sounds (phonemes) in our language that are not expressed by a unique alphabetic symbol. For example, the a's in can, afar, and aid are really three distinct phonemes, so the regularized reading programs had three symbols to express the traditional a grapheme, e.g., to express the a phoneme as heard in aid the Ɂ symbol was used. Aid would be printed Ɂid, so children would learn that a long a sound in any word was represented by the grapheme Ɂ

instead of a. To learn these new symbols, children were exposed almost
exclusively to sight word drill. Each child would write a word from the
word list on the board. If he could spell and pronounce this word correct-
ly, he was allowed to write the next word until all words were written,
spelled and pronounced correctly. Eventually, to save time, teachers began
to select only the most common and most difficult words for drilling, and
"regularized" sight word lists began.

By the early 1800's, sight word lists were used in traditional and
"regularized" reading programs, as well as with the synthetic (beginning
instruction with letters), analytic (beginning instruction with words) and
whole-sentence methods of teaching reading. Each of these methodologies,
too, used sight word lists in a different manner. For example, the synthe-
tic approach used sight word lists as a prerequisite for beginning to read.
A child was to practice the words in his spelling book until he could read
them perfectly. Then, as the following example illustrates, the child was
allowed to read from his reader.

> No person should attempt to read until he is able to call or
> pronounce at sight the words most commonly met within the com-
> position; and, this can be more easily acquired by reading words
> in a judicious and analogical classification in a Spelling Book,
> than in detached reading lessons, without naming the letters,
> until he shall be quite familiar with them, a practice which
> will tend greatly to facilitate his reading by enabling him to
> associate the pronunciation of words with the characters which
> compose them, to render his enunciation clear and distinct, and
> free him from the embarrassments which too frequently terminate
> in a confirmed habit of stammering. This practice the Author
> pursued for years while engaged in the business of teaching with
> results entirely satisfactory [Cobb, 1831, pp. iii-iv].

In the analytical method, sight word lists were shortened (even to
only one word per page) and printed at the top of the page in the reader.
As an anonymous teacher wrote in a "Letter to the Editor" in the educational
magazine of the day:

> If a child sees the word first he will understand that every
> reading/image has a distinct image of a thing, or an act. This
> will then be more readily perceived and more easily remembered
> than would be the name of single letters with which he has no
> natural associations [Anonymous, 1842, p. 97].

Thus, a typical analytical sight word lesson would have looked like Figure 1.
The general method of presenting this lesson would have been:

> After learning a few groups of words often repeated on a page,
> let these be combined in short sentences. These short sentences
> children will learn with great ease and they will remember the
> particles that necessarily connect the names of things and actions.
> They will, on their own accord, turn back to the pages where they
> first became familiar with the words; and when this process of
> comparison has gone on a little while, if no pain is associated
> with it, the improvement will be rapid. . . . Children of six, who
> begin to read thus by learning words . . . will be able in three
> months to read simple stories very easily. . . . After the process

live live live live live

Can a [bird] live

with a [fish] ?

Can an [owl] live

with a [bear] ?
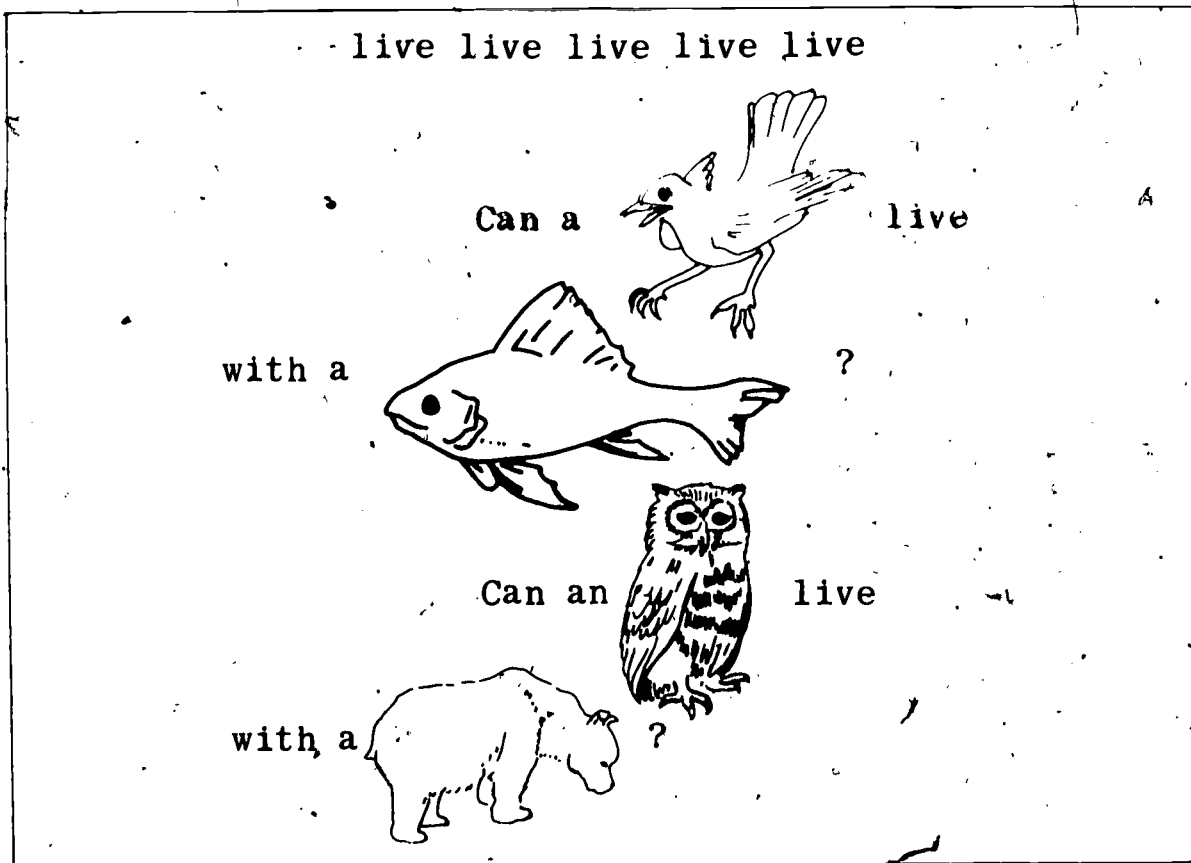
Figure 1.   A typical analytical sight word lesson.

Taken from Pollard, First Reader, 1889, p. 23.

of spelling has become familiar, classes or words of similiar
pronunciation and appearance should be given: boy, toy, joy.
The child is ready to learn phonics after having mastered about
fifty words [Emphasis added. Anonymous, 1842, pp. 29-32].

Some readers employing the analytical approach gave detailed directions
on how to present each sight word. These directions frequently appeared on
the page with the word or words, as illustrated in Figure 2.

The McGuffey Readers (1800-1900) and Butler First Readers (1883). com-
bined both the synthetic and analytical sight word lists. Teachers using
the McGuffey Readers began each lesson as follows:

Word Method--Teach the pupil to identify at sight the words placed
at the head of the reading exercises, and to read these exercises
without hesitation is the goal. Having read a few lessons, begin
to teach the names of the letters and the spelling of words.

Word Method and Phonic Method Combined--Teach the pupil to iden-
tify words and read sentences, as above. Having read a few les-
sons in this manner, begin to use the Phonic Method, combining it
with the Word Method, by first teaching the names of the letters,
and spelling [McGuffey's First Eclectic Reader, 1898, p. ii.].

/m a n

The Teacher should interest the child in this
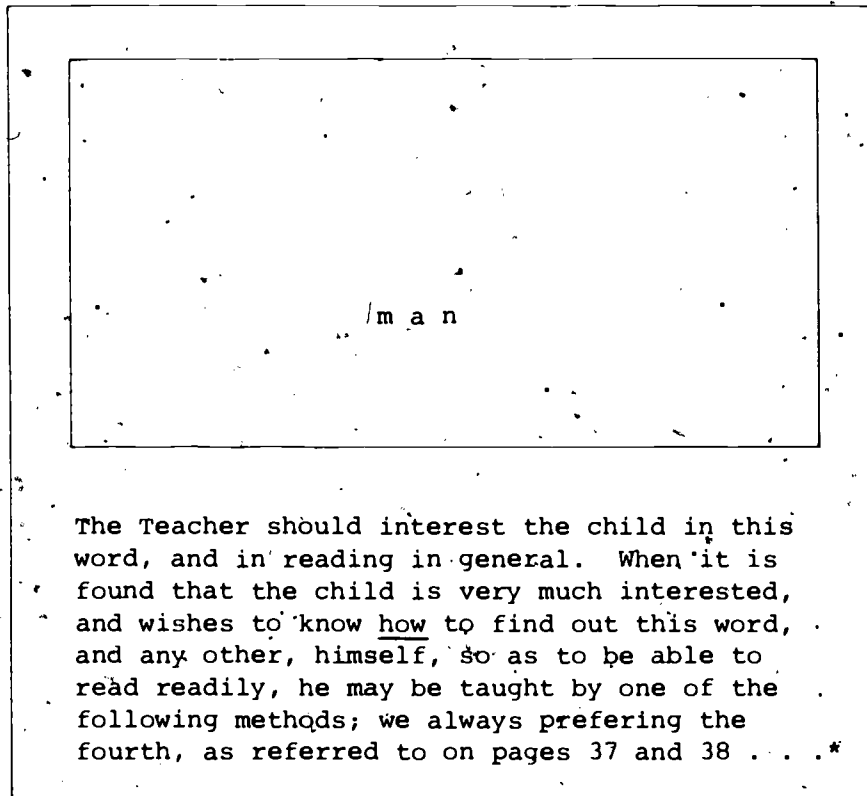word, and in reading in general. When it is
found that the child is very much interested,
and wishes to know how to find out this word,
and any other, himself, so as to be able to
read readily, he may be taught by one of the
following methods; we always prefering the
fourth, as referred to on pages 37 and 38 . . . .*

Figure 2. Directions for presentation of a sight word
from the analytical approach.
From Webb, 1850, p. 36.

*The fourth method was sight word drill in a proce-
dure similar to the one followed in "regulatized"
reading programs.

Teachers using the Butler First Readers were to:

Begin the lesson by showing the children the picture. Let them
tell all they see in it. Have a familiar talk about it. Call
upon one to name an object in the picture. Show them on the
board the word by which the object is known. Be careful to print
the word as nearly like the one in the book as possible. Let the
children find the word upon the page wherever it occurs, and pro-
nounce it [Emphasis added].

Teach "a" and "the" in connection with the word following each.
. . . After the lesson has been mastered by the Word Method, let
the child pronounce the word to be analyzed just as it was pro-
nounced in the lesson. The teacher should then pronounce the
elements of the word slowly, and ask the child or the class to
say what word they form.

The words at the end of each reading lesson are designed for a
phonic review, and not for a spelling lesson.

The first lessons in the book are not confined to very short
words, for the reason that a child can as readily recognize a
word of five or six letters as he can a shorter one [Butler,
1883, p. 5].

Another variation of sight word usage can be seen in Farnham's The Sentence Method of Teaching Reading, Writing, and Spelling, A Manual for Teachers (1881). His basal text was widely used in New York, Iowa, and Nebraska and embodied three directives:

1. Use silent as well as oral reading.
2. Drill upon words until they are easily distinguishable as "is one person from another [p. 26]."
3. "The phonic analysis of words should have no place in the primary schools [p. 27]."

Farnham went on to explain principle number three:

Until the habits of thought, reading and correct spelling are well established, such analysis is a positive evil. It makes the child conscious of the oral element of words, and as these do not correspond with the written element directly, a double evil ensues: The mind has become directly conscious of language which it should use unconsciously or nearly so; and it introduces a new set of elements antagonistic to the one used in the graphic expression. The habitual action of the muscles from one stimulus, upon which good spelling depends, is directly interfered with by another stimulus which urges to different results. The antagonism is radical and irreconcilable, and bad spelling must result. The reason for the early introduction of the phonic element: the securing of correct pronunciation, may be accomplished in another way [Farnham, 1881, pp. 57-58, 36].

The whole-sentence method of reading instruction also emphasizes the enduring quality of sight word lists. Even when the reading program eliminated phonetic analysis from the teaching format, sight word usage remained.

SIGHT WORD LISTS TODAY.

Currently there are well over 1,000 sight word lists varying in length from about 100 to more than 30,000 words. More than 3,000 studies invol-, ving various types of word lists have been published in the past 100 years (Dale, Razik, & Petty, 1973). Many sight word lists are created from frequency counts based on oral and/or written samples of the communications of children and/or adults, rather than from the traditional basal readers. These frequency counts are usually published in word list form, such as The Teacher's Word Book of 30,000 Words (Thorndike & Lorge, 1944); The Dale List of 3,000 Familiar Words (Dale & Chall, 1948); A Computational Analysis of Present Day American English (Kucera & Francis, 1967); and The American Heritage Word Frequency Book (Carroll, Davies, & Richman, 1972). Since the sources of the sight words differ, the lists themselves differ, but there is much overlap among them. For example, one primary source of frequency counts is the speech of preschool children. Sight word lists taken from this source are based on the assumption that a child's spoken words, with high utility and meaning to him, would be easiest for him to deal with conceptually when they are encountered in written form. Also, these lists seem to indicate that basic spoken vocabularies do not change much over time. A Compilation of Preschool Children's Word Frequency Counts (Newman & Bailey, 1973) rank-ordered the 1,000 most frequently occurring words in eight basic spoken vocabulary lists and demonstrated that of the 188 most frequently occurring words, 169 appeared on all eight lists regardless of the list's date of collection. These lists ranged in date of collection from 1928 to 1971.

Overlap can also be seen in lists taken from frequency counts of material written for and by children, e.g., basal readers and content field texts, library books, informal letters, and children's written compositions. A comparison of the 200 most frequently occurring words in the Johnson Sight Word List (Johnson, 1962) and the Stone Sight Word List (Stone & Bartschi, 1963) illustrates this point. All but 5 of Johnson's 200 words appeared among Stone's 200 even though the authors used different basal reader series in making their initial frequency counts. Additionally, as shown in the comparison of Newman and Bailey's Spoken Vocabularies of Children (1973) and Otto and Chester's Great Atlantic and Pacific Sight Word List (1972), 95 of the first 100 frequently occurring words in oral and written frequency counts are the same. Otto, Chester, and Mehling (1974) demonstrated that the "difference between the frequency of occurrence of words selected from written material [and the frequency of these same words in oral production] ranges only from 6 percent to 9 percent [depending on the 100 word sample chosen] [p. 365]."

Likewise, sight word lists derived from frequency counts of samples of material written for adults do not appear to include substantially different basic words. Adult lists, taken from letters to the editors, magazines, newspapers, best selling paperback books, and novels, are very similar to sight word lists derived from basal reader series, samples of children's speech, and materials written for and by children. Moreover, basic third grade words, as reflected in the Great Atlantic and Pacific Sight Word List, continue to have high utility at later stages of reading development and to be among the words in lists derived from written adult sources (Otto, Chester, & Mehling, 1974).

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Differences among lists are attributable to their varying origins, the specific purposes for which they are intended, and the criteria employed to select the words in the first place. Some lists include only the base form of frequently occurring words while other lists include all words regardless of their form. Thus, lists of the first type would not include a frequently occurring word form such as asked but only the base word ask. Of the 44 words on the Durr 188 Frequency Count (1973) which did not appear on the Great Atlantic and Pacific List (1972), 9 differ only in form, e.g., thing appears on the Durr list and things on the Great Atlantic and Pacific Sight Word List; look on the former and looked on the latter. Similarly, a comparison between the Harris-Jacobson Core List (1973-74) and the Great Atlantic and Pacific Sight Word List (1972) demonstrated that of the 82 words not common to both lists, 35 differ only in their inflectional endings, e.g., boy versus boys, call versus called. Other lists include numerals, proper nouns, abbreviations, alphabet letters, onomatopoeic words, compound words, and/or affixes. Considering these practices, some of the reported differences between lists may be more apparent than real.

PROCEDURES FOR IDENTIFYING ONE HUNDRED ESSENTIAL SIGHT WORDS

Sixteen sight word lists were selected and compared. The lists selected range in date of collection from 1928 to 1973; were derived from frequency counts of oral usage, general samples of written words, or words used in basal readers; and represent selections from a range of sources from preschool to adult materials. The lists were judged to be in common use today by a panel of seven educators representing a range of specialties[1] related to reading education. All but one of the lists have been published and are readily available. The lists are:

1. A Basic Word List from Basal Readers. This list includes 100 pre-primer, 225 primer, 455 first-reader, 1,101 second-reader, and 1,916 third-reader words common to five 1950 basal series (Stone & Bartschi, 1963).

2. Dale's List of 3,000 Familiar Words. Although this list represents only 2,946 words, it is commonly labeled Dale's List of 3,000 Familiar Words. Words included on the list were known by 80 percent of the children in a sample of fourth graders (Dale & Chall, 1948).

3. Dolch 220 Basic Sight Vocabulary. This list is a combination of the 193 words common to the International Kindergarten Union Vocabulary List (Horn, 1928), Gates Primary Word List (Gates, 1935), The Wheeler-Howell First Grade Vocabulary List (1920, as cited in Dunn & Laffey, 1969) and Dolch's 27 self-selected words. Two of the lists used to generate the Dolch list are included in this study as independent lists (Dolch, 1955).

4. Durr's 188 Frequency List. This list was derived from a computer analysis of 80 library books frequently chosen by elementary children. The words were selected from a 105,280 word sample (Durr, 1973).

5. Ernest Horn's Vocabulary of Adult Writings. This list is composed of the 1,187 most frequently recurring words in the "Letters to the Editor" sections of adult magazines and newspapers (Horn, E., 1926).

6. Fry's 300 Instant Sight Words. This list is composed of 100 frequently used first grade words, 100 frequently used second grade words, and 100 frequently used third grade words (Fry, 1960).

7. Gates Primary Reading Vocabulary. This list divides 1,811 words into three 500-word groups. These groups are presented in order of highest frequency. Children's vocabularies and samples from basal readers were used in the initial frequency count (Gates, 1935).

8. Great Atlantic and Pacific Sight Word List. This list includes the 500 most frequently occurring words in selections from 215 reading materials of third grade readability. An 840,875 word corpus was the basis for the list (Otto & Chester, 1972).

9. Harris-Jacobson 333 Core Vocabulary for First Grade. This list is from a computerized analysis of 4,500,000 words from 14 elementary content field textbooks. If a word appeared in at least three series, it was included on the core vocabulary list (Harris & Jacobson, 1973-74).

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[1]The only exception is the unpublished Newman and Bailey Speaking Vocabulary of Preschool Children. It is included because the authors will make it available on request and project publication in the future. It was presented at the American Education Research Association Conference, 1973.

10. Horn Kindergarten List of the Most Frequently Spoken Words of Preschool Children. This list was taken from a frequency ranking of most commonly spoken words of children, three to six years of age (Horn, 1926, as reproduced in Fitzgerald, 1963).

11. Johnson's Basic Vocabulary List. The 244 words on this list are from Kucera and Francis, A Computational Analysis of Present-Day American English, and from words spoken frequently by a random sample of young children (Johnson, D., 1971).

12. Johnson's Core Vocabulary for Elementary Grades. The 200 words selected for this list were those appearing in five or more of the basal reader series surveyed (Johnson, G. R., 1962).

13. McKee-Fitzgerald List of Child-Letter Writings. This list ranks the 2,836 words most frequently used by children in their own informal writings (Fitzgerald, 1963).

14. Newman and Bailey Speaking Vocabulary of Preschool Children. The compilation of eight preschool oral word-frequency counts is represented in this list with the dates of collection ranging from 1928-1971 (Newman & Bailey, 1973).

15. Rinsland's Basic Vocabulary of Elementary School Children. A list of 14,571 words used by children in formal school writing, first through eighth grade, is represented in this list (Rinsland, 1945).

16. Thorndike-Lorge Reading Vocabulary. This is a list of 10,000 words representing a frequency count of reading materials of children and adults (Thorndike & Lorge, 1944).

The 16 lists vary in length, so the shortest list, the Durr 188 Frequency Count, was established as the criterion for comparison and only the 188 most frequent words from 11 lists arranged by frequency were considered. All of the words in the 4 lists not arranged by frequency were considered. The words in Table 1 appeared on all 16 lists.

Some salient observations from the process of identifying these basic words follow: (1) Words that occur frequently in the speech of children also tend to be frequent in the speech of adults. (2) Most of the words used frequently in modern basal readers were used in earlier basal readers. (3) The core words from adult writing are also the core words in children's writing.

TABLE 1

ONE HUNDRED ESSENTIAL SIGHT WORDS

a	down	it	out	three
about	for	just	over	to
after	from	know	put	too
again	get	like	right	two
all	go	little	said	up
an	good	look	saw	us
and	got	made	say	want
any	had	make	see	was
are	has	me	she	we
at	have	my	so	went
away	he	new	some	were
be	her	no	take	what
big	here	not	that	when
but	him	now	the	where
by	his	of	them	who
came	how	off	then	will
come	I	old	there	with
could	if	on	they	would
did	in	one	think	you
do	is	our	this	your

WHAT TO DO WITH ONE HUNDRED ESSENTIAL SIGHT WORDS

As Albert Harris and Milton Jacobson point out:

No word list can be the best list for all of the various purposes
for which word lists have been used. Comprehensive lists are
needed for some purposes, brief lists for other purposes. Some
lists are more appropriate for primary-grade applications, others
for the intermediate grades, secondary years, or adult levels.
For some purposes, a frequency sequence is most desirable; for
other purposes, arrangement of words in levels is most desirable
[Harris & Jacobson, 1973-74, p. 106].

Nevertheless, the 100 essential sight words identified here might be
adapted for use in a variety of ways. The words could be used for word
attack instruction in the early grades. For example, 18 base words from
the list could be combined with affixes (see Table 2).

TABLE 2

18 WORDS THAT CAN BE COMBINED WITH AFFIXES

		big (ger)	(gest)			old (er)	(est)	(en)	
		give (s)	(ing)			over (ly)			
(on)	(a)	go (ing)	(es)			right (ly)			
		got (ten)			(fore)	see (n)	(ing)	(s)	
	(un)	know (s)	(n) (ing) (ledge)		(re)	take (ing)	(s)	(en)	
(un)	(a)	like (s)	(ing) (able)		(fore)	tell (ing)	(s)	(er)	
		little (er)	(est)			think (er)	(ing)	(s)	
	(re)	make (ing)				want (ed)	(s)		
		new (ly)				will (ing)			

All vowel sounds, except the long u spelled u (as in blue), appear on the
list. If words with soft c and ng were added to the list (examples: city,
thing), all major initial and final consonant sounds would be represented.
Because these sounds are represented, the 100 essential sight words would
be a viable basis for beginning phonics instruction.

At the upper elementary and secondary level, the list can serve to
assess students' ability to recognize essential English words. Any dif-
ficulty with the essential words would suggest a need for basic instruction
in reading. The list would, also, of course, serve as a basis for remedial
instruction.

To summarize, sight words have been used for over two centuries as
tools for teaching reading. In the nineteenth century, sight word lists
were used as prerequisites to beginning reading instruction in the syn-
thetic, analytical, whole-sentence, and regularized reading programs.

Today, sight words are used as instructional aids in reading programs
designed for audiences ranging from preschool children to adults. Sight
word lists are created from frequency counts taken from basal readers as
well as oral and/or written samples of the communciations of children and/
or adults. Although there are over 1,000 sight word lists in current use,
there appears to be a high degree of commonality among them and agreement
that these lists do reflect the most basic words in our language. This
report identifies the 100 sight words that appear on 16 major sight word
lists. The 100 words are of high utility in the written and/or oral lan-
guage of children and adults. As such, these words could be a viable basis
for initial primary grade word attack and phonics instruction. Additionally,
the words can be used to assess upper elementary and secondary students'
ability to recognize essential English words. These words can also be used
as aids in remedial reading instruction at every educational level.

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