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ABSTRACT

Intended to help teachers improve students' word recognition skills, this guide covers word recognition, phonics, and dictionary use instruction. Following a preface, the first chapter discusses the place of word recognition in the school and introduces various word recognition skills clusters. Each of the next three chapters is divided into two parts--skills and instructional activities--to cover the following topics: (1) word recognition skills, (2) phonics and related skills, and (3) dictionary use skills. The fifth chapter examines initial teaching levels for word recognition skills, and chapter 6 contains a word recognition inventory. The final chapter provides summary comments on word recognition instruction. (HTH)

Word Recognition Skills Instruction

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Preface

Teaching Word Recognition Skills in Georgia Schools was published by the Georgia Department of Education 21 years ago. From 1960 to 1970 an estimated 50,000 copies of the guide were distributed, mainly to Georgia teachers and student teachers. The original publication underwent a major revision in 1970 and was reissued by the Georgia Department of Education under the title of *Teaching Word Recognition Skills*. More than 100,000 copies of the two versions have been distributed.

Word Recognition Skill Instruction, with roots strongly embedded in the earlier publications, actually is completely rewritten. The organization has been modified considerably, information has been updated and an individual word recognition inventory has replaced the discussion of the traditional informal reading inventory which was included in the two previous editions. Suggested instructional activities either are new or have been completely reworked.

Many people have assisted in firming up the manuscript for this guide. Several of the writer's colleagues in the Reading Department of the University of Georgia and students in their classes tried out a mimeographed version of the guide during the 1981 spring quarter. Members of the reading education doctoral seminar also assisted by reviewing sections of the manuscript. Modifications grew from suggestions made by these groups. Special appreciation is extended to Gaye Durand and Barbara Smith, Yvonne Ivie and Teresa Hood, who assisted her in typing various versions of the manuscript. Special thanks also to Sutton Flynt, Bob Rickelman and Charlie Martin who read the manuscript.

This guide is dedicated to the many teachers who have taught — and will continue to teach — these important word recognition skills to Georgia students. These teachers are ever mindful that there is more to reading than word recognition alone, but they also are keenly aware that skill in recognizing words is necessary for comprehension and appreciation to occur.

Ira E. Aaron

Chapter 1

Word Recognition — An Essential to Reading

Most fluent readers are unaware of how complex the reading process is, with its multiplicity of skills and understandings. Though the skills and understandings are packaged in many different ways by builders of teaching materials and curriculum guides, they almost always include categories of word recognition and comprehension. Teachers who have taught beginners to read, remedial reading teachers and those who have overcome deficiencies in reading are all aware of how essential word recognition is to reading.

The mastery of word recognition skills is necessary for reading to occur. However, reading involves far more than recognizing individual words. It is also concerned with the verbal setting of the word, including its relationship to words around it. Further, it has meaning only in terms of the reader's purpose for reading, the writer's intended purpose for writing and the reader's informational background relative to the topic under discussion. Some researchers and writers refer to these as the reader's *schema* — which determines the meaning he or she obtains from the material being read.

Major attention here is given to recognizing words in sentences, and occasionally in isolation or in phrases. However, the reader is cautioned to remember that the use of word recognition skills, except in instructional settings, occurs in selections of one or more paragraphs. Occasionally the clues needed for extracting meaning may have occurred several sentences or paragraphs earlier. The following example illustrates this.

Juanita looked out into the garden from her bedroom window. She could see her brother planting flowers down below. She thought to herself, "I'm surprised at how well he is making the bed."

In the last sentence, it is obvious that Juanita is referring to a flower bed. Had you seen the sentence standing alone, you would more than likely guess that the bed referred to was one in which you sleep. If bed had been met in isolation, you would have no idea which of its many meanings was intended. Word recognition, before the process is complete, must involve use of context.

A mature reader has a large sight vocabulary — that is, words recognized instantly. He or she may read a newspaper or book without encountering any unknown words, making the identification of words appear to be deceptively simple. Much learning on the part of the reader and much teaching on the part of teachers are necessary for building that stock of instantly recognized words. Further, the reader's initial

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encounters with those words likely involve use of some combination of the clusters of word recognition skills that are discussed in this booklet. After repeated use in a variety of contexts, the words were mastered; they became a part of the reader's instant-recognition vocabulary. A few examples may help.

The reader for the first time encounters the word *sternutation* in the sentence, "His sternutation startled me." By using a combination of phonics and syllabication, the reader has a high probability of pronouncing the word correctly. But does the reader know its meaning? Not unless he or she already knows a meaning for sternutation. However, if the next sentence is read, "That was the loudest sneeze I've ever heard," the reader will find the word defined. A descriptive sentence, such as "His sternutation occurred so rapidly that he didn't have time to cover his nose and mouth with his handkerchief," would also give the meaning. Pronunciation alone falls short of word recognition; meaning must be involved.

A further example is the recognition of the word *circus* in the sentence "The girl rode an elephant in the circus." The reader, not knowing *circus*, could probably use the context and the initial consonant to get the meaning. In most countries, places where people ride elephants are usually limited to a circus or a parade. However, the reader could have used a variety of phonics skills (illustrated in Chapter 3) and checked the meaning by feeding it back into context. This latter approach would lead to wasted effort if the reader goes beyond the point where meaning is assured. A cardinal principle of word analysis is to **get in and get out with the meaning as soon as possible.**

The Place of Word Recognition Instruction in the School Curriculum

Most instruction in word recognition occurs in basal and remedial reading classes. Considerable attention is also given by some teachers as part of spelling instruction. To a lesser extent, content area teachers will devote some instructional time to word recognition.

Most basal reader instruction, especially in primary grades, revolves around the use of basal reader series. These series have built-in programs for word recognition instruction which are reflected in the lesson plans in teacher's manuals. In the typical lesson plan, word recognition instruction may be suggested at several different points. The initial phase, in which readiness for the reading of a given selection is usually built, may involve a reminder of some previous word recognition skill that has just been taught as an aid to students who are about to read a selection in which the skill will be helpful in recognizing unfamiliar words. In some programs, a few minutes of work on new words may be suggested. While students are reading a selection

silently, the teacher also gi es individual aid when it is requested. Following the silent reading of the selection, and usually after a comprehension discussion or review, new word recognition skills may be introduced, and major reviews of previously introduced skills may be suggested. In a follow-up to the reading of a selection, additional practice on word recognition may be given. Basal series do vary in their suggestions, and thoughtful teachers will adapt the suggestions in the manuals to the needs of specific groups of students.

If language experience is the major approach being used in a classroom to teach reading, word recognition instruction for individual students may be very similar to the overall pattern used in basal reader approaches. Students may also be pulled together into small groups for instruction in word recognition. Individualized reading approaches would likely follow a similar pattern.

Total School Responsibility for Word Recognition Instruction

Primary teachers have heavy responsibilities for teaching word recognition skills in accordance with the needs of their students. However, responsibility for teaching these skills goes beyond the primary grades. Even though all word recognition skill clusters have been introduced to average learners by the end of primary grades, much instruction is still necessary on advanced level dictionary skills and on prefixes and suffixes. Further, some students at fourth grade and higher levels will not have mastered some important word recognition skills or may be learning them at a slower-than-average rate. They must be taught these skills even though they may be thought of as primary-level skills. This need on the part of some students will persist into the secondary grades.

To maintain skills previously learned, students need periodic reviews. Much of the needed review comes from applying the skills in reading. Occasional formal reviews on selected skills, however, will be necessary for some students to assure that they maintain the skills at a mastery level.

Although content area teachers do not assign a high priority to word recognition skill instruction, such teachers could help their students improve word recognition skills and comprehension skills by giving assistance where needed. For example, a science or social studies teacher may note in some students a weakness in dictionary skills or in interpreting words with prefixes or suffixes. With a limited amount of instruction, students could be helped considerably in their reading. The content area teacher, of course, should not be expected to give extensive remedial instruction in reading to students severely deficient in word recognition skills.

The Word Recognition Skills Clusters

What are the clusters of related and interwoven word recognition skills? Though there are many ways to package and label these skills clusters, a nine-category pattern is used in this bulletin. Perhaps the best known and most widely adopted pattern is a five-way breakdown used by Gray (1960).A nine-way breakdown is used here; it subdivides two of Gray's five categories and uses slightly different labels in an effort to make the labels more descriptive of the skills.

The nine categories include the following: (1) sight vocabulary, (2) picture clues, (3) context clues, (4) compound words, (5) contractions, (6) adding endings to roots — with and without root changes, (7) adding affixes (prefixes and suffixes) to roots, (8) phonics and (9) dictionary use. In Gray's five-category pattern, items four through seven above were called structural analysis skills, and there was no category for picture clues.

These nine clusters of word recognition skills will be presented in three chapters, with the first seven clusters discussed in a single chapter. Because of the many subskills and understandings involved in phonics and in dictionary use, a chapter will be devoted to each of these. The remaining chapters will present a possible scope and sequence for teaching the word recognition skills, an informal word recognition inventory and summary statements about word recognition instruction.

Word recognition is considered to be an important part of the process of comprehending printed materials; it is *not* an end in itself. The reader is asked to keep this idea in mind throughout the study of this booklet. Although the discussion on comprehension is minimal in this publication, it, along with appreciation, is considered by the writer to be the major goal of reading instruction. However, comprehension will not occur if the student possesses no word recognition skills, and comprehension will be interfered with if the student is deficient in needed word recognition skills.

Throughout the guide, terms related to word recognition will be encountered by the reader. The glossary following the final chapter defines these terms.

Chapter 2

Word Recognition Skills (Excluding Phonics and Dictionary Use)

The teacher must have a firm understanding of the skills involved in recognizing words as a base for effective teaching of these skills. Hence, this chapter and two that follow focus first on the skills themselves and then upon suggested ways of teaching them. All word recognition skills, except those a part of or closely related to phonics and dictionary use, are discussed in this chapter. Phonics and dictionary use are treated in Chapters 3 and 4. The skills included in this chapter are sight vocabulary, picture clues, context clues, compound words, contractions, inflectional endings added to roots —with and without root changes — and prefixes and suffixes. First, the skills will be discussed, and then activities for use in instruction will be presented.

The Skills

Sight Vocabulary

The term *sight vocabulary* refers to a person's stock of instantly recognized words — words recognized at sight without having to labor over decoding them. If a word is in a person's sight vocbulary, that word has been mastered by the reader. The person knows it whenever he or she meets it. The size of a typical first grader's sight vocabulary is quite small. In contrast, a mature adult reader has an exceedingly large sight vocabulary and is able to read a book, magazine or newspaper with little or no attention to decoding unfamiliar words. However, initial decoding of words now in a person's sight vocabulary likely involved the use of a variety of word recognition skills, such as context cues, phonics and word structure. The word, *sternutation*, used in Chapter 1, exemplifies this process. Initially, you used structural elements, phonics and context to decode the word. Now it is in your sight vocabulary; that is, you recognize it instantly.

Sometimes a second meaning of sight vocabulary is used — teaching a word as a whole. This additional meaning as presented by Gray refers to teaching words as wholes with no use of other cues to word recognition. A first grade teacher shows the word *pig* and tells the student that the word is *pig*. Or at higher levels, the student asks for help on a word, and the teacher tells him that it is *pneumonia*. The student does not have the knowledge needed to decode *pn* as the *n* sound at that level. This second meaning of sight vocabulary has been referred to by some writers as a *whole word method* of teaching reading.

There are times in reading instruction when it is appropriate for words to be introduced as wholes — such as the very beginning of reading instruction in remedial work with very limited readers or for more advanced readers when they do not have the background to figure out a word for themselves. However, most reading instructional materials suggest using other cues, such as context and initial consonants, along with telling what the word is.

Accusations made about some instructional programs and materials that advocate *whole word* and *look-say* approaches seldom are justified. Most basal series in the beginning do suggest teaching some words as wholes and occasional words thereafter. Preprimers tend to have fairly well-controlled vocabularies in which a limited number of words are repeated over and over in different contexts. Through these repetitions a small stock of 50 or more words will be added to a student's sight vocabulary, i.e., instantly recognized. However, other word recognition skills are involved even though a few of these words might be taught initially as wholes. Furthermore, a base for phonics instruction has likely been laid through work in auditory and visual discrimination as a part of prereading readiness.

Teachers use a number of techniques to assist students in building an initial stock of sight words. Perhaps the most widely used approach involves repetitive vocabularies in the beginning levels of basal reader series and in some high interest, low vocabulary materials. Most first grade teachers and many remedial reading teachers also use elements of a language experience approach in accomplishing this goal. Through recording actual experiences of the students who are to do the reading, teachers can add quickly to their instantly recognized words. Further, using lables on objects, such as on the door and chalkboard, combines the word with context to develop a sight vocabulary. Still another approach is preparing classroom activity notices (as "Jean will feed the fish.") for students to follow. Flash cards also are helpful, but they should be used with caution.

Some suggestions to be remembered for developing students' sight vocabularies are listed below.

1. Select words and materials appropriate for the student's level of reading.
2. Utilize picture and verbal context from the beginning.
3. Encourage students to use word recognition skills that they know to help themselves rather than telling them what words are at the least hesitation on the student's part. (Students *can* become over-dependent upon teacher help. However, if a student is reading aloud to an audience — when the purpose is *not* instructional practice — tell the student the word immediately.)

4. Introduce no more words than the student can handle at one time.
5. Teach words from context; if they are pulled from context for emphasis, put them back into context before the close of the instructional session. (This suggestion also applies to use of flash cards.)
6. Guide the reader into noticing distinguishing characteristics of a word that may be causing difficulty. (General length — long word, short word; beginning — begins with th; ending — ends in ble.
7. Avoid early use of configuration as a cue unless the word has a distinct configuration not likely to be confused with other words.
8. Teach for mastery, but do not expect mastery in one session. (Mastery comes with repeated practice.)

Picture Clues

Pictures serve three purposes in reading instructional materials. They create interest in a selection, aid in building concepts and serve as clues to word recognition. In instructional materials at all levels, pictures are used to get readers interested in reading the selection. They also are used to add to the content of the story or article. These first two purposes are more important than the third, although attention will be given to that purpose — to serve as a clue to word recognition.

At beginning reading levels, materials often include pictures as clues for new words that are included in the selection. For example, a picture of a horse may be included on the page where the word *horse* first is used, or a picture of an elephant may be placed just over the word *elephant*. Use of the rebus is fairly common in beginning materials, with the word replacing the picture at some later time.

Some writers have challenged the use of pictures in beginning instructional materials, stating that they interfere with learning to read (Samuels, 1977; Fries, 1962). It seems that their effectiveness would depend upon several factors — how closely they are articulated with the material, how well teachers instruct students in their use and how uncluttered the picture is. A picture containing a horse, cow, goat and a house gives very little clearcut help in recognizing the word horse.

Context Clues

Context clues are among the most helpful clues in recognizing unfamiliar words. In fact, they are a necessary part of all attempts to extract meaning from unfamiliar words. Although roots, plus inflectional endings and phonics or any other combination of word recognition techniques, may be involved, context clues must be used before the intended meaning can be determined.

Two broad categories of context clues are used, syntactic and semantic. A student may meet a sentence such as, "The XXXXXXX flew to the top of the tree." Familiarity with the English language cues the student that the unfamiliar word is a noun — which is a syntactic cue. This knowledge narrows the possibilities considerably. The unfamiliar word is not a verb, adverb, adjective or so on. The child knows from experience that the missing word cannot be elephant, giraffe or many other things that do not fly. This is a semantic, or meaning clue.

Using context clues alone rarely is sufficient to decode an unfamiliar word; they must be used in conjunction with other cues, such as recognition of initial and final consonant sounds. In the sentence cited in the paragraph above — even though the possibilities have been limited greatly by syntactic and semantic cues — literally dozens of words would make sense in the sentence. The unfamiliar word could be the name of anything that flies, *bluejay, parrot, eagle, buzzard* or the generic term *bird*. If the initial letter were *b*, then the correct possibilities have been narrowed considerably. If it is a short word beginning with *b* and ending with *d*, the word *bird* would be a very strong possibiltiy. If the student looks only at the initial consonant, with no attention to length and final consonant, then *blackbird, bluebird, bobwhite, bullfinch, bumblebee* or *buzzard* would fit logically in the sentence. Three of the above words, *blackbird, bluebird* and *buzzard,* would still be possible if beginning and ending consonant sounds were considered with no consideration for length. Obviously, using context alone only limits the possibilities, and it should be used in conjunction with other cues to word recognition.

Context clues should be emphasized in reading instruction from the prereading readiness stage onward. In the beginning, the teacher works at a listening level, with students completing statements or answering questions aloud in response to teacher comments or questions. Examples are, "What animal says, 'Meow'?" "Complete this sentence — Last night, we watched a movie on _____ ." Instruction moves easily from listening into reading as the student begins to read. Context clues are extremely important and should be a part of reading instruction at all levels.

Compound Words

Almost from the beginning of reading instruction, students meet compound words (such as *grandmother, cowboy,*and *birthday*) in the instructional material. Initially, attention is not usually called to the fact that these words — already in the students' meaning and speaking vocabularies — are made up of two smaller words. However, usually by primer or first reader levels, students are taught to use the knowledge that two familiar words are sometimes put together to form what is to them an unfamiliar word.

There are three types of compound words, but instruction is usually confined to one type. In all types, two or more words are put together into a new word, and each of the smaller words keeps its own separate form. The most obvious form of compound word, one made up of two smaller words (*henhouse, staircase,* and *airplane*), is the type usually taught. Compound words also include hyphenated words (*good-bye, brother-in-law, dry-clean*) and compounds made up of two or more separate words (*ice cream, dining room, fire engine*). These last types, since the descriptive words are clearly separated, may be treated as separate words in reading instruction.

Instruction in helping students recognize known parts in compound words is usually fairly simple and straightforward. If in reading instruction the student asks or needs help on an unfamiliar compound word that is made up of known smaller words, the only cue needed may be to cover the second part with a small card and ask the student what the word is. Repeat the process with the first word being covered, and finally ask the student to put the two parts together.

One precaution needs to be kept in mind by teachers in selecting compound words to use in instruction. Words may on the surface appear to be compound words when they are not, and teachers must weed out these words lest they confuse the students. Examples of pseudo-compound words include *candid, coinage, damage, chipmunk, downward* and *fearless*. The first four words are root words, and the last two are derived forms of words having suffixes. To emphasize how seductive such words can be, one needs to think only of how easy it would be to think of *chipmunk* as being made up of *chip* and *munk*. It could not possibly be since there is no such English word as *munk*.

Compound words also have one additional unique feature. In pronunciation, they have both a primary and a secondary accent. In the three words cited earlier, *grandmother, cowboy* and *birthday*, the primary accent is on the first syllable, the secondary on the second syllable.

Contractions

Contractions are encountered by students in reading instructional materials at least by primer or first reader level. Further they use contracted forms of words very clearly in their speech. In fact, using contracted forms of words is natural in speech. The typical speaker usually uses the informal *don't* rather than the more formal *do not*, unless the speaker wants to emphasize the *not*.

Teaching students that a contraction is a shortened form of the word and that the apostrophe represents one or more missing letters is usually easy. In the early stages of instruction, attention is given to

contractions not likely to be confused with the possessive form. The word *it's* (meaning *it is*) is an exception, and at later stages, words like *Mary's* (which could be *Mary is* or *Mary's house*, the possessive form) may confuse some students initially. Context, however, should cue the reader to the intended meaning.

Among the contractions used frequently and early are *don't, didn't, I'm, I'll, can't, that's, let's, you've, couldn't, won't, he's, wasn't, I've, isn't, doesn't, there's, we'll, wouldn't* and *you'll*. All of these words appear in the order listed in the first 1,000 words of the Carroll, *et al.* list (1971).

The word *won't* (meaning *will not*) is different from other contracted forms; the *wo* does not spell the word *will*. If students question why it is different, the teacher may suggest that the word origin accounts for the difference.

Inflectional Endings Added To Roots — With and Without Root Changes

Very early in reading instruction, students are taught that endings like *s, ed, ing, es, 's, s', er* or *est* are added to words to signify a change in their use. The basic meaning of the root remains the same. However, the ending signifies a word form variation to show number (singular or plural), tense (present, past, future and so on), comparison positive, comparative, superlative), case, gender or mood. Fox example, *boys* now means more than one boy, *looked* now means that it happened in the past and *girl's* now means that something belongs to the girl. These word structure elements are taught early.

Inflected endings are first taught where no change occurs in the root when the ending is added, as in *run/runs, call/calls, fly/flying, fox/foxes*. Later, the same endings are taught in words where changes occur in the root as the ending is added. These changes are doubling the final consonant, dropping the final e, changing *y* to *i* and *f* or *fe* to *v*.

Inflectional endings are meaning elements; they carry meaning of their own. A sentence containing "nonsense words" with conventional inflectional endings will illustrate the point. "The grol's baik rilted the beps." The 's tells us that the *baik* belongs to the *grol*; the *ed* tells us that the *rilt* occured in the past; and the *s* tells us that there is more than one *bep*. In linguistic terminology, such elements are called *morphemes*. Since the *s, ed*, or other infectional ending cannot stand alone (that is, it must be combined with another element), it is called a *bound morpheme*. The root (as *boy* in *boys*) is a *free morpheme* since it can stand alone.

One type of activity frequently used to review this group of skills is to have students locate the root and the ending that has been added. This type of exercise can be useful if instructions clearly indicate the elements within the words that students are identifying. Leading them

intentionally or unintentionally, to locate any little word or little element within the larger word should be avoided. Locating *red*, *do*, *in* and *ate* in *predominate* is of no value; in fact, it could interfere with learning the word since the little words cut across the sounds of syllables in the larger word.

By early second grade reading level, attention is given to noting changes in roots that occur as inflectional endings are added. At a later time, the child is taught that these same root changes may occur when suffixes such as *ly*, *ness*, *able* and *ment* are added to words. Knowing that word endings may be changed in certain ways before inflectional endings are added aids the reader in recognizing words. For example, the student who knows the word *dry*, the inflectional ending es, and the *y-change-to-i* principle has a base for decoding the word *dries* the first time the word is met in context.

Four types of root changes are usually taught. An additional two generalizations, involving root changes but dealing with vowel sounds, are often taught. These six generalizations are the following.

1. A single consonant letter at the end of a root word may be doubled before an ending is added. (*hitting, stopped, hopping.*)
2. A final e may be dropped before an ending is added (*giving, hoping, hoped.*) (Actually, the e is dropped from the word *hope* before the *ed* ending is added.)
3. A final *y* may be changed to *i* before an ending is added. (*cry/cries/cried, city/cities, reply/replies/replied.*)
4. The letter *f* (or *fe*) may be changed to *v* before an ending is added. (*wolf/wolves, life/lives, hoof/hooves.*)
5. The double consonant before an ending usually signals a short vowel sound. (*hopping, hitting, stopped.*)
6. The single consonant before an ending usually signals a long vowel sound. (*hoping, roped, riding.*)

Generalizations five and six apply the root changes to phonics and appropriately might be placed under the discussion of phonics. Nevertheless, they are included here to emphasize that they are extensions of root change generalizations. Principle five is an extension of one; six is an extension of two.

It is important to emphasize the *usually* in each statement since there are exceptions to all of the generalizations. For example, the word *giving* does not adhere to generalization six because the root word (which also does not adhere to two phonics principles) has a short rather than a long vowel sound. The student should know that sometimes these principles work, and that the principle should be applied if it seems appropriate and there is no better clue.

Irregular verbs, such as *run/ran, give/gave/given, and see/saw/seen,* may cause confusion for students who do not have good command of these verbs in oral language. However, instruction in English and spelling also focuses attention upon these words. Further, in reading the student will meet the words in context and will have no need to try a principle unless it has a known ending (which irregular verbs would *not* have) and the stem of the word looks familiar. That is, it looks like a known root with one of the four root changes. The *stem,* as used here, refers to the part of the word to which the ending was added. In the word *looked,* the root and stem are the same. In the word *dries,* the root is *dry,* the stem is *dri* and the ending is es. What the teacher hopes to accomplish is to teach students to use these principles in decoding unfamiliar words.

Prefixes and Suffixes

At the second grade reading level instruction in using suffixes begins, with initial teaching of prefixes following shortly. Prefixes are affixed to the beginning of words (*un*like, *pre*heat, *re*test) with suffixes affixed to the ends of words (live*ly*, snowy, happi*ness*). These meaning elements are bound morphemes (are not able to stand alone) and must be combined with a root word.

A word to which a prefix or suffix has been added is called a derived form. Adding a prefix or suffix to a root word results in a meaning change in the root. For example, the word *farmer* now means *one who farms* rather than *farm;* the word *unhappy* now means *not happy;* and the word *lovely* now means *quality of love*. The new word with a different meaning has been derived by adding the prefix or suffix. This change of meaning in a derived form is in contrast to inflected forms of words, where the use rather than the basic meaning changes.

Although instruction on these parts of word structure begins in primary grades, prefixes and suffixes are still taught in secondary school. Among the prefixes taught fairly early are *un, re, dis, pre, in* and *fore*. Suffixes introduced fairly soon include *ly, y, er, ful, able, less* and *ish*. Root changes, discussed as a part of inflectional endings, also occurs sometimes when suffixes are added to words. These include doubling a final consonant (*regrettable, concurrence, riddance*), dropping the final e (*lovable, location, debatable*), changing final *y* to *i* (*happiness, bodily, mysterious*) and changing *f* to *v* (*livable, thievery, elvish*).

Instructional Activities

Sight Vocabulary

Activity 1. With student help, write a short experience story on the chalkboard. Each sentence should be on a separate line. When it is finished, read it to the students and then have them read it to you. As they read, sweep your hand (or a pointer) under the line being read. Later, ask for volunteers to read each line. Finally, have students take turns in pointing to and saying words that they know. An example of an experience story follows.

Miriam had a birthday yesterday.
Her mother brought a cake to school.
It had six candles on it.
We had a party in the room.
We ate the cake.
We had fun.

Activity 2. Ask each student to tell you a word he or she wants to learn to read. Print that word on a 3 x 5 inch card and give the student the word to study. Have the student make up and say a sentence containing the word. Then you say the sentence, omitting the word and having the student hold up the card with the word at the point where it fits in the sentence. An example is one using **Mother.** (I was brought to school this morning by my _____ My_____brought me to school this morning.)

Continue this procedure. Have students keep the cards of their words. From time to time, review the words with them.

Activity 3. Print daily activity notices on the chalkboard. Have students read them early in the day. Give as much help as they need. An example of a day's activities follows.

Jake will feed the fish.
Marcia will water the plants.
Sally will greet our guests.
Charles will pass out the crayons.
Mike will pass out the paper.

The activities will be similar each day, with the main changes being in the students' names.

Activity 4. Write sentences containing words that students have found to be difficult. Have the sentences read and the difficult word pointed out. Use the same word in several different sentences. An example is this one.

He asked for this one.
Is this your book?
This is my book.

Activity 5. Give each student a page from the newspaper. Ask them to draw a line around every *the* and *and* (or some other function words) in one column. Check to assure that they are drawing lines around the right words. To help, you may print the words on the chalkboard for their reference. Use this activity for words that appear frequently in newspapers and on which students need practice.

Activity 6. Ask students to keep an individual word booklet or word file for hard-to-read words. These may be filed in envelopes. The teacher should review the words periodically with each student. When a word is mastered it is struck through on the booklet and rewritten in a section headed "Words I Know," or the card is moved to the "Words I Know" section of the file. When words are being reviewed, some of the review should involve the words in teacher-prepared or student-prepared sentences. The number of active words in the booklet or file should be kept to a manageable size to avoid discouragement.

Activity 7. Label objects known to students with 3 x 5 inch cards such as *table, chair, desk, door* and *window*. After the labels have been on the objects for a day or two, ask students to read the words. Give help by calling attention to the object on which the word is placed. At a later time, use the words in sentences. Added practice may be given by using a duplicate set of cards and asking a student to go to the _____ (the object named on the card). Still later, the same activity may be carried out after the labels have been removed from the objects.

Activity 8. When a student has a great deal of difficulty in learning a particular word, print the word in large size on a pad. Ask the student to trace the word, letter-by-letter, with a finger, saying the word as he or she traces. Use this as a last resort.

Activity 9. Use published materials or prepare your own in which words you want students to master are repeated in different contexts. Have them read the selection and then identify the important words.

Picture Clues

Activity 1. Cut pictures of five to 10 familiar animals (cat, dog, horse, cow, bird, elephant, goat, tiger or rabbit) from old magazines, newspapers or books. Mount the pictures on cardboard, and have students name each animal. Then spread the pictures out so all can be seen at once. Ask questions about characteristics of animals. Possible questions include: Which animal has a trunk? Which animals have horns? Which animal has a short tail and hops? Which animal is largest in real life? Which animal is smallest in real life? Next, the name of each animal may be printed on a 3 x 5 inch card. Using a small number of pictures with accompanying names (not more than three or four at a time), ask for volunteers to pronounce the words. Each time a word is pronounced correctly, place it under the picture it names. After students have had practice in naming the words, place the names under the correct pictures and have them name the word. The final step is to shuffle the name cards and then ask students to place the name under the correct picture. Provide sufficient practice over several days so students can name the words in the absence of the pictures.

Activity 2. Cut small pictures of familiar objects, animals or scenes from old magazines, newspapers or books. Mount them on cardboard. Write sentences on strips that include the names of what is pictured. Examples are: The *squirrel* ran up the tree. A *car* came down the road. There is *snow* on the ground. We went to the *circus*. Using one sentence strip and its matching picture at a time, ask students to read the sentences. Tell them any words other than the italicized words that they do not know. Call attention to the pictures when necessary to help students recognize the italicized words.

Activity 3. Locate pictures in old magazines, newspapers or books that match words that are likely to cause difficulty for students. Cut out the pictures and mount them on cardboard. Write sentences containing these words on strips. Present a sentence and its matching word printed on a card, and have the sentence read by the students. Remove the pictures as they begin to recognize the words.

Context Clues

Activity 1. When the student asks for help in decoding a particular word where context clues are clear, direct the student's attention to the context. If the clue is in a later sentence, an earlier sentence or in the sentence containing the unfamiliar word, direct student's attention to the context clue. Examples: Read the rest of the sentence to see if that helps you. What was described in the paragraph above? Read the rest of the paragraph; it gives you a clue about this word. This type or on-the-spot coaching helps students realize the effectiveness of context clues.

Activity 2. Write several sentences on the board which include blanks for deleted words for which a context clue is given in the sentence. Examples are

The old _____ barked at me. (dog)
We saw them milk the _____ . (cow)
Birds build their _____ in trees. (nests)
The girl is my _____. (sister)
The _____ struck nine. (clock)

Sentences like the fourth one help students realize that context clues merely limit the meanings and that other clues must be used along with the context to assure correct meaning. The missing word was given as *sister*. However, it could correctly be completed with the words *cousin, neighbor, friend, enemy, partner* or many other words. Activity three combines initial consonant or vowel letter identification with context to narrow the possibilities.

Activity 3. Prepare sentences as described in Activity two but give the initial letter (or letters) of the missing word. Examples are

He d _____ the car down the street. (drove)
She walked down the st _____. (steps)
He th _____ the football. (threw)
My w _____ shows 10 o'clock. (watch)
I like to eat a _____. (apples)

Activity 4. Present short paragraphs in which several words have been omitted except for the first and last letters. An example is

My dad is a p_____t. He flies jet p_____s. Sometimes m_____ and I go on a t_____p with him. His f_____y gets to ride free. Omitted words: *pilot, planes, mother, trip, family.*

Compound Words

Activity 1. If a child asks for help on a compound word made of two known words (co*w*bo*y*), the teacher may use a 3x5 inch card to cover the second part (*boy*) and then ask what the first word is. Next, cover the first word (co*w*) and ask what the second word is. Finally, ask that the entire word be pronounced. This activity is appropriate when the child encounters an unfamiliar compound and asks for help.

Activity 2. Place these two columns of words on the board. Then ask students to build as many new words as they can, using a word from column A as the first part and a word from column B as the second part. An alternate pattern is to duplicate the columns and have students draw lines connecting the two parts that make a compound.

A	B
sun	mother
grand	paper
rail	shine
news	ball
moon	road
basket	light

Activity 3. Place these sentences on the board or duplicate for student use. Ask students to draw a line around the correct ending.

The chickens went into the hen _____.

party house horse

I want to play basket _____.

gold tall ball

Let's read the news _____.

paper taper pepper

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Activity 4. Duplicate these sentences and have students write in the blanks the words from which the compound was made.

Let's play *volleyball.*	_____	_____
The *housetop* is high.	_____	_____
My *grandmother* lives with us.	_____	_____
The main *highway* runs nearby.	_____	_____
She stood in the *strawberry* patch.	_____	_____
When is your *birthday?*	_____	_____
An *airplane* flew over us.	_____	_____
He moved the *bookcase.*	_____	_____

Other compound words that may be used are these.

typewriter	golfball	grandstand	schoolhouse
billboard	postman	stoplight	grandson
birdcage	newspaper	snowplow	goldfish

Contractions

Activity 1. Write sentences like these on the board.

John *cannot* play now. John *can't* play now.
I *do not* like cold weather. I *don't* like cold weather.
We are now ready to go. *We're* now ready to go.

Ask for a volunteer to read the first pair of sentences. If students have difficulty with *can't*, ask what they say instead of *cannot*. Continue with the other pairs of sentences. Explain that the apostrophe is used instead of one or more letters when the two words are put together to make one word. Write an apostrophe on the board as you explain.

Activity 2. Write these sentences on the board or duplicate for student use. Have students write the contracted forms of the italicized words in the blanks provided.

I *do not* know where she is.	_____
He will come back soon.	_____
They are my parents.	_____
She *would not* stop walking.	_____
What is she doing?	_____

Activity 3. Duplicate these sentences for student use. Have them write the two words from which the contracted form was made.

Jake *couldn't* come tonight. _____
Isn't it time to go? _____
Who's turn is it to play? _____
I'd like to have a drink of water. _____
Mary *won't* be here until tomorrow. _____
That's not my book. _____
It's time to go home. _____
I'll be sure to write you. _____
We *can't* play until recess. _____
Let's sing a song. _____

Activity 4. Duplicate these sentences and ask students to write on the line following each sentence the letter or letters that are omitted in each contracted form.

Bill's playing baseball. _____
I *wouldn't* want to eat that much. _____
They *aren't* my pets. _____
What's your favorite color? _____
You'd make a good basketball player. _____
I'll be back soon. _____
We *don't* know the way to get there. _____
You'll enjoy this story. _____
I *can't* jump that high. _____
He'd make a good teacher. _____

Inflectional Endings Added to Roots — With and Without Root Changes

Activity 1. (Adding *s* to noun to form plural) Write on the board a sentence containing a plural noun whose singular form is well known to students such as *I have two dogs*. The *two* preceding *dogs* should be sufficient to cause the student to add an *s* to *dog* when reading the sentence. Ask a volunteer to read the sentence. Supply whatever help is needed. Write the words *dog* and *dogs* on the board. Point to *dog* and ask how many. Do the same for *dogs*. Emphasize that the *s* means more than one. Then have students read the following pairs of sentences.

Joe has one cat.
Mary has three cats.

I have a television set in my room.
We also have two more sets at home.

The horse jumped the fence.
All the other horses followed.

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Activity 2. (Adding *ed* to verb to form past tense) Write in column form on the board the present (or future) and past tense of a regular verb, as *call* and *called*. Ask students to listen as you say these three sentences.

I *call* to you now.
I will *call* you tomorrow.
She *called* me yesterday.

Emphasize slightly the italicized word and point to the word on the board as you say it in the sentence. Ask students if the first sentence says that the calling took place in the past, is happening now or will happen in the future. Reread each sentence and discuss the use of *call* in it before moving to the next sentence. Lead students into understanding that the *ed* added to *call* means that it happened in the past. Use other sentences like the following for further practice. Have them tell whether the action occurred in the past, is happening in the present or will happen in the future.

I will *watch* him play ball.
I *watched* her play ball this afternoon.
He *knocked* at her door when he *arrived*.
She *shouted* at the dog.
Judy *shovels* snow and *fusses*.

Give emphasis here to the "happened in the past" meaning of *ed*. At a later time, you may present sentences using the *-ing* form of the same words (*calling, watching, knocking, shouting* and *shoveling*). If the student uses the words correctly, all you need do is to help him recognize a known root with an *-ing* ending.

Activity 3. (Adding *'s* to a noun to show possession) Write on the board in columns several phrases containing singular possessives, such as *Mary's blue hat, mother's purse* and *the cat's fur*. Ask for volunteers to read the phrases. If they have difficulty with one of the words showing possession, cover the *'s* and ask what the word is. If a further clue is needed (as in the word *Mary's*), ask how they would say it if they wanted to say the blue hat belonged to Mary. Give as much help as needed. State that whenever people want to say that something belongs to a person or thing, they often do so by using an apostrophe and *s*. Point out the apostrophe and *s* in each of the phrases on the board. Next place sentences like the following on the board, using in each the possessive forms of known words.

Kim's father called to me.
The *cat's* leg was hurt.
The squeak came from the *car's* hood.

Have students locate the word in each sentence that tells that something belongs to someone or something.

Activity 4. (Adding es to verbs and nouns) Place the following sentences on the board or duplicate for student use.

We saw a *fox*. Two *foxes* came over the hill.
I'll *go* to school today. She *goes* to the country each summer.
I *brush* my teeth. He *brushes* his teeth.
She ate one *potato*. He ate two *potatoes*.
Watch me climb the tree. Mary *watches* Bill climb the tree.

Ask a volunteer to read the first sentence. Call attention to the two italicized words and ask how they differ. Explain that sometimes es rather than s is added to a word. Continue with the remaining sentences. Additional practice sentences may be made from these words.

wish(es)	brush(es)	latch(es)	boss(es)
catch(es)	dash(es)	bench(es)	tomato(es)
rush(es)	domino(es)	church(es)	cross(es)
flash(es)	dash(es)	wash(es)	ash(es)
box(es)	miss(es)	toss(es)	birch(es)

Activity 5. (Adding *ing* to root) Place sentences similar to these on the board.

Don't *play* in the house. They are *playing* football.
I'll *go* home soon. Mary is *going* home later.
Will you *read* to me? I'm *reading* a good book.
Try not to *fall* down. John is *falling* down on every play.
Watch me *throw* the ball. I'm *throwing* the ball to Sarah.

Ask a volunteer to read the first pair of sentences, giving assistance on the *ing* word in the second sentence if it is needed. This help may be given by covering the *ing* and asking what the word is, then pronouncing the word. Use the same procedure for the remaining sentences. Additional pairs of practice sentences may be made from the following words.

watch(ing)	want(ing)	shout(ing)	pitch(ing)
rush(ing)	wish(ing)	shoot(ing)	show(ing)
look(ing)	fly(ing)	meet(ing)	call(ing)
see(ing)	dry(ing)	throw(ing)	feel(ing)
ask(ing)	tell(ing)	climb(ing)	fail(ing)

Activity 6. (Adding *er* or *est* to indicate comparative or superlative degree) Write several sentences like these on the board or duplicate for student use.

Joe runs *fast.*
Sam runs faster than Joe.
Mary is the *fastest* runner of all.

Bill is *small.*
Susie is *smaller* than Bill.
Jim is the *smallest* of the three.

Kate is *strong.*
She is *stronger* than Bill.
She is the *strongest* pupil in her class.

This is a *hard* problem.
The next one is *harder.*
The last one is the *hardest* of all.

The lake is *deep.*
The river is *deeper.*
The ocean is the *deepest* of all.

Have a volunteer read the first group of sentences. Then call attention to the *er* word in the second sentence and the *est* word in the third sentence. Explain that *er* on a word often means that one thing is greater than another (Sam is *faster* than Joe), and that *est* means that something is greatest of all (Mary is the *fastest* runner of all). Comparative *er* is used when two things are compared; superlative *est* is used when three or more things are compared. Using volunteers, continue through the remaining groups of sentences, having students explain the meaning of *er* and *est* words. Other words that may be used in groups of sentences are listed below.

high(er,est)	warm(er, est)	low(er est)
light (er, est)	great (er, est)	cold (er, est)
loud (er, est)	tall (er, est)	bright (er, est)
quick (er, est)	green (er, est)	rough (er, est)
slow (er, est)	warm (er, est)	dark (er, est)

Avoid confusing *er* nouns, such as *farmer, caller* or *painter* with comparison *er* where words are adjectives or adverbs.

Activity 7. (Locating root) Place these words on the board or duplicate for student use.

drying	highest	girls'	coldest
looks	Jim's	darker	dressed
watched	foxes	lifted	reading
played	tighter	makes	bird's
catches	throwing	brightest	teaches

Have students draw a line around the root in each word, tell the ending added in each and then use the word in a sentence. If necessary, remind them that the root is the word from which the longer word is made.

Activity 8. (Locating roots and endings) Duplicate the following paragraph for student use. Ask them to locate each word to which an ending has been added, decide what the root is, determine what, if anything, happened to the root as the ending was added and decide what the added ending is.

Three rabbits hopped into Mr. Johnson's garden. They began to eat the leaves of the plants. Mr. Johnson cried out, "Get out, you thieves!" Then Ruff, my dog, saw the animals and chased them away. I tried to stop him but couldn't. It was an exciting morning.

Activity 9. (Doubling consonant before *ed* or *ing* ending) Place sentences like these on the board.

Don't *drop* your glass.
He *dropped* his glass.
Everybody is *dropping* glasses.

Stop talking.
She *stopped* talking.
She is *stopping* now.

He *cut* his finger.
I'm *cutting* the paper now.

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Have a volunteer read the first group of sentences. Call attention to the ending on *dropped* and *dropping* and that the final consonant was doubled when the ending was added. Follow the same process with the remaining groups of sentences. Tell students that sometimes a known word may have the final consonant doubled before an *ed* or *ing* ending. Emphasize also that a root word that doubles the final consonant before *ing* may *not* have an *ed* ending (as *cut*, *hit* or *dig*). These are irregular forms of verbs. (Past tense of *cut* is *cut*, of *hit* is *hit*, of *dig* is *dug*.) Other words that may be used in sentences for further practice are listed below.

hop/hopped/hopping	admit/admitted/admitting
spot/spotted/spotting	bat/batted/batting
run/running	bet/betting
beg/begged/begging	brag/bragged/bragging
slip/slipped/slipping	swim/swimming
wrap/wrapped/wrapping	plan/planned/planning
hug/hugged/hugging	grab/grabbed/grabbing

Activity 10. (Dropping e before adding ending) Place sentences similar to these on the board or duplicate for student use.

Let's *ride* the bus.
We are *riding* the train.

We *save* stamps.
Dad is *saving* his old letters for us.

Place it here.
She is *placing* the book on the table.

Have a student read the first pair of sentences. Then ask what ending was added to *ride* in the second sentence, and finally, what change was made in the root when the ending was added. Follow the same procedure for the remaining sentences. The following words may be used in sentences for practice.

hope/hoping	hire/hiring	care/caring
drive/driving	invite/inviting	rake/raking
hide/hiding	face/facing	bite/biting
fire/firing	excite/exciting	hike/hiking
chase/chasing	close/closing	bake/baking

At a later time, students should be taught that in words like *hoped* and *chased*, the e is dropped and the *ed* is added.

Activity 11. (Changing *y* to *i* before adding ending) Write sentences similar to the following on the board.

The teacher read us a *story*.
I like *stories*.

Jay had a birthday *party*.
Parties are fun.

I have to look after the *baby*.
Babies sometimes cry a lot.

Have a volunteer read the first pair of sentences. Then write *story* on the board. Next, write *stories* directly under *story*. Ask what *story* means. Then ask what *stories* means. Call attention to how the plural was made. Illustrate by erasing the *y* on *story* and then add *ies*. Follow the same procedure for the other two pairs of sentences. Conclude by stating or asking a volunteer to state that sometimes *y* at the end of a word is changed to *i* before an ending is added. Next, students may be shown that the same principle applies to adding *es* or *ed* to verbs, as in *cry/cries/cried, fly/flies, try/tries/tried*. The examples in the sentences above involve plurals of nouns. Other words that may be used for further practice are these.

study/studies/studied
body/bodies
city/cities
carry/carries/carried
lady/ladies
dry/dries/dried
pity/pities/pitied
trophy/trophies
kitty/kitties
worry/worries/worried

Activity 12. (Changing *f* to *v* before adding ending) Write the following pairs of sentences on the board.

I ate *half* of an apple.
We divided the apple into *halves*.

Sue fed the *calf*.
It was one of three *calves*.

A single *leaf* fell.
Then other *leaves* began to fall.

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Ask someone to read the first pair of sentences. Then write *half* and *halves* on the board. Lead students to see that *f* is changed to *v* before *es* is added. Follow the same procedure for the other two pairs of sentences. Additional words that may be used for further practice are listed below.

self/selves	sheaf/sheaves
wolf/wolves	hoof/hooves
shelf/shelves	beef/beeves
elf/elves	thief/thieves
wife/wives	scarf/scarves
life/lives	loaf/loaves
knife/knives	

Activity 13. (Identify root words in words where root has been changed) Write these words on the board or duplicate for student use.

dried	calves	hoping
cities	hopping	setting
riding	selves	cried
goes	loving	knives
cutting	shelves	leaves

Ask students to identify the root of each word and to tell what happened to the root before the added ending. In *goes*, no change occurs in the root. Additional words for practice may be taken from the previous activities involving inflectional endings with changes in the root.

Prefixes

Activity 1. Write three to five words that have the same prefix in a column on the board. Have volunteers pronounce the words, identify the prefix and tell its meaning. The following words may be used.

unable	rearrange	dislike
unequal	refill	disobey
unlike	rename	dissatisfied
untrue	reopen	dishonest
unwise	refit	discontinue

Make certain that the prefixes mean the same in each word selected in this activity. For instance, *un* does not always mean *not*, as in *undress* and *untie; dis* does not always mean *not*, as in *disappear* and *dislodge*.

Activity 2. Place sentences like the following on the board or duplicate for students. Have them read the sentences, locate the words with prefixes, then tell what the prefixes mean.

The man was unkind to us.
We had to rebuild the birdhouse.
She is disloyal to the team.
The meat has been precooked.
I was forewarned about it.
This is an impossible job.
The volcano is inactive.

Activity 3. Duplicate or place on the board appropriate parts of this activity for use with students. Be sure they have been given instruction on prefixes before this exercise is used for review. Have students write the meaning of the prefix on the line beneath the column of words.

unfair	reload	disappear	preview
unfit	renew	disarm	prepay
unhappy	repay	disband	prewar
unknown	reread	disprove	preschool
unpaid	retest	disrepair	prejudge
_____	_____	_____	_____
imperfect	inactive	illogical	irregular
imbalance	incomplete	illegal	irrelevant
impatient	incorrect	illegible	irrational
impossible	indirect	illiterate	irreversible
immovable	inexact	illiberal	irreducible
_____	_____	_____	_____
misapply	television	defrost	foreground
miscast	telegraph	deice	foresee
miscount	telephone	deactivate	foresight
mislead	telescope	decontrol	foretell
misstate	telephoto	dehumidify	forenoon
_____	_____	_____	_____

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Activity 4. Duplicate the following sentences for student use. Ask them to rewrite each sentence to show that they know the meaning of the italicized word.

He can *foretell* future happenings.
He is *inactive* during the summer.
It is a *prehistoric* animal.
The salesperson *misrepresented* the facts.
They filed *a counterclaim.*

Activity 5. Place these sentences on the board or duplicate for student use. Have students answer yes or no to each question. On questions answered no, ask what the word with the prefix means.

Does *intrastate* mean between states?
Is an *inanimate* object alive?
Is an *impolite* person courteous to others?
Is a *pretest* given before something is taught?
Is a *countermarch* a march in a foreward direction?
Is a dog's *forepaw* on its front leg?
Does a person who *misrepresents* tell the truth?
Is an *antinoise* rule against making noise?
Does *deactivate* mean to make active.
Is a *telephoto* lens one used to photograph closeup objects?

Activity 6. Have students locate words with prefixes in sections of old newspapers. After giving them enough time to locate and determine meanings of words with prefixes, have students share their findings. Encourage them to use the dictionary for meanings when needed. A list of words may be kept for future reference. This activity is most effective with those who read at sixth or higher grade level.

Examples of words found on one front page are *reinforce, antibusing, override, desegregate, unprecedented, renew, forecast, impossible pre-existing, inadequate* and *misinformation.* Care must be taken to eliminate words that appear to have prefixes but are base words, such as *involve, prohibit, prevent* and *repeat.*

Suffixes

Activity 1. Write three to five words with the same suffix in a column on the board. Have students pronounce the words, identify the suffix and tell the meaning of the suffix. The words below may be used.

sadly	careful	teacher	needless
lovely	hateful	fighter	fearless
lately	cheerful	farmer	careless
madly	fearful	reader	ageless
slowly	tearful	talker	cheerless

In selecting words, care must be taken to eliminate words that look like suffixed words but actually are root words, such as *early, awful, theater* and *bless*.

Activity 2. Write these or similar sentences on the board. Have students read the sentences, locate the words with suffixes and tell what the suffixes mean.

She galdly gave up her place in line.
The carpet is dirty.
Yesterday was a rainy day.
Today is a beautiful day.
The taxi driver waved to Joe.
We have a lot of illness at school.
Don't be a careless person.

Activity 3. Duplicate or place on the board appropriate parts of this activity for use by students. Be sure they have been given instruction on suffixes before this exercise is used for review. Have students write the meaning of the suffix on the line beneath the column of words.

badly	hopeful	washer	colorless
greatly	truthful	dryer	treeless
quietly	playful	painter	sleepless
swiftly	colorful	maker	restless
quickly	faithful	baker	rainless
_____	_____	_____	_____
rainy	movement	wooden	northern
snowy	statement	golden	southern
chewy	development	woolen	eastern
cloudy	equipment	oaken	western
dusty	excitement	earthen	northeastern
_____	_____	_____	_____
dangerous	comfortable	courtship	childhood
mysterious	enjoyable	horsemanship	neighborhood
poisonous	workable	friendship	boyhood
joyous	suitable	partnership	knighthood
rapturous	movable	workmanship	falsehood
_____	_____	_____	_____

Activity 4. Duplicate the following sentences for student use. Ask students to rewrite each sentence to show that they know the meaning of the italicized word.

The children were *homeword* bound.
Her *childhood* was an interesting one.
What he did was *senseless*.
His action was *tasteful*.
We watched the *golden* sunset.

Activity 5. Place these sentences on the board or duplicate for student use. Have students answer yes or no to each question. When they answer no, ask what the word with the suffix means.

Does *cheerful* mean full of cheer?
Is a *fearless* person one who shows a lot of fear?
Is a *poisonous* snake one without poison?
Is *knighthood* a knight's hat?
Is a *maker* one who makes?
Is *courtship* the name of a ship used for courting?
Is a *chewy* piece of candy hard to chew?
Is a *workable* solution one that works?
Is a *mulish* person one who looks like a mule?
Is a *wooden* chair made of wood?

Activity 6. Have students locate words with suffixes in sections of old newspapers. Give students 10 to 15 minutes to locate and determine meanings of words with suffixes. Then have them share their findings. Dictionaries should be used for meanings when needed. Keeping a group list of words may be useful as a basis for additional practice. This activity should be used with students reading at sixth grade level or higher.

Some words found on one front page are *generally, administrators, teachers, regularly, toddlers, polarized, youthful, terrifying, rider, leaders, conference, amendment, vigorous, imagination, endless, questionable, investigation, gullible, medical, ailment.*

Activity 7. (Identifying root words and suffixes) Write these words on the board or duplicate for students. Ask them to write the root and suffix on the line to the right of each word. Have volunteers tell what each suffix means. Later, have students tell what change (if any) occurred in the root when the ending was added.

government	_____	amendment	_____
judgment	_____	poisonous	_____
capability	_____	mulish	_____
happiness	_____	imagination	_____
rider	_____	investigation	_____

Chapter 3

Phonics and Related Skills

Phonics and closely related skills are separated for discussion from the other word recognition skills because phonics includes clusters of subskills, and because more questions are raised about this area than any other part of word recognition. These skills are important, but no more important than other word recognition skills. Instruction must be given in the various subskills of phonics, along with context clues, word structure and dictionary use.

The relationship of sounds to written symbols is called *phonics*. In contrast, *phonetics* is concerned only with sounds. Linguists and others use the term *phonemics* instead of phonetics and also the terms *phoneme-grapheme correspondences*, *grapheme-phoneme correspondences* and *graphophonics* instead of phonics. Definitions of these terms may be found in the glossary.

In phonics instruction, the assumption is made that sound-symbol relationships follow a set of rules that can be stated. Considerable evidence exists, as in studies by Hanna and Moore (1955) and Hanna, Hanna, Hodges and Rudorf (1966), that a high percentage of the sound-symbol relationships follow rules that can be stated. Hanna and Moore (1955), in investigating the regularity of spelling of 3,000 words, found that single consonant phonemes had regular spellings in approximately 90 percent of the cases, consonant blends in about 82 percent of the cases, and vowels in a much lower percentage of the cases. In their 1966 study, Hanna, Hanna, Hodges and Rudorf came to the conclusion that 200 rules could be used to describe the sound-symbol relationships of 80 percent of the phonemes in the more than 17,000 words they studied. If relationships can be described in 80 percent of the cases, then using sound-symbol relationships as one group of techniques certainly should be useful in decoding words.

According to Smith (1978), letter clusters rather than individual letters offer more help in a phonics attack upon a word. He feels that a focus on individual letters is of limited use in describing sound-symbol relationships.

Phonics assists the reader in obtaining meaning from unfamiliar words provided the reader's listening/meaning vocabulary already contains those words. That is, phonics works in deriving meaning only if the meaning exists in the reader's mind. Otherwise, the value is limited to approximating a pronunciation. If the pronunciation of the word *circus* is figured out through phonics, a second grader almost certainly will know the meaning. On the other hand, a second grader getting the correct pronunciation for *arcane* is certainly no assurance that the

student knows the meaning. Context, of course, could possibly supply the meaning. For helping students obtain meaning, phonics is most useful if they are reading at intermediate or lower grade levels. When readers at high levels meet unfamiliar words, they are not likely to know meanings for those words; they must use the context or dictionary for the meaning.

Though using phonics alone definitely has limitations, very few people question the use of phonics as a part of word recognition instruction. Disagreements arise about the particular elements to be taught, how much time to spend in teaching phonics, how the skills should be sequenced and whether to use a predominantly synthetic or analytic approach.

Usually, a phonics approach is predominantly synthetic or analytic, but not totally one or the other. Word recognition programs of the majority of the basal reader series being used in teaching reading are mainly analytic. In an analytic approach to teaching and use of phonics, the student begins with the whole word and moves to the parts. "The sound you hear at the beginning of the word *bird* is represented by the letter *b*," is illustrative of an analytic approach — starting with the whole and moving to the parts.

On the other hand, a synthetic approach moves from the part to the whole. Blending the *b* sound with *ird* to decode *bird* would be illustrative of a synthetic approach. The word parts are synthesized into a whole. The initial and final consonant substitutions mentioned later will illustrate one use of synthetic phonics, where parts are blended mentally or orally into a whole. These substitution subskills frequently are included as parts of programs that are mainly analytic, though they move from word parts to the whole.

Phonics and the English Language

The 26 letters in the alphabet must represent individually or in various combinations the more than 40 phonemes in the English language. Dictionaries vary from about 40 to more than 50 different sounds they recognize in their pronunciation keys. For instance, one recent school dictionary (Scott, Foresman, 1979) uses 41 symbols whereas a widely used adult dictionary (Webster's New Collegiate, 1973) uses 55.

Of the 26 letters of the alphabet, three consonant letters (c, *q* and *x*) represent sounds usually associated with other letters. Of the remaining consonant letters, about half usually represent only one sound, and the others are usually associated with not more than two sounds. The more variable vowel letters must represent the remaining sounds.

Each syllable contains at least one vowel letter and one vowel sound. How that vowel sound is spelled may vary considerably. The long *a* sound may be spelled in at least seven different ways: *a (baby), a-e (date), ay (say), ai (mail), ey (grey), eigh (eight)* and *ei (rein)*. The short e may be spelled in at least eight different ways: e *(red), ea (head), ai (said), a (any), ei (heifer), eo (leopard), ie (friend)* and *u (bury)*. All vowel sounds have several possible spelling patterns, though some spellings are much more likely to be met than others.

Some consonant sounds may also be represented in a variety of ways. For example, the *f* sound may be represented by *f, ph* or *gh* (in final positon.) Other examples are presented in the next section.

People sometimes conclude incorrectly that in English sound-symbol associations are too irregular for phonics to be of much help in word recognition. However, enough regularity does exist in sound-symbol associations to warrant including phonics as an important part of word recognition instruction.

Specific Clusters of Skills

Consonants

A *consonant* sound is one in which the flow of the breath is obstructed by the tongue, teeth, lips or some combination of these. They include all except the five vowel letters (*a, e, i,* o and *u*). Of the 21 consonant letters, three (c, *q,* and *x*) represent sounds borrowed from other letters: c with *k* or *s* sound (*can* or *city*); *q*, which always is followed by *u* in English words, with *kw* or *k* sounds (*queen* or *quay*); and *x* with *eks, egz,* or *z* sounds (*xray, exit* and *xylophone*). Approximately half of the remaining consonant letters usually represent only one sound, and for the most part, the others are associated with not more than two sounds.

Most instructional materials designed for use in teaching reading introduce consonant letter-sound relationships before vowel letter-sound relationships. Among the reasons offered for this are that consonant letters are more regular in the sounds they represent, and most words begin with consonant letters. The latter contention ties in with teaching initial elements first as well as progressing from left to right.

Published instructional materials are generally consistent in their suggested sequence for teaching letter-sound relationships of consonants. At first, readiness is established by practicing auditory discrimination of initial, then final, consonant sounds in words. The next step is to give instruction in visual discrimination of consonant letters in initial position in words then final. The auditory and the visual aspects of discrimination are then brought together. Conceivably, a

teacher could intermingle these steps in one instructional session, especially if remedial work is being done. Further, a suggested sequence such as this may mislead an inexperienced person into thinking that work at one step should be completed with all 21 consonant letters before moving on to the next level. Such a conclusion would ignore that certain consonant letters are more confusing than others (such as *q, v, w, x, r* and *z*). Therefore, a rough hierarchy is formed on the basis of difficulty and frequency, with instruction on a few letters coming much later — perhaps as much as one or two years later for typical pupils.

Consonant digraphs

Two consonant letters representing one speech sound is a *consonant digraph*. Among the consonant digraphs to be taught are *ch (chair, chord), ck (deck), gn (gnaw), ph (phone), gh (cough), sh (shall, dish), th (that, smooth), th (think, sixth), wr (write)* and *ng (sing)*. The special consonant symbol *wh* clearly is a digraph in words like *who* and *whole*, having an *h* sound. However, in words like *which* and *where*, the dictionary phonetic respelling is *hw* (or both *hw* and *w*). If a person pronounces *which* as /hwich/, the classification probably should be a consonant blend; if a person pronounces it as /wich/, the classification should be a consonant digraph. Double consonant letters (in words like *watt* and *waddle*) also are consonant digraphs since only one sound is involved.

At least three types of consonant digraphs exist. In *sh, th* and *ch* the single sound the two letters represent is unlike that ordinarily associated with either letter. In *ck, gn, kn* and *wr* the sound is that commonly associated with one of the letters. Usually it is stated that one letter is silent, but in actuality, the two letters (as *gn* in *gnat*) represent the sound heard (the *n* sound in *gnat*). The teaching of *sh, th* and *ch* begins as early as the preprimer or primer level; the more difficult —and less frequently encountered — consonant digraphs, such as *gn*, and *ph* may be delayed until late second or third grade levels.

Consonant blends

Two or more consonant sounds blended together rapidly is a consonant blend. Traces of the sounds of the two (or more) consonants are maintained when a word containing the blend is pronounced. Among the frequently encountered consonant blends are these: *bl (blue), br (brown), cl (clear), cr (cry), dr (draw), dw (dwarf), fl (fly), fr (freeze), gl (glass), gr (green), nk (think), pl (play), pr (prize), qu (quick), sc (scat), sk (skip), sl (sleep), sm (smooth), sn (snap), sp (spin), st (stick), sw (swing), tr (try), tw (twice), chr (Christmas), shr (shrink), scr (scream), str (string)* and *thr (three)*. Three of the blends listed here — *chr, shr*

and *thr* — contain a consonant digraph blended with a consonant, and two — *scr* and *str* — represent three consonant sounds blended together. The letters *r, l* and *s* show up so frequently in consonant blends that reference sometimes is made to the "*r, l* and *s* blends." Consonant blend instruction begins at primer or first grade reading level and continues throughout the primary grades, with the more difficult and less frequently used consonant blends coming at third grade level.

Initial and final consonant substitutions

Recognizing that an unfamiliar word is the same as a known word except for the initial or final consonant is a useful technique for recognizing words. By thinking or saying the sound representing the initial letter of the word and blending it mentally with the part in common with the known word, the reader decodes the word. For instance, if the student meets the word *tack* and recognizes that with the exception of the initial letter *t* it is like the known word *back*, he or she can blend the sounds of *t* with *ack*, thus coming up with *tack*. Attention is begun first on initial substitutions, and at a later time, instruction includes final consonant substitutions (as *root/roof, feet/feel* and *stool/stoop).*

Consonant digraphs and consonant blends also are involved in initial and final substitutions. Examples of situations in which consonant digraphs could be involved are tape/shape, wit/wish and *thank/shank.* Consonant blend examples include *stop/slop, but/bust* and *back/black.*

To a lesser extent, initial and final omissions and additions are also taught. Examples of consonant omissions are *band/and, band/ban* and *stop/top.* Examples of consonant additions are *and/band, top/stop* and *bow/bowl.*

Vowels

An open, unobstructed sound is called a vowel. The five vowel letters are *a, e, i,* o and *u.* The letters *w* and *y* also represent vowel sounds in some words, as *w* combined with o and e in *now* and *few* and *y* (representing the *i* or e sound in *city* or *dry*).

School dictionaries list 15 or more vowel sounds to be represented by the five vowel letters. For example, *a* has three sounds, as in *at, may, father* and so on. Further, under irregular circumstances, a vowel letter (alone or in combination with another letter) may represent a vowel sound not ordinarily associated with it. Examples are the short e sound represented by *a* and *u* in *any* and *bury* and the short *i* sound represented by o in women. As previously stated, the vowel letters are more variable in the sounds they represent than are the 21 consonant letters.

Because of the variability of the sounds that vowel letters represent, some writers (Goodman, 1970; Smith, 1978) feel that instruction on vowel sounds should receive low priority. Another possible reason for giving a much higher priority to consonant sound-symbol relationship is that dialectical differences often are most prevalent in the area of vowel sounds.

Vowel sounds should be taught to children since knowing them has potential for helping in word recognition. However, students' dialects should dictate modifications in what is taught. For phonics to aid in decoding unfamiliar words, the understandings developed must match the language of the reader. Many natives of the southeastern part of the United States make no distinction between short e and short *i* sounds, especially in words in which the vowel is followed by *m* or *n*. Attempting to teach students a distinction in pronunciation between *pin* and *pen* is wasted effort if it is natural for them to pronounce the words the same — as *pin* with the short *i*. There may be a need to work on language modification, but if it is done, it should *not* be a major objective in phonics instruction. Phonics instruction should be aimed toward associating words and word elements with the existing language.

The remedial teacher would be well advised to give low priority to teaching vowel sound-symbol relationships to upper elementary or secondary students who are reading at first through third grade levels. Single consonant letters are highly regular in the sounds they represent, whereas vowel letters are not. For instance, in the study of Hanna, *et al.* (1966), the short *i* sound was found spelled in 22 different ways, though only a few of the spellings occur frequently.

Most vowel sounds are short sounds, with the long sounds being next most frequent. In the Hanna, *et al.* research, a little less than 50 percent of the vowel sounds were short and about 25 percent were long. Therefore, guessing the short sound first and then the long if the first try doesn't work is not a bad strategy. One complicating factor is that long and short vowel sounds are sometimes represented by letters seldom associated with those sounds, as the short e in *any* or *bury*.

The typical instructional reading program includes short vowels, long vowels, the schwa, the r-controlled vowels, and *a* followed by *l, u* or *w*. Instruction begins in first grade for typical learners and may continue into high second or third grade reading levels. The short sound of a vowel, in most programs, is taught before the long sound of that same vowel, though a few programs begin with the long sound or teach the long and short vowel sound together. Words the student encounters more frequently contain the short sounds, thus making it easier to find words for teaching the short sounds in primary materials.

The long sounds of vowels are the same as saying the letter — as *a*, e, *i*, o and *u*. Thus, teaching the long sounds is not very difficult. Teachers often teach that the long vowels say themselves.

Learning the short sounds involves learning to associate with each vowel letter a sound different from the pronunciation of the letter. The short vowel sounds are *a* as in *at*, e as in e*lk*, *i* as in *it*, o as in *odd* and *u* as in *up*. A key word may be taught to aid students in remembering the short vowel sounds. Care must be taken to select words that the children pronounce as the sound being taught. Using *umbrella* for the short *u*, *pen* (often pronounced with a short *i* sound) and *egg* (sometimes pronounced in one region as long *a*) for the short e would be inappropriate for some students.

In phonics, *long vowel* and *short vowel* refer to sound quality or characteristic, not to duration of the vowel sound. For instance, the long *a* sound is the same as saying the letter *a*, the short *a* sound is the same sound as the vowel sound in the word *add*, and *long* and *short a* mean nothing more; these are just names for the sounds heard. In contrast, the terms *long vowel* and *short vowel* do refer to duration of sound in phonetics, which is concerned only with the sounds of speech — not with the relationships of letters to the sounds that they represent.

A few vowel principles, involving *long* and *short* sounds, *r*-controlled vowels, and the influence of *l*, *u* and *w* on *a* will be discussed later. These principles should be taught at first or second grade difficulty level.

Vowel digraphs

A combination of two vowel letters that represent a single vowel sound is a vowel digraph. Vowel digraphs include *ai* (sail), *ay* (say), ea (beat), ee *(creep)*, *ie (yield)*, oa *(boat)*, oe *(toe)*, *ue (blue)*, oo *(foot* or *choose)*, *ou (tough* or *cough)*, *ow (blow)*, *au (haul)*, *aw (crawl)* and ew *(flew)*. Two of these — *ou* and *ow* — are diphthongs in some words. Associating two vowel letters with the one sound they represent usually begins at primer or first reader level and continues into third grade difficulty level.

Diphthongs

Two vowel sounds blended together in one syllable is a *diphthong*. Examples are *oi (boil)*, *oy (toy)*, *ou (our)* and *ow (cow)*.Though most diphthongs are represented by two vowel letters, the long *i* and the long *u* sounds (often represented by the single letters *i*, *y* and *u*) are pronounced as diphthongs by many English speakers. For some speakers in some sections of the United States, though typically such words as *boy*, *out*, *now* and long *i* and long *u* words are pronounced as vowel digraphs. Instruction needs to be adjusted to these dialectical differences. The teaching of sound-letter association of diphthongs may begin as early as first grade, but it usually is delayed until second grade difficulty level.

Some two-letter vowel combinations represent diphthongs in some words and vowel digraphs in others. Examples are *now* and *bowtie*, *bough* and *though*. Such words should cause little or no confusion for children because of context clues.

Phonics principles

A few phonics generalizations that deal with vowel sounds are useful in word recognition. Only those generalizations that apply to many words, without excessive exceptions, should be taught. These generalizations concern the variation in vowel sound resulting from the position of a vowel letter in a word or syllable and the position of one letter in relation to another. In teaching these generalizations, emphasis should be placed upon the "usually" which is a part of each. These principles are good cues but do not always work.

These principles are usually taught at first and second grade levels. Knowledge about consonant and vowel sounds must be developed before these principles are taught.

Eight generalizations suggested for teaching are presented here. The first six deal with vowel sounds; the last two deal with the influence vowel letters have upon consonant sounds. Following each generalization are examples of illustrative words and a short title often associated with the principle.

1. In short words or accented syllables containing a vowel letter followed by a consonant and final *e*, the vowel usually is the long sound generally associated with the first vowel letter. (*make*, *bride*, *role*) (final *e* principle)
2. In short words or accented syllables containing a vowel digraph, the vowel sound usually is the long sound generally associated with the first of the two letters. (*coat*, *treat*, *main*) (vowel digraph principle)
3. In a short word or accented syllable having a single vowel letter followed by a consonant, the vowel usually has the short sound. (*rat*, *shop*, *up*) (consonant ending principle)
4. In a short word or accented syllable ending with a single vowel letter, the vowel sound usually is long. (*be*, *try*, *go*) (vowel ending principle)
5. In a short word or accented syllable in which a vowel letter is followed by *r*, the vowel sound is neither long nor short; it has the vowel sound of *ir*, *ar* or *or*. (*sir*, *dark*, *nor*) (r-control principle)
6. When the letter *a* is followed by *l*, *u* or *w*, the vowel sound usually is *aw* as in *crawl*. (*raw*, *all*, *haul*) (*a* followed by *l*, *u* or *w* principle)
7. When *c* is followed by *e*, *i* or *y*, the *c* usually takes the soft sound (*s*); in other cases, it usually takes the hard sound (*k*). (*cent*, *city*, *cycle*) (soft *c* principle)

8. When *g* is followed by e, *i* or *y*, the *g* usually takes the soft sound *j*; in other cases, it usually takes the hard sound (*g*). (*gem, giant, gym*) (soft *g* principle)

Clymer (1963), Bailey (1967) and Emans (1967) studied the extent to which generalizations apply to words. Clymer studied words in eight basal series in grades one through three; Baily studied eight series in grades one through six; and Emans studied words above fourth grade level. Though their findings differed because of different materials, all three concluded that many generalizations suggested for teaching have too many exceptions or occur too infrequently to warrant their being taught. Though their statements of generalizations were not exactly as those given above, the percentages of utility of each of the three researchers for the generalizations cited above are given here.

Generalization	**Clymer**	**Bailey**	**Emans**
Final e	63	57	63
Vowel digraph	45	34	18
Consonant ending	62	71	73
Vowel ending	74	76	33
r control	78	86	82
a followed by *l, u, w*	48	34	24
c followed by e, *i,*	96	92	90
g followed by e, *i,*	64	78	80

Based upon these data, the usefulness of the vowel digraph and the *a* followed by *l, u, w* generalizations — and, to a lesser extent, the final e generalization — may be questioned.

What has been discussed here as vowel principles is very similar to what Fries (1962) and others called spelling patterns. The sequence of letters in a written word that represents the sounds in the spoken word is a spelling pattern. Fries' three spelling patterns are similar to the final e generalization, the consonant ending generalization and a vowel digraph generalization (two vowels together — expect long sound of first). Fries and other linguists, however, emphasize to a great extent contrasting spelling patterns (*hat* - add e at end for *hate; cat* - add o and get co*at*). They also frequently separate word recognition from meaning in the beginning of reading instruction.

Syllabication

If a reader is using phonics to identify an unfamiliar word of more than one syllable, knowledge of syllabication principles is needed. Because of its helpfulness in phonics, syllabication is included here.

Syllabication instruction takes place mainly in second and third grade levels. The first understanding developed is what a syllable is — an uninterrupted unit in pronunciation. Students learn first to hear syllables in spoken words. Later they are taught to identify syllables in written words. They learn that each syllable contains at least one vowel letter and one vowel sound. Much later, they learn that phonics principles used in identifying one-syllable words also work in accented syllables of multisyllable words.

Only a few generalizations of syllabication need be taught. Two principles that have a fairly good percentage of utility are below.

1. In words in which two consonant letters are located between vowel letters, the division usually is made between the consonants. (*citrus, party, tablet*) (two consonant principle)
2. In words in which the last three letters contain a single consonant followed by *le*, the consonant and the *le* form the final syllable. (*cable, uncle, sample*) (*le* principle) (The "pickle" exception may also be taught. If *ck* precedes the *le*, the *le* forms the final syllable, as in *pickle, tickle,* and *tackle.*)

A third principle often suggested for teaching has a low percentage of utility. That principle says, in words in which a single consonant letter is located between vowel letters, the division usually is made before the consonant. (*cocoon, open, motor*) (single consonant principle)

Two syllabication principles with good levels of utility and the third principle with a low utility level were among the generalizations investigated by Clymer (1963), Bailey (1967) and Emans (1967). The percentage of utility found in the three studies are given below.

Principle	**Clymer**	**Bailey**	**Emans**
Two consonant	77	78	80
Consonant plus *le*	97	93	78
One consonant	44	50	47

Based upon the percentages of utility, the two consonant and the consonant plus *le* principles are worth teaching. However, the single consonant principle, with only about 50 percent utility is hardly worth teaching.

Accent

Instruction on accent sometimes is reserved for dictionary use, though it also is useful in conjunction with phonics in attacking an unfamiliar word. Vowel principles that students have used in one-syllable words also apply to accented syllables in multisyllabic words.

Five often-taught accent principles are given below.

1. In words of two or three syllables, the first syllable usually is accented. (*basket, cabinet, player*)
2. The root or stem is usually accented in a word. (*lively, regain, stressful*)
3. In two or three-syllable words with a prefix, the prefix usually is *not* accented. (*review, unlike, inept*)
4. The accent may vary in words spelled alike but used as different parts of speech. (PROG-ress/pro-GRESS, in-VAL-id/IN-va-lid, MIN-ute/mi-NUTE)
5. In words ending in *sion* or *tion*, the next to last syllable is usually accented. (*intention, revision, expulsion*)

Instructional Activities

Single Consonant Sounds

Activity 1. (Hearing initial consonants) Ask students to listen carefully as you say five or six words that begin with the same consonant sound as *Tommy, tap, ten, tip, tent, two*. Space the words with about a second between words. Ask students if they hear the same sound at the beginning of each word. Repeat the words if someone says that they are diffferent. Next, say another group of words, but this time include one word with a different beginning — as *teach, team, help, tan, take, toy*. When it is clear that students can hear the initial sound and distinguish the exception, ask them to tell you other words that begin with the same sound.

Use similar activities with other initial consonant sounds.

Activity 2. (Hearing initial consonants) Collect pictures from newspapers, old magazines and discarded books that contain objects known to students. Have them say the word for each picture, as *top, dog, cat*. Then have students group all of the pictures whose names begin with the same consonant sound. In selecting pictures, be sure that pictures are uncluttered and that the object pictured would be obvious to students.

Build a collection of pictures so you have at least two for each initial consonant (except the less frequently encountered *x, y, z* and *q*). Place the pictures in five or six cardboard boxes just large enough to hold them. Attach a picture that represents a different initial consonant sound to all except one box. Have students place pictures that begin with the same sound as one of the key pictures in the correct boxes as they say the picture names. Have them place all other pictures in the unlabeled box. Shuffle pictures and go through the same procedure until all students who need this practice have had a turn.

Activity 3. (Associating letters with initial consonant sounds). Write on the board in column form four or five words that have the same initial consonant letter and sound. Ask students to listen carefully as they pronounce the words in unison. Then ask if the words all begin alike. Finally, ask what letter stands for the sound they hear in the initial part of each word. Possible words are these.

boy	dog	fan	got	hat	pull
big	did	fight	go	here	pan
but	don't	fear	give	hope	pay
by	do	far	get	hit	push
bus	dig	farm	gone	have	put

Activity 4. (Associating letters with initial consonant sounds) Ask students to listen carefully as you say four or five words in which all except one begins with the same consonant sound and letter. Ask which word begins with a different sound. Then ask what letter stands for the initial sound in the other three or four words. Possible groups of words are these.

ball	fire	keep	make	past
bear	fear	man	mail	party
hike	four	key	milk	pig
bell	nine	kite	mule	pillow
been	full	kick	girl	river

Activity 5. (Associating letters with initial consonant sounds) Duplicate columns of words similar to those below. Have students draw a line around the words that begin with the same sound as the sound of the word you say.

read	say	toy	lamp	go
right	five	ball	rat	game
girl	said	pig	love	pirate
road	kite	test	low	get
big	six	teach	let	color

Activity 6. (Hearing final consonant sounds) Ask students to listen carefully as you say five or six words that end with the same consonant sound, as *stop, tip, cup, flip, gulp, tap*. Pause about one second between words. Ask students if they hear the same sound at the end of each word. Repeat the string of words if necessary to help them hear the

similar ending sound. Next, say another group of words, but this time include one word with a different ending — as *top, up, cat, sip trap, snap.* Ask students to tell which word has a different ending sound. When it becomes clear that they can hear the initial sound and distinguish the exception, ask them to tell you other words that end with the same sound.

Use similar activities with other final consonant sounds.

Activity 7. (Associating letters with final consonant sounds) Write on the board in column form four or five words that have the same final consonant letter and sound. Ask students to listen carefully as they pronounce the words in unison. Then ask if the words all end alike. Finally, ask what letter stands for the sound they hear at the end of each word. Possible words are these.

big	hat	mad	win	car	him
tag	hurt	sad	man	her	slim
rug	plot	bid	can	for	ham
leg	it	bed	pen	star	gum
log	but	mud	run	stir	sum

Activity 8. (Associating letters with final consonant sounds) Duplicate columns of words similar to those below for student use. Have them draw a line around the words that end with the same sound as the final sound of the word you say.

pig	cat	thin	had	fur	dim
rag	for	been	for	man	jam
sat	nut	lot	sum	sir	Tom
beg	foot	hid	did	plot	bid
ton	slim	pan	nod	bar	log

Consonant Digraphs

Activity 1. (Associating digraphs with initial consonant sounds) Pull from a selection students are reading two words beginning with the same consonant digraph, as *the-this, think-thick, chair-chick* or *she-shall.* Present them in written form to the students. Have a volunteer pronounce the two words. Call attention to the fact that the two words begin with the same sound and that the first two letters (*th, ch,* or *sh*) stand for that sound.

Activity 2. (Associating digraphs with initial consonant sounds) Write on the board or duplicate the following columns of words for students. Ask them to pronounce each word aloud if words are written on the board, in a low whisper if words are duplicated. Then have them underline the two letters that represent the initial sound in the words.

thick	she	them	chick	wrist	gnaw
thief	shall	then	child	write	gnat
thin	shoe	there	chin	wrong	gnome
thing	shade	they	check	wren	gnash
think	sheep	the	chair	wreck	gnarl

Activity 3. (Associating digraphs with final consonant sounds) Write the following columns of words on the board or duplicate. Have students pronounce each word aloud if written on the board, in a low whisper if words are duplicated. Then have them underline the two letters that represent the final sound in the words.

wish	path	sang	black
wash	with	ring	track
cash	worth	wrong	clock
splash	both	hang	trick
rush	math	string	back

Consonant Blends

Activity 1. (Associating blends with initial sounds) Extract from class reading material two words beginning with the same consonant blend, as *blue-black, try-tree, star-stuck* or *green-group.* Place words on the board and have a volunteer pronounce them. Guide students to see that the two words sound alike in the beginning and start with the same two letters (*bl, tr, st* or *gr*).

Activity 2. (Associating blends with initial sounds) Write the following columns of words on the board or duplicate. A single column may be used to review a particular consonant blend, or multiple columns may be used to review several different consonant blends. Ask students to pronounce each word aloud if written on the board, or in a low whisper if words are duplicated. Finally, have them underline the two letters that represent the initial sounds in words.

try	brown	green	sleep	place	start
tree	bread	great	slip	plant	step
trick	brother	grow	slide	play	still
train	brave	ground	slow	please	stop
track	bring	grade	sleigh	plane	story

Activity 3. (Associating blends with final consonant sounds) Write the following columns of words on the board or duplicate. Have students pronounce each word aloud if written on the board or in a low whisper if duplicated. Then have them underline the two letters that represent the final sound in the words.

fast	word	thank	grasp	mask
first	bird	drank	gasp	task
fist	herd	think	clasp	desk
coast	guard	drink	lisp	risk
burst	heard	ink	wisp	brisk

Activity 4. (Associating blends with initial consonant sounds) Duplicate sentences like those below for student use. Have them read each sentence and select the correct word that completes the sentence. Write the word in the blank.

We made the trip by_____.	tack train drain trend
He had a_____on his face.	ground twin win grin
We ate a loaf of_____.	thread bread brad broad
The_____flew over us.	plane plan pane lane
She came up the_____.	prayer stairs star rare
She has_____hair.	brand bond brown round
His eyes are_____.	blue rue blow blend

Intital and Final Consonant Substitutions

Activity 1. (Initial consonant substitution) When a student needs help on an unfamiliar word that is identical to a known word except for the initial consonant (or consonant digraph or blend), write the unknown word on a sheet of paper. Then write the known word directly below it — so the common letters will be easy to detect, as in the following examples.

mat	bar	man	shut	brown
cat	car	fan	cut	gown

Have the known word pronounced and then point out that except for the beginning, the unfamiliar word is like the known word. Give whatever help is needed to assist the students in pronouncing the unfamiliar word.

Activity 2. (Initial consonant substitution) Duplicate the following exercise for students. Ask them to answer each question on the line provided.

Replace *s* in *sing* with *k*. What is the new word? _____
Replace *f* in *fast* with *l*. What is the new word? _____
Replace *w* in *witch* with *p*. What is the new word? _____
Replace *b* in *bank* with *r*. What is the new word? _____
Replace *s* in *sand* with *b*. What is the new word? _____
Replace *m* in *money* with *h*. What is the new word? _____
Replace *m* in *match* with c. What is the new word? _____

Activity 3. (Initial consonant substitution) Write a column of words on the board. Ask students to make as many words as they can by substituting another letter for the initial consonant. Possibilities for words are given in parentheses.

cat (bat, fat, hat, mat, pat, rat, sat)
ring (king, sing, wing)
hot (cot, dot, lot, not, pot, rot)
band (hand, land, sand)
find (bind, hind, wind, kind, mind)

Activity 4. (Final consonant substitution) When students need help on an unfamiliar word that is identical with a known word except for the final consonant (or consonant digraph or blend), write the unknown word on a sheet of paper. Then write the known word directly below it — so the common letters will be easy to detect, as below.

tap	mad	rub	flap	bet
tag	man	run	flag	bed

Have the known word pronounced and then point out that except for the ending, the unfamiliar word is like the known word. Give whatever help is needed in pronouncing the unfamiliar word.

Vowel Sounds

Activity 1. (Short vowels) Present in columnar form on the board four or five familiar words containing the same short vowel sound. Pronounce the words, with a brief pause between words. Ask students if the vowel sounds in the words are the same or different. Then call attention to the same vowel letter standing for that sound. Tell students that the sound is called the short sound of that vowel. Finally, ask for other words that contain the same vowel sound. Examples of columns of words are listed below.

cat	bet	lid	stop	cup
mad	fled	flip	log	rug
flag	red	lick	lock	up
tap	pep	in	mop	cut
fast	rest	tin	not	rust

Activity 2. (Short Vowels) Tell students that you are going to ask them questions that can be answered with a short *a* sound or some other short vowel sound. Examples of sentences are given below.

What animal purrs? (cat)
What do you wear on your head? (cap or hat)
What do you wipe your feet on? (mat)
What is a tame animal that belongs to someone? (pet)
What do we sleep in? (bed)
What does a hen lay? (egg)
What do we do with a shovel? (dig)
What is a young hog called? (pig)
What is in an aquarium? (fish)
What sign tells us to halt? (stop)
What do we call a policeman? (cop)
What animal hops? (frog)
What do we drink from? (cup)
What do we ride to school in? (bus)
What is a carpet called? (rug)

Activity 3. (Long vowels) Present in columnar form on the board four or five familiar words containing the same long vowel sound. Pronounce the words, with a brief pause between words. Ask students if the vowel sounds in the words are the same or different. Then call attention to the same vowel letter standing for that sound. Tell students that the sound is called the long sound of that vowel. Finally, ask for other words that contain the same vowel sound. Examples of columns of words are below.

nail	meat	tie	old	use
age	feet	by	oak	cute
day	he	five	coat	mule
rain	see	ice	grow	tube
cake	need	lie	go	cue

Activity 4. (Long vowels) Tell students that you are going to ask them questions that can be answered with a long *a* or some other long vowel sound. Examples of sentences are below.

What do we eat for dessert? (cake)
What is the opposite of night? (day)
What month follows April? (May)
What do we do at mealtime? (eat)
What do we put shoes on? (feet)
What do leaves grow on? (tree)
What do we cool drinks with? (ice)
What is a measure of distance? (mile)
What do we fly on a windy day? (kite)
What is the opposite of hot? (cold)
What is the opposite of young? (old)
What bread do we eat at breakfast? (toast)
What is the opposite of false? (true)
What farm animal pulls a plow? (mule)
What is another name for paste? (glue)

Activity 5. (Long and short vowels) Make a key chart for long and short vowel sounds by using a picture or an object that illustrates each long and short vowel sound. Write the words long *a*, short *a*, and so on under each picture. Examples of pictures that might be used are below.

Short *a* - apple	Long *a* - ape
Short e - elephant	Long e - eagle
Short *i* - Indian	Long *i* - ice
Short o - octopus	Long o - oboe
Short *u* - umpire	Long *u* - ukulele

Vowel Digraphs

Activity 1. (Learning that two letters may represent one vowel sound) Place on the board in columnar form four or five words containing the same vowel digraph. Ask students to pronounce the words. Then ask if they hear one or two vowel sounds. Lead them to see that two vowel letters represent one vowel sound. Words that may be used are listed below.

sail	seat	boat	glow	day
mail	heat	float	blow	stay
main	cream	goat	show	lay
trail	mean	load	row	tray
train	leap	road	low	pay

Activity 2. (Associating two letters with one vowel sound) Pull from a selection students are reading two words containing the same vowel digraph, as *nail-tail, feet-seed, boat-road, show-tow* or *stray-may*. Present them in written form to students. Have a volunteer pronounce the two words. Emphasize the fact that the two words contain the same sound and that the same two vowel letters represent that sound.

Diphthongs

Activity 1. (Associating diphthongs with letters representing them) Extract from class material two words containing the same diphthong, as *oil-join, boy-toy, out-found* or *how-cow*. Write the words on the board and have a volunteer pronounce them. Emphasize that the vowel sounds in the two words are the same and that they are represented by the same two letters (*oi, oy, ou* or *ow*). If it appears appropriate, exaggerate the pronunciation of the diphthong to illustrate that traces of two vowel sounds are blended together within the same syllable.

Activity 2. (Associating diphthongs with letters representing them) Write the following columns of words on the board or duplicate. A single column may be used to review a particular diphthong, or multiple columns may be used to review several different ones. Ask students to pronounce each word aloud if on the board or in a low whisper if words are duplicated. Finally, have pupils underline the two letters that represent the diphthong.

coin	toy	out	how	few
noise	boy	trout	bow	new
join	joy	our	crowd	mew
toil	coy	loud	crown	drew
boil	Roy	found	co	crew

Phonics Principles

Activity 1. Place four or five familiar words that adhere to a particular phonics principle in columnar form on the board. Ask students to pronounce each word. Next, ask them what they notice about the sounds in each word — and then what they notice about the spelling. Lead them into discovering the principle and stating it in their own words. Finally, have them apply the principle to several other words. Examples for each principle follow.

Final e principle. *In short words or accented syllables containing a vowel letter followed by a consonant and final e, the vowel sound usually is the long sound generally associated with the first vowel letter.*

Words in column: *cake, mine, cute, ate, hose*

How are words alike in spelling? All have a single vowel followed by a consonant and final e.

How are words alike in sound? All have long sound of first vowel; no sound for e.

State the principle that you can use when you see similar words that you don't know. If I meet a short word ending in e that has another vowel followed by a consonant, only the long sound of the first vowel is heard.

Other words to which principle applies.

bake	Pete	write	note	rule
make	mete	time	stove	use
name	eve	line	close	fuse

Vowel digraph principle *In short words or accented syllables containing a vowel digraph, the vowel sound usually is the long sound generally associated with the first of the two letters.*

Words in column: *boat, meat, rain, pie, clean*

How are words alike in spelling? All have a vowel digraph (two vowel letters in sequence).

How are words alike in sound? All have long sound of first vowel; no sound for second vowel.

State the principle that you can use when you see similar words that you don't know. In a short word that has two vowel letters together, usually the first vowel says its name.

Other words to which principle applies.

coat	beat	train	tie	feed
float	treat	tail	die	seed
oak	team	aid	lie	creed

Consonant ending principle. *In a short word or accented syllable having a single vowel letter followed by a consonant, the vowel usually has the short sound.*

Words in column: *cat, red, cup, sit, top*

How are words alike in spelling? All end with a consonant letter and have a single vowel letter.

How are words alike in sound? All have a short vowel sound.

State the principle that you can use when you see similar words that you don't know. In a single vowel, consonant ending word, the vowel sound usually is short.

Other words to which principle applies.

as	bed	fix	stop	up
ask	get	win	cot	cut
bat	let	sit	hot	but

Vowel ending principle. *In a short word or accented syllable ending with a single vowel letter, the vowel sound usually is long.*

Words in column: *he, cry, she, go, hi*

How are words alike in spelling? All words end with a vowel letter.

How are words alike in sound? All vowel sounds are long.

State the principle that you can use when you see similar words that you don't know. In a syllable or a short word that ends with a vowel letter, the vowel sound is usually long.

Other words to which principle applies.

be	fly	paper	over	even
me	dry	able	open	ago
we	try	table	clover	also

***r* control principle.** *In a short word or accented syllable in which a vowel letter is followed by* r, *the vowel sound is neither long nor short: it has the vowel sound of* ir *(as in* fir*),* ar *(as in* far*) or* or *(as in* for*).*

Words in column: *her, fur, dirt, hurt, sir.*

How are words alike in spelling? All words contain a single vowel letter followed by *r*.

How are words alike in sound? All words have *er* (as in *fir*) sound.

State the principle that you can use when you see similar words that you don't know. In a short word or accented syllable that contains a single vowel letter followed by *r*, the sound unsually is *er*, as in *fir*.

Other words to which principle applies.

bird	girl	were	turtle	lurch
burst	hurt	person	birth	perch
first	urge	perfect	church	mirth

NOTE: The same pattern may be followed for *ar* or *or* words. Words to which the principle applies are these.

bar	hard	start	or	order
car	large	part	for	cord
far	mark	warm	nor	border

***a* followed by *l, u* or *w* principle.** *When the letter* a *is followed by* l, u, or w, *the vowel sound usually is* aw *as in* crawl.

Words in column: *paw, tall, saw, talk, caught*

How are words alike in spelling? All words contain the vowel letter *a* followed by *l, u* or *w*.

How are words alike in sound? All vowel sounds are *aw* as in *crawl*.

State the principle that you can use when you see similar words that you don't know. In words that contain *a* followed by *l, u* or *w*, the vowel sound usually is *aw* as in *crawl*.

Other words to which principle applies.

saw	walk	draw	almost	audience
small	all	fall	already	balk
talk	ball	fault	always	Paul

Soft c principle. *When* c *is followed by* e, i *or* y, *the* c *usually takes the soft sound* (s); *in other cases, it usually takes the hard sound* (k).

Words in column: *cell, city, cycle, citrus, cellar*

How are words alike in spelling? All words have the letter c followed by e, *i* or *y*.

State the principle that you can use when you see similar words that you don't know. When a word begins with c and the c is followed by e, *i* or *y*, the c has an s sound.

Other words to which principle applies.

cease	cement	cinder	civics	cymbal
cedar	cent	circle	civil	cypress
celery	center	citizen	cyclone	cylinder

Soft *g* principle. *When* g *is followed by* e, i *or* y, *the* g *usually takes the soft sound* (j); *in other cases, it usually takes the hard sound* (g).

Words in column: *gentle, ginger, gym, gypsy, giraffe*

How are words alike in spelling? All words have the letter *g* followed by e, *i* or *y*.

How are words alike in sound? All words begin with soft *g* sound.

State the principle that you can use when you see similar words that you don't know. When a word begins with *g* and the *g* is followed by e, *i* or *y*, the *g* has a *j* sound.

Other words to which principle applies.

gem	genuine	germ	gymnasium
general	Georgia	giant	gymnastics
generous	German	gigantic	gyrate
genius	geography	gibe	gyroscope

Activity 2. Write or select a paragraph containing several words adhering to a given phonics principle. Write the paragraph on the board or duplicate. Ask students to locate the words adhering to the principle and to draw a line around them. The principle may be reviewed before the activity or after it is completed. Care should be taken to rule out exceptions to the principle that may be contained in the paragraphs.

Activity 3. List in column form on the board or duplicate for student use groups of words that adhere to a given phonics principle with a few exceptions scattered among them. Ask students to draw a line around the words adhering to the principle. Then review the idea that the principle *usually* applies but that there are exceptions and that a principle should be used if the reader does not have a better cue. In the examples below, exceptions are underlined for your use. Delete lines when duplicating. Words that may be used are listed below.

five	ate	hope	one	late	make
game	give	bake	type	done	like
wrote	wipe	some	quite	love	mete
rain	would	real	weak	your	mean
float	toad	saint	road	foal	bread
meal	train	throat	boy	leaf	bead
has	all	dish	man	duck	ton
it	hat	her	drop	bed	did
land	jump	let	new	mud	nest
no	to	try	cry	me	ago
so	she	he	hi	we	also
be	go	who	fly	by	do
girl	fire	hard	hurt	father	where
far	are	first	large	tire	hardly
stir	or	here	curl	order	her
talk	alive	wall	fault	also	along
all	walk	pal	small	talcum	already
crawl	haul	Paul	brawl	always	audience
city	cease	cell	cinder	cedar	circus
cite	ceiling	coin	center	cite	cello
candy	cement	civil	cycle	cent	central
gem	giraffe	giant	get	guide	general
gym	give	girl	gentle	gigantic	gypsy
gist	gelatin	Georgia	gymnasium	German	gyrate

Syllabication

Activity 1. (Hearing syllables in words) Have students listen carefully as you say a word. Then ask them how many parts they hear in the word. Start with a single-syllable word and progress to words of three, four or five syllables that students know such as *apartment, automobile* and *insignificant.* Explain that a syllable is a part of a word that is pronounced as a unit — a part of a word that we hear. You may vary the practice by having students tap once for each syllable as you say the word. At a later time, you may develop the idea that each syllable contains one vowel sound (which may be represented by more than one vowel letter).

Activity 2. (Double consonant principle) Write in a column on the board four or five words that adhere to the double consonant principle. Words that may be used are *party, follow, perhaps, forbid, active.* Take words if possible from materials students are using for instruction. Have a volunteer pronounce each word, say the syllables, then tell the spelling of each syllable. Explain that there are two consonants between vowels and that the syllable division comes between the two consonants. Other words that may be used are these.

garage	whisper	perfect	problem	yellow	follow
better	carrot	uncle	maybe	appear	except
always	written	wonder	already	happen	invent

Activity 3. (Single consonant principle) Write in a column on the board four or five words that adhere to the single consonant principle. Words that may be used are *open, ruler, story, before, lower.* Have students read each word, say the syllables, then tell the spelling of each syllable. Explain that there is one consonant between vowels and that the syllable division comes *before* the consonant. Other words that may be used are these.

moment	favor	desire	mature	pecan	return
lazy	cubic	license	meter	predict	music
over	detect	labor	paper	revise	private

Activity 4. (Consonant plus *le* principle) Write in a column on the board four or five words that adhere to the consonant plus *le* principle. Words that may be used are *stable, maple, able, cable, circle*. Have students read each word, say the syllable and note that the final syllable is a consonant plus *le*. (At a later time, the *"pickle* exception" may be taught: If the *le* is preceded by *ck*, then the final syllable is the *le*.) Other words that may be used are these.

cuddle	people	marble	ripple	staple	miracle
turtle	middle	couple	rifle	stifle	example
uncle	noble	rankle	riddle	probable	candle

Accent

Activity 1. (Hearing accented syllables in words) Pronounce each of a list of familiar multisyllabic words and have students tell how many syllables each contains. As you pronounce each word again, have students tell you which syllable sounds the strongest. Explain that the syllable with the greatest force is the accented syllable. For added emphasis, you may have students tap out the syllables as you say other multisyllabic words, giving a heavier beat to the accented syllables.

Activity 2. (Teaching principles of accent) List on the board in a column four or five words to which a given principle applies. Explain that one particular syllable (first, next to last, last) is accented. Then help students discover common elements in all the words (first of two syllable word is accented, root is stressed or accent comes just before *sion* or *tion* ending). Have students state the principle that applies to the group of words.

This pattern may be used to teach any of the accent principles. However, instruction should be delayed until students know enough words from reading materials that adhere to a principle to warrant teaching the principle. You may wish to combine the teaching of accent with instruction in dictionary use.

Chapter 4

Dictionary Use Skills

Readers become independent in word recognition when they master the skills of dictionary use. These skills may be categorized into three clusters: location skills, pronunciation skills and meaning skills. Each cluster contains several subskills.

The dictionary is the most widely used of all reference books. Dictionaries contain words arranged in alphabetical order. In beginning dictionaries, three different types of information are provided for each word — spelling, pronunciation(s) and meanings. In more advanced dictionaries, information about parts of speech, word origin and status labels is also given.

Dictionaries may be abridged (a shortened version) or unabridged (the most complete available). Most dictionaries are abridged; unabridged versions are usually found only in libraries because of their size and cost. The *Webster's Third New International Dictionary* (1961) contains 450,000 entries, the *Random House Dictionary of the English Language* (1966) has 260,000 entries. School dictionaries range from a few thousand words at primary level to more than a hundred thousand in some secondary school dictionaries. The desk dictionary, of which *Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary* (English Edition) is an example, contains more than 150,000 entires.

The Skills

Location Skills

Among the earliest dictionary subskills to be taught are those related to locating entries. Location skills include the following.

Using alphabetical order to locate an entry word
Opening the dictionary near the entry word
Using guide words to locate an entry word
Selecting correct entry words to find run-on entries

A quick way to determine how well the student uses the dictionary to locate an entry is to ask him or her to find a word beyond the middle of the dictionary, such as a word beginning with *r, s* or *t*. Observe the student as he or she locates the word. Does he or she open the dictionary near the word? Are the guide words used to determine if the word is on each page or does the student skim each column and then go on to the next page? Next, have the student locate a word that is a run-on entry — one entered under another word as a derived form of a word (*shieldlike* under *shield*). Does the student know that derived forms of

words in some dictionaries are entries but may be run-on entries in other dictionaries? Check such words before using them with students to be certain that they are run-on entries rather than entries in the dictionary you are using.

Using **alphabetical order** to locate an entry word is the first location skill. Alphabetizing instruction usually starts at least by the middle of the first grade. Still, practice in using the alphabet to locate words in the dictionary should be continued far beyond the primary years. Some secondary students and adults are inept in this location skill. Many older students and adults also make errors in alphabetizing, especially if the task involves alphabetizing by the third letter or beyond.

Students should be able to identify capital and lower case letters prior to working on alphabetizing. The alphabet song may be used as a part of instruction. However, use of that technique alone — or any in which the alphabet is memorized from A to Z — will make students inefficient in alphabetizing. Even some adults, because of rote memory learning, have to back up a few letters to recall the letter that comes just before another near the middle of the alphabet. To test your own skill, think quickly of the letter that comes just before *l* — and now before *r*. If you backed up a few letters — as *i, j, k, l* or o, *p, q, r* — you too probably learned the alphabet by rote.

Instruction in alphabetizing should begin with a short segment of the alphabet, say with five or six letters, and much of the practice should involve words rather than letters alone. The first learning task involves placing the five scrambled words in alphabetical order (as *apple, baby, cat, dog, easy*), using an alphabet strip as a guide, and identifying the initial letter of each. The alphabet strip should be a small one the student can keep in his or her work area, rather than a large one stretched across the front of the classroom. After practicing several times with these five words , focus instruction on another segment (*f* through *j*), with an occasional review of all 10 words presented in scrambled order. Overlapping segments (as c through *g*) may also be used.

As soon as the student is able to alphabetize by first letters, then practice should begin on alphabetizing by second letters. Eventually, practice should involve alphabetizing by third letters. A limited amount of practice may also involve alphabetizing by letters beyond the third.

The second location skill is **opening the dictionary near the entry word** that the reader is seeking. The student who is slow and awkward in opening the dictionary is not likely to use the dictionary unless someone forces him or her to do so. For that reason, instruction on dictionary use must emphasize the importance of being thoroughly familiar with the dictionary for rapid location of entries. The reader should be able to

determine almost automatically the fourth of the dictionary that will contain a given entry. Though dictionaries will vary in size in accordance with their unique groups of words included and how much additional material they contain in the front and back, they are likely not to vary to any great extent.

The number of entries beginning with each of the 26 letters of the alphabet varies widely. For instance, in the Thorndike Barnhart *Beginning Dictionary* (Eighth Edition), 91 pages of words fall under the letter *s* and one-half page is devoted to *x* words. Numbers of words for other letters range in between these extremes. Sixty-one pages in the front of the *Beginning Dictionary* are devoted to teaching exercises on using the dictionary. Opening the dictionary one-fourth of the way will open to the letter *d* (or c-e), one-half to the letter *l* (or *k-m*), three-fourths to the letter *s* (or *r-t*).

To determine if a student needs help in opening the dictionary near the entry word being sought, give the student several words to locate one at a time, and observe him or her as the dictionary is opened. Words used should be scattered throughout the alphabet, as **syllabus, callous, manager** and **fellow.** This procedure also is a good one for instruction if the student is found to be deficient.

The third location skill involves the use of **guide words.** The student must know *what* the guide words are and where they are located in his or her particular dictionary. Finally, the student must have practice in using guide words to locate entries.

Guide words, in general, indicate the first and last entries on the page or on two adjacent pages, if the guide words cover a two-page spread as they do in many school dictionaries. In some adult dictionaries, the second of the pair of guide words may under some circumstances not be the very last entry on the page. When this occurs, it is close enough to the last entry to serve as a guide.

Set in bold type at the top of the page, guide words most frequently are placed flush left (for the first of the pair) and flush right (for the last of the pair), either on a single page or on a double page. In a few dictionaries the pair of guide words are presented flush left with a dash or other marking between the words.

The fourth location skill involves locating ***words listed under other words*** as a part of that entry. These words are of two types, run-on entries and inflected forms of words. Run-on entries, printed in bold type and preceded by a dash (as **-proudly** under **proud**), are most often derived forms of words involving suffixes. Occasionally, compound words and homographs (with different functional labels) may be run-on entries. Although inflected forms of words are not considered by most dictionaries to be run-on entries, locating them involves the same

process. Furthermore, some dictionaries do not use the term "run-on entry" but describe how different kinds of words are placed.

A quick check on skill in locating run-on words can be accomplished by asking the student to locate two or three words that are presented only as run-on entries, as **loyally, plainness** and **loglike**. Teacher observation or student report will reveal whether the student looks for the roots (**loyal, plain** and **log**) and then in the material presented under these words for the additional words. More help is needed if the student stumbles in the process.

Being able to locate entry words and words that are parts of other entries is necessary for the good reader. Intermediate and upper grade teachers are responsible for continuing instruction on these subskills and for giving corrective instruction when such help is needed.

Pronunciation skills

Another important area of dictionary subskills is using diacritical and accent markings to interpret phonetic respellings. The chapter on phonics and related skills presented information on accent as well as on sounds that letters and groups of letters represent.

If the English language had a one-to-one correspondence between sound and symbol, dictionary pronunciation information would need to indicate only syllabication and stress. However, English has more than 40 different sounds and only 26 letters to represent these sounds. Three of the letters (c, *q* and *x*) are not used in pronunciation respellings, necessitating the use of diacritical markings to help in distinguishing one sound from another.

The teacher should first determine which students already know about dictionary use skills, including pronunciation. An individual check on pronunciation skills can be carried out in one or two minutes per student, as outlined here. Present one of the following sentences to the student on a 3" x 5" card.

The *chasm* is wide.
He had a *queue* that kept getting caught in the wringer.
The boat docked at the *quay*.
A *scimitar* was hanging above the mantle.

Ask the student to look up the pronunciation of the italicized word. Observe as he or she checks the pronunciation. If students have no difficulty, they should be able to use the pronunciation key well. If they have difficulty, then more instruction is needed.

Many school dictionaries publish a complete pronunciation key in front and back inside covers and a less detailed key on every other page.

Though the pronunciation markings are alike in many respects, they do differ somewhat from dictionary to dictionary. Long vowel sounds are usually indicated by a macron (a bar) above the vowel letter, and in newer dictionaries short vowel sounds have no mark above the vowel letter. Older dictionaries used a breve to indicate short vowel sounds. The schwa symbol (ə) represents an indeterminate vowel sound in an unaccented syllable in most of the newer dictionaries; it also represents the short *u* sound (as in *up*) in an accented syllable in at least one recently published dictionary. Other vowel sounds vary considerably from dictionary to dictionary in how they are marked. Symbols for consonants are fairly constant from dictionary to dictionary. Teachers must be thoroughly familiar with the pronunciation marking systems in the school dictionaries and glossaries used in their instruction.

In the beginning of instruction in pronunciation key use, it is best to restrict instruction to one key. Such restriction becomes a little difficult if the classroom dictionary, the glossary in the basal reader and the spelling texts all have different pronunciation marking systems. After students are thoroughly familiar with one marking system, then dictionaries and glossaries with other marking systems may be introduced. In fact, students should at this stage be introduced to different pronunciation keys.

Meaning skills

Subskills involved in obtaining meanings through use of the dictionary include the following.

Knowing the kinds of information presented and arrangement of definitions in dictionary.

Selecting the appropriate definition from multiple meanings on the basis of context in which the word is encountered.

Interpreting word origin data.

Each of these subskills will be discussed. An additional subskill, interpretation of status labels on meanings, is presented in adult dictionaries.

Knowing what the dictionary contains and how definitions are arranged in a given dictionary is important. Dictionaries vary widely in the number of entry words included and in the extensiveness of the definitions given. Much of the variation may be attributed to the level of reader for whom the dictionary is intended. As indicated earlier, dictionaries will range from the school dictionary designed for beginners — where a limited number of entry words will be used and in which only a few of the most widely used meanings will be included —to the unabridged dictionary — which is *the* most extensive dictionary and includes almost a half-million entries.

School dictionaries contain definitions, occasional illustrative phrases and sentences, some drawings, indications of parts of speech and information on word origin. School dictionaries for higher levels also include synonyms, antonyms and status labels.

The order in which definitions are placed under an entry in the dictionary is not always explained in the introductory material. School dictionaries usually do not discuss the reason for the order. In some adult dictionaries, the order is determined on the basis of when it was first used, with the earliest known definition coming first. School dictionaries tend to arrange definitions in terms of frequency of use, with the most widely used definition coming first.

Illustrative phrases or sentences, when they are used, follow the definitions. Parts of speech are listed in various ways and are keyed to specific definitions.

In the case of homographs, two or more different words that are spelled alike, the word is entered as many times as there are different meanings. Examples are *mi nute', min' ute; fair, fair; jet, jet.*

Among the multiple definitions given for an entry is the one meaning that fits the context of the sentence of which the word is a part. The reader must select a likely possibility and then feed it into the sentence context to test its accuracy.

A cardinal principle in teaching dictionary use and vocabulary building is to teach word meanings in context. Very few words have single meanings, though beginning dictionaries restrict the number of meanings presented under a word. Neither teacher nor student would know how to respond if asked to define *set* or *well*. Is it like a *set* of dishes, letting the concrete *set*, to *set* something on the table or any one of another 200 meanings of the word that can be found in an unabridged dictionary? Is it like a *well* from which water is drawn, like a person feels *well* or like "Oh, *well*"? Without the context, a response would be sheer guessing.

School dictionaries are explicit in presenting information about word origin. However, beginning school dictionaries usually limit word origin information to a very small number of entries, such as *astronaut, bayonet* and *ostrich*. The word origin information is presented usually at the end of the entry. Exceptions occur if the information is for a run-on entry and follows that entry. This pattern of course might vary among dictionaries.

Since meaning is at the heart of both reading and dictionary use, heavy instructional emphasis should be placed on obtaining word meaning from the dictionary.

Location Skills

Activity 1. (Alphabetizing) Place one or more of the columns of words on the board and have students arrange the words in each column in alphabetical order.

cat	jam	queen	uncle	carbide	integrity
ever	is	over	wind	crash	integral
able	look	ring	top	cinder	insurance
good	new	up	your	carwash	insurgent
dog	have	set	very	cattle	insurrection
big	mice	pool	x ray	conduit	intense
fox	king	take	zero	crinkle	integer

Activity 2. (Opening the dictionary) Ask students to answer each question and then check their answers by opening dictionaries in line with the questions.

- If you were to open the dictionary in half, to what letter would you turn?
- If you were to open the dictionary one-fourth of the way from the front, to what letter would you turn?
- If you were to open the dictionary three-fourths of the way from the front, to what letter would you turn?

Activity 3. (Using guide words) Duplicate this activity for pupil use.

In each column below, guide words for pages in a dictionary are presented, and under each pair of guide words are six other words. If a word is located on the page represented by the guide words, place a check mark by it. If it comes on the page before, write *B* in the blank. If it comes after, write *A* in the blank.

convert - cool	*human - hunch*	*occasion - ode*	*see - seam*
consumer ___	hug _____	old _____	seadog _____
coop _____	hump _____	owl _____	self _____
convex _____	ham _____	occupant ___	seed _____
cook _____	hurt _____	ocean _____	slick _____
cobbler ___	humor _____	odd _____	suit _____
convoy _____	hold _____	obtain _____	Sam _____

Activity 4. (Locating run-on entries and inflected forms) Duplicate this activity for pupil use.

Write an *E* (entry) in blanks beside words that are likely to be entry words in a school dictionary. Write an *R* (run-on) or *I* (inflected form) in blanks beside words that are likely to be parts of other entries in a school dictionary.

pamphlet	____	duchesses	____	backward	____
harried	____	ration	____	bluer	____
insight	____	influenced	____	guidance	____
messes	____	hardiest	____	grinned	____
maker	____	pant	____	remedies	____

Meaning Skills

Activity 1. (Selecting correct meaning) Duplicate or write on the board sentences using the same word with a different meaning in each sentence. Have students find in a dictionary the number of the definition of the word that fits its use in the sentence. The examples below use the word *well*.

He drew water from the *well*.
I hope you get *well* soon.
You did the job quite *well*.
She ate a steak that was *well* done.
We made *well* over a hundred paper flowers.
We couldn't very *well* refuse to go.
Shake it *well* before you drink it.

Activity 2. (Selecting correct meaning) Duplicate this activity for pupil use.

In each sentence, use your dictionary to find the number of the definition (and the number of the entry if applicable) of the underlined word that fits its use.

Entry _____ Definition ___ 1. Billy certainly is *set* in his ways.

Entry _____ Definition ___ 2. The concrete will *set* soon.

Entry _____ Definition ___ 3. You're looking *sharp* today.

Entry _____ Definition ___ 4. This knife blade is *sharp*.

Entry _____ Definition ___ 5. She pulled out the *stop* on the organ.

Activity 3. (Selecting correct meaning) Duplicate this activity for student use.

In the sentences below, define each word in the space provided as it is used in the sentence.

The homing signal was *beamed* to the North. _____
The flashlight *beam* hit the tower. _____
When she heard the news, she *beamed*. _____

Hand me a *bar* of soap. _____
Don't *bar* my path. _____
This book is the best, *bar* none. _____
Children are *barred* from attendance. _____

Are you all *set* to go? _____
Sam will *set* the table. _____
It was *set* to music. _____

Activity 4. (Selecting correct meaning) Duplicate this activity for student use.

Using your dictionary, determine the number of the definition for each italicized word as it is used in the sentence. Enter that number in the space provided.

____ She ate a *bar* of candy.

____ Did you *set* the table?

____ A message was *beamed* that all was safe.

____ I don't feel so *well*.

____ The hillside was *bare*.

____ You may *serve* the meal now.

____ He honked the *horn* of the automobile.

____ We need fresh *mounts*.

____ You stepped on my *foot*.

____ She didn't *dim* her lights.

Pronuncing Skills

Activity 1. (Using pronunciation key) Duplicate this activity for student use.

Pronounce each word given below. Go to the dictionary for help if you feel that you need to do so.

1. hungk
2. kun´ trē
3. kə rā´ jəs
4. kām
5. his tir´ ē ə
6. nelt
7. ri dūs´
8. ri zult´
9. skôrn
10. tôk
11. sėr´ kəs
12. sit´rəs
13. puls
14. sēt
15. sē´ sīd´
16. si kyůr´
17. trub´ l
18. vizh´ ən
19. dāz
20. fůt

Activity 2. (Using pronunciation respelling) Duplicate this activity for students.

Pronounce each word. Then look up the word in the dictionary and write the pronunciation respelling in the space provided.

1. solemn _____
2. calm _____
3. climb _____
4. silent _____
5. schism _____
6. literature _____
7. dictionary _____
8. err _____
9. honor _____
10. humor _____
11. salmon _____
12. hymn _____
13. garage _____
14. alone _____
15. height _____
16. women _____
17. schwa _____
18. doubt _____
19. bleat _____
20. government _____

Chapter 5

Initial Teaching Levels for Word Recognition Skills

Very few teachers know enough about all of the word recognition skills to depend upon themselves alone for the scope and sequencing of the skills. Many teachers need a blueprint for guidance in teaching the word recognition skills. For teachers who use basal readers in instruction, the series scope and sequence chart serves such a purpose. It details what is to be taught and the order in which skills should be introduced.

A comparison of several scope and sequence charts from different publishers will reveal some differences in skills taught and in the difficulty levels at which they are introduced. Knowledge of how the scopes and sequences of basal reader series are developed helps to explain the differences. The authors and editors involved in preparing a series use their collective judgments in deciding, first, upon the skills to be included, and then upon the grade levels at which initial instruction should occur. Many factors influence the placement of skills. They include research findings; logic (with simple skills involved in a more complex skill coming first — as short vowel sounds before phonics principles involving short sounds); the skill load of a particular level (with skills distributed so no level is over- or underloaded); the selections and vocabulary in the pupil text (with skills placement being somewhat dependent upon the selection containing words that can be used to teach the skill); the personal preferences of the authors and editors and, occasionally, tradition.

The listing of skills offered here is based upon the reworking of a scope and sequence previously prepared by the writer. The original list was influenced greatly by a study of the scopes and sequences of eight series of basal readers. It also was influenced by a review of 1980-1981 scope and sequence charts of five new series of basal readers, although the list is not based upon any of these lists.

The list may be used by teachers who are using a language experience approach or an individualized reading approach, in which help is needed to teach important word recognition skills in a sequence that lends itself to ease of instruction and learning. The list, of course, would need to be supplemented with a list of other reading skills such as comprehension, reading-study and literary. Teachers who use basal readers would do well to follow the scope and sequences of the series they are using rather than adopting a new one, unless they are dissatisfied with the program being used.

In the listing below, difficulty levels use the traditional labels. For instance, the first reader level should be appropriate for typical students in the second half of the first grade. It would be too difficult for some students, too easy for some and appropriate for the average achievers. The first semester of the second grade would be appropriate for the typical pupils in the first half of the second grade, and so on. The listing goes through third grade level only because most word recognition skills are introduced by that time, with the exception of some of the more advanced dictionary skills. Some of those skills that were introduced earlier, such as prefixes and suffixes, are expanded considerably at levels above grade three.

Readiness

Using picture clues for meaning

Hearing likenesses/differences in words

Seeing likenesses/differences in pictures, forms, letters and words

Hearing initial consonants in words

Learning sight words

Using context clues for meaning and pronunciation

Learning letter names

Associating initial consonant letters with sounds

Preprimer

Practicing/expanding skills previously introduced

Hearing final consonants in words

Adding *s* to known nouns (*cat, cats*)

Adding *s* to known verbs (*jump, jumps*)

Associating final consonant letters with sounds

Adding *ed* (*jump, jumped*) to verbs

adding *ing* (*go, going*) to verbs

Associating initial consonant blends (*black, try*) with sounds

Associating initial consonant digraphs (*she, this*) with sounds

Primer

Practicing/expanding skills previously introduced

Recognizing compound words (*baseball*)

Recognizing contractions (*don't*)

Using initial consonant substitutions

Associating final consonant digraphs (bo*th*, ra*ng*) with sounds

Associating final consonant blends (bris*k*, thi*nk*) with sounds

Recognizing es in nouns and verbs (*foxes, fixes*)

First Reader

Practicing/expanding skills previously introduced

Using final consonant substitutions

Associating vowel letters with short vowel sounds (c*a*t, *b*ig)

Associating vowel letters with long vowel sounds (*he*, *go*)

Associating vowel digraphs (*boat, rain*) with sounds

Understanding final e principle (*like*)

Alphabetizing by first letter

Second Reader, First Semester

Practicing/expanding skills previously introduced

Recognizing suffixes (*lively, rainy*)

Understanding *r* controller principle (*fir*)

Understanding ending consonant principle (c*a*t)

Understanding ending vowel principle (*he*)

Understanding doubling final consonant principle (*hopping*)

Understanding dropping final e principle (*loving*)

Recognizing *er, est* of comparison (*taller, tallest*)

Understanding *y* changed to *i* principle (*cried, flies*)

Second Reader, Second Semester

Practicing/expanding skills previously introduced

Recognizing prefixes (*rework*)

Associating diphthongs (*toy, oil*) with sounds

Alphabetizing by second letter

Understanding soft c principle (*city*)

Understanding soft *g* principle (*gem*)

Hearing syllables in words

Hearing accent in words

Third Reader, First Semester

Practicing/expanding skills previously introduced

Understanding consonant plus *le* syllabication principle (*cable*)

Understanding *f* changed to v principle (*knives*)

Alphabetizing by third letter

Using guide words in glossary/dictionary

Using pronunciation spellings/key in dictionary

Third Reader, Second Semester

Practicing/expanding skills previously introduced

Using accent marks in glossary/dictionary

Locating correct dictionary entry word in inflected and derived word forms

Word Recognition Inventory

A teacher can usually assess a student's knowledge of word recognition skills in five minutes or less with a word recognition inventory like the one presented here. Each student is tested individually. The teacher should prepare a set of cards with each of the 17 sections on a separate card. Items nine, 11, 15 and 17 may be placed on two or three cards. Words should be printed in column form.

The student should be seated to the teacher's left (to the right if the teacher is left-handed) to keep the recording on the inventory sheet away from the student. The card is shown to the student and he or she is asked the question on the inventory sheet. The cards, rather than an inventory sheet, are used so the student can be given only those parts on which he or she is to be tested.

The numbers in brackets by each section indicates the lowest reading difficulty level at which the section should be used. A student should not be tested on skills he has not been taught. The cards also permit the teacher to shorten the testing process on items nine, 11, 15 and 17 where multiple cards are used. If the student does poorly on the first card or extremely well, the teacher does not need to continue on that skill, as that is all the information needed.

The cards should be numbered on the reverse side to match the numbers on the inventory, as *1* for letter names, *2* for context clues and so on. If two cards of 10 items each are prepared for item nine, 9A may be placed on the back of the first and 9B on the back of the second. The same pattern may be used for items 11, 15 (three cards) and 17 (three cards).

Teachers may work out their own patterns of recording, or suggestions given here may be followed. Put an X on the letter of any item missed. On item 14, the X should be placed on any of the four subskills listed to the right (location of section and so on) on which performance is poor.

When the inventory is completed, the teacher should look for strengths and weaknesses. Special instruction may be given to correct weaknesses noted. However, care should be taken to avoid expecting students to know some skill they have not been taught — either because it is at a higher difficulty level than where they read or because the skill is not one taught in their program. In terms of the latter, teachers may modify the inventory to fit their programs. For instance, if vowel principles are not included in their programs, section 12 (vowel principles) should be omitted.

Word Recognition Inventory

Date _____ Name _____

1. **Letter names.** What are these letters? (Name these letters.) [1]

D K G N F M C H B J Q S V A X I P Y U E L O T Z R W

t l e y n k r o u p b c f m v a s q u x j g h d w z

2. **Context clues.** What word is missing in this sentence? [2]

A. The boy played _____. The boy played b _____.
B. She ran up the _____. She ran up the st _____.

3. **Compound words.** From what two words is each word made? [2]

A.	henhouse	F.	basketball
B.	grandfather	G.	cowpony
C.	somebody	H.	everything
D.	airport	I.	snowstorm
E.	afternoon	J.	password

4. **Contractions.** From what words is each contraction made? [2]

A.	can't	F.	that's
B.	don't	G.	I'll
C.	I'm	H.	you've
D.	let's	I.	wouldn't
E.	didn't	J.	he'd

5. **Roots in inflected forms of words — no change in root.** What ending was added? [2]

A.	cats	F.	boxes
B.	sees	G.	boy's
C.	drying	H.	lightest
D.	mailed	I.	harder
E.	nearer	J.	dogs'

6. **Roots in inflected forms of words — change in root.** What ending was added? What change occured in the root? What does the ending mean? [2]

A.	tried	F.	patted
B.	hiding	G.	thinnest
C.	cities	H.	hoped
D.	fatter	I.	knives
E.	dries	J.	leaves

7. **Prefixes.** What is the prefix in each word? What does it mean? [3/2]

A. unequal
B. unlike
C. rewrite
D. rebuild
E. pretest
F. preview
G. dislike
H. disagree
I. foresee
J. foretell

8. **Suffixes.** What is the suffix in each word? What does it mean? [2/2]

A. slowly
B. brightly
C. careful
D. watchful
E. snowy
F. cloudy
G. eighth
H. sixth
I. worker
J. farmer

9. **Initial consonants.** Pretend these are real words. Say each word. How does it sound at the beginning? [1]

A. bek
B. cul
C. dak
D. fon
E. gak
F. hif
G. jod
H. kan
I. lon
J. min
K. nust
L. pib
M. quet
N. rok
O. saf
P. tuf
Q. vus
R. wiz
S. yub
T. zor

10. **Consonant digraphs.** Pretend these are real words. Say each word. [1]

A. shub
B. thet
C. wrah
D. chon
E. whel
F. phin
G. pnet
H. gnure

11. **Consonant blends.** Pretend these are words. What is each word? [1]

A. brin
B. blom
C. fre
D. glat
E. gruk
F. cros
G. skap
H. slib
I. prek
J. quok
K. flan
L. cret
M. snun
N. stap
O. swen

12. **Vowel principles.** Pretend these are real words. What is each word? [2]

A.	gome	G.	staw
B.	blike	H.	dal
C.	tas	I.	cyn
D.	rek	J.	cid
E.	bla	K.	gyd
F.	flo	L.	gik

13. **Long/short vowel sounds.** Is the vowel sound long or short? [2]

A.	just	F.	hate
B.	mat	G.	get
C.	ride	H.	rode
D.	hot	I.	bid
E.	Pete	J.	cute

14. **Dictionary use — overall use.** Find each word in the dictionary. Give its pronunciation and meaning. (If performance good, remaining sections not needed.) [4]

A. The king raised his *scepter*.
B. The boat drifted toward the *quay*.

Location of section _____
Using guide words _____
Using pronunciation key _____
Giving meaning _____

15. **Dictionary use — alphabetizing.** Arrange in alphabetical order. [3]

watch	_____	nothing	_____	drop	_____
apple	_____	paddle	_____	duet	_____
fast	_____	mind	_____	dune	_____
dog	_____	orange	_____	drive	_____
green	_____	mile	_____	dime	_____

16. **Dictionary use — opening the dictionary.** [3]

If you were to open the dictionary in half, to what letter would you turn?_____ One-fourth of the way in?_____ Three-fourths of the way in?_____

17. **Dictionary use — guide words.** Guide words are given at the top of each column. For each word tell whether it comes on the page, before the page or after the page. [3]

livid - lodge		**naughty - neck**		**hemp-hiccup**	
lizard	_____	neat	_____	hickory	_____
log	_____	nature	_____	hermit	_____
loath	_____	navy	_____	helpful	_____
liver	_____	need	_____	hibernate	_____
lobby	_____	nearby	_____	herd	_____

18. **Dictionary use — phonetic respelling interpretation.** Pronounce each of these phonetically spelled words. [4]

_____1. bungk	_____5. tôk	_____ 9. wāz
_____2. kə ra´ jes	_____6. wer´ kərz	_____10. rü´ mē
_____3. nēl	_____7. poiz	
_____4. hir bī´	_____8. ri sī´ tl	

Summary Comments on Word Recognition Instruction

A few important ideas for the reading teacher to keep in mind are the following:

- Word recognition skills are important parts of the reading process because they are necessary for understanding and appreciation.
- The learner should be taught a variety of word recognition skills as well as how to select the most appropriate techniques or strategies for given situations.
- Recognizing words is more than just being able to pronounce them; some degree of meaning must be involved.
- The reader should develop word recognition skills to the point that they become automatic.
- Readers should spend no more time than is absolutely necessary in recognizing a word; they should "get in and get out" as quickly as possible with the meaning.
- Reading materials — such as basal reader series — vary in their suggestions for teaching word recognition skills; some materials from different publishers may be quite similar whereas others are quite different.
- Scope and sequence charts vary widely among published materials.
- Auditory discrimination is an essential base for phonics.
- If supplementary phonics materials are used, they should be compatible with the phonics approach and techniques in core materials. Predominantly synthetic phonic materials should not be used to supplement predominantly analytic core materials, and vice versa.
- Key words and examples used in vowel instruction should be words pronounced accurately by the students being taught.
- A dictionary should be kept nearby for quick reference when a question arises about the accuracy of some aspect of phonics instruction.
- The teacher must know the word recognition skills in order to teach them effectively.

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Glossary

Accent: Greater emphasis given a syllable within a word (TEA-cher, a-BOUT). Stress words may also have primary and secondary accent (COM-pli-CATE — where primary accent is COM and secondary accent is CATE).

Accented syllable: Stressed syllable within a word.

Affix: Prefixes or suffixes.

Analytic phonics: A phonics approach in which the whole word is analyzed in parts; from whole word to sound elements within the word.

Auditory discrimination: Process of distinguishing between or among sounds.

Auditory Perception: Hearing sounds, being aware of sounds.

Blending: Auditorily or visually putting syllables (or letters) together into a word (or word part).

Bound morpheme: A morpheme (meaning element) that must be combined with another morpheme because it cannot form a word by itself (as *ed* in *called*, *s* in *birds*); inflectional endings, prefixes and suffixes.

Compound: Word made of two or more smaller words. Three types: two or more words combined into one word (*henhouse, Mayday*); hyphenated form (*double-park, man-at-arms*); two or more words (*ice cream, dining room*).

Consonant: A speech sound made by blocking the flow of the breath with the tongue, lips, or teeth or some combination of these. Letter that stands for a consonant sound.

Consonant blend: A sound made by blending together two or more consonant sounds so that traces of both sounds remain, as *bl* in blue, *str* in *street*, *dw* in *dwell*. Letters representing consonant blend.

Consonant digraph: Two adjacent consonant letters representing one consonant sound, as *ck* in *back*, *sh* in *shine*, *th* in *three*.

Consonant letter: Any one of 21 letters, *b, c, d, f, g, h, j, k, l, m, n, p, q, r, s, t, v, w, x, y, z*. Letter representing a consonant sound.

Consonant substitution: Replacing a consonant sound with another in a familiar word in order to identify an unknown word, as *h* for *d* in *dull* to identify *hull* (initial substitution) or *b* for *t* in *cut* to identify *cub* (final substitution).

Context clue: A clue for decoding an unfamiliar word from other words in a phrase, sentence or longer selection. Semantic or syntactic clues to meaning.

Contraction: Two words made into one by replacing one or more letters with an apostrophe, as *don't, we'll, couldn't*.

Derived form: Word form made of root plus prefix or suffix, as *lovely, teacher, unlike, rework*, where addition of prefix or suffix to a root word has changed the word meaning; the new word is derived from another word.

Diacritical mark: Mark placed over or next to a letter in a glossary or dictionary to indicate how it should be pronounced or accented.

Diphthong: Two vowel sounds blended together in a single syllable, as oy in boy.

Free morpheme: A morpheme (meaning element) that may stand alone (*big* or *big*); a word.

Grammar: A description of how words are used in language; rules telling how words are used in sentences in a given language, as English.

Grapheme: A letter or letters representing a single phoneme, as the three graphemes in *cat*, the three graphemes in *back*, and the two graphemes in *toe*.

Graphophonics: A term used by some linguists to refer to letter-sound relationships.

Inflected form: Word form in which an ending is added to indicate change in use, grammatical changes as in number (*s* in *boys*), tense (*ed* in *looked*), case (*'s* in *girl's* to show possession), comparison (*er* or *est* in *larger* or *largest*).

Inflectional ending: The ending (as *ed, s, 's, es, er, est, ing*) added to a word to show selected inflectional changes (case, number, tense, comparison).

Morpheme: Smallest meaning element in language structure, as *book* and *s* in *books* or *call* and *ed* in *called*.

Picture clue: A clue to the recognition of an unfamiliar word from a picture accompanying the selection that contains the word.

Phoneme: Smallest unit of speech in a language that has meaning, smallest speech unit that distinguishes one spoken word (or utterance) from another.

Phoneme-grapheme correspondence: Sound-symbol association; association of a phoneme and the grapheme that represents it.

Phonemics: Language structure in terms of phonemes; study of phonemes.

Phonetic analysis: Another term for phonics; analysis of a word in terms of the sounds of its elements.

Phonetics: Study and classification of sounds in speech.

Phonics: Sound-symbol association, using sound-symbol association as aids in recognizing words.

Phonics principles: Generalizations about sound-symbol associations that are taught to help readers in recognizing words.

Prefix: Unit of one or more syllables added to a word beginning to make a new word, as *un* added to *lock* to make *unlock* or *re* added to *test* to make *retest*.

Root: Word in its simplest form; a base word.

Scope and sequence chart: Listing of skills by levels and in instructional sequence in a basal reader series.

Semantic clue: A clue to the recognition of an unfamiliar word from the general meaning of the sentence or paragraph; a meaning clue.

Sight vocabulary: Words recognized instantly by a person.

Sight Word: (1) Same as sight vocabulary; (2) also may be word taught as whole word (showing word *dog* and then telling pupil what it is).

Spelling pattern: Letter sequence in printed word that represents spoken sounds.

Stem: Part of word to which inflectional ending or suffix is added, as *look* in *looked* or *spi* in *spies*, may or may not be same as root.

Structural analysis: Identifying word through use of roots, inflectional endings contractions or compounds.

Syllabication: Dividing a word into syllables.

Syllabication principles: Generalizations that aid reader in breaking words into syllables.

Syllable: Pronunciation unit in a word; uninterrupted pronunciation unit part seen or heard in a word.

Syntax: Word patterns in phrases, clauses and sentences.

Syntactical clue: A clue from the sentence syntax that restricts the meaning of an unfamiliar word, as in knowing that an unfamiliar word must be a noun or some other part of speech because of its location in the sentence.

Synthetic phonics: A phonics approach in which the parts are blended into a whole word; from sounds (parts) to whole word.

Visual discrimination: Process of distinguishing among objects, forms, letters or words.

Visual perception: Awareness of something that is seen.

Vowel: A speech sound which is made with no blocking of the flow of breath as the sound is uttered.

Vowel digraph: Two vowel letters representing one vowel sound, as *oa* in *boat* and *ai* in *rail*.

Vowel letter: Any one of five letters, *a*, e, *i*, o, *u*, and sometimes *w* (as in *how, few*) and *y* (as in *by, happy*); letter representing vowel sound.

Word analysis: Analyzing unfamiliar words in terms of their structure and sound elements for word recognition.

Word identification: Meaning sometimes limited to decoding unfamiliar words; used interchangeably with word recognition.

Word perception: Same as word recognition.

Word recognition: Process of decoding unfamiliar and recalling known words through use of one or some combination of all the skills discussed in this guide.

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