

*This book is dedicated to the students and teachers who learn from and teach each other in multilingual classrooms. We learn from you in the process.*

**Library of Congress Cataloging-in-Publication Data**

Words their way with English learners : word study for phonics, vocabulary, and spelling instruction / Donald R. Bear . . . [et al.].

p. cm.

Includes bibliographical references and index.

ISBN 0-13-191567-3

1. English language--Study and teaching--Foreign speakers. 2. English language--Orthography and spelling--Study and teaching (Elementary) 3. Vocabulary--Study and teaching (Elementary) 4. Word recognition. 5. Reading--Phonetic method. I. Bear, Donald R. II. Title.

PE1128.A2W667 2007

372.652'1044--dc22

2006021813

**Vice President and Executive Publisher:** Jeffery W. Johnston

**Senior Editor:** Linda Ashe Bishop

**Senior Development Editor:** Hope Madden

**Senior Production Editor:** Mary M. Irvin

**Senior Editorial Assistant:** Laura Weaver

**Design Coordinator:** Diane C. Lorenzo

**Cover Designer:** Ali Mohrman

**Cover Image:** SuperStock

**Production Manager:** Pamela D. Bennett

**Director of Marketing:** David Gesell

**Marketing Manager:** Darcy Betts Prybella

**Marketing Coordinator:** Brian Mounts

This book was set in Palatino by Carlisle Communications, Ltd. It was printed and bound by Banta Book Group. The cover was printed by Phoenix Color Corp.

Chapters and figures in this book have been adapted for use in this book from materials that originally appeared in *Words Their Way: Word Study for Phonics, Vocabulary, and Spelling Instruction*, First, Second, and Third Editions, by Donald R. Bear, Marcia Invernizzi, Shane Templeton, and Francine Johnston, copyright © 1996, 2000, 2004 by Pearson Education, Inc.

---

**Copyright © 2007 by Pearson Education, Inc., Upper Saddle River, New Jersey 07458.** Pearson Prentice Hall. All rights reserved. Printed in the United States of America. This publication is protected by Copyright and permission should be obtained from the publisher prior to any prohibited reproduction, storage in a retrieval system, or transmission in any form or by any means, electronic, mechanical, photocopying, recording, or likewise. For information regarding permission(s), write to: Rights and Permissions Department.

**Pearson Prentice Hall™** is a trademark of Pearson Education, Inc.

**Pearson®** is a registered trademark of Pearson plc

**Prentice Hall®** is a registered trademark of Pearson Education, Inc.

**Merrill®** is a registered trademark of Pearson Education, Inc.

Pearson Education Ltd.

Pearson Education Singapore Pte. Ltd.

Pearson Education Canada, Ltd.

Pearson Education—Japan

Pearson Education Australia Pty. Limited

Pearson Education North Asia Ltd.

Pearson Educación de México, S.A. de C.V.

Pearson Education Malaysia Pte. Ltd.



10 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1  
ISBN: 0-13-191567-3

# Word Study with English Learners and the Development of Orthographic Knowledge

1

## UNDERSTANDING WORD STUDY WITH ENGLISH LEARNERS

**R**alph Emerson compared language to a city, and in the building of this city, every human being brings a stone (Emerson, 1895). Similarly, in organizing classroom instruction, educators build on the language and literacy students bring with them.

Phonics, vocabulary, and spelling activities for English learners of all ages and literacy levels should be guided by a developmental perspective, always valuing the knowledge that students bring with them from their background languages and experiences. Young, emergent-level English learners study sounds and letters, rhymes, and beginning sounds. At the other end of the developmental continuum, English learners who are advanced, mature readers use their literacy in one language to make meaningful connections with English roots, affixes, and cognates. (Cognates are words in different languages that share similar meanings and similar spellings.)

The word study activities in this book expand and deepen students' word knowledge and vocabularies. Many of the examples are from Spanish speakers, who comprise the largest group of English learners in U.S. schools, but examples are also drawn from a variety of other language groups learning English. When possible, commonalities and contrasts among the different languages are presented. For example, the final /d/ and /t/ sounds are omitted among English learners from several languages, including Spanish and Thai, as well as many dialects of English. Knowing about these commonalities makes it possible to focus on the same skill with students from different language backgrounds.

The word study activities in this book support oral and written language development, particularly in the area of vocabulary learning. For example, the pictures in the concept sorts are a vehicle for discussions that involve students in using new vocabulary. When students read a series of words aloud to check their sorting, they hear and experience ways to pronounce the letters. And during instruction for pronunciation, teachers use the sorts to read aloud for practice. Reading a set of prefixes in English, such as words with *re-* and *in-*, and looking for meaning connections, give support to words students are learning to pronounce and understand. At the upper levels of word study, students learn a more technical, content-oriented vocabulary as they compare Greek-Latin connections in English and their home language.

## Who Are the Students We Teach?

The percentage of students from diverse language backgrounds is growing dramatically in U.S. schools. You may be one of the many teachers working to adjust your literacy teaching methods to build on the strengths and meet the needs of English learners in your classroom. This text is written for you.

### *Instruction in Multilingual and Multiliterate Contexts*

Students who are English learners grow up in multilingual and multiliterate contexts and experience different learning scenarios in American schools. Some English learners are able to participate in **bilingual programs** that allow them to develop their literacy skills in their home language while learning to speak, read, and write in English. Other programs involve specially tailored instruction to support students as they tackle content in all-English settings. In some schools, “newcomer” programs provide an initial setting for helping English learners transition into the new cultural and academic content of their schools. Recent research findings have pointed out that English learners who do not receive language support in school show much less progress in reading and math achievement when compared to similar students who participate in language support programs such as bilingual education or **sheltered English** (August & Shanahan, 2006; Genesse, Lindholm-Leary, Saunders & Christian, 2005; Slavin & Cheung, 2003; Thomas & Collier, 2002).

Perhaps in your classroom you have just a few English learners who need support with academic language. Perhaps your classroom consists predominantly of students who do not speak English as a first language. Maybe your English-learning students all come from one language background, such as Spanish. Or possibly your school works with students from dozens of primary languages. All of these scenarios commonly exist in elementary and secondary classrooms in the United States. Students may be the children of immigrants, or they may have themselves just arrived from another country. Some English learners may have a strong language and literacy background in their home language, and they may have studied English before arriving. Some students come to the U.S. classroom with few or no print-related experiences because they have not attended school before, or they may come from a culture that is primarily oral in its use of language.

## What Do Students Bring to Learning to Read in English?

Teachers need to know what students bring to their learning. Over the school year, when you meet with your English learners, you will want to discuss their English learning. At other times, you will ask students to write about their learning and then discuss one of their key points during a conversation. This will allow you to capture your students’ thinking.

Research has helped to capture students’ thinking about how they are learning to read and write in English (Jiménez, García & Pearson, 1996; Kenner, Kress, Al-Khatib, Kam, & Tsai, 2004). Students said things that you will probably hear from your students. One teacher recently shared insights from her work. Students were asked to write and then talk about what was hard about learning to read and write. Dang, who speaks Hmong and was born in the United States, wrote I THINK THAT HOW TO SPELL LONGER WORDS ARE HARDER. (How to spell longer words are harder.) Dang may have been saying that he was proficient with single-syllable and easy two-syllable words, and his writing reveals this. His **spelling inventory** (see Chapter 2) indicated that he was in the latter part of the within word pattern stage of spelling. In his misspelling of *spell* as *SPEU*, the lack of the final *ll* may be attributed to the difficulty he may have in pronouncing the /l/ sound.

#### **Bilingual Programs**

Bilingual programs encourage literacy development in students’ home languages and in English.

#### **Sheltered English**

Sheltered English is an approach to instruction that provides additional support for students learning English by simplifying language, defining vocabulary, and providing time for students to discuss content-area studies.

#### **Spelling Inventory**

A carefully designed spelling assessment used to determine what students know about words and their structures.

Mark, who also speaks Hmong and was born in the United States, wrote PANOSS WORDS OUT. (Pronounce words out.) Mark was slightly less proficient than Dang in reading and spelling, but near enough in development for he and Dang to be in the same group. Mark did not spell the /r/ sound, which typifies the difficulty he may experience in grade-level reading and writing. In small groups the study of the /r/ and /l/ sounds will help both students' understanding of the words, their vocabularies, and the way they pronounce the words.

### ***Four Steps to Plan Word Study Instruction with English Learners***

Four steps can be followed to plan word study instruction (see Figure 1-1). These steps are based on what students bring to the teaching situation. Throughout this book, we will help you learn how to put these steps into action.

**1. Compare oral languages.** What languages do students speak? What are the basic characteristics of those languages? What sounds and linguistic structures exist in their home languages, but not in English? English can be compared to other languages in several ways: through phonology, the sounds of the language; phonetics, how the sounds are produced with air passing through the throat and mouth; morphology, how words are structured; semantics, meanings of words and vocabularies; and syntax, how words are ordered into sentences. In the instructional chapters of this book, word study activities compare sounds and words in ways that provide some of the language contrasts students need in order to learn new words and concepts in English.

Students' languages may be compared with English to find the syntactic differences and similarities. For example, certain English grammatical structures may be so different that it helps to have students practice the new constructions. In the area of phonology, the sound system, there are sounds in English that do not exist in students' primary languages. If a sound in English does not exist in a student's primary language, look for what she or he substitutes. In most cases, English learners make substitutions based on a close match. For example, Arabic does not have a /p/ sound and many Arabic speakers substitute a /b/ for /p/ in English. The use of specific phonics and phonemic awareness activities that highlight these comparisons at the appropriate time is worthwhile.

**2. Compare written languages.** What is the structure of the home writing system? Consider the directionality of the writing: Does the writing run left to right, right to left, top to bottom? Notice how the sounds are spelled: Is the writing system an alphabet, characters (as in Chinese), or a Romanization of pronunciation (as in Vietnamese)? It is helpful for you as a teacher to learn what consonant and vowel sounds exist and know what letters are used to spell different vowel sounds. If it is a character writing system, what are the properties of the characters or the different parts of characters? Do they represent sound or meaning? Have conversations with students about their home languages and literacies, and as they become comfortable in your classroom ask them to share their writing, favorite books, and stories from their home languages. Students who can read characters can pronounce them and describe their meanings. Welcome parents and elders to show classmates the written languages of students.

Once you have a sense of what sounds and letters exist in the students' primary oral and written languages, compare them with English. How do the letter- or character-sound correspondences in the student's written language compare to the letter-sounds in written English? For example, the letter *a* in Spanish sounds like the short *o* in English and students sometimes spell the short *o* sounds with *a* based on their knowledge of Spanish spelling.

1. Compare oral languages.
2. Compare written languages.
3. Know what language and literacy experiences students have had.
4. Plan word study to help students achieve.

**FIGURE 1-1** Four Steps to Plan Word Study Instruction with English Learners

3. *Know what language and literacy experiences students have had.* Like three quarters of the world's population, students in classrooms learning English are in varying stages of using two or more languages (Crystal, 2006). Many English learners were born in this country, but live in parallel cultures for language and literacy. Often, students live in settings where there is little literacy-based interaction, and this lack of experience has an impact on learning.

Of the nearly 3 million English-learning Spanish speakers in K–12 classrooms in the United States, half were born in the United States and 30% were born in Mexico. These students have a wide range of experiences with English. In a large demographic study of children with limited English proficiency (LEP), 46% had been born in the United States. Of the students born outside the U.S., 15% had lived in this country for 5 or more years, 22% had been in the United States for 1 to 4 years, and close to 20% of the English learners had lived in the United States for less than a year (Zehler, Fleischman, Hopstock, Stephenson, Pendzick, & Sapru, 2003). Thus, students come to school with a range of language experiences.

Children's success in learning one language is highly related to their learning of another. For example, children with numerous language and literacy experiences have extensive vocabularies when they enter school. In a groundbreaking longitudinal study, some children, by the age of 3, had heard 3 million more words than other children (Hart & Risley, 1995). English learners who already have a strong vocabulary in one language have more to draw on when they learn English. Literacy learning in school builds on the language and literacy experience children have in the home, the number of books in the home, the number of opportunities children have to see parents engaged in literate activities, and the amount of conversation they hear and are involved in (Bear & Helman, 2004).

The level of family literacy predicts the achievement of the children, regardless of the country in which the parents or grandparents were educated (Reese, Garnier, Gallimore, & Goldenberg, 2000). The more years of schooling among adult family members, the greater children's literacy achievement. What students know in one language or literacy is used to learn oral and written English. Rather than complicate learning, literacy in another language facilitates learning to read and write in English. Informally get to know the level of education among family members, even grandparents.

4. *Plan word study to help students achieve.* Select activities and strategies for successful learning experiences, develop expectations for learning, and plan the *intensity* and *duration* of instruction for each student. Because of the differences in language and literacy experiences among students, this book includes activities at different levels of oral and written English development. In setting goals, consider where a student should be developmentally at the end of the school year. What progress will be observed if, for example, a student is involved in small-group instruction an extra hour three times a week at a particular developmental level for 20 weeks?

English learners with little literacy in their home language are often older when they enter particular stages of development. When students are older, modifications are needed. The instructional match with development is still there, but given the age of the students, word study and some of the games must be designed to interest older learners.

Like all readers, older learners require interesting, relevant, and instructional-level reading materials; the problem is that there are not many materials written at students' instructional and intellectual levels. To supplement reading materials, beginning reading activities are adapted for students in the intermediate grades. For example, through the Personal Readers discussed in Chapter 5, students expand their vocabularies when they listen to and summarize grade-level content materials at the same time as they create materials for repeated reading. Through activities for older students and more advanced readers, students learn vocabulary and find greater meaning in their reading.

## Verbal Planning and Proficiency

How do students plan their language and reading? Verbal planning can be described as students' ability to plan what to say or write, and to organize what is heard and read. Verbal fluency in speech and reading makes verbal planning possible. Proficiency in verbal planning is possible when students are familiar and at ease with a language; when the mechanics of language come easily, leaving plenty of room for thinking at a higher cognitive level. Without the ability to plan verbally, comprehension does not flourish. You will notice that many English learners can read many words they do not comprehend. If all of our energies are consumed in figuring out *how* to express ourselves, then there is little time to spend on comprehension and understanding. The guiding question is this: *How easily do students plan their verbal activities in their primary and second languages?*

Assessments of fluency indicate proficiencies in word knowledge, and assessments of expression are a way to understand students' comprehension. Fluent and expressive oral reading is a measure of proficiency.

Competence in oral and written language requires verbal planning that is at least at a phrasal level. English learners are more effective speakers when they express themselves in phrases. To speak in phrases requires a good knowledge of the syntax or grammar of the language and also a sufficiently rich vocabulary to quickly organize speech into phrases.

Verbal planning in literacy needs to take place at several levels: with words, in letter-sound relationships, and in phrases. Readers must make the match between the words they say and the words printed on the page, easily and quickly. This ability is apparent during the emergent stage when students accurately fingerpoint-read a few lines of memorized text. At the same time they begin to plan reading at a phrasal level, they learn letter-sound relationships at the word level.

Literacy proficiency requires rapid recognition of words so that the words, like words in speech, can be organized into phrases. To begin to plan reading at a phrasal level, a sight vocabulary of approximately 250 words in English is required. Students in the transitional stage of reading have this sight vocabulary and *begin* to read with some fluency and with increasing expression. Oral reading expression at this level shows us what students comprehend.

"Brain energy to think," a quote by the American author Jack London, enhances our thinking about verbal planning. To paraphrase, London advised writers to write clearly for their readers, leaving plenty of "brain energy to think," comprehend, and understand (London, 1917). Think about the verbal planning English learners have at their fingertips when they read and write. Observe English learners in their reading and writing and verbal expression to see if they have enough brain energy left, after analyzing and planning their language, to think.

## Four Examples of Literacy Proficiency Among English Learners

What are students' proficiencies in their primary oral and written languages and English? Consider four examples of ways in which students' languages and literacies blend:

1. Some English learners come to school proficient in their home oral and written language. Instructional planning will follow a path that directs comparisons between home language and English literacies. Home literacies support oral and literacy development in English.
2. Learning a second language enriches students' first languages (Guion, Flege, Liu & Yeni-Komshian, 2000; Lieberman, 1991; Ransdell, Arecco, & Levy, 2001; Schmitt & McCarthy, 1997). Bilingual English learners have oral language competencies in English and another language, and achieve where they would be expected given their age and experiences. Achievement in the two languages will not be equal (Grosjean,

Some English learners have oral proficiency in their home languages but lack basic literacy proficiency in those same languages.

#### Concept Sort

A concept and vocabulary development activity in which pictures, objects, or words are grouped by shared attributes or meanings.

#### Picture Sort

Pictures are sorted into categories based on similarities and differences. Pictures may be sorted by sound or by meaning.

#### Content Sorts

Students sort words or pictures from content areas in science and social studies to organize the ideas relationally. These sorts serve as springboards to discuss the concepts that underlie key content vocabulary.

#### Word Study Notebooks

Notebooks in which students write word sorts that follow particular spelling patterns, and keep other notes related to word study activities.

2000), but should be within a grade level of current placement. Bilingual learners negotiate between languages and literacies (August & Shanahan, 2006; Tolchinsky & Teberosky, 1998). Students' first languages will impact the strategies they employ. Students' literacies enhance rather than detract from their learning, though it is clear that the more closely two orthographies are aligned, the easier the second writing system is to learn (Bialystok, & McBride-Chang, 2005)

3. Learners who are proficient speakers but nonliterate in their first language must learn to speak and read English at the same time. This is true for Hmong students, because Hmong has traditionally been a primarily oral form of communication. Most Hmong students did not learn to read or write their language before coming to the United States.
4. Some students may not have adequate language development in their first language. These students have much to achieve and this can only be accomplished through intensive and extended experiences in language and literacy. As is true in all communities, there are often significant educational, social, and economic differences among English learners.

## What Do Students Achieve in Word Study?

The word study activities in *Words Their Way with English Learners* clarify the teaching of phonics, vocabulary, and spelling for English learners. If, for example, you are teaching English learners who are studying short vowels in the letter name–alphabetic stage, you would refer to the letter name–alphabetic chapter in this book for activities that clarify consonants and vowels that are often confused in English. In addition, with students who are learning English, much attention must be paid to the meaning of the words to develop vocabulary along with phonics and spelling.

### Vocabulary Improves with Word Study

Vocabulary instruction should be a part of each word study lesson. Teachers clarify the meaning of the words in the sorts during the lesson even when a sound contrast is the focus, and students should be asked to use the words to enhance their meanings.

Some word study activities focus exclusively on vocabulary instruction. The **concept sorts** are semantic sorts that grow vocabularies as students sort words and pictures by how they are related in meaning. **Picture sorts** are particularly effective with older students who do not know much English: They can complete the sort using the pictures and then listen to others use the English terms as they explain how they sorted.

Vocabulary is taught in **content sorts** in which students categorize key vocabulary words from content areas. Teachers model how the concepts are related, and students add these sorts to the content sections of their **word study notebooks**. Students' word study notebooks connect reading and word study. Students hunt for related words in their reading and add them to these word study notebook lists over the course of a content area unit of study. These notebooks are a resource that English learners use to review new vocabulary they have recorded in them.

### Word Study Is Integrated for Greater Learning

Integrated instruction combines areas of instruction as instructional goals interact. This integration means that curricular areas flow into each other. When phonics, vocabulary, and spelling are integrated with reading and writing, more instructional time is available to teach in cohesive, small groups for differentiated instruction. Some of the ease of learning oral language that is so evident during the critical period of language development

in young learners is less evident each year. With less ease and experience, older English learners at basic levels benefit from explicit language instruction, and guided practice studying words that are matched to students' developmental and linguistic needs. Integrating the language and literacy curricula gives students sufficient exposure to the words and word patterns they are asked to learn.

The *essential literacy components* of phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension that are integral to so many literacy initiatives are addressed in five *essential literacy activities* summarized as RRWWT: *Read to, Read with, Write with, Word Study, and Talk with* activities (Bear & Barone, 1998; Bear, Johnston, & Invernizzi, 2006). Every effective literacy program involves these five types of activities. These activities are organized to match students' development and build in time for vocabulary instruction and verbal interaction.

### ***Foreign English-Language Learners Examine the Layers of English Spelling in Their Word Study***

English is an international language, and around the world, people of all ages are learning English. Foreign language teachers use word sorts and activities to teach secondary and adult students who do not live in English language settings. These English as a foreign language (EFL) learners are like secondary and postsecondary students in the United States enrolled in Spanish and French language courses. These learners are at the other end of the experiential continuum from the English learners enrolled in English-based classrooms.

English as a foreign language learners who are highly literate in their primary language progress through the stages of orthographic development in English in a similar fashion if there is a sufficient amount of English in their current instructional setting. If the learners' primary languages are closely related to English, then the foreign English learners may progress through the stages at a faster pace. After a spelling assessment, teachers guide EFL learners to the word study activities that are at their developmental levels. Throughout the instructional chapters there are word study activities that may be used with EFL students. EFL teachers can use the lists of words created in sorting to highlight some points about English pronunciation; for example, a common question would be "*Do you hear that all of these words have the same vowel sound in the middle?*"

Many benefits are derived from examining words carefully and relationally. Teaching at students' instructional level is essential and is tied to their development.

## **FOUNDATIONS OF ORTHOGRAPHIC KNOWLEDGE**

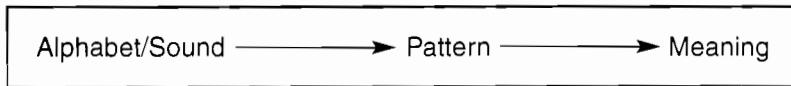
Why is it important to know about students' orthographic knowledge, the knowledge students have of how words are spelled? The short answer is that orthographic knowledge and development in the areas of phonics, vocabulary, and spelling are essential to reading and writing development.

There is a reciprocal relationship between reading and writing development. Reading informs writing, and writing makes for better readers and spellers. Autobiographies and biographies of many great authors reveal that they are usually voracious readers, particularly in their genres. They learn how to write by reading and imitating others as they develop their own styles. (Bear & Templeton, 2000)

There are also powerful and significant relationships between reading and spelling. Spelling is a conservative measure of what students know about words, for if students know how to spell a word, they nearly always know how to read the word. Students' spelling is interesting in that it demonstrates their orthographic knowledge and thus the type of instruction that would be useful.

The groundbreaking research of Edmund Henderson (1990) provides a good sense of the relationship between reading and spelling development. For purposes of





**FIGURE 1-2** Three Layers of Orthographies

organization and instruction, five stages of spelling and reading have been proposed. As is discussed in depth in *Words Their Way* (Bear, Invernizzi, Templeton, & Johnston, 2004), our research aligns with similar models proposed by Chall (1983), Ehri (1997), and Perfetti (2003).

## Layers of English Orthography

All writing systems have three layers: sound, pattern, and meaning (see Figure 1-2). The sound layer reflects the sound–symbol relationships, and in alphabetic orthographies, the sound layer is labeled the alphabet layer. The stages of spelling development follow from these three layers. Every language has its unique blend of these layers. It will be beneficial to begin with a description of the three layers in English.

The *sound* or *alphabet layer* is described as the layer where letter–sound correspondences are made; for example, the letter *b* makes the /b/ sound. This layer is the most basic layer and is relatively complex in English with long vowels and short vowels, and vowels that are influenced by neighboring letter-sounds (for example, see the influences of *r*, *l*, and *w*; *car*, *call*, *cow*) for a total of 44 sounds.

The second layer of English writing is the *pattern layer*. Letters in English are arranged into patterns beginning with patterns for single syllable words. Consonant–vowel–consonant (CVC) is the basic pattern and describes the common closed syllable, a syllable that ends with a consonant sound. There are a number of long-vowel patterns in English that include the CVVC (rain), CVCe (time), and the CVV (pie) patterns. Two-syllable word patterns are related to how syllables combine; as seen in the contrasts between the sound and patterns in *legal*, an open VCV pattern, and *napkin* and *dinner*, both VCCV pattern words.

The *meaning layer* reflects the *morphology* of the language. Morphology is of two types: inflectional and derivational. *Inflectional* morphology involves the addition of suffixes such as *-ed*, *-ing*, and *-s* to base words to indicate tense and number, such as when *walk* becomes *walked*, or *boy* changes to *boys*. *Derivational* morphology involves the addition of prefixes and suffixes to base words or Greek and Latin word roots to indicate a change in a part of speech and differences in meaning that are sometimes quite subtle, at other times quite significant. For example, *pre-* + *approve* = *preapprove*, *dis-* + *approve* = *disapprove*; *derive* (a verb) + *-ation* = *derivation* (a noun). Instruction begins with easy morphological features such as prefixes and suffixes (*un-*, *re-*, *-ly*, *-tion*) and inflectional endings (*-es*, *-ing*, *-ed*) added to base words. It extends to Greek and Latin word roots, such as *spec* in *spectacle*, *spectator*, *speculate* and *therm* in *thermometer*, *thermal*, *thermos*. These roots serve as the bases of technical and specialized vocabularies.

As many linguists have observed, spelling carries the history of English. Some people think that spelling is a jumbled mess, but in fact, the three layers work together to make reading and writing something that can be done efficiently and quickly enough to have time to comprehend and think about what was read. Thomas Jefferson was asked to approve a spelling reform that would make English spelling match the way words are pronounced. Jefferson did not endorse the simplified spelling proposal because he did not want to strip English of its roots and history (Bear, 1992).

### *The Balance of the Three Layers in English*

English seems to have good balance and interaction among these three layers. Before the printing press, spelling varied among writers and slowed down reading. In Jefferson's day, spelling was settling down, and today, with modern dictionaries and electric forms, spelling is quite stable. In fact, in English, if the alphabet layer was represented more

directly, too many words would be spelled the same and meaning could be confused. Try reading the widely distributed poem "Candidate for a pullet surprise" quickly:

I have a spelling checker/It came with my P.C.  
 It plane lee marks four my revue/Miss steaks aye can knot sea.  
 Eye ran this poem threw it,/Your sure reel glad two no.  
 Its vary polished in it's weigh./My checker tolled me sew. (Zar, 2000)

The many combinations of letters for long and short vowels are part of the history and complexities of even single-syllable words in English, with some long vowel words coming directly from the French. In each of the following word pairs, the first word is older than the more recent addition of French origin: *cow/beef*; *pig/pork*; *white/beige*. And as you may know, many military, religious, and legal words came directly from the French vocabulary when the Normans became the rulers of the English-speaking world in the 11th and 12th centuries.

English is well suited to accommodate new terms and to grow its vocabulary. There are probably 300,000 word forms, and nearly a million words including all word forms (*crash, crashed, crashing*). There are nearly 600,000 words in dictionaries and another 400,000 words that are mostly scientific and uncataloged. Speakers do not use anywhere close to the million available English words. In a week, mature readers read 2,000 different words of the 55,000 words they have learned. Specialized vocabulary is acquired at work or in professional studies.

In upper-level word study, the meaning layer is crucial to vocabulary development.

## Stages of Literacy Development in English

Readers and writers orchestrate these three layers through "progressively more complex reciprocal interactions" (Bronfenbrenner & Evans, 2000, p. 117) that are presented as stages or phases of development (Invernizzi & Hayes, 2004). The five stages of development follow from the layers of English orthography as can be seen in Figure 1-3. These stages overlap because learning is gradual and learners do not abruptly move from one stage to the next, and because there is an interaction among the layers; students who have progressed to the meaning level realize that changes in the meaning layer produce changes in the sound of the word. For example, notice the sound and meaning changes by adding a suffix to *compose* to form *composition*. At a particular moment in students' development, a specific phase or stage dominates their thinking about words (Rieben, Saada-Robert, & Moro, 1997).

### The Synchrony of Literacy Development

In Figure 1-3, the stages of reading are related to stages of spelling development. This is described as the *synchrony of development*. This figure includes reading behaviors and spelling errors characteristic of each stage. Specific reading behaviors come into place, in synchrony, with specific spelling behaviors. There is such a close relationship in the development between reading and spelling that the spelling assessments discussed in Chapter 2 can be used to think about grouping for instruction.

Figure 1-3 shows us that the first two stages of spelling are the emergent and letter name-alphabetic stages. The layers at the top of the figure illustrate how these stages flow from the alphabet layer as students learn the basic sound-symbol correspondences and collect a beginning sight vocabulary. Follow the progression of spelling errors at the bottom of the figure and compare the spelling to the reading. For example, students in the middle of the letter name-alphabetic stage often spell *float* as FLOT. Moving up the figure to reading stages, notice how students in the beginning stage characteristically read in a word-by-word fashion, fingerprint-read, and read unexpressively. By the end

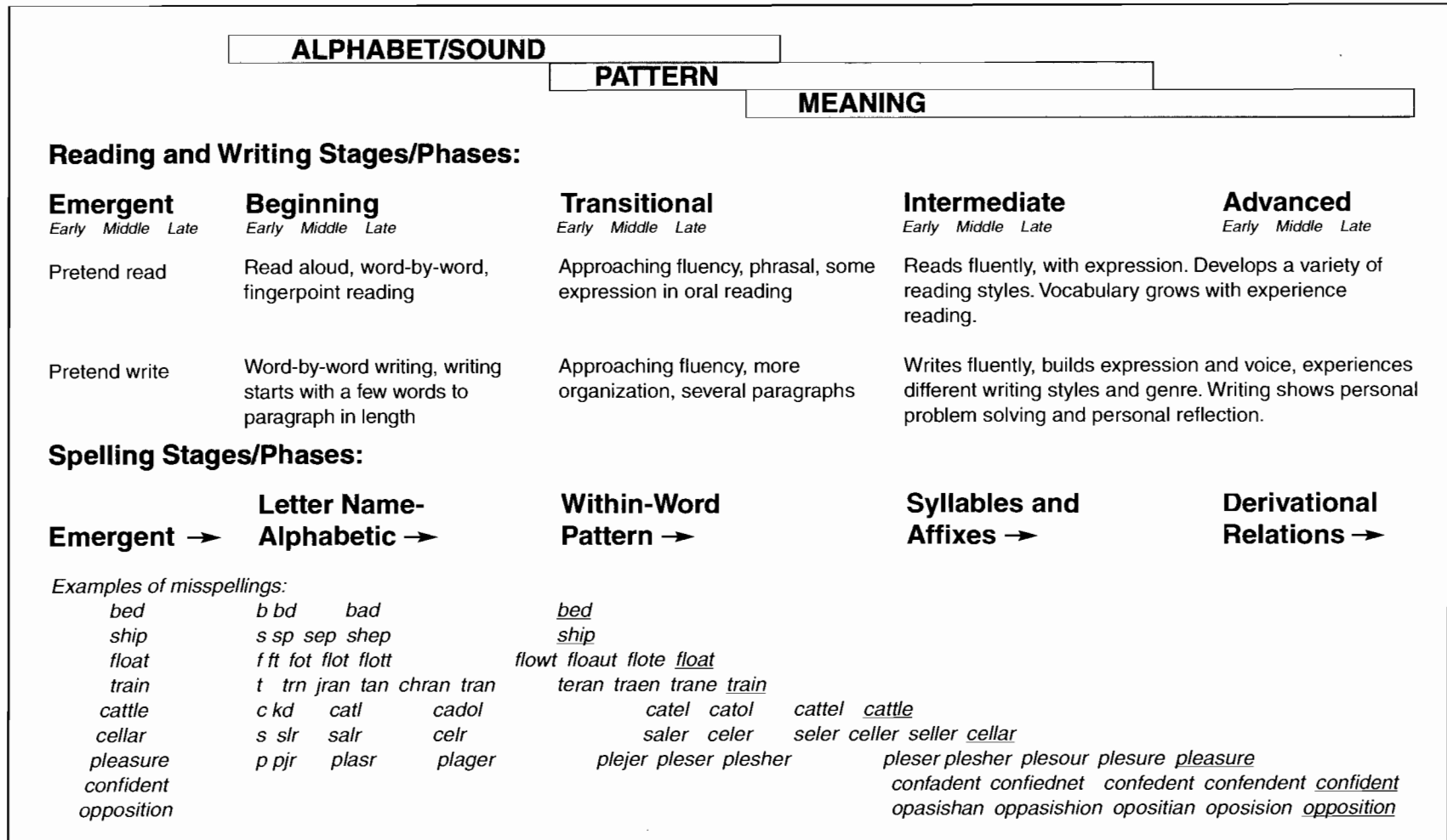


FIGURE 1-3 Synchrony of Literacy Development in English

of the letter name–alphabetic stage of spelling, students learn spelling patterns, in particular the short vowel CVC pattern, or closed syllable.

The name of the next stage of spelling, the within-word pattern stage, illustrates how important the idea of patterns is at this time. Students recognize the long-vowel patterns (CVCe, CVVC, CVV, CV), and they learn to spell the complex vowel patterns (for example, *-ought*, *-edge*, *-earn*). Single-syllable words are mastered in spelling, and in reading, students have enough power in word recognition to verbally plan the reading for fluency and expression.

Upper-level word knowledge is made up of two stages: the syllables and affixes stage and the derivational relations stage. The syllables and affixes stage begins with the study of patterns and how syllables combine. Students are ready to examine open and closed syllables, and they develop the skill of knowing where to look at words to begin to divide them into syllables. This pattern work is a fulcrum. On one end is the alphabet level when students draw on their knowledge of sound differences associated with *e*-drop and consonant doubling (for example, *taping* and *tapping*). By the end of this stage there is a tottering back and forth between the alphabet and the meaning layer. As part of the meaning layer, students learn simple prefixes and suffixes.

The derivational relations stage is a time when students examine the function and spelling of meaning-bearing parts of words. Students see that word endings have meaning grammatically (for example, *-ic* is an adjectival form, and *-ion* turns a verb into a noun), and semantically they study more difficult prefixes and suffixes. As the name of the stage indicates, learners examine and come to understand how different words can be *derived* from a single base word or word root: From the base word *relate* we can derive the words *relative*, *relationship*, *relativity*, *correlate*, *correlation*, *correlative*, and so forth. Notably, students come to understand the *spelling–meaning connection* (Templeton, 1983, 2004): Words that are related in meaning are often related in spelling as well, despite changes in sound. For example, notice how the spelling *deriv* remains constant despite the change in pronunciation when different suffixes are added: *derive*–*derivative*–*derivation*.

The corresponding reading stages in these upper levels are the intermediate and advanced reading stages. Silent reading is the dominant mode of reading by students, and they find ways to adjust their reading styles to suit different purposes. Intermediate readers acquire these styles and increase their reading rates gradually. Advanced readers are accomplished readers who can read rapidly, and they learn new reading skills as they enter new genres and fields of study. They learn new vocabulary words as they learn new concepts. They can already adjust their reading rates to skim and scan, and they can adjust their rate according to the relative difficulty of the materials.

### ***The Slant of Development***

As you think of the synchrony of development you may wonder about the relationship between reading and spelling, since there are words that are read easily but that are difficult to spell. The idea of a *slant of development* illustrates the relationship between the two: Reading achievement will always look slightly ahead of spelling. Students who spell *float* as FLOT read *float* correctly when the word is a part of a text or presented in a list. Reading and spelling draw on the same orthographic knowledge base. As a recognition task, reading is a little easier to do correctly, compared to a productive task like spelling. This slant is a relationship that makes it possible to use students' spelling to think about their word knowledge and reading development.

In parent meetings, teachers share Figure 1-3 to show this relationship between reading and spelling. Sometimes, parents know more about how their children spell than they do about their reading. Showing parents the relationship among reading, spelling, and writing places students' literacy behaviors in perspective.

## Layers in Other Orthographies

In each written language, the three orthography layers are blended uniquely. If this blend is understood for students' languages, then it is clearer to the teacher what students will bring from their primary languages and literacies as they learn to speak and read English. The sound/alphabet, pattern, and meaning layers are evident in all writing systems. Where there is not an alphabet, the first layer is examined for other sound-symbol correspondences.

Along the developmental continuum, look for *when* the three layers overlap compared to English. You will see that different writing systems, or orthographies, not only blend the layers in different ways but their layers are of varying complexities. *When* the layers overlap depends on the structure and history of the writing system. For example, in a comparison of English and Spanish orthographies, one of the first things to observe is how faithful Spanish is to pronunciation and how in English, long vowels and many short vowel words are spelled with abstract patterns in which letters combine to make a sound. The long vowel patterns in English (for example, CVCe: *tale*, CVVC: *tail*; CVV: *tie*) are unnecessary in Spanish writing. This difference often means that students from Spanish language backgrounds rely more on the alphabetic layer than on the pattern layer.

## Sounds of Language and Language Families

In the alphabet or sound layer, sound-symbol correspondences are examined. What sounds exist in a language, and how does the writing system represent those sounds? One thousand sounds have been cataloged, but most languages have two or three dozen. Most languages have between five and seven vowels. Some writing systems include vowels, and other orthographies (like Hebrew) do not, so that the reader uses context to a greater extent to understand the words. See Comrie, Matthew, and Polinsky (1996) for a wonderful collection of information about languages and writing systems.

Figure 1-4 presents an abbreviated list of language "families" that are organized geographically (Comrie et al., 1996). Languages in a particular family share similarities

Look for *when* the alphabet, pattern, and meaning layers overlap.

Indo-European		Altaic	Sino-Tibetan	Afro-Asiatic	Austro-Asiatic
<i>Germanic</i>	<i>Slavic</i>	Turkish	Mandarin	Arabic	Vietnamese
English	Polish	Kazakh	Wu	Saudi	Khmer
Dutch	Czech	Turkmenan	Cantonese	Iraqi	
German	Russian	Mongolian	Xiang	Egyptian	
Danish	Bulgarian	Manchu	Gan	Algerian	
Swedish	Serbian/ Croatian	Korean	Hakka	Hebrew	
		Japanese			
<i>Romance</i>	<i>Indo-Iranian</i>				
French	Hindi/Urdu				
Italian	Nepali				
Spanish	Bengali				
Portuguese	Punjabi				
Romanian	Persian				
	Kurdish				
	Tajik				
	Pashto				

**FIGURE 1-4** Select Language Families

in sound and often in written forms. English is an Indo-European, Germanic language. The languages in Figure 1-4 represent only a few of the 5,000 languages that have more than a million speakers. Beginning with these groups, some commonalities and differences can be noted. For example, the Germanic languages are similar in their basic vocabularies, and Old English sounds very much like German. The Romance languages also sound alike and look alike. For example, drawing from Latin, the writing systems in most Romance languages are quite similar in that in each of these orthographies, the letter-sound relationships are very consistent, and all letters are sounded out.

English learners will be unfamiliar with particular sounds that do not exist in their primary languages (Helman, 2004). For them, acquiring new sounds requires instruction and practice, like walking students through the comparisons in picture sorts for rhyming and beginning sounds, as covered in Chapter 4.

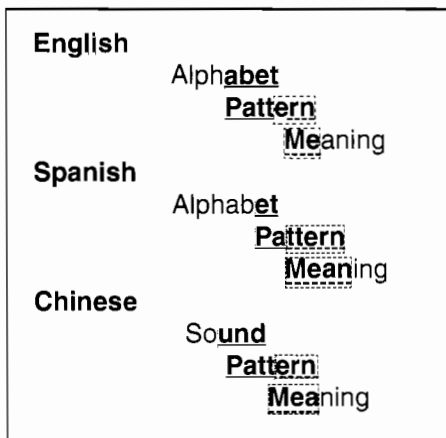
### Shallow and Deep Orthographies

Writing systems that are easy to pronounce are highly regular in their sound-symbol correspondences. These writing systems are described as *shallow*, *transparent*, or *translucent* orthographies. Spanish and Italian spelling are highly regular; written words are easy to decode because there are fewer sounds and there are highly consistent, one-to-one correspondences between sounds and letters. Spanish is classified as a shallow or transparent orthography because students do not need to reach deeply in Spanish to spell its 24 sounds. Orthographies may be described as more or less shallow, or *semi-translucent* or *semi-transparent*. German is an example of a semi-transparent orthography because it is a combination of transparent and deep features.

French and English are *deep* or *opaque* orthographies; the correspondences between letters and sounds are often much less direct. In English spelling, for example, upper-level learners reach deeply into the pattern and meaning of words and word parts to spell proficiently. The pattern layer begins with the CVC pattern for short vowels, a relatively transparent pattern, because each letter forms a predictable and discernible sound. When students study long-vowel patterns they begin to examine a relatively opaque feature of English. Short-vowel word study is mostly transparent in that each letter stands for a unique sound, whereas in the spelling of long vowels, students deepen their view of the orthography to include the more abstract long-vowel *patterns* in English, that is, the silent *e* in *tame* or the vowel digraph in *meat* contrasted to the short vowel in *met*.

There are also interesting histories and etymologies of English words that include Greek and Latin roots, like the common meaning found among words that share the Latin root *plico/plicatum* (fold) as in *duplicate* (twofold), *multiplication* (manifold), and even *implicate* (to be folded in) and *complication* (a folded situation) (Lundquist, 1989). The relationships in meaning among words with shared roots are important to vocabulary development. English learners unlock the meaning of polysyllabic words when they look for related words and shared roots.

In Figure 1-5, three written languages are compared across their sound, pattern, and meaning layers, layers that are common to all writing systems (cf. Perfetti, 2003). The shaded areas in this figure signify overlap among layers. The involvement of each layer in English, Spanish, and Chinese is illustrated in this figure. Growth in students' understanding of these layers is gradual, and in English, the overlap noted in the boxed areas in Figure 1-5 between the alphabet and pattern layers occurs when students examine the sounds of short-vowel sounds and patterns, the consonant-vowel-consonant (CVC) pattern, a pattern that is



**FIGURE 1-5** Overlap in Layers of English, Spanish, and Chinese Orthographies

prevalent in English. For example, both *cap* and *stick* are CVC patterns and short-vowel sounds, and a combination of pattern and sound in word study is necessary.

### **Spanish, a Shallow or Transparent Orthography**

Compared to English, the alphabet layer in Spanish accounts for a greater part of the foundation of a strong reading vocabulary that makes reading fluency possible. Readers and spellers rely on the transparency of Spanish and the power of the alphabetic principle to read and spell polysyllabic words through the beginning and transitional stages of literacy development. As illustrated in Figure 1-5, Spanish readers and writers rely on the alphabetic principle much longer than readers and writers of deep orthographies.

As students learn more sight words in Spanish, they are able to look at words more abstractly, beyond strict letter–sound correspondences. This ability to work with abstractness in spelling is fundamental to the pattern layer. In English, the pattern layer can take a long time to master because there are so many long-vowel patterns for each vowel sound. In Spanish, there are only a few cases where there are ambiguities, as when students learn that there is not just one sound for *g*, but a hard *g* and a soft *g* sound.

Compared to English, the pattern and meaning layers of Spanish orthography are examined almost simultaneously. One of the first times Spanish readers and writers move beyond the letter–sound regularities is when they include accents to spell easy words. As they learn accentuation, students make links between spelling and meaning, and they analyze Spanish spelling at a slightly more abstract level. They learn that the accent can signal changes in word meaning. There are several levels of difficulty when considering the use of accents. Let's look at a few examples of how pattern and meaning layers overlap:

- Accent marks sometimes determine meaning in Spanish. The *e* is accented in *té* (tea), but not in *te* (you). The *i* is accented in *sí*, meaning *yes*, but not in *si* meaning *if*. A similar example would be the spelling of *sólo*; with an accent on the first *o*, the word means *only, by itself*, and without an accent, *solo* means *alone*.
- Accent marks can sometimes change the part of speech. For several Spanish words, the accent is optional and is used to avoid confusion readers may have about how the word is being used. For example, in a sentence like *Esta casa es bonita* (*This house is pretty*), an accent on the *e* in *Esta* is not needed because the noun (*casa*) is present. However, when *ésta* is a pronoun an accent is needed; that is, *Ésta es más bonita* (*This one is prettier*).
- Adding suffixes to words can require an accent. For example, in adding *-ación*, a suffix like *-ation* in English, an accent mark is added to adjust for the change in stress that is created. In this way the word for *classify* (*clasificar*) becomes *classification* (*clasificación*). The correct use of accents at the intermediate stage in Spanish is a sign of upper-level literacy. At about the same time, students study simple prefixes such as *in-* as in *inoperable* (*inoperable*) and *des-* as in *descubrir* (*discover*) and *describir* (*describe*). Whenever possible, hunt for cognates between English and students' first languages for further meaning connections.

In comparison, given the opaqueness of English, about the same time that English learners study the long-vowel patterns, Spanish spellers examine the basic Spanish prefixes, an orthographic pattern that English-speaking students study in the next stage of spelling, the syllables and affixes stage.

### **Chinese, a Deep Orthography**

Chinese writing is a character-based deep or opaque orthography, and what might be called words are composites of between one and several characters. Nouns are two or three characters in length. Characters are always single syllables with phonetic and meaning components (Spinks, Liu, Perfetti, & Tan, 2000).

To teach Mandarin pronunciation to non-Mandarin Chinese speakers, beginning in kindergarten and first grade, children are introduced to pinyin, an alphabetic system. During the first and second grades, students learn characters and stop using pinyin, and so the use of an alphabetic system is brief. Chinese is a character-based orthography, and is sometimes called a logographic writing system. In daily writing, 3,000 of the 40,000 characters are used.

In elementary schools, children in China learn 2,500 to 3,000 characters. The exact number of characters to be learned at each grade level is determined at a provincial level. Shen and Bear (2000) describe the distribution across the elementary grades in Zhejiang Province: first grade, 430 characters; second grade, 680; third grade, 580; fourth grade, 450; fifth grade, 200; and sixth grade, 160.

As illustrated in Figure 1-5, the meaning layer enters into students' examination of the orthography relatively early in their examination of characters, for each character is composed of a meaning element called a *radical*. Students learn about the pattern layer of Chinese around second grade as they add nearly 700 more of the 3,000 high-frequency characters to the approximately 400 characters they learned in first grade. Within characters, students learn about the 214 meaning units, the radicals, in modern Chinese. The meaning layer in Chinese is qualitatively different than the meaning layer in English. In English, the meaning layer is found in prefixes, suffixes, and roots. In Chinese, the meaning layer is found in characters. In upper-level word study in English, students study the history of words by their roots, and in Chinese, students study the history of words by examining the background of the characters. An example is the word *amber*, which comes from a dictionary of Chinese symbols with the subtitle *Hidden Symbols in Chinese Life and Thought*. *Amber* is written in Chinese as 琥珀 and pronounced *hu-po* in Mandarin. The entry notes that "Amber was imported from what is now Burma, and from parts of Central Asia. It symbolized 'courage,' and its Chinese name *hu-po* means 'tiger soul,' the tiger being known as a courageous animal. In early times, it was believed that at death the tiger's spirit entered the earth and became amber" (Eberhard, 1986, p. 18).

Chinese writing is different from alphabetic systems even though the same layers of the orthography are present. Some of the differences between English and Chinese can be seen in the beginning of a letter excerpted from Chang (2001) in Figure 1-6. A word-for-word transliteration of the letter illustrates the different grammatical structures. In trying to match the written form of the first sentence with the transliteration, notice how each syllable is spelled with a single character. As you can see, Chinese writing takes up less space than English. Chinese readers may be slowed by word recognition in English and since the script is spread out, the word recognition takes more time than expected (Chang, 2001).

Knowing about Chinese helps us to know about other languages spoken and written by hundreds of millions of people. Chinese writing began about 1500 B.C.E. and has served as the basis for many other writing systems derived in Asiatic and Indic writing systems. This was true for Korean until the 15th century when King Sejong commissioned the creation of a 28-letter phonetic alphabet that consisted of 40 characters. As a result, this Korean alphabet is one of the most phonetically transparent orthographies in the world.

The differences in the complexity of orthographies are apparent in the relative difficulties students have in learning to read in different languages. A more regular orthography presents fewer problems for learners. A recent study compared Italian and English word reading, and found that there were more reading difficulties among English readers than Italian, a more regular writing system (Paulesu et al., 2001). Word reading difficulties are apparent earlier for students learning a writing system such as English, a deep orthography. In contrast, in a shallow, phonetically based writing system such as Spanish, Italian, or Romanian, students may have fewer difficulties learning to read words because there are fewer vowel sounds, fewer vowel changes, and more regular sound-symbol correspondences. Difficulties in reading and spelling may not appear until later, when polysyllabic word patterns are encountered.



利戎：  
来信收到了，谢谢你的问候。没有早些回信，  
请原谅！

**FIGURE 1-6A** First Sentence of a Letter Written in Chinese

Source: (From Chang, 2001, p. 322).

lirong:  
lai xin shou dao le, xiexie ni de wen hou. meiyou zaoxie  
come letter receive, thank your regard. not earlier  
hui xin, qing youanliang!  
return letter, please forgive!  
ni jinli shenti zenmeyang? xuexi shunli ma?  
you recently body how? study smooth [interrogative]?  
yiding xiang wangchyang yiyang guo de hen yukai be?  
certainly, as usual same very happy [particle inviting confirmation]?

**FIGURE 1-6B** Transliteration of the First Six Sentences of the Letter

Source: (From Figure 1-6A).

Dear Lirong:  
Thank you for your letter, and thanks for the regards. I'm sorry that I didn't  
write earlier. Please forgive me!  
How have you been recently? Is everything going well with your studies? Are  
you enjoying life as usual?

**FIGURE 1-6C** Idiomatic Translation of the Sentences

Source: (From Figure 1-6B).

## Stages of Literacy Development in Other Languages

The stages of literacy development are based on the three layers of orthographic development, and they are linked to specific strategies students use to spell, strategies that have been studied in several languages. Through the activities in this book, English learners at each developmental level learn how to examine the structure of words, and this makes reading more fluent (Henderson, 1992; Perfetti, 1985).

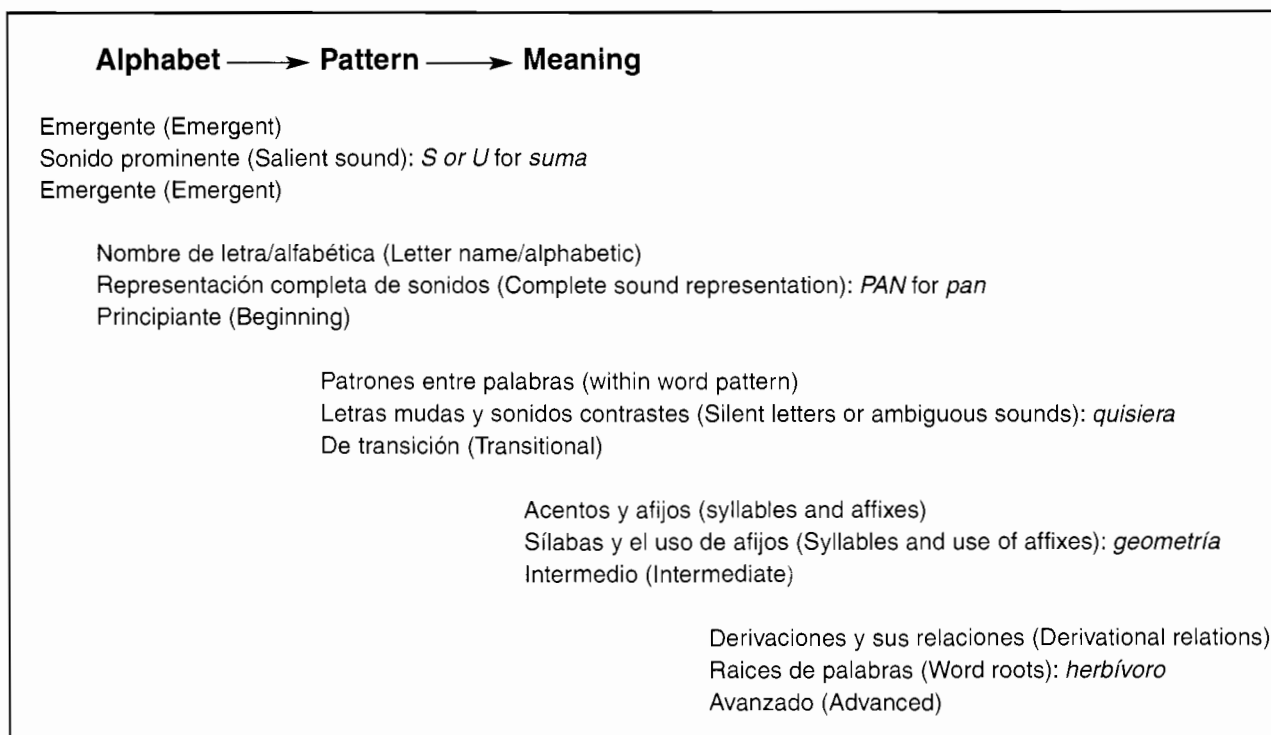
Spelling stages and orthographic development have been studied in many languages including English, Finnish, French, German, Greek, Portuguese, Spanish, Chinese, and Korean. The following studies serve as some of our research base and provide additional information about particular languages: English (Ellis, 1997; Templeton & Morris, 2000), Finnish (Korkeamäki & Dreher, 2000), French (Gill, 1980; Rieben et al., 1997), German (Wimmer & Hummer, 1990), Greek (Porpodas, 1989), Hebrew (Geva, Wade-Woodley, & Shany, 1993), Portuguese (Pinheiro, 1995), Spanish (Bear, Templeton, Helman, & Baren, 2003; Cuetos, 1993; Fashola, Drum, Mayer, & Kang, 1996; Ferroli & Krajenta, 1990; Valle-Arroyo, 1990; Zutell & Allen, 1988), and even character-based

orthographies such as Chinese (Perfetti & Zhang, 1991; Shen & Bear, 2000; Shu & Anderson, 1999) and Korean (Yang, 2005).

Stages of literacy development of English like those described by Chall (1983) and Henderson (1990) are adapted to describe how students learn other written languages. Stages can be compared across languages because students in a particular stage apply specific principles, principles that underlie that stage of development. For example, when attempting to spell a word, students in all writing systems who are in the late emergent and beginning stages of spelling (in English, the letter name–alphabetic stage) rely on how a word is articulated, or feels in the mouth as they say it to spell. This is a principle that is discussed in detail in Chapter 5, the letter name–alphabetic stage.

Another example of the characteristic of stages in other languages is the transitional reading stage when reading fluency just begins. In English, students begin to read in phrases, and this accompanies the within-word pattern stage of spelling. In shallow orthographies, such as Spanish, reading fluency is acquired more rapidly because the words are easier to read, and this means that students learning to read shallow orthographies can begin to read with a beginning phrasal fluency when they are in an alphabetic stage of spelling.

The synchrony of reading, spelling, and writing development is found in other languages. In Figure 1-7, the model of Spanish literacy development illustrates the synchrony of learning. This developmental model shows when to expect particular reading and spelling behaviors. Notice how the stages of reading are beneath the alphabet, pattern, and meaning layers of Spanish orthography. The three layers of orthographies, alphabet–pattern–meaning, govern development. Languages offer their own mix of the onset and overlap of the three layers, however, and the actual features that comprise each layer.



**FIGURE 1-7** Spelling Stages, Focus of Spelling, and Reading Stages in Spanish

After the letter name stage in Spanish, when the alphabetic principle is learned, students examine the ambiguities of Spanish spelling. This stage is similar to the within-word pattern stage of English spelling. During this stage of reading in Spanish, learners examine the pattern and meaning layers in Spanish writing.

Stages of development can be described for Chinese, which is a character-based orthography. In a study of 1,200 children's writing and spelling samples, a developmental sequence that follows the three layers was observed. By the end of first grade, students learn approximately 430 characters, and by this time students are toward the end of the beginning stage of reading (Shen & Bear, 2000). Ninety-six percent of the first graders' spelling errors were classified as phonological errors, and by sixth grade these sound-symbol confusions were down to 53%. As sound-symbol type errors decreased, pattern errors increased from 4% in first grade to 33% in sixth. Meaning-based substitutions of characters in writing and spelling gradually increased to 11% by sixth grade (Shen & Bear, 2000).

Stages of development in different languages are influenced by the character of the orthography and the balance among the three layers. Many English learners begin their literacy development when they enter school, which may also be the first time that they are in a predominantly English-speaking setting. For instance, consider Alma. Alma is currently a third grader who speaks Spanish at home. She began to learn to read and write when she entered kindergarten in an English immersion school setting. There have been few books available to Alma in Spanish, and she is currently more literate in English than in Spanish. Alma reads about a year behind in grade-level measures, and is just beginning to tackle long-vowel patterns in spelling. Word study instruction with Alma must strive for a balance among phonics, vocabulary, and spelling instruction

## INTEGRATED WORD STUDY INSTRUCTION

Word study instruction is an integral part of the daily activities of the classroom.

Word study is integrated in daily activities. Vocabulary instruction is contextualized when word study is related and drawn from students' reading and content studies. Look across literacy instruction to find ways to integrate word study instruction. The essential literacy activities described earlier as RRWWT (*Read to, Read with, Write with, Word Study, and Talk with*) can provide a format for integrated instruction to frame the ways in which word study addresses the language and literacy learning needs of English learners.

The essential RRWWT literacy activities provide a context for each of the word study activities that follows. Figure 1-8 lists the types of activities that fit the RRWWT framework. The far-right-hand column of this figure posts the suggested amount of time to devote to this activity during the literacy block. In addition to these times for small-group explicit instruction, additional time is included for independent reading and writing.

These activities belong in every literacy program, and to make progress in reading, students benefit from word study instruction or practice each day, along with additional time dedicated to reading independently. The next chapter guides you to identify the most relevant word study activities for your students, and to connect reading materials and children's literature to students' instructional reading levels.

Essential Literacy and Related Curricula	Procedures and Activities	Minutes Daily Instruction
<b>Read To</b> Motivation Comprehension Narrative structures Vocabulary Social interaction	<i>Read To</i> students from literature that offers rich oral language and that involves students in discussions as in directed listening–thinking activities. <i>Read To</i> students from informational texts that support content learning. Vocabulary instruction has meaning when supported by what we read to students.	15–30
<b>Read With</b> Comprehension Fluency Concept of word in print Word recognition Vocabulary	<i>Read With</i> activities vary by developmental level. Directed reading–thinking activities are a standard activity. Discussions to comprehend are as essential in these lessons as they are in the <i>Read To</i> activities. Support in repeated reading is helpful to many students for fluency and word recognition.	10–30
<b>Write With</b> Writing process Narrative structure Verbal expression Concept and language development Motivation Writing correctness and mechanics	<i>Write With</i> instruction presents writing strategies that students use when they write independently. Writing with students creates a community of writers who can learn from each other as they explore a common topic, theme, or editing skill. Writing activities for emergent and beginning writers encourage students to analyze the speech stream.	10–30
<b>Word Study</b> Phonics Vocabulary Spelling Concept development Morphological knowledge	<i>Word Study</i> activities include picture sorts for sounds, concept sorts, word sorts, word study games, word hunts, word study notebooks, written reflections, charting, exploring interesting words, word study games, and becoming familiar with reference materials.	10–20
<b>Talk With</b> Language expression Vocabulary Motivation and social interaction Concept development	<i>Talk With</i> students for their oral language to grow. Creative dramatics, storytelling, and discussion groups about meaningful topics make it possible for vocabulary, language structures, and thinking to mature. <i>Talk With</i> activities support the vocabulary and conceptual learning from the <i>Read With</i> activities.	15–20

**FIGURE 1-8** The RRWWT Essential Literacy Activities