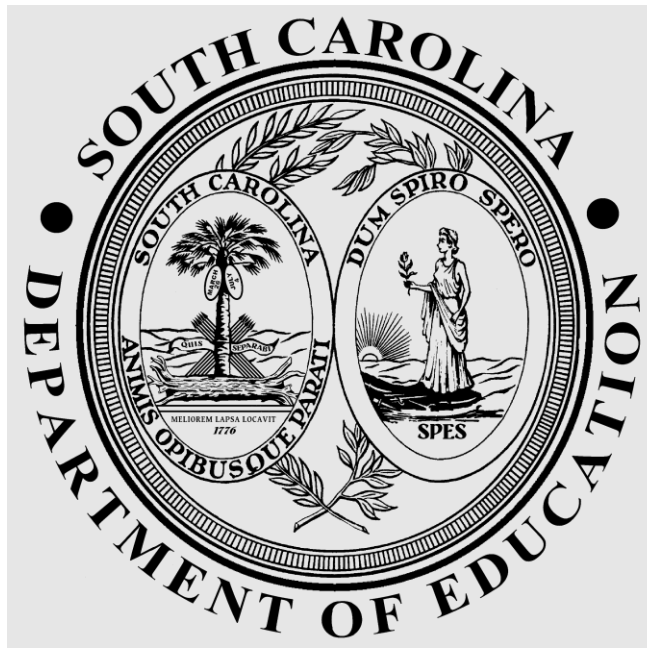


**STATE OF SOUTH CAROLINA  
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION**

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**Vocabulary Support Document for 2024 South  
Carolina College- and Career-Ready English  
Language Arts Standards**

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## Vocabulary Support Document

### I. What is meant by the term *vocabulary*?

Vocabulary refers to knowing a word. However, knowing a word means much more than just knowing the definition or meaning. Knowing a word also means being able to pronounce the word, spell the word, identify the word's part of speech (e.g., noun, verb, adjective, etc.), apply the word in various contexts, how to use the word and how not to use the word, knowledge of synonyms and antonyms for the word, as well as how the word's meaning may change when paired with other words and/or when derivational morphemes are applied. For example, there is a significant difference between "lightning" and a "lightning bug" as Mark Twain is famously quoted as saying. There are differences between the words "friend" and "friendship," "neighbor" and "neighborhood," as well as "sharp" and "sharpen." Additionally, there are differences between the meaning of the words "minute" and "minute," "address" and "address," as well as "present" and "present" simply based on the pronunciation of the syllable stress.

### II. Why is explicit and systematic instruction of vocabulary important?

The Every Student Succeeds Act states that comprehensive, evidence-based literacy instruction includes instruction that includes age-appropriate, systematic, explicit, and intentional instruction in vocabulary (as well as phonemic awareness, phonics, language structure, fluency, and comprehension). This may be because one of the most well-established findings in educational research is that reading comprehension and vocabulary knowledge are highly correlated with one another. Knowledge of individual word meanings accounts for as much as 50-60% of the variance in reading comprehension (Adlof & Perfetti, 2014, Stahl & Nagy, 2006). In fact, students must understand 90-95% of the words on a page to understand the content (Nagy & J. Scott, 2000). The other 5 percent of word meanings can then be inferred from context.

Illustration 1. Scarborough's Reading Rope



Explicit and systematic instruction of vocabulary is also critical as vocabulary knowledge is central to language comprehension (Tannenbaum, Torgeson, & Wagner, 2006), and language comprehension has a direct impact on reading comprehension as illustrated by Scarborough's Reading Rope (2001). Within the strands of language comprehension, vocabulary is separate from background knowledge. However, it is difficult to separate background knowledge from word learning as word knowledge also represents general knowledge and those who are more informed about the world and more highly read have richer vocabularies (Compton, Miller, Elleman & Steacy, 2014).

### **III. Which words should be taught and how many words should be taught at one time?**

When selecting words to teach it is imperative to consider that there are three tiers of vocabulary. These tiers follow a continuum from simple to more complex vocabulary. Given that students bring a wide variety of vocabulary and background knowledge to any passage they read, there is also a wide variety of vocabulary that will have to be taught. These tiers of vocabulary were introduced in 2002 by Beck, McCowen, & Kucan. Beck has an organizational framework for categorizing words based on their utility. Each tier is described in the table below with tier one being made up of familiar words used frequently in conversational language, tier two words being made up of words that are less commonly found in spoken language and more frequently found in books, and tier three words being very specific to curricular subjects.

Beck et al. (2002) suggest prioritizing Tier 2 words for instruction to maximize the impact on oral and reading vocabulary knowledge as these words are central to the meaning of the passages read and would be difficult for students to figure out the meaning independently. However, explicit vocabulary instruction that connects new vocabulary to prior knowledge is thought to have the largest effect on vocabulary gains (Baumann & Kame'enui, 2004). In other words, instruction in Tier 2 words relies on prior knowledge of Tier 1 words, and some students may need instruction in Tier 1 words as well as Tier 2 in order to attain full understanding. This is why teachers should not rely on pre-determined lists of vocabulary to teach as outlined by a text or curriculum. Instead, teachers need to know their students' background knowledge, community experiences, linguistic and cultural diversity, and familiarity with the vocabulary of the text to know which words students need to be explicitly taught. This is, in part, why there is no agreed-upon list of words for each tier.

Table 2. Tiers of Vocabulary

Tier	Description	Examples
Tier 1	Common, everyday, basic words that are often learned through conversation and do not have explicit instruction. These can be concepts or words across all parts of speech (e.g., nouns, verbs, adjectives, etc.).	Cow, happy, ambulance, baby, chair, boy, run
Tier 2	These are words that appear across the academic curriculum and show up in many contexts, but they are not often used in everyday conversation. Tier 2 words are especially important when guiding students to understand why an author chose specific words to communicate a specific meaning or to evoke a specific image.	Abundant, precious, lanky, absurd, splendid, detest, muttered
Tier 3	These words are subject-specific terms and are generally used in only one context and have one meaning.	Hypotenuse, amoeba, isthmus, isosceles, cumulus

#### IV. How many words should be taught per week?

Books embody more uncommon and content-rich words than any other medium of language (Cunningham & Stanovich, 1998). This means that books will contain more Tier 2 and Tier 3 words than our everyday words used in conversation. As such, instruction needs to focus on 3-5 words per reading selection or 10-12 words per week for direct instruction from both Tier 2 and Tier 3 words. Words should not be taught as “lists”, but rather how the words relate to the content and to each other because instruction without context has usually been found to be ineffective (Roseberry-McKibbin, 2013).

#### V. How do I choose words for direct instruction?

When considering which words to teach systematically and explicitly, select words that afford more sophisticated ways to talk about what students already know (Biemiller, 2003). Also consider that in order for students to understand specific texts, they must understand the selected words as they are used in that context because effective comprehension is the result of instruction about words that are central to the text or topic regardless of their frequency in written language (Moats & Tolman, 2019).

After pre-reading the passage, there are a few guiding questions that may help determine which vocabulary words are critical to student comprehension:

- What words are your students most likely to be unfamiliar with?
- Which words are of critical importance to comprehend the text?
- How frequently do students encounter this word?
- How does the word relate to words they may already know?
- What does the word contribute to the comprehension of the text?
- How can these words be grouped together or grouped in like categories of conceptual understanding in order to make connections between the words?

To get students involved in the selection of vocabulary words that require systematic and explicit instruction, share a list of words from the content and ask them to rank the word as a 1, 2, 3, or 4. A level 1 word is a word that they have never heard before, level 2 words are words that they have heard, but do not know the meaning of, a level 3 word is a word that they recognize and can relate to other words, and a level 4 word is a word they know well and can use in conversation or writing. Students who have more words in their vocabulary at levels 3 and 4 will demonstrate better reading comprehension and better use of context clues when novel words are encountered (National Reading Panel, 2000).

Other vocabulary concepts that have a direct impact on comprehension and increasing the depth and breadth of students' vocabulary includes instruction in synonyms, antonyms, figurative language, morphology, and Greek and Latin roots. While not often thought of as vocabulary because this often refers to a group of words as opposed to a single word, figurative language can be a common barrier to comprehension. This is because of the abstract nature of figurative language and the fact that figurative language is when words say one thing but mean another. Figurative language is what authors use to help a reader comprehend abstract and complex concepts in an understandable way or to create a strong visual picture of characters, events, actions, settings, and emotions.

Figurative language and figures of speech include personification, hyperbole, idioms, irony, alliteration, antithesis, metaphors, similes, puns, paradoxes, oxymorons, onomatopoeia, metonymy, synecdoche, sarcasm, allusion, clichés, symbolism, homophones, and homographs. Words that express emotion are often expressed in metaphors or personification and are very abstract for many students. As such, helping students to master the degrees or shades of emotion along a continuum based on various examples of situational contexts can support a better understanding not only of the meaning of the word but how that may relate to characters' motivations and thus inference and prediction skills while reading.

English is a morphophonemic language, which means that words in English are made up of units of meaning (morphemes) and sounds (phonemes). The better students understand how to break words apart by morphemes and phonemes, the better they will be able to understand their meanings. Most words in the English language are combinations of morphemes such as base or root words, prefixes, and suffixes. Teaching students to recognize and analyze word parts such as roots, prefixes, and suffixes (morphemic analysis) can support to expand their knowledge and understanding of known and unknown words (Baumann, Edwards, Font, Tereshinski, Kame'enui, & Olejnik, 2002) because it allows them to make connections between semantically related words and word families (Nagy, 2005). Teacher modeling of analysis of words and word parts helps students to begin to independently build and expand their vocabularies (Anderson & Freebody, 1981). This includes knowledge of Greek and Latin roots, which is important because over half of all English words are derived from Latin and Greek roots (Rasinski, Padak, Newton, & Newton, 2008). For example, knowing the root *mal* means “bad”, a student reading a book in the Harry Potter book series can understand that the character with the last name “Malfoy” is likely going to be a character with bad intentions, but it also helps to explain words in other content areas such as “malignant”, “dismal”, “malformed,” and “malnutrition”.

## VI. Overview of important factors for vocabulary instruction

- When introducing new words, say the word and have students repeat the word after you. Words are not stored into memory by meaning but are stored based on their pronunciation. Therefore, it is critically important that students be able to pronounce the word as part of learning the meaning of a word. This ability to remember the pronunciation of a word supports the ease with which words are stored in long term memory and remembered (Sutherland & Gillon, 2005). This also supports reading the word in context as readers use their initial pronunciation and search their oral vocabulary to recognize and make sense of the words they see in print. If the word is not in their oral vocabulary, they will have a difficult time recognizing that word in print, even if they accurately decode it.
- Pre-teach vocabulary before getting into content. Reading new words takes up space in working memory, which means that it takes up a great deal of time and effort that should be used to figure out the meaning of the sentence or passage. Pre-teaching vocabulary frees up working memory so that comprehension is more easily achieved. Information is stored and retrieved more easily. Students are more able to apply additional reading skills such as inference, prediction, comparing, and making connections while reading, as well as filtering what information is important from details that are not important.
- Do not rely on definitions alone. One of the least effective methods of vocabulary instruction is using a dictionary. This is because definitions are written to be as short and concise as possible, as well as the fact that words can have multiple meanings or parts of speech. For example, the word “obscure” can be used as an adjective or a verb, the definition of *ambiguous* includes the words “liable”, “interpretation”, “uncertain”, and “indefinite”, and the meaning of the word “attribute” can be different depending on the pronunciation.
- Make connections between words. When students can find connections between words, they are more easily stored and remembered for later use. In fact, children learn new words by making connections to words and concepts they already know. By categorizing and classifying words, instruction creates a way to organize and easily retrieve unfamiliar words students are learning (Moats and Tolman, 2019). This begins early with teaching young children that words fall into specific categories (e.g., “rainy”, “windy”, and “sunny” are all related to weather). This continues as more sophisticated vocabulary is learned (e.g., “cotton gin”, “capitalism”, and “steam engine” are all related to the Industrial Revolution).
- Teach the semantic features of the word. Semantic features support the development of visual imagery, which significantly supports reading comprehension. This is because the understanding of a story requires the reader to form a mental representation of the story while reading (Kintsch, 1988; Zwaan and Radvansky, 1998). However, students who are not proficient at making mental or visual images while reading have been found to show poor reading performance (Bell, 1991; Snow, 2002; Hibbing and Rankin-Erickson, 2003; De Koning and Van der Schoot, 2013). Semantic features include teaching the



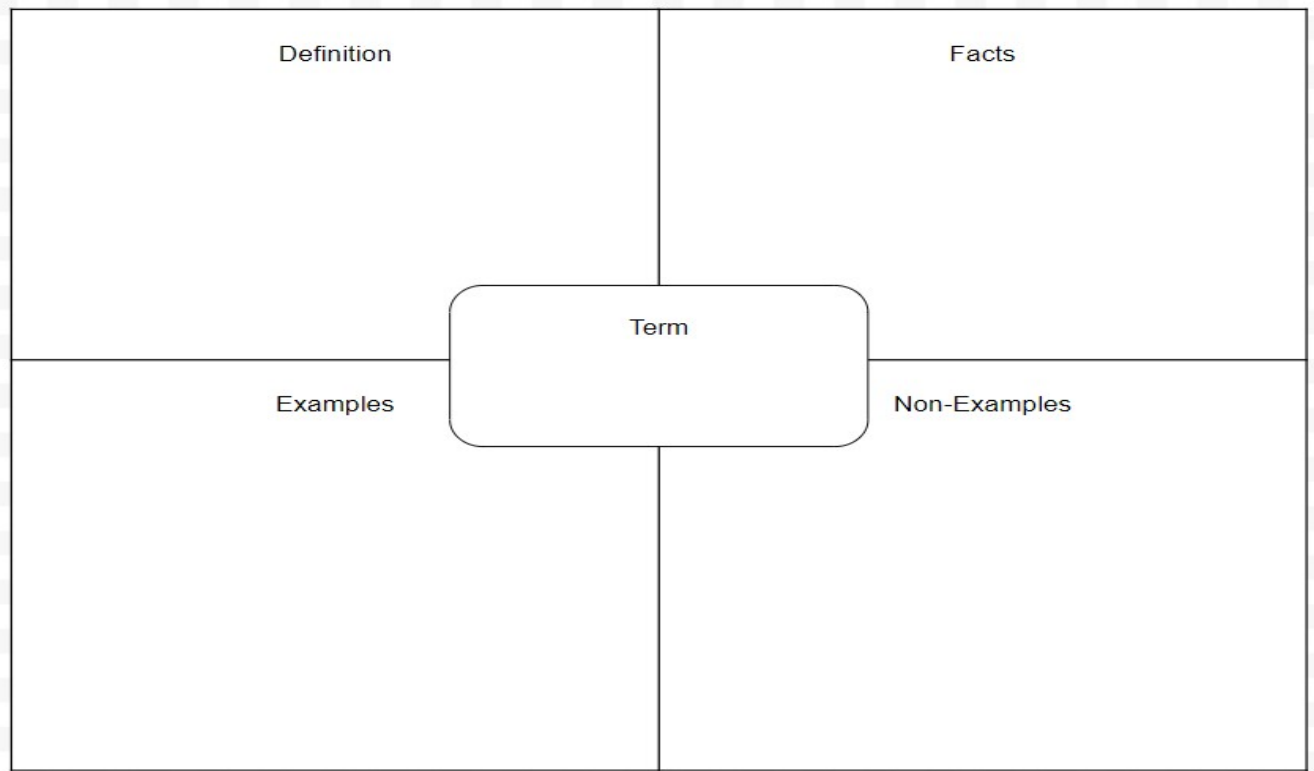
following aspects of a word: category, function, visual characteristics, features and/or parts, location, and associations or affiliated background knowledge related to a word.

Examples for Words Across the Three Tiers

	Tier One	Tier Two	Tier Three
Word	Wombat	Quidditch	Metalloid
Category	Animal; marsupial	Sport; game of wizards	Chemical element on the periodic table
Function or action	Digs burrows, tunnels	The Chasers and the Keeper respectively score with and defend the goals against the Quaffle; the two Beaters bat the Bludgers away from their teammates and towards their opponents; and the Seeker locates and catches the Golden Snitch.	Metalloids behave mostly as nonmetals. They can form alloys with metals.
Visual characteristics	Small, brown furry animal with no tail, very small ears, and short stubby legs	Matches are played on broomsticks a large oval pitch with three ring-shaped goals of different heights on each side, to catch the Golden Snitch.	Typical metalloids have a metallic appearance, but they are brittle.
Features or Constituent Parts	Powerful claws and rodent like teeth for digging. Their pouches are on their back, not in front like kangaroos	Two teams, seven players each: three Chasers, two Beaters, the Keeper, and the Seeker	Includes boron, silicon, germanium, arsenic, antimony and tellurium
Location	Australia, mostly underground	Hogwarts	On a standard periodic table, all eleven elements are in a diagonal region of the p-block extending from boron at the upper left to astatine at lower right.
Other information, associations, or related background knowledge	Wombats have been described as ecological engineers as their burrow building results in soil turnover and aeration, which assists plant growth, and provides habitat for a range of animals.	Quidditch first appeared in the novel <i>Harry Potter and the Philosopher's Stone</i> .	They and their compounds are used as (or in) alloying components, biological agents (toxicological, nutritional, and medicinal), catalysts, flame retardants, glasses (oxide and metallic), optical storage media and optoelectronics, semiconductors, and electronics.



The Frayer model is another model that may incorporate semantic features across four quadrants.



## K-2 Grade Vocabulary Resources

Term	Definition
Context Clues	<p>Information within a text that allows readers to interpret and understand the meanings of new or unfamiliar words or phrases; context clues can typically be found within a phrase, sentence, or paragraph of text to provide insight to readers; types of context clues include:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Contrast/Antonym:</b> When a word or phrase is clarified by the use of a contrasting or opposite-meaning word.</li> <li>• <b>Definition/Explanation:</b> When a word or phrase’s meaning is explained or directly defined after its use.</li> <li>• <b>Example:</b> When a text uses an example to help explain the meaning of a word or phrase.</li> <li>• <b>Inference/General Context:</b> When information around the word or phrase (e.g., before or after its usage) allows a reader to infer meaning.</li> <li>• <b>Punctuation:</b> When a reader is able to determine the meaning of a word or phrase using punctuation or type style within a text (e.g., an explanation within parentheses that directly follows an unknown word).</li> <li>• <b>Restatement/Synonym:</b> When a word or phrase is said in a simpler way or using a more familiar word with a similar meaning.</li> </ul>
Morpheme	<p>The smallest meaningful unit of language.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Derivational Morpheme:</b> An affix—a group of letters added before the beginning (prefix) or after the end (suffix)— of a root or base word to create a new word or a new form of an existing word.</li> <li>• <b>Inflectional Morpheme:</b> An affix—a group of letters added before the beginning (prefix) or after the end (suffix)— added to a noun, verb, adjective, or adverb to assign a particular grammatical property to that word such as: tense, number, possession, or comparison; these do not change the essential meaning or the grammatical category of a word.</li> </ul>
Nuance	<p>Slight or subtle differences in the meaning of words or phrases. An author may intentionally use nuanced language in a literary or informational text to reveal his or her opinions on a topic or to have a specific effect on the audience.</p>
Phonic Pattern	<p>The allowable and expected patterns for how letters can be sequenced to represent the sounds (phonemes) of spoken language.</p>
Prefix	<p>An affix attached to the beginning of a base word that changes or adds to its meaning.</p>

## Phonic Patterns

Grade	Pattern
1	<p>ELA.1.F.3.8</p> <p>Decode and encode words using:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a. onset/rime*;</li> <li>b. consonant blends (initial and final);</li> <li>c. consonant digraphs (ch, sh, th, wh, ph, ck);</li> <li>d. trigraphs (e.g. -tch, -dge);</li> <li>e. combination (e.g., qu);</li> <li>f. VCe;</li> <li>g. r-controlled vowels (e.g., ar, er, ir, or, ur);</li> <li>h. common inflectional endings that do not change the base word (e.g., -s, -ed);</li> <li>i. contractions with am, is, has, and not;</li> <li>j. hard and soft sounds of c and g (c=/k/ before a, o, u, or any consonant and c=/s/ before i, e, or y; g=/g/ before a, o, u, or any consonant and g=/j/ before i, e, or y) *;</li> <li>k. vowel y in the final position of one- and two-syllable words, distinguishing the difference between the long /ī/ sound in one-syllable words and the long /ē/ sound in two-syllable words, and words with vowel y in medial position, producing the short /i/ sound (e.g., fly-my; baby-happy, myth-gym) *;</li> <li>l. words that follow the -ild, -ost, -old, -olt, and -ind patterns (e.g., mild, host, fold, jolt, kind) *;</li> <li>m. silent letter combinations (e.g., kn, wr, mb, gh, gn) *;</li> <li>n. words with final /f/, /l/, and /s/ sounds in one-syllable base words by doubling the final consonant when it follows a short vowel sound (e.g., cliff, hill, pass) *; and</li> <li>o. words with final /v/ sound, using aw; oo, ew, ue; ee, ea; igh, ie; ai, ay);</li> </ul> <p>knowledge that no English word ends with a v. (e.g. have, give, save).</p> <p>*With prompting and support</p>
2	<p>ELA.2.F.3.8</p> <p>Decode and encode multisyllabic words using:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a. consonant digraphs (sh, th, ch, wh, ph, ck);</li> <li>b. combination (e.g., qu);</li> <li>c. three-consonant blends (e.g., str-, scr-);</li> <li>d. blends containing digraphs (e.g., thr-, -nch);</li> <li>e. trigraphs (e.g., -tch, -dge);</li> <li>f. variable vowel teams and vowel diphthongs (oi, oy; ou, ow; au,</li> <li>g. vowel-r combinations (ar, air, are, ear, eer, er, ere, eir, ir, or, oar, ore, our, ur);</li> <li>h. common inflectional endings that may change the base word (e.g., -ed, -ing, -s, -es);</li> <li>i. words with a after w read /ă/ and a before l read /â/ (e.g., wash, water, wasp; tall, all, talk, small, fall);</li> <li>j. words with the hard and soft sounds of c and g, in context and in isolation. (c=/k/ before a, o, u, or any consonant and c=/s/ before i, e, or y g=/g/ before a, o, u, or any consonant and g=/j/ before i, e, or y);</li> </ul>

Grade	Pattern
	<p>k. words with vowel y in the final position of one- and two-syllable words, distinguishing the difference between the long /ī/ sound in one-syllable words and the long /ē/ sound in two-syllable words;</p> <p>l. words with vowel y in medial position, producing the short /ĭ/ sound for these words (e.g., fly-my; baby-happy; myth-gym);</p> <p>m. words with silent letter combinations. (e.g., kn, wr, gn, mb, gh); and</p> <p>n. contractions with am, is, has, not, have, would, and will (e.g., I'm, he's, she's, isn't, don't, I've, he'd, they'll)</p>

### Prefixes

Grade 2
re-
un-

\*This is a non-prescriptive list.

### Inflectional Morphemes

Grade 1	Grade 2
-s	-s
-es	-es
-ed	-ed
-ing	-ing
	-en
	-er
	-est
	-‘s

\*This is a non-prescriptive list.

### 3-5 Grade Vocabulary Resources

Term	Definition
Base Word	A unit of meaning that can stand alone as a word (e.g., “tree” “night”). Also called a free morpheme. A base word can have a prefix or suffix added to it to create new meaning.
Context Clues	<p>Information within a text that allows readers to interpret and understand the meanings of new or unfamiliar words or phrases. Context clues can typically be found within a phrase, sentence, or paragraph of text to provide insight to readers.</p> <p>Types of context clues include:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Contrast/Antonym:</b> When a word or phrase is clarified by the use of a contrasting or opposite-meaning word.</li> <li>• <b>Definition/Explanation:</b> When a word or phrase’s meaning is explained or directly defined after its use.</li> <li>• <b>Example:</b> When a text uses an example to help explain the meaning of a word or phrase.</li> <li>• <b>Inference/General Context:</b> When information around the word or phrase (e.g., before or after its usage) allows a reader to infer meaning.</li> <li>• <b>Punctuation:</b> When a reader is able to determine the meaning of a word or phrase using punctuation or type style within a text (e.g., an explanation within parentheses that directly follow an unknown word).</li> <li>• <b>Restatement/Synonym:</b> When a word or phrase is said in a simpler way or using a more familiar word with a similar meaning.</li> </ul>
Derivational Morpheme	An affix—a group of letters added before the beginning (prefix) or after the end (suffix)—of a root or base word to create a new word or a new form of an existing word.
Figurative Language	<p>Language that helps readers interpret a writer's meaning and allows a writer to articulate more abstract and complex concepts in an understandable way; figurative language contains figures of speech; types of figurative language can include, but are not limited to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Alliteration:</b> The repetition of the same letter or sound at the beginning of adjacent or connected words.</li> <li>• <b>Hyperbole:</b> Inflated or overstated statements or claims not meant to be taken literally; intentional exaggeration to emphasize a point or to add humor.</li> <li>• <b>Idiom:</b> Words used that are usually common to speakers of certain languages or regions that may be different from their literal meaning (e.g., “It’s raining cats and dogs” does not mean that cats and dogs are falling from the sky, but that it is raining heavily).</li> </ul>

Term	Definition
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Metaphor:</b> <i>An implied comparison that is untrue in a literal way; metaphors help illustrate or describe a concept or situation by comparing it to something else; authors use metaphors to express emotions and enhance descriptions creatively (e.g., “His fingers had become translucent icicles after playing in the snow”); the purpose of the metaphor is to show the reader how cold it is outside without directly saying, “it is freezing outside”; by comparing “fingers” to “translucent icicles”, the reader creates a mental image of how cold it is.</i></li> <li>• <b>Onomatopoeia:</b> <i>A word that mimics the sound it represents (e.g., “boom,” “oink,” “sizzle”).</i></li> <li>• <b>Personification:</b> <i>Giving human characteristics and/or qualities to non-human things.</i></li> <li>• <b>Simile:</b> <i>A figure of speech in which two different or dissimilar things are directly compared using “like” or “as”; similes are often used to connect ideas or objects in a creative or unexpected way.</i></li> </ul>
Homograph	A word that has the same spelling as another word but has an alternate meaning.
Idiom	Words used that are usually common to speakers of certain languages or regions that may be different from their literal meaning (e.g., “It’s raining cats and dogs” does not mean that cats and dogs are falling from the sky, but that it is raining heavily).
Metaphor	An implied comparison that is untrue in a literal way; metaphors help illustrate or describe a concept or situation by comparing it to something else; authors use metaphors to express emotions and enhance descriptions creatively (e.g., “His fingers had become translucent icicles after playing in the snow”); the purpose of the metaphor is to show the reader how cold it is outside without directly saying, “it is freezing outside”; by comparing “fingers” to “translucent icicles”, the reader creates a mental image of how cold it is.
Phonic Pattern	The allowable and expected patterns for how letters can be sequenced to represent the sounds (phonemes) of spoken language.
Prefix	An affix attached to the beginning of a base word that changes or adds to its meaning.
Simile	A figure of speech in which two different or dissimilar things are directly compared using “like” or “as”; similes are often used to connect ideas or objects in a creative or unexpected way.
Suffix	An affix attached to the end of a base word that changes or adds to its meaning.

## Prefixes

Grade 3
de- pre- in- im- dis- tele-

\*This is a non-prescriptive list.

## Suffixes

Grade 3
-ion -ly -able -er -est -ies -ied -ed -ful -less -ing -ly -y

\*This is a non-prescriptive list.

Grade	Greek and Latin Roots
4	auto, graph, bio, hydro, chron, micro, macro, zoo, and meter
5	geo, fact, astro, port, pan, thermo, homo, form, scope, tele, phono, and photo

\*This is a non-prescriptive list.



### 6-8 Grade Vocabulary Resources

Term	Definition
Connotation	An idea, feeling, or emotion that a word evokes in addition to its literal or primary meaning (i.e., denotation). While denotation is typically the literal meaning of a word, the connotation is typically the nonliteral meaning of a word.
Context	In vocabulary, the position or function of the word in the text.
Denotation	The literal or explicit meaning of a word; the definition of a word as it may be found in a dictionary or glossary.
Etymology	The study of word origins; location from which a word originated can reveal a great deal about its meaning as well as why it follows a specific or unique phonic pattern; etymology can include, but is not limited to, the study of Greek and Latin roots.
Figurative Language	<p>Language that helps readers interpret a writer's meaning and allows a writer to articulate more abstract and complex concepts in an understandable way; figurative language contains figures of speech; types of figurative language can include, but are not limited to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Alliteration:</b> The repetition of the same letter or sound at the beginning of adjacent or connected words.</li> <li>• <b>Hyperbole:</b> Inflated or overstated statements or claims not meant to be taken literally; intentional exaggeration to emphasize a point or to add humor.</li> <li>• <b>Idiom:</b> Words used that are usually common to speakers of certain languages or regions that may be different from their literal meaning (e.g., “It’s raining cats and dogs” does not mean that cats and dogs are falling from the sky, but that it is raining heavily).</li> <li>• <b>Metaphor:</b> An implied comparison that is untrue in a literal way; metaphors help illustrate or describe a concept or situation by comparing it to something else; authors use metaphors to express emotions and enhance descriptions creatively (e.g., “His fingers had become translucent icicles after playing in the snow”); the purpose of the metaphor is to show the reader how cold it is outside without directly saying, “it is freezing outside”; by comparing “fingers” to “translucent icicles”, the reader creates a mental image of how cold it is.</li> <li>• <b>Onomatopoeia:</b> A word that mimics the sound it represents (e.g., “boom,” “oink,” “sizzle”).</li> <li>• <b>Personification:</b> Giving human characteristics and/or qualities to non-human things.</li> <li>• <b>Simile:</b> A figure of speech in which two different or dissimilar things are directly compared using “like” or “as”; similes are often used to connect ideas or objects in a creative or unexpected way.</li> </ul>

Term	Definition
Figures of Speech	A word or phrase used in a non-literal way in order to have a specific effect; figures of speech frequently appear in reading, writing, and oral communication. Figures of speech are the techniques that authors use in figurative language.
Oxymoron	A figure of speech that presents a contradiction or paradox.

Examples of Words with Similar Denotation, Different Connotations
assertive, pushy, aggressive, domineering
gaunt, thin, lanky, slim
odor, retrieve, appeal, stench
brilliant, brainy, bright, smart
antique, old, elderly, aged

\*This is a non-prescriptive list.

Grade	Greek and Latin Roots
6	mis/mit, press, dict, struct, cide, junct, bene, man, vac, scrib/script, and jur/jus
7	grad/gress, spire, ject, flec, omni, log/logue, gen, mort, vid/vis, phil, luc, and sens/sent
8	ast, cept/capt, pel, tract, rupt, spect, qui, path, vert, mand/mend, and duc.

\*This is a non-prescriptive list.

### E1-E4 Vocabulary Resources

Term	Definition
Context	In vocabulary, the position or function of the word in the text.
Etymology	The study of word origins; location from which a word originated can reveal a great deal about its meaning as well as why it follows a specific or unique phonic pattern; etymology can include, but is not limited to, the study of Greek and Latin roots.
Hyperbole	Inflated or overstated statements or claims not meant to be taken literally; intentional exaggeration to emphasize a point or to add humor.
Irony	<p>A literary technique in which words, events, or other elements have an outcome or meaning contrary to what is stated or anticipated. Irony can often be created through a difference in perspective between the author, characters, narrator, and/or audience. Examples of irony include:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b><i>Dramatic Irony:</i></b> Irony that is clear in speeches or drama and is interpreted by the audience but not grasped or realized by the characters.</li> <li>• <b><i>Situational Irony:</i></b> Irony in which events or actions have an outcome that is the opposite of what was intended or expected. Within a text, situational irony can be created through differences in perspective between the author, characters, and/or reader.</li> <li>• <b><i>Verbal Irony:</i></b> Irony in which a speaker, author, narrator, or character uses written or spoken word to convey a meaning that is the opposite of what is directly stated</li> </ul>
Nuances	Slight or subtle differences in the meaning of words or phrases. An author may intentionally use nuanced language in a literary or informational text to reveal his or her opinions on a topic or to have a specific effect on the audience.
Pun	Words that sound alike but have multiple or varied meanings (e.g., “Denial ain’t just a river in Egypt.” —Mark Twain (Instead of The Nile).
Tone	A writer or speaker’s feeling toward a subject, character, or audience communicated through the author’s choice of words and detail; tone can be formal, informal, serious, humorous, sarcastic, and/or objective based on the task and audience of the text.
Understatement	The intentional use of language to lessen or minimize the impact of an event or feeling. An author often uses understatement to create specific effects in writing.

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