

SOME PROCEDURES AND TECHNIQUES FOR  
GROUPING IN THIRD GRADE  
READING

by

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

Any elementary teacher knows that when children enter the third grade there are wide differences in reading abilities. The poorest reader may be reading on the first grade level and the best reader may be reading on the fifth or sixth grade level. In order to meet these wide differences in reading ability, grouping for instructional purposes has been advocated for many years.

#### I. THE PROBLEM

##### Statement of the Problem

The purposes of this study were: (1) to study the need for grouping in reading, (2) to examine some effective grouping procedures, and (3) to present some approaches and techniques for grouping in reading.

##### Importance of the Study

In the past ten years, many articles have been written that have criticized the procedure of intraclass grouping for the purpose of reading instruction. Groff states that when intraclass grouping for reading is used, the needs and abilities of each individual child are not met. Some children are forced to waste their time as they are not allowed to progress at the rate of which they are capable. Besides wasting their

time, undue pressures, frustrations, tensions, emotional blocking, and undesirable attitudes are created by intraclass grouping for reading instruction. Breaking a class into groups is simply to commit the errors of whole-class, mass instruction on a smaller scale.<sup>1</sup> Karlin points out that there has been a great deal of dissatisfaction with the present outcome of reading instruction in which most schools follow the group approach.<sup>2</sup> Veatch states that in her opinion the introduction of the unique practices of individualized reading would destroy a basal, ability-grouped program.<sup>3</sup> McVey points out that each child in the group has a different reading ability and needs assistance on a different phase of reading skills.<sup>4</sup> Spache says that teachers group for their own convenience under the guise of recognizing individual differences.<sup>5</sup> These criticisms lead one to believe that another method of reading instruction should be instigated into our schools. Experiments have been carried out using

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<sup>1</sup>Patrick J. Groff, "Getting Started with Individualized Reading," Elementary English, XXXVII (February, 1960), 105.

<sup>2</sup>Robert Karlin, "Some Reactions to Individualized Reading," The Reading Teacher, XI (December, 1957), 95.

<sup>3</sup>Jeannette Veatch, "In Defense of Individualized Reading," Elementary English, XXXVII (April, 1960), 229.

<sup>4</sup>Marcia McVey, "Reading Sure is Fun Now," Elementary English, XXXVII (May, 1960), 307.

<sup>5</sup>George G. Spache, Reading in the Elementary School (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1964), p. 64.

individualized reading as a replacement for the basal reader program with which grouping is often associated. Yet teachers who have worked with both programs have preferred to retain the basal group procedures, but felt that the best features of the individualized program should be used. Tests indicated that the able readers did not progress any further with one program than another. Slower learners made greater gains in vocabulary growth using the basal program.<sup>6</sup>

Not only has the procedure of grouping been criticized but the teacher's methods for grouping as well. Spache says that less than 5 per cent of the primary teachers who use grouping make any attempt to group children according to such recommended bases as social factors, interests, or need for specific training in important skills.<sup>7</sup> Therefore, in this study an attempt has been made to find some effective grouping procedures and techniques for reading instruction which will lead to a better understanding of what and how grouping can contribute to the instructional reading program and to the individual child.

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<sup>6</sup>Harry W. Sartain, "The Roseville Experiment with Individualized Reading," The Reading Teacher, XIII (April, 1960), 281.

<sup>7</sup>Spache, loc. cit.

## II. DEFINITION OF TERMS USED

Grouping

Grouping has been used to mean the process of classifying pupils for instructional purposes in an interclass situation.<sup>8</sup>

Ability Grouping

Good defines ability grouping as the classifying of pupils into homogeneous sections with reference to intelligence for purpose of instruction.<sup>9</sup>

Class Grouping

Class grouping is the act or procedure of dividing the pupils of a class into two or more groups on the basis of interest or ability, for the purpose of adapting instruction.<sup>10</sup>

Sociometric Grouping

Sociometric grouping is the division of members of a group into subgroups on the basis of a sociogram.<sup>11</sup>

Functional Reading

Functional reading is defined by Good as purposive

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<sup>8</sup>Carter V. Good, Dictionary of Education (second edition; New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1959), p. 256.

<sup>9</sup>Ibid.

<sup>10</sup>Ibid.

<sup>11</sup>Ibid.

reading activities evolving from daily classroom activities such as reading in a science book to check an observation, reading in a health book, or reading notices on the bulletin board.<sup>12</sup>

### Free Reading

Free reading is the reading done by a child at his own option during the time that is allotted to other activities.<sup>13</sup>

### Reading Level

The reading level is the level of achievement reached by an individual which is generally defined in terms of growth. Examples of this are the reading readiness level and the first-grade level.<sup>14</sup>

### Instructional Reading Level

The instructional reading level is the level at which a child can be instructed effectively in reading. It is the level at which the reader can read so as to learn effectively.<sup>15</sup>

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<sup>12</sup>Ibid., p. 443.

<sup>13</sup>Ibid.

<sup>14</sup>Ibid., p. 445.

<sup>15</sup>Ibid.

### Reading Ability

Reading ability is the skill acquired in recognizing directly and interpreting accurately printed or written units of language with eye movements normally characterized by long sweeps that do not overreach their span of recognition.<sup>16</sup>

### Leisure or Recreational Reading

Leisure reading or recreational reading as it is sometimes called, is done for relaxation or amusement and is guided by interests other than those relating to educational or vocational obligations.<sup>17</sup>

## III. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This study has been limited to grouping within heterogeneous classrooms. Forms of administrative grouping have not been considered.

## IV. A BRIEF HISTORY OF GROUPING

In the colonial period, instruction in the schools was of the simplest form, usually on an individualized basis. Each child worked on his own at his own pace.<sup>18</sup> With the

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<sup>16</sup>Ibid., p. 2.

<sup>17</sup>Ibid., p. 443.

<sup>18</sup>National Education Association, Elementary School Organization, Purposes, Patterns, Perspective (National Elementary Principal, Vol. XLI, No. 3. Washington D. C., National Education Association, December, 1961), pp. 50-53.

passing of time, the growth of the young nation brought about many changes which dictated change in the instructional system for the young. As the nation grew, there was a growing recognition of the importance of education. Attention was focused on the lack of organized curriculums, sequential instruction, and economy and efficiency in the individualized instruction given. In an effort to improve the instructional program, a monitorial system was introduced in the early eighteen hundreds. Education, however, sank to a very low level of efficiency. Seeking to find ways of improving the educational system, Horace Mann recommended the adoption of the graded school.<sup>19</sup> This one-teacher-per grade organization was put into practice in 1848 by Philbrick and was known as the Quincy Grammar School.<sup>20</sup> Many efforts were made to improve the one-teacher-per grade organization but it was not until the 1920's that educators began to accept the philosophy that grouping in reading instruction was necessary to meet the needs of each individual child. Teachers felt that by grouping the children in their classrooms on a homogeneous basis more adequate instruction could be provided. Grouping

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<sup>19</sup>William S. Gray, "The Evolution of Patterns of Instructional Organization," Reading Instruction in Various Patterns of Grouping, Helen Robinson, editor (Proceedings of the Annual Conference on Reading, Vol. XXI, No. 89. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1959), pp. 15-16.

<sup>20</sup>National Education Association, loc. cit.

in the beginning was achieved by administering standardized intelligence tests. The children were then placed in various groups on the basis of these scores. Consequently, the children fell into the "bright," "average," and "slow" groups. Children that had the misfortune to rate membership in the slow group had a social stigma attached to them.<sup>21</sup>

According to this plan of grouping, children in a given grade were all supposed to cover the same material but at a different rate of speed. The "bright" children covered the material more rapidly and may have been well advanced in the reader while the "slow" children were struggling along at the beginning stages. It was therefore impossible to transfer from one group to another because of the work gap. So, children advanced from grade to grade carrying their labels with them.<sup>22</sup>

Parents were disturbed by the labels their children carried with them, particularly if their children were in the slow group. Parents knew that their children were slow in reading but that they were not slow in all areas of the curriculum. Teachers, therefore, tried to hide the fact that there was a "bright," "average," and "slow" group by giving

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<sup>21</sup>Kathleen B. Hester, Teaching Every Child to Read (New York: Harper and Row, 1964), p. 274.

<sup>22</sup>Ibid.

them various names such as "Birds," "Butterflies," and "Bumblebees." No one was misled by this guise.<sup>23</sup>

Research in child growth and development in the late twenties and early thirties indicated that children had different needs. As a result of this research, it became apparent that intelligence alone was not a sound basis for grouping but that other factors had to be considered--reading achievement, special interests, and physical conditions. Research further divulged a need for varied teaching methods. The method suited for one group would not work well with another group. Due to these findings, changes began to occur. Instructional methods were altered and changed to meet the needs of different groups more effectively. Not all children were expected to cover the same material. Teacher's manuals began to stress that the individual progress at his own rate. In spite of the findings of research and the change in method, teachers tended to group by the old method of "bright," "average," and "slow" with the group differences being a matter of acceleration.<sup>24</sup>

The forties brought forth numerous research studies concerned with reading. Teachers attempted to apply the results to their classrooms as they began to accept the fact

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<sup>23</sup>Ibid.

<sup>24</sup>Ibid., p. 275.

that it was normal to have a wide variance in reading achievement in a given classroom. Consequently, various forms of grouping were tried. Groups were formed around a unifying center of interest, through specific group interests, and by reading achievement. Children were shifted from one group to another but the thought uppermost in a teacher's mind was how to get every child to read on his grade level.<sup>25</sup>

In recent years, research in child growth and development has led teachers away from the idea of bringing the child up to the hypothetical "grade" level. Emphasis in recent years has been on what reading can do for the child's development.<sup>26</sup>

#### V. METHOD OF PROCEDURE

In the preparation of this report it was necessary to do library research to determine the need of grouping in reading and to examine some effective grouping procedures in order to present some approaches and techniques for grouping in reading. The references for this task were obtained largely from the Kansas State University Library.

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<sup>25</sup>Ibid.

<sup>26</sup>Ibid.

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

#### I. CRITERIA FOR AN EFFECTIVE READING PROGRAM

Before any decision is made as to the type of reading program that will best suit the needs of the children, the criteria for a good reading program should be examined.

Lazar says that an effective reading program should:

1. Provide for individual differences.
2. Recognize interest and purpose as important factors in learning.
3. Allow a child to learn and develop at his own pace and not demand that he fit into a pre-determined "grade level."
4. Recognize the importance of a child's physical and mental health in relation to learning and emphasize the need for active participation of the child in the learning process.
5. Provide consistently successful experiences in reading which make the child the best reader he is capable of being.
6. Supply methods and materials suited to the child's own assets, purposes, and needs.
7. Give teachers opportunity for flexibility in methods and use of materials.
8. Discourage competitiveness among the children.
9. Arrange for sharing of reading experiences in which all can participate regardless of the level of the reading material.
10. Give opportunity to read in normal situations.
11. Include reading activities which develop the reading skills in functional ways.
12. Recognize the opportunities for the development of skills in the content areas.

13. Emphasize the interrelation of all language arts which are based on wide and interesting experiences that provide excellent content for reading, discussion, dramatization, and other activities.<sup>27</sup>

## II. ESTABLISHING A NEED FOR GROUPING

In order to meet the criteria of providing for individual differences, a teacher must be able to plan and carry out a program in which children with varying capacities for learning can be effectively guided to achieve the objectives of reading instruction, in accordance with their individual learning abilities. The range of reading achievement increases as children progress through school. This increase is due to such factors as intelligence, experiential background, attainment in other language arts, physical handicaps, and motivation or lack of motivation.<sup>28</sup> Children's needs vary with the factors that have effected their reading growth. In order to provide for these wide differences and needs of children in the third grade, McKee says that it is advisable if not imperative that pupils be grouped for instructional purposes.<sup>29</sup> Crosby says there are times when it is necessary to group the

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<sup>27</sup>May Lazar, "Individualized Reading: A Dynamic Approach," The Reading Teacher, XI (December, 1957), 76-83.

<sup>28</sup>Albert J. Harris, How to Increase Reading Ability (New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1961), p. 8.

<sup>29</sup>Paul McKee, The Teaching of Reading in the Elementary School (New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1948), p. 283.

children in the classroom for reading.<sup>30</sup> Austin points out that most primary teachers agree that some form of grouping is necessary.<sup>31</sup> Sartain too advocates grouping as do many others.<sup>32</sup>

A child has a basic need of learning to live in a group. As Bradford and Mial point out, a child is born into a family group, plays in neighborhood groups, and learns in a classroom group. Civic, professional, and social affairs are managed through groups. Much of a child's understandings of the world in which he lives is learned through group living.<sup>33</sup>

### III. WAYS OF GROUPING

Treating the whole class as a single group would be the most effective way of grouping for reading instruction if it were not for individual differences. Because of individual

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<sup>30</sup>Muriel Crosby, "Organizing for Reading Instruction," Elementary English, XXXVII (March, 1960), 170.

<sup>31</sup>Mary C. Austin, "Conclusions Concerning Patterns of Grouping for Instruction In and Through Reading in Kindergarten Through Grade Three," Reading Instruction in Various Patterns of Grouping, Proceedings of the Annual Conference on Reading, Vol. XXI, No. 89. (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1959), p. 192.

<sup>32</sup>Harry Sartain, "Individual or Basal in Second and Third Grade," The Instructor, LXXIV (March, 1965), 69.

<sup>33</sup>Leland P. Bradford and Dorothy Mial, "The Individual and the Group," The National Elementary Principal, XLI (January, 1962), 30.

differences, treating the class as a single group for the entire reading program would result in boring the faster children and completely losing those who do not understand.<sup>34</sup>

There are several ways of grouping children for reading. The most common methods are by reading level, interests, invitation, and specific needs. In deciding what method of grouping to use, Harris advises that the range of ability within the class, the age of the pupils, the previous experience of the pupils in working in groups, the materials available, and the teacher's competence should be considered.<sup>35</sup> The teacher herself will have to determine the type or types of grouping which she is able to use most effectively.

#### Grouping by Reading Level

According to Clymer, most teachers form their reading groups for instructional purposes on the basis of reading level or reading ability.<sup>36</sup> Whether the teacher uses this method of grouping or not, it is very important to know how

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<sup>34</sup>Norma E. Cutts and Nicholas Moseley, Providing for Individual Differences in the Elementary School (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1960), p. 36.

<sup>35</sup>Harris, op. cit., p. 122.

<sup>36</sup>Theodore Clymer, "Criteria for Grouping for Reading Instruction," Reading Instruction in Various Patterns of Grouping, Helen Robinson, editor (Proceedings of the Annual Conference on Reading, Vol. XXI, No. 89. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1959, p. 47.

difficult a book a child can read. The selection of reading materials is dependent upon the child's reading level. If children are expected to read materials which they are incapable of handling at that particular time, great damage can be done. Other children may form negative attitudes if they are forced to perform activities in areas which they have already mastered. Thus, a successful program in reading in the primary grades depends to a large extent upon matching the materials for each child with his instructional level.<sup>37</sup>

Children in the third grade, as well as the other primary grades, meet a number of concepts in their reading which are strange or unknown. There are many new words that are not in their sight vocabulary and this calls for a higher level of word recognition skills. The fast pace in which new skills are introduced in the third grade and other primary grades makes it essential that sound principles of teaching reading be followed. Instruction needs to be systematic and planned in order to prevent gaps in the children's learning and to avoid overemphasis of particular skills.<sup>38</sup>

In order to provide pupils with the skills they need and not needlessly repeat the teaching of skills already

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<sup>37</sup>Harris, op. cit., p. 153.

<sup>38</sup>Arthur W. Heilman, Principles and Practices of Teaching Reading, (Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Books, Inc., 1961), p. 206.

learned, it is necessary to make a thorough diagnosis of reading achievement and reading skills. This is advantageous whether the teacher is planning to use ability grouping or not.

Diagnosis means a careful investigation of a situation to determine its nature and find causes or possible causes, with the aim of correcting or remedying the difficulty.<sup>39</sup> This meaning applies in the diagnosis of a child's reading ability. A teacher needs to know the level of a child's ability, the causes that have affected his reading development, and plan to carry out a program that will best meet the needs of that child.

There are several levels recognized in a child's reading ability: the independent reading level, the instructional level, and the frustration level. The independent level is the highest level at which a child can read fluently without assistance. He will make few word recognition errors and has a very good understanding of what he has read and is able to recall it. The instructional level is the highest level at which a child can read providing he has guidance from the teacher. Word recognition errors are not frequent and comprehension and recall are satisfactory. The frustration level is the lowest level at which a child's skills break

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<sup>39</sup>Harris, op. cit., p. 153.

down, fluency disappears, word recognition errors are numerous, comprehension is faulty, recall is very sketchy, and there are evident signs of tension and discomfort.<sup>40</sup>

These levels are helpful to clarify thinking about the meaning of "reading level." If a third-grade child is able to read fourth-grade material with considerable strain, difficulty, and inaccuracy it would be the frustration level. If this same child can read third-grade material with ease, fluency, and almost complete accuracy, it is his independent level. If he is able to read second-grade material without strain, has very good comprehension, and recognizes the words, he should then be placed in third-grade level material for instruction and do independent reading in material on the second-grade level. If the teacher were to place this child in fourth-grade material, it would cause the child considerable frustration and perhaps jeopardize his whole reading future.

When trying to determine a child's independent and instructional levels, a series of graded readers should be used. It is desirable to use a series that is unfamiliar to the children as there is the danger that they may have memorized, or nearly so, the contents of the books to which they have been exposed. It is also desirable to use a book in the

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<sup>40</sup>Ibid., pp. 153-154.

series that is expected to be very easy for the child and to have the child progress through the series on a diagnosis basis until the frustration level is reached.<sup>41</sup>

Harris suggests the following procedure in preparing and administering informal or oral reading tests:

. . . The selections chosen should be near the beginning of the book and should be representative of reader material of that level in language and vocabulary. It is usually advisable to start at the beginning of a story. The teacher should mark the starting place in the margin in pencil, and then count off twenty-five, fifty, one hundred, and two hundred words, marking each place with a vertical pencil line and the number of words. Usually fifty-word selections are sufficient at preprimer level, one hundred-word selections at primer- and first-reader levels, and two hundred-word selections at and above second-reader level. Sometimes a short sample is enough to show that the material is very easy or too hard, but usually samples of the lengths suggested are little enough on which to base a judgment. If quite a few children are to be tested, it is advisable to prepare two or three equivalent selections in each book and to use them in rotation.

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The teacher should try to put the child at ease and to keep the procedure as relaxed and informal as possible. Before reading each selection, a look at the pictures and a bit of discussion helps to maintain similarity to a guided reading lesson. At first- and second-grade levels, proper names of characters should be told and pointed out. The child is asked to read the selection out loud as well as he can, with no preceding silent reading. If he pauses for about five seconds, or asks for help, he is told the word. When the child finishes the selection he is asked to tell the story that he read. If his account is sketchy or incomplete, supplementary questions are asked. Some people prepare in advance a list of five or ten short-answer or objective questions on each selection. Since it is often impossible

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<sup>41</sup>Ibid., pp. 156-157.

to frame that many good questions on such short selections, and variations in the difficulty of questions make the exactness of per cent scores on them highly questionable, this writer prefers the free response kind of comprehension check.

The teacher should select a time when about fifteen minutes will be available without interruption, either during a quiet seatwork period for the entire class, or when the class is out of the room. Teacher and child should sit side by side if there is only one copy of the book. Voices are kept low so as not to disturb the other children.<sup>42</sup>

When children are able to read above the third-grade level a silent test is often desirable along with the oral test. To administer such a test Harris further suggests:

. . . The oral test is given as just described, with the addition that the number of seconds needed to finish the selection is timed with a watch. An equivalent selection is then read silently and timed. Comprehension is checked with similar questions on both selections. From the comparison of the two results one can draw conclusions about the child's relative rate and comprehension in silent and oral reading, and this may cast light on the causation of slow silent reading.<sup>43</sup>

Harris suggests recording the results of the reading test on a blank sheet of paper or a mimeographed form. The necessary data includes the name of the child, name of the book, the selection used, and the number of words read. Mispronounced words are recorded in two columns, the word said by the child and the correct word. In a third column, words for which the child requires aid should be recorded. At the

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<sup>42</sup>Ibid.

<sup>43</sup>Ibid., p. 157.

bottom of the page a record of repetitions and omissions should be recorded by a mark each time these errors occur. The teacher can then figure the percentage of accuracy, and record it. From this record, it can be concluded whether the selection is on the independent, instructional, or frustration level for the child. If a parallel silent reading test is given it may also be recorded on the sheet.<sup>44</sup> An example of such a record can be found in the appendix.

In arriving at conclusions as to the reading level of the child in the selection he has read, it is necessary to apply the meaning of the three levels. This would mean that for the instructional level, word recognition errors should not total over 5 per cent. Mistakes that are spontaneously self-corrected are not included in this count nor are minor slips such as omitting a final "s" or substituting "a" for "the." Material of higher than 10 per cent difficulty is nearly always frustrating. Material that is on the 5 to 10 per cent difficulty level, may be frustrating or not, depending on the motivation of the child or his interest. If there is doubt it is probably better to assign the child to the lower of the two levels in question.<sup>45</sup>

In silent reading, the most important characteristic

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<sup>44</sup>Ibid., pp. 158-159.

<sup>45</sup>Ibid., pp. 159-160.

to be determined is comprehension. This is usually done in one of two ways. One is to use a test with a number of short paragraphs with a question following each one that measures comprehension measure. The other method presents a fairly long selection for the child to read. Time is either called and the child marks the place to which he read, or he is allowed to finish it and the time is recorded that was required to read it. Ability to detect the main idea, understand the feelings of characters, and anticipate what will probably happen next in the story are some aspects that help to determine the child's level of comprehension. The number of correct answers the child gives to this type of question in proportion to the number of answers on the whole test is the measure of accuracy in silent reading.<sup>46</sup>

Reports show that about 95 per cent of the elementary school systems in the United States use a basal reader as the core of their reading program.<sup>47</sup> Ability grouping is often associated with this type of program as the basal readers provide for sequential instruction in reading skills as the child achieves more reading ability. The materials are

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<sup>46</sup>Ibid., pp. 161-162.

<sup>47</sup>Mary C. Austin, "Types of Materials Needed," Reading Instruction in Various Patterns of Grouping, Helen Robinson, editor (Proceedings of the Annual Conference on Reading, Vol. XXI, No. 89. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1959), p. 192.

increased in complexity from level to level.<sup>48</sup>

The basal reader program and ability grouping have been so closely interwoven that it is difficult to separate them. Some of the major advantages of ability grouping around a basal reader according to Gray are:

1. A closely integrated program provided by basal reader materials which serves as a guide to teachers from the kindergarten to high school.
2. A guide for the development of attitudes and skills common to the many reading activities in which children engage in and out of school.
3. A common background on which to build in promoting reading growth in and through reading in all school activities.
4. Use of group dynamics to stimulate interests and motives for reading.
5. Promotion of breadth and depth of interpretation through discussion in which children compare their answers to stimulating problems and questions and arrive at a conclusion.
6. Sequential arrangement so that reading experiences gradually expand in scope.
7. Selections that relate to the major areas of human interest and activity so as to promote understandings needed for efficient living in our society.
8. A growing acquaintance with children's cultural heritage.
9. Stimulation of interests that lead to wide personal reading.<sup>49</sup>

Other advantages of grouping by reading level include:

- (1) the improved response of slow learners when they can proceed at their own pace, (2) the more able readers can proceed

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<sup>48</sup>Mary C. Austin and Coleman Morrison, The First R, The Harvard Report on Reading in Elementary Schools (New York: Macmillan Company, 1963), p. 21.

<sup>49</sup>William S. Gray, "Role of Group and Individualized Reading in a Sound Reading Program," The Reading Teacher, XI (December, 1957), 100-102.

at an accelerated pace, (3) the average child is given his share of the teacher's time, (4) the materials may be suited to each child's reading level, (5) intensive practice may be provided when and where it is needed, (6) it gives the child an opportunity to work with children who need the same kind of instruction in skills, habits, and attitudes, and (7) efficient use of the teacher's time in an activity that can be shared.<sup>50</sup>

#### Grouping According to Specific Needs

It is not enough to determine a child's level of reading. Those children with similar general reading achievement vary widely in special skills in reading such as word recognition, study skills, vocabulary development, and so on.<sup>51</sup> If there are several children of different reading abilities that have difficulty on a particular skill such as finding the main idea, these children may be grouped together to work on this particular skill. When a child has achieved the ability to find the main idea, he can be withdrawn from the group. By this method a teacher can give special help to several children

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<sup>50</sup>Mary C. Austin, "Conclusions Concerning Patterns of Grouping for Instruction In and Through Reading in Kindergarten Through Grade Three," op. cit., pp. 192-194.

<sup>51</sup>Theodore Clymer, "Criteria for Grouping for Reading Instruction," op. cit., p. 47.

at a time and thus conserve time and energy.<sup>52</sup>

There are many skills that need to be considered in diagnosing the needs of each child. According to Hildreth the basic skills a child should acquire are:

1. Associating meanings with words and sentences.
2. Learning a sight vocabulary.
3. Pronouncing words in print, reading aloud, talking to the print.
4. Reading silently ("look and think").
5. Establishing correct eye movements for reading.
6. Learning to use context clues to recall word and sentence meanings.
7. Learning to use picture clues.
8. Following directions through reading.
9. Learning to use books to locate information.
10. Learning how to handle books.
11. Discriminating among words.
12. Learning to recognize sounds within words.
13. Observing word relationships, i.e., word structure.
14. Learning the A B C's for alphabetizing and word study.
15. Recognizing punctuation marks.
16. Learning the use of book titles, story titles, page numbers, table of contents, etc.
17. Sensing the different purposes reading serves.<sup>53</sup>

Diagnosis of the specific needs of each child may be done by general observations and with standardized or informal tests. General observations of a child's reading ability and acquired skills can be made during the time the child is reading orally. These observations may be recorded on a check sheet

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<sup>52</sup>Albert J. Mazurkiewicz (ed.), New Perspective in Reading Instruction (New York: Pitman Publishing Corporation, 1964), p. 185.

<sup>53</sup>Gertrude Hildreth, Teaching Reading (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1958), pp. 187-188.

such as the one included in the appendix.<sup>54</sup> This record of a child's reading behavior will indicate where a more careful study of a child's skills is needed.

Teacher-devised materials are often more useful in yielding specific data on each child's weaknesses and needs. Teachers may devise a list of sight words to test a child's sight word recognition by making a list of approximately one hundred words taken from pre-primers, primers, and first readers. Such a list often reveals that a child knows more words in context than he does in the sight recognition of them. An example of such a list is included in the appendix.<sup>55</sup>

Word analysis skills will often need to be tested. This can be tested by constructing a list of sight words and adding endings.<sup>56</sup>

In testing auditory discrimination on initial consonant sounds, four words may be pronounced to a child. Three of the four words should begin with the same sound and the other word with a different sound. This same procedure may be used to test the ability to hear endings, blends, and vowels. An example of this type of test can also be found in the appendix.<sup>57</sup>

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<sup>54</sup>Heilman, op. cit., p. 161.

<sup>55</sup>Ibid., p. 163.

<sup>56</sup>Ibid., p. 164.

<sup>57</sup>Ibid., pp. 165-167.

Other informal tests may be devised by the teacher to test the basic skills as listed by Hildreth. The results of these tests showing the various needs of the children may be used as a basis for specific needs grouping.

Advantages of specific needs grouping are that it conserves the teacher's time by being able to give special help to several children at a time and it avoids subjecting children who have already mastered the skill from needless drill.

#### Grouping by Invitation

Grouping by invitation is another way of meeting the needs of individual pupils in the classroom. This type of grouping helps to eliminate any stigma that might result in ability grouping. The working plan of this type of grouping as presented by Hester is as follows:

The whole class is brought together for the presentation of the story. During this period background and interest are built. Bridging the gap between children's experiences and situations in a story is the keynote to good comprehension. Unless children can relate their experiences to those about which they will read there will be little or no meaning.

Background and interest are developed in many ways. Relating personal experiences, slides, stories or poems, musical records, pictures, newspaper and magazine articles are but a few of many possibilities for motivation.

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The next phase of this grouping arrangement comes when, after the students have read, discussed, and participated in any related activities, the content of the story is used to develop some specific reading skill.

Here is where "invitation" truly functions. "A skill for the day" is chosen, dependent upon the students' needs. Perhaps today it is visual imagery, because in the story students have read,

"A young girl was very unhappy because her grandmother made her a skirt from a patchwork quilt. It was so heavy and stiff it stood out from her body. And it had so many colors it made her feel funny."

Asked to draw a picture of this girl, many of the students drew a girl wearing a solid-color sheath skirt.

The students needing help on this skill were invited to work with the teacher on an exercise to enable them to develop better visual imagery. Any other student who feels he would profit from the directed activity may invite himself into the group.

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If the correct atmosphere has been set, students soon become aware of their own needs and come to the skill development lessons of their own volition. Because student's needs vary the personnel of the group changes constantly. Thus instead of belonging to one inflexible group, each student joins whichever group is working on the phase of reading in which he is weak. In many classes each student keeps a personal chart showing weak and strong areas.

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The final step in "grouping by invitation" is reassembling the whole group to evaluate the story and the contributions of various groups and of individual members. Informal test results are analyzed, and individual records of student participation in each language arts area is studied. Time spent in evaluation and study of strengths and weaknesses has proven to be one of the most profitable periods devoted to the study of the story, for one of the strongest motivating factors in learning to read is to see, analyze, and correct our own errors.<sup>58</sup>

Hester further points out that children can keep their

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<sup>58</sup>Kathleen Hester, "Grouping by Invitation," The Reading Teacher XI (December, 1957), 106-108.

own progress records. One type of record they can keep is in the skills program and another is a participation record. The participation record might include the name of the story, their listening experience, whether they offered any comments to the group, what they read, writing participation, or other contributions.<sup>59</sup>

Some of the advantages of this type of grouping are: (1) boys and girls have a common experience, (2) children who are not good readers can contribute to the group by listening and talking, (3) each child feels himself an important part of the group, (4) each child is gaining a richer and fuller experience, and (5) the groups working on skills are flexible so that only the children who will profit by the exercises are working on them.<sup>60</sup> Rittenhouse pointed out that teachers who have worked with this type of grouping program feel its strongest advantage is the development of a child's ability to recognize his own strengths and weaknesses. Other advantages that were especially outstanding in the teachers' opinions according to Rittenhouse were the wide variety of experiences in reading and the child's opportunity to assert himself in obtaining optimum growth at his level.<sup>61</sup>

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<sup>59</sup>Ibid., p. 108.

<sup>60</sup>Ibid., pp. 107-108.

<sup>61</sup>Gloria G. Rittenhouse, "An Experiment in Reading by Invitation in Grade One Through Four," The Reading Teacher XIII (April, 1960), 261.

### Grouping According to Interests

Interest is an important factor in effective learning. A reading program which provides for interests of children, therefore, has much to recommend it.<sup>62</sup> Interests of children of a certain age are often similar. Many children in third grade are interested in pets, making models, and a variety of other things. By heterogeneously grouping children around these individual interests, a teacher can capitalize upon them to add to a child's reading achievement, knowledge, and understandings.

Interest groups may be formed around topics which stem from the basic reading program. For example, in a whole group activity in which a story was read about a zoo, children's interest in the animals might lead to a division of the class into interest groups reading about different types of animals. One group might read about reptiles while another might read about mammals or birds. Each child becomes a member of a group that deals with the area in which he is most interested and in which materials are available for him to read. Interest grouping materializing from topics of interest have long been used in the content subjects but has

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<sup>62</sup>Leonard J. Savignano, "How to Encourage Continuity of Interest Development from Kindergarten Through High School," Reading in Action, Nancy Larrick, editor (International Reading Association Conference Proceedings, Vol. II. New York: Scholastic Magazines, 1957), p. 41.

a place in the reading program as well. It provides for wider reading experiences and allows children of all levels of ability to work together. It is conceivable that the poorest reader and the most superior reader may be working in the same group. Each child contributes to the group thinking as a result of his reading. Care must be taken to see that each child has materials that he can read independently of the teacher.<sup>63</sup>

Harris points out that children who are interested in some particular area such as collecting rocks can be encouraged to meet and discover problems they have in common. After discussing their problems, the children read material related to their special interest and then meet again to exchange information. They may then want to report to the entire class what they have found out. Several interest groups may be functioning in a class at one time with membership entirely voluntary. These groups need not meet often--once a week or once in two weeks might be sufficient.<sup>64</sup> The number of times and frequency of the meetings would be based on the need of the group.

Before groups can be organized around individual

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<sup>63</sup>Guy L. Bond and Eva Bond Wagner, Teaching the Child to Read (third edition; New York: The Macmillan Company, 1960), pp. 376-377.

<sup>64</sup>Harris, op. cit., p. 126.

interests, a teacher must first determine what the interests of the individual child are. The simplest means for determining a child's interests is by observation. Original stories and pictures, a child's choice of library books, and informal conversations give clues to these interests. A great deal may be learned from a discussion period in which children are given a chance to tell about things he does in his spare time.<sup>65</sup>

Another method used in determining interests is the interest inventory or questionnaire. According to Hildreth, the inventory should be suited to the children's age level and should ask for information about possessions, pets, friends, things children enjoy doing in their spare time, books owned, travels, collections, hobbies, and family life. Witty and Kopel have prepared a questionnaire for surveying the reading interest and preferences of school children. It may be obtained from the Psycho-Educational Clinic, Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois.<sup>66</sup> Abelson and Harris also prepared such a questionnaire, a copy of which can be found in the appendix. The Abelson and Harris questionnaire may be mimeographed and administered to the whole class. For best results it should be read to the class.<sup>67</sup>

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<sup>65</sup>Ibid., pp. 477-479.

<sup>66</sup>Hildreth, op. cit., pp. 509-510.

<sup>67</sup>Harris, op. cit., p. 478.

A third method of determining interests is to arrange for a quiet interview with each child. In conducting these interviews a mimeographed form may be used. It should contain questions the teacher wishes to ask and a place to record the child's responses. With large groups, the time element makes this method impractical.<sup>68</sup>

According to Savignano, interest grouping provides for individual differences. Children who are unchallenged by other forms of reading instruction are often stimulated by pursuit of their own interests. The possibility offered by interest grouping for achievement in a specialty can make a definite contribution to a child's social development. It gives each child a chance to gain classroom recognition. It helps foster the feeling of belonging and contributing to a group. It may prove of value in vocational and career planning at a later time. Interest fostered and encouraged in the young child may greatly influence his interests in later life.<sup>69</sup>

#### Permissive Grouping Plan

Permissive grouping is a plan whereby children choose other children with whom they would like to read. Each child

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<sup>68</sup>Ibid., p. 479.

<sup>69</sup>Savignano, op. cit., p. 41.

privately tells the teacher his first, second, and third choice of those classmates with whom he would like to read. This structures the group sociometrically. To make the plan even more permissive, each child chooses a book he would like to read.<sup>70</sup>

Once each week the teacher works with one child and helps him read the story. He then becomes the group leader and reads orally to the other children. Various children are given the opportunity of being the group leader.<sup>71</sup>

Friendships and good attitudes in reading grow out of permissive grouping.<sup>72</sup> However, such grouping is not recommended as the total reading program but could be used to give variety to reading instruction.<sup>73</sup>

#### IV. WORKING WITH GROUPS

Once it has been decided to use a type of grouping, several questions arise. Among these are the materials and equipment that will be needed, group names, group size, number of groups, time schedules, independent activities for the

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<sup>70</sup>Lillian Gray and Dora Reese, Teaching Children to Read (New York: Ronald Press Company, 1957), pp. 166-167.

<sup>71</sup>Ibid.

<sup>72</sup>Marion Jenkins, "Self-Selection in Reading," The Reading Teacher, XI (December, 1957), 88.

<sup>73</sup>Gray, loc. cit.

children not working under the direct guidance of the teacher, and how to organize all of these things into a sound instructional program.

#### Number of Groups

Harris points out that in ability grouping a two-group method is probably an effective procedure for the beginning teacher in the technique of grouping. Under this plan the class is divided into two groups based on their ability to read what is normally thought of as grade level material. Those who can read the grade level material are placed in one group and those who cannot in another. The group that can read on grade level uses the grade level material. The other group uses material that is appropriate for the average child in that group. Undoubtedly two groups would be too heterogeneous to really gain by grouping, but as the teacher gains in competency, more groups may be added.<sup>74</sup>

Many authorities in the reading field recommend dividing the class into three groups. Five or six might overburden the teacher, dividing her time with pupils in blocks too small to be effective. However, when children do not fit into the basic three-group plan, such as the extremely poor readers or the extremely accelerated readers, other provisions must be

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<sup>74</sup>Harris, op. cit., p. 124.

made for them.<sup>75</sup>

In grouping other than ability grouping the number of groups is determined by factors other than reading achievement. Common interests would determine the number of groups a teacher might have working at one time for interest grouping. In permissive grouping, the number of groups would be determined by the sociometric results. Regardless of the type of grouping used, the number of groups depends upon the pupils in the class, the skill of the teacher, and the materials which are available to the teacher.<sup>76</sup> There is no blueprint which a teacher can follow--only her judgment in the light of all contributing factors.

#### Size of Groups

The size of groups varies with the purpose for which they are set up. In ability grouping, the distribution of reading ability within the class will determine the size of the group. A teacher should be careful to keep the groups of the size that each child in the group can take an active part and so the teacher can determine each child's strengths and weaknesses.<sup>77</sup>

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<sup>75</sup>Heilman, op. cit., p. 128.

<sup>76</sup>William Abraham, "A New Look at Reading," Elementary English XXXI (March, 1954), 143.

<sup>77</sup>Cutts, op. cit., p. 38.

Groups set up on the basis of special needs or special interest will vary in size. Sometimes they may be as small as two children or include all but the extremely accelerated.

#### Equipment and Materials

For instruction by groups, a classroom should be large enough so that the groups can be physically separated. In this way classroom interference is kept at a minimum. Classroom furniture should be movable so that it can be rearranged for various activities. Chalkboards and bulletin boards are desirable. There should be convenient shelving for books and supplies outside the library corner. It is desirable to have a table and chairs in the library corner with a bulletin board designed to encourage reading and browsing. None of these things is absolutely essential but adds to a successful group reading program.<sup>78</sup>

For the various methods of grouping for instructional reading, other desirable materials are:

1. Several sets of basal readers ranging in difficulty from the first grade level to a level which will challenge the highest group and in sufficient number to allow each child in a group to have a book.
2. Workbooks which accompany the reader to provide drill on the skills introduced.
3. Reading games and puzzles.
4. A classroom library of at least fifty books with a wide range of difficulty and interest.

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<sup>78</sup>Harris, op. cit., p. 128.

5. Reference works such as picture dictionaries and simple encyclopedias.
6. Special teacher-devised materials.
7. Children's magazines and picture magazines to place in the library.
8. Workbooks not correlated with specific readers to provide additional practice when needed for particular skills.
9. Related pictures, filmstrips, slides, recordings, movies, flash cards, and charts.

### Group Names

In grouping, the naming of the groups often presents problems to teachers. Probably the best way of treating this problem is to make it as casual as possible. The less fuss made about it the better. Numbering the groups is bad for morale just as to name them the high, middle, and low group would be. One way of choosing names for the group is to allow each group to choose its own name. Another would be to have the groups choose a chairman and refer to the group by the name of the chairman such as "Mary's group."<sup>79</sup> Lillian Gray advocates using the title of the book in which each group is reading.<sup>80</sup>

### Time Schedule

It is necessary to arrange with care the reading schedule, the duration of reading periods, and appropriate spacing of reading periods in the school day. In third grade

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<sup>79</sup>Harris, op. cit., p. 133.

<sup>80</sup>Lillian Gray, op. cit., p. 162.

the reading program should take about an hour and a half. Each teacher has to experiment to determine the length of period that seems to work best in the particular class with which he is working. If periods are too long, children get fatigued or bored because their attention span is limited.<sup>81</sup>

Usually in third grade the directed reading period should be about twenty minutes long. The remainder of the reading period should be devoted to independent activities.<sup>82</sup>

In the planning of the reading program, it is desirable to alternate nonreading activities with the reading periods, or to follow one reading activity by another quite different reading activity. The psychology of learning indicates that it is efficient to separate periods of similar activity by periods in which the students are engaged in quite different activities.<sup>83</sup>

#### Chairmen and Helpers

In many group activities, it is possible to use one of the children as group leader. Children need help and guidance in becoming effective chairmen and helpers. Sometimes they

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<sup>81</sup>Harris, op. cit., p. 132.

<sup>82</sup>Josephine B. Wolfe, "Planning for Teaching Different Groups," Reading Instruction in Various Patterns of Grouping, Helen Robinson, editor (Proceedings of the Annual Conference on Reading, Vol. XXI, No. 89. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1959), p. 90.

<sup>83</sup>Harris, op. cit., p. 133.

will give more help than they should or too little. The teacher must help them carry out their functions.<sup>84</sup>

One of the most frequent uses of a group leader is the use of the best readers to help the less capable. This helps the better readers to be more tolerant and accept the poorer readers as part of the whole group. The less capable readers need more individualized attention than the average teacher can give them and they enjoy working with someone from another group. One boy of very low ability stated that he liked to read when he had someone to whom he could read.

The Permissive Group Plan advocated by Gray calls for the use of a group leader. As we noted, the teacher prepared the child for this position of leadership.<sup>85</sup>

#### Flexibility in Grouping

Researchers in the field of reading agree that if grouping is used, it is essential that there is flexibility. This applies to group membership, group size, the number of groups, and the amount of time spent with each. Harris points out that:

Children should be moved from one group to another whenever it becomes evident that their reading needs can be better met in the new group. Children differ in their rates of progress; some outgrow a slow group, others are

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<sup>84</sup>Ibid., pp. 133-134.

<sup>85</sup>Lillian Gray, op. cit., pp. 166-167.

unable to keep up with a fast group. Sometimes a child who has been floundering as the poorest reader in a group takes on a new lease of life when he finds that he is one of the best readers in his new group. Similarly, a child who glides through his group assignments with a minimum of effort may respond with redoubled energy to the challenge of working at a higher level of difficulty. In making such decisions, it is often desirable to consult the child and respect the child's desires concerning his group placement.<sup>86</sup>

Harris warns that:

One must avoid the danger of assuming that flexibility is an end in itself, since that leads to the changing of groupings just for the sake of change. Under such a system it is hard to see how either the teacher or the children would be able to settle down and get much work done. Flexibility has value when it improves learning conditions and social interrelationships, and too much change can be as undesirable as too little.<sup>87</sup>

The groups formed for basic reading instruction should be used for that part of the curriculum only. Groups to be used in other areas of the curriculum should be grouped according to their needs in that phase of the curriculum.<sup>88</sup>

When children belong first to one group and then to another, the possibilities of developing a rigid caste system are eliminated. Using more than one type of grouping allows the children to belong to several groups. Children requiring specific assistance may be grouped together temporarily until

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<sup>86</sup>Harris, op. cit., pp. 128.

<sup>87</sup>Harris, loc. cit.

<sup>88</sup>Guy L. Bond and Miles A. Tinker, Reading Difficulties--Their Diagnosis and Correction (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts Inc., 1957), p. 59.

the particular need for which they were grouped is met. Two other possibilities for variety are functional reading groups for which a heterogeneous basis is used and recreational or individualized reading around a particular interest.

Providing for Pupils Not Working under Direct Supervision of the Teacher

Whenever there is any type of grouping in a classroom it is quite obvious that the teacher cannot be working directly with both groups at the same time. The children that are not directly under the teacher's guidance must be profitably engaged at some activity that will help them to develop their potentials. Many educators feel that these activities should be devoted exclusively to reading, but as Harris points out, at the earliest levels of reading, one or more groups are not capable of carrying on any kind of reading activity without the active participation of the teacher. This also is true in grades above the first for the poorer reading groups. Many of the poorer readers are still reading on the first grade level.<sup>89</sup> Gans suggests that the children could work on other studies besides reading.<sup>90</sup> Therefore, it seems reasonable to conclude that the children must be engaged in quiet

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<sup>89</sup>Harris, op. cit., p. 131.

<sup>90</sup>Roma Gans, Common Sense in Teaching Reading (Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill Company, Inc., 1963), p. 140.

activities and these activities should be related to reading most of the time.

Before starting the group activities of the day, it is helpful to take a few minutes to go over the specific assignments for all groups. Each group should have supplementary activities to which they can turn if they finish an assignment before the end of the allotted time. It is helpful to have a chart for each group that outlines the activities the children are to work upon while the teacher is working with other children in reading groups.<sup>91</sup> Charts of this nature help children to learn to go from one thing to another and make constructive use of their time.

The following related activities may be used for the children who are working independently:

1. Silent reading to answer questions that have been placed on the chalkboard or mimeographed.
2. Workbook exercises.
3. Selecting and preparing a short story or poem for audience reading.
4. Reading to prepare for some future activity such as dramatization or storytelling.
5. Reading library books or supplementary books.
6. Reading under the guidance of a pupil leader providing the teacher has prepared the leader for this activity.
7. Using teacher-made and pupil-made games and exercises.<sup>92</sup>

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<sup>91</sup>Theodore Clymer, "Working with Groups," The Instructor, LXXIV (March, 1965), 79.

<sup>92</sup>David H. Russell, Children Learn to Read (Boston: Ginn and Company, 1961), p. 498.

8. Constructing an interesting object described in the selection.
9. Collecting and drawing pictures to represent items in the story.
10. Finding and listing the main points of the selection.<sup>93</sup>
11. Making a diorama of the individual's favorite part of the story.
12. Making a list of questions about the story to ask other members in the group.
13. Write titles for the illustrations.
14. Listing unusual or difficult words.<sup>94</sup>

A variety of teacher-made exercises can be used. McKee suggests several among which are:

1. Choosing from a variety of words the one which could best be substituted for a given word in a sentence without changing the meaning of the sentence.
2. Finding the vowels in a group of words.
3. Making sentences from a list of beginnings and endings.
4. Using common syllables to make words.
5. Grouping words together that are similar in meaning.
6. Using the context of a sentence as a guide in choosing one of several endings to add to a base word.
7. Adding one or more of several letters to a word to make another word.
8. Alphabetical order exercises.
9. Combining words to make compound words.
10. Using the context to determine the meaning of a strange word.
11. Distinguishing among the forms of words that are easily confused.
12. Marking out letters that are silent in words.
13. Reading to draw a conclusion or make an inference.<sup>95</sup>

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<sup>93</sup>McKee, op. cit., pp. 289-290.

<sup>94</sup>Walter B. Barbe, Personalized Reading Instruction (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1961), pp. 42-43.

<sup>95</sup>McKee, op. cit., pp. 334-335.

## CHAPTER III

### SUMMARY

An effective reading program provides for individual differences allowing each child to learn and develop at his own pace. It recognizes a child's interest and physical and mental health as important factors in learning. Teachers are allowed flexibility in methods and use of materials. It provides opportunity for developing reading skills and inter-relating all language arts.

Wide differences in reading ability make it almost imperative that some type of grouping be used in order to conserve the teacher's time and meet the needs of each child. The most common methods are by reading level, interests, invitation, specific needs, and sociometric techniques.

In using ability grouping, a teacher must diagnose a child's instructional reading level. Past records as well as an informal test using basal readers aid a teacher in her diagnosis. Selections from the readers are read to the teacher who keeps a record of the errors made by the child. When word recognition errors are approximately 5 per cent, this is usually the instructional level for that child. Children who are able to read on the same instructional level are placed in the same group.

Ability grouping is the most common type of grouping

and is often associated with the basal reader program. Advantages of this type of grouping are: (1) each child can proceed at his own pace, (2) the materials may be suited to each child, (3) intensive practice may be provided when and where it is needed, (4) it gives the child an opportunity to work with other children who need the same kind of instruction, and (5) the time of the teacher is more efficiently used when she can work with several children at one time.

Specific needs grouping is the grouping together of children who need work in some particular reading skill. Daily work and diagnostic measures help a teacher to know what skills each child needs to work on. This type of grouping avoids subjecting children who have already mastered a skill from needless drill.

Invitational grouping is where the whole group work together in preparing to read, reading, and discussion. The content of the story is then used to develop some particular skill. The teacher invites the children who need work on that skill to join the group. Any student may invite himself into the group. Each child learns to recognize his own strengths and weaknesses.

Interest grouping is a type of heterogeneous grouping. Groups are formed around topics of interest which stem from the basic reading program or from an interest survey. This type of grouping fosters and encourages the interest of the

children.

Permissive grouping structures the groups sociometrically. Each child chooses children with whom he'd like to work. Each works at his own level but shares what he is doing with the group. Although permissive grouping is not recommended as the total program, it can be used to give variety to reading instruction and help promote friendship and good attitudes.

There is no one ideal number or size for a group. As the child's needs are met, he moves from one group to another. Groups may be formed for a specific purpose and when its purpose has been accomplished, the group will be disbanded. The number and size of groups is largely dependent upon the pupils in the class, the skill of the teacher, and the materials available.

Independent activities need to be provided for children not working under the direct guidance of the teacher. These activities should be related to reading most of the time and should be varied from day to day.

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APPENDIX

A SAMPLE RECORD OF ORAL READING  
IN BOOK SAMPLES

Child's Name

Title of Book

100 word sample

<u>Said</u>	<u>For</u>	<u>Words Aided</u>
for	fix	fix
was	saw	
that	what	

Repetition: //  
Omissions: /good

Total errors: 7	96% accuracy	Comprehension: good
Total words missed: 4		Level: instructional

Title of Book

50 word sample

<u>Said</u>	<u>For</u>	<u>Words Aided</u>
were	we've	elephant
how	now	surprise
for	from	
well	we'll	
was	has	
will	well	
that /	what	
print /	prize	
foot	feet	
want	went	
those	these	

Insertions ///

Total errors: 18	66% accuracy	Comprehension: fair
		Level: frustration

\*A sample of oral reading as suggested by Harris.

## FIGURE 16

## READING BEHAVIOR RECORD

Name \_\_\_\_\_ Age \_\_\_\_\_ Grade \_\_\_\_\_ Date \_\_\_\_\_  
 School \_\_\_\_\_ Teacher \_\_\_\_\_  
 Examiner \_\_\_\_\_

I. Word Analysis Yes No

A. Knows names of letters.  
 B. Attacks initial sounds of words.  
 C. Can substitute initial sound.  
 D. Can work out initial blends.  
 E. If root word is known, can get words formed by adding prefixes and suffixes.

II. Sight Words Yes No

A. Knows words in context, but misses them in isolation.  
 B. Knows a word one time, misses it later.  
 C. Guesses at unknown words.  
 D. Does not attempt unknown words.  
 E. Frequently adds words.  
 F. Omits words not known, reads on.  
 G. Occasionally omits or skips words he knows.

III. General Reading Habits

_____ Word by word	_____ does not utilize punctuation
_____ poor phrasing	_____ points with finger
_____ (other)	_____ (other)

IV. Informal Reading Analysis

<u>Book</u>	<u>Grade Level</u>	<u>Approx. Number of Missing Words</u>	<u>Number of Errors</u>
1.			
2.			
3.			

V. Highest Level Child Can Read Successfully

	<u>Excellent</u>	<u>Average</u>	<u>Below Average</u>
Attitude toward reading	_____	_____	_____
Self-confidence	_____	_____	_____
General background experience	_____	_____	_____
Language facility	_____	_____	_____
Recall or comprehension	_____	_____	_____

\*Heilman, op. cit., p. 161-162.

## DOLCH BASIC SIGHT WORD TEST

we  
with  
yes  
stop  
like  
help  
very  
all  
this  
some  
the  
ball  
friend  
went  
did  
good  
in  
like  
hat  
man  
that  
saw  
you  
here  
sure

horse  
a  
an  
look  
was  
find  
little  
best  
good  
went  
see  
mother  
any  
little  
wagon  
not  
play  
what  
do  
ran  
new  
wish  
dog  
in  
new

they  
jump  
big  
come  
go  
the  
and  
could  
boy  
did  
again  
pretty  
which  
the  
live  
run  
this  
up  
each  
what  
got  
red  
there  
please  
name

boat  
to  
walk  
want  
on  
house  
my  
can  
talk  
girl  
said  
will  
father  
new  
blue  
had  
she  
your  
after  
clean  
many  
most  
around  
open  
every

\*Garrard Press, Champaign, Illinois

## TESTING OF AUDITORY DISCRIMINATION

(The teacher pronounces the four words in each series.)

## A. TESTING ABILITY TO HEAR INITIAL CONSONANTS

Child repeats the one word that begins differently from the first word.

toy	pat	did	wind	dark	farm
tall	pet	kid	went	drink	war...
hall	cot	doll	bend	dash	find
tack	put	dull	well	bark	full
ball	hard	lack	kick	march	rode
pull	yard	lock	pick	much	load
back	hunt	lamp	kill	net	right
burn	hurt	damp	kind	net	race

## B. TESTING ABILITY TO HEAR ENDINGS OF WORDS

Child repeats the one word which does not rhyme.

pig	bake	ball	wet	bug	bag
dig	make	full	bet	hug	rug
big	bark	tall	pet	did	rag
bag	wake	wall	sat	mug	sag
pot	lick	leg	cut	fell	then
not	struck	peg	hit	fill	hen
got	stick	lap	hut	sell	thin
God	kick	keg	but	bell	pen

## C. TESTING ABILITY TO HEAR INITIAL BLENDS

Child repeats the word which does not begin with the blend sound.

chair	slod	blue	step	tree	plan
champ	sack	blow	sack	truck	pain
cow	slip	bank	stop	train	place
chicken	slap	black	steep	turn	play

## D. TESTING VOWEL SOUNDS

Child repeats word having short vowel sound.

mate	fan	fight	joke	cute	tall
mail	fame	mile	lock	dull	team
mad	table	fine	note	true	see
take	flame	skin	snow	tube	peck

FIGURE 17

## TEST OF WORD ANALYSIS SKILLS

A. Easy root words plus endings s, ed, ing

running	seated	playing	comes	played
goes	talking	lived	wanted	going
looked	wants	jumps	talks	sees
helps	coming	lives	walking	helping
wanting	likes	pleased	talked	looks
sits	helped	finding	runs	sitting
living	stops	plays	seeing	jumped

B. Contractions, compound words, and derived forms usually learned at second grade level

happily	belong	I'll	slowly	behind	hadn't
bakery	didn't	friendly	report	surdly	himself
princess	outside	loudest	I'd	everybody	believe
quickly	afternoon	return	herself	you'll	politely
I've	it's	really	suddenly	everyone	shouted
isn't	quickly	everything	doesn't	couldn't	yourself
beside	anything	can't	between	into	wasn't

Contractions, compound words, and derived forms usually learned at third grade level

expect	explain	disappear	comfortable	rapidly
afternoon	ourselves	happiness	halfway	sawmill
you've	discover	invite	safety	invisible
family	they'll	include	upward	Thanksgiving
enjoy	unless	gentlemen	peaceful	eyebrow
happiness	experiment	foolish	enchanted	
finally	we've	contentment	bathroom	

C. Words taken from spelling books at 3rd, 4th, and 5th grade level to test child's ability to break words into syllables. Pupil writes words in Column B. First word serves as sample.

3rd Grade Level		4th Grade Level		5th Grade Level	
A	B	A	B	A	B
yesterday	yes	grandfather	grand	citizen	cit
money	ter	beautiful	fa	terrible	i
birthday	day	lessons	ther	interesting	zen
yellow		history		difference	
Easter		remember		medium	
stockings		arithmetic		average	
only		studying		frightened	
afternoon		geography		electric	

THE CITY COLLEGE EDUCATIONAL CLINIC  
RECREATIONAL ACTIVITIES CHECK LIST  
By H. H. Abelson and A. J. Harris

Name \_\_\_\_\_ Boy or Girl \_\_\_\_\_ Age \_\_\_\_\_

School \_\_\_\_\_ Class \_\_\_\_\_ Date \_\_\_\_\_

Directions: This is a list of things that some boys and girls like to do. Read each one. If you never do that thing, make a line through it. If you like to do it, make a check ( ) on the dotted line. If you like to do it very much, make two checks on the dotted line.

- .....
- |         |                           |         |                                |
|---------|---------------------------|---------|--------------------------------|
| .... 1. | Playing tag               | ....26. | Pitching pennies               |
| .... 2. | Cops and robbers          | ....27. | Just loafing                   |
| .... 3. | Ring-o-levic              | ....28. | Making bonfires                |
| .... 4. | Follow the leader         | ....29. | Shooting dice                  |
| .... 5. | Hide and seek             | ....30. | Teasing                        |
| .... 6. | Playing potsy             | ....31. | Taking things apart            |
| .... 7. | Hop Scotch                | ....32. | Playing with electrical toys   |
| .... 8. | Jumping rope              | ....33. | Building model planes or ships |
| .... 9. | Going on swings           | ....34. | Experimenting with chemicals   |
| ....10. | Roller skating            | ....35. | Making things with tools       |
| ....11. | Stickball                 | ....36. | Modelling with clay            |
| ....12. | Baseball                  | ....37. | Drawing and painting pictures  |
| ....13. | Basketball                | ....38. | Singing                        |
| ....14. | Football                  | ....39. | Playing a musical instrument   |
| ....15. | Handball                  | ....40. | Woodcarving or leather-craft   |
| ....16. | Swimming                  | ....41. | Knitting or crocheting         |
| ....17. | Going on walks            | ....42. | Sewing clothes                 |
| ....18. | Riding a bicycle          | ....43. | Cooking or baking              |
| ....19. | Flying a kite             | ....44. | Making fudge or candy          |
| ....20. | Walking in the woods      | ....45. | Stringing beads                |
| ....21. | Going to a museum of art  | ....46. | Playing card games             |
| ....22. | Going to a concert        | ....47. | Playing checkers               |
| ....23. | Listening to the radio    | ....48. | Playing Monopoly               |
| ....24. | Going to the movies       | ....49. | Playing guessing games         |
| ....25. | Watching an athletic game | ....50. | Playing Lotto or Bingo         |

- ....51. Playing with dolls  
 ....52. Playing school  
 ....53. Playing house  
 ....54. Playing doctor or nurse  
 ....55. Playing actor or actress  
  
 ....56. Reading comic books  
 ....57. Reading story books  
 ....58. Reading fairy tales  
 ....59. Reading sports stories  
 ....60. Reading scientific stories  
  
 ....61. Going to the library  
 ....62. Writing letters  
 ....63. Studying  
 ....64. Keeping a diary  
 ....65. Writing poems or stories  
  
 ....66. Making a scrap-book  
 ....67. Collecting stamps or coins  
 ....68. Collecting shells or butterflies  
 ....69. Keeping things neat  
 ....70. Going to a museum of natural history  
  
 ....71. Visiting relatives  
 ....72. Visiting a friend  
 ....73. Going to a party  
 ....74. Just talking  
 ....75. Being with a club or gang  
  
 ....76. Social dancing  
 ....77. Having a date  
 ....78. Playing postoffice  
 ....79. Driving a car  
 ....80. Being with a group of boys and girls  
  
 ....81. Being the leader of a group  
 ....82. Arguing with someone  
 ....83. Discussing politics  
 ....84. Having a fight  
 ....85. Being in a debate  
  
 Write in any other things you like to do  
 .....  
 .....  
 .....  
 .....

SOME PROCEDURES AND TECHNIQUES FOR  
GROUPING IN THIRD GRADE  
READING

by

VELDA LEE CLIMENT

B. S., Kansas State Teachers College, 1954

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AN ABSTRACT OF A MASTER'S REPORT

submitted in partial fulfillment of the

requirements for the degree

MASTER OF SCIENCE

School of Education

KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY  
Manhattan, Kansas

1965

The purposes of this report were to study the need for grouping in reading, to examine some effective grouping procedures, and to present some approaches and techniques for grouping in reading. To meet these objectives it was necessary to do library research.

There has been considerable controversy whether individualized reading or the group basal reader approach should be used in reading instruction. Research reveals that there are many advantages to both. Therefore, it is not a matter of which approach to use but when and where to use each of the two approaches to better meet the needs of each individual child.

Grouping is not a teaching method but an organizational procedure for meeting individual differences. Children should be grouped upon whatever basis is most practical at a given time considering the needs and interests of the children. Forms of grouping that consider one or more of these criteria are: (1) grouping by reading achievement, (2) grouping for specific needs, (3) grouping by interests, (4) grouping by invitation, and (5) permissive grouping. The type of grouping used besides being dependent upon the needs of the pupils in the class will also be dependent upon the efficiency of the teacher and the materials available. A step by step procedure cannot be predetermined.

There is no prescribed number of groups nor a pre-

determined number of children that should be in a group. The number and size are dependent upon the purpose for which the group is being organized and the needs of the pupils.

Groups must be flexible in order to meet individual needs. Children's rate of development varies and consequently some will need to be moved from group to group to correspond with their development.

A reading program should be organized so that each child participates in whole-group activities, instruction in specific skills, recreational reading, functional reading, and instructional reading. Independent activities should be provided for the children not working under the direct supervision of the teacher. These activities should be related to reading most of the time.

Among the many advantages in grouping for reading instruction are: (1) materials may be suited to individual needs and interest, (2) allows the teacher to work with each child every day, (3) uses the teacher's time effectively and efficiently, (4) avoids subjecting children to needless drill and allows them to progress at the rate of which they are capable, (5) allows the child to work with others toward a common goal learning to value leadership, share experiences, and compare their conclusions with others.