judgement. The reader will provide his or her own experience to answers such a question: *What would you have done if you had been in his place*?

5- Questions which will require inference from the reading. The information is not specifically stated in the passage: *How do you suppose the accident happend*?

Sometimes, students should be asked to find reasons, e.g. they can be provided with a list of sentences or phrases from text and asked to identify why the sentence or phrase was included. More often, a summary of the text can be supplied and students are asked to pinpoint statements which are erroneous.

Conclusion

All this points to the conclusion that providing EFL instructors can define their goals in reading at the tertiary level and become aware of the skills they need to teach, they will be able to design appropriate exercises to improve students' reading skills. Although it is the primary responsibility of syllabus designers to set the goals of the reading program, the teacher of reading is also the one who should take part. My primary intent has been to provide some explanation about the problems that students encounter when reading as well as presenting some useful techniques for the realization of our reading goals. In a nutshell, teachers of readding should be convinced by the end of the disscusion that it is also their duty to create this opportunity for their students to work in order for their speed, vocabulary, and comprehension to be built up.

References

Barrett, T.C., 1968, "What is Reading? "In T. Clymer(ed.), *Innovation and Change in Reading Instruction*. 67th Year Book of the National society for Study of Education, University of Chicago Press.

Bartlett, F.C., 1932. *Remembering: A Study in Experimental and Social Psychology*. Cambridge: CUP

Brown, P.C., and Mullan N.D., 1984, "*English for Computer Science*." Oxford: Oxford University Press

Cook, V., 1991, "*Second Language Learning and Language Teaching*." London: Edward Arnold

Dubin, F., and Bycina, D., 1991. "Academic Reading and the ESL/EFL Teacher." *In Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language*, edited by M. Celce-Murcia. Mass.: Newbury House

Gaskill, W., 1979. "The Teaching of Intermediate Reading in the ESL Classroom." *In Teaching English as a Second Language*, edited by M. Celce-Murica and L. McIntosh. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House

Goodman, K.S., 1970. "Reading a Psycholinguistic Guessing Game." In Harry Singer and Robert B. Ruddell (eds.) *Theoretical Models and Processes of Reading*. Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association

Gough, P.B., 1972. "One Second of Reading." In J. F. Kavanagh and I.G.Mattingly (eds.) *Language by Ear and by Eye*. Cambridge, Mass: MIT Press

Huey, Edmund B. 1968. *The Psychology and Pedagogy of Reading*. Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Press

Mackay, R., 1987. "Teaching the Information-gathering Skills." In Long, Michael, H. and Richards, Jack, C.(eds.). *Methodology in TESOL: A Book of Readings*. New York: Newbury House

Norris, W., 1971. "Advanced Reading: Goals, Techniques, Procedures." In *The Art of TESOL, Part Two*. Washington D.C.: English Teaching Forum

Nuttall, C., 1998. "*Teaching Reading Skills as a foreign Language*." Oxford: Macmillan Heinemann

Rumelhart, D.E., 1977. "Toward an Interactive Model of Reading." In S.Dornic(ed.), *Attention and Performance VI*. Hillsdale, Nwe Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates

Tullius, J., 1971. "Analysis of Reading Skills of Non-Native Speakers of English. Unpublished M.A. TESL thesis, UCLA

Zakaluk, Beverley, L., 1982. "A Theoretical Overview of the Reading Process: Factors Which Influence Performance and Implications for Instruction. **http://www.umanitaba.ca**

we mentioned above there are certain markers which outline the time sequence in which events occur. It is obvious that events do not simply take place, they occur either before, during or after other events. Once a time-reference has been established, certain markers may signal subsequent information in relation to it. Some of these markers that Brown and Mullen (1984:99) refer to are:

a. previous to given time-reference, i.e. before

before (then)	*previously*
before then	*so far*
formerly	......
until now	

b. Simultaneous with given time-reference, i.e.

during

at present	*meantime*
now	*when*
for the time being	*at the same time*
meanwhile	......

c. Subsequent to time-reference, i.e. after

afterwards	*by the time*
after that	*since*
eventually	*soon*
next	......

In short, such relationships between sentences or groups of sentences should be introduced to students. And these should be followed by a series of carefully fashioned exercises to raise students' consciousness. Thus teachers should:

- Have students identify the markers by means of underlining them, for example,
- provide certain markers along with a reading passage which lacks appropriate markers. Then have them apply the correct marker between sentences,
- provide multipe choice formats in which students are asked to identify the most appropriate marker.

III. Referential and inferential comprehension questions

As was mentioned elsewhere in this writing, students Should be able to obtain information through reading, process it, and be ready to comment on, or evaluate what they have read. Reading comprehension is best improved through a carefully designed program of comprehension activities, which might take the from of question that is commonly known as comprehension questions. Norris (1972) lists five types of questions. Some of them must be answered with reference to the text and some inferentially.

1- Questions which can be answered with the information included in the question itself: yes/no, true/false, or multiple choice.

2- Questions which can be answered with information presented in the reading: WH-question (what, when, where, and who; not how and why). Why question can be included in this group only if the information can be retrieved form the passage.

3- Questions for which the students will find answeres in the text, but not in direct quotation: Why? How?

4- Questions which will require evaluation or

in texts when the primary objective is to teach the reader about some subject. It is thus important to differentiate between the idea or ideas presented, and the illustration of the idea, with examples. Writers often say explicitly which things are examples by using the connectives such as: *for example, for instance, that is, such as, like, namely…*

- Cause and effect: Understanding the different ways of expressing the relationship between causes and effects of an action is very important when students are reading in English. If an argument begins with effects or results, the causes are the reasons that logically lead to those results. Nattall (1998) illustrates this by mentioning the fact that "if we read the word *thus* we expect to find a result" (p.26). This cause-effect relationship is commonly used in academic texts through the connectives like: *due to, as a result of, since, because, as …* . Writers also use sentence connectors to introduce a result e.g.: *therefore, consequently, for this reason, thus,…*

- Contrasting: There are a couple of ways to use connectives which deal with contrastive elements within a sentence or paragraph. Mackay (1987) lists three of them:

1- The indicator which emphasizes that the opposite is true is when a statement is introduced by one of the following markers: *on the contrary, by contrast, in comparison, on the one hand... on the other hand, opposite,…*

2- Sometimes contrastive markers are used to indicate that what follows is a replacement of what was said before. Examples of such

markers are: *instead, then, but, rather, whereas,…*

3- When the writer wants to express that what has been said before is true or correct, but what follows is, in contrast, also true or correct, the following connective markers are used: *however, neverthless, although, in spite of, even if,…*

- Adding information: It is essential to the reader to understand the relationship between the information given and the information which preceded it. Often information is presented in such a way as to suggest a reinforcement of what has been said, or to show a similarity to what has been said before (Mackay 1987: 116). The markers used to show reinforement are: *furthermore, in addition, as well as, again, what is more, besides,…* Markers used to add information to show that it is similar to what was said before are: *similarly, likewise, in the same way, correspondingly,…*

- Listing: There are many ways of showing sequential relationships in which sentences and groups of sentences combine to present information. The following is a list of the markers that Brown and Mullen (1984:69) used to show the order in which things are to be said:

one, two, three, etc
first(ly), second(ly), third(ly)
another, next, then
lastly, finally
to begin / start with, and to conclude
first and foremost, above all
…

Time sequence: In much the same way that

related literature seems to be sketchy and it is very difficult to specify what the process of comprehension entails, we just scratched the surface in the second section of this writing. In no uncertain terms, reading comprehension is the process of negotiating understanding between reader and writer. Such a position is supported by Dubin and Bycina (1991) who contend that "the experience of reading is essentially an individual one which requires that... the reader be engaged in a dialog with the author" (p.195). In simpler terms, any reader should be able to obtain the facts and get the main ideas and, above all, he or she should be able to interpret them and evaluate the author's ideas and conclusions.

Admittedly, this all offers an explanation for comprehension at the surface level [conceptual, propositional meaning] and also comprehension at the deep level [contextual, pragmatic meaning] (See section one). What follows below is a few suggestions for EFL instructors to adopt in their classrooms in order for students' reading comprehension to be enhanced both intersententially or at the surface level and intrasententially or at the deep level:

I. Identifying the organization of information in a paragraph

A paragraph is a group of related sentences that develop an idea. In nearly every paragraph, there is one idea that is more important than all the others, This idea is called the *main idea* of the paragraph and is usually found at the beginning of the paragraph. In some of students' reading, finding main ideas may serve their needs but in much of their studying they need to grasp details, which is a difficult task to do. Teachers should make students think of details as growing out of the main idea. Details

are of two kinds: *major details* and *minor details*. As a matter of fact, a major detail often has minor details growing out of it. These minor details tell more about a major detail, just as major details tell more about a main idea. Training students to distinguish and break up a paragraph into its three components: the *main idea, major details* and *minor details* will help them understand and remember what it is about. Focusing on paragraph organization also sensitizes students to the way different parts relate to one another. According to Nuttall (1988). "if you recognize the paragraph structure, this will help you to assign the value [contextual meaning] of each sentence" (p.28).

The following suggestions are offered to oblige students to concentrate on a topic and determine whether all sentences relate to it and whether all sentences follow one another in a logical way:
- Have students circle the topic sentence of each paragraph,
- Have students underline the major details and double-underline the minor details,
- Provide a list of scrambled major and minor ideas and then have students identify.

II. Identifying connectives (discourse markers)

Markers are words that signal a certain kind of relationship between sentences. Such markers are essential for students to understand the relationship between the ideas that the writer of the text had in his or her mind.

Nuttall (1998) lists the commonest relationships as follows: *examples, cause* and *effect, contrasting, adding information, listing,* and *time sequence.*
- *Examples*: Using examples to explain a point or to illustrate an idea is commonly used

1. Punctuation

The use of commas, semi-colons, parantheses, and dashes which gives extra information.

He is a real **glutton**: he eats too much.

II. Synonyms

The use of equivalent lexical items.

When we read we should try to get the *gist* or *main ideas*.

III. Antonyms

The use of apposite word.

When my hands are *filthy*, I never touch anything *clean*.

IV. Functions

The use of the function or purpose of the vocabulary item.

He gathered the fallen leaves with a *rake*.

V. Definitions/explanation

The use of definitions or explanation which are placed between commas in a sentence.

All his assignment, *which consisted of some easy exercises*, was done in ten minutes.

VI. Cause/effect

The use of cause/effect relationship

"My God, he's swimming fast". - "Yes, he's got *flippers* on".

VII. Generalization/specification

The word is a specific example of a more general class, or vice versa.

All his skating *gear*, that is, his *elbow pad, knee pad, helmet, and board* was expensive.

VIII. Examples

The use of examples which are introduced by certain lexical items (like, as, such as, for instance, e.g....)

Great *composers* like *Beethoven* and *Mozart* were really brilliant.

These clues are frequently employed by writers to help readers figure out the meanings of unfamiliar lexical items. However, sometimes they are missing. In this case students should be encouraged to rely on their own experience in order to determine meaning. Take the phrase "a bird *incubating* her eggs" for example. Readers' familiarity with birds and their keeping eggs warm by sitting on them, until they hatch would certainly make them infer the most appropriate meaning of the present participle.

BUILDING UP COMPREHENSION

Last but not certainly least, any EFL teacher of reading courses must establish reading comprehension as an indispensable goal in his or her teaching process. The objective of a reading comprehension lesson is mainly enhancing reading comprehension skills: the ability to make an overall comprehension of the material that is read without attempting to have a word-for-word, literal understanding. To enhance comprehension EFL teachers should have a knowledge about its process. Although the

students should be able to identify arguments, countearguments, and conclusions reached as a result of the argumentation.

EFL teachers can motivate learners to recognize these patterns in different ways:
- Have students re-order passages,
- Have them underline key sentences,
- Have them outline,
- Have them reject irrelevant information,
- Have them fill in charts, etc.

BUILDING UP VOCABULARY

As a foreign language teacher we have all heard the great majority of students complain about their poor vocabulary which impair their comprehension of a passage. To find an answer to this problem, they usually reach out to their dictionaries in order to look up every word that seems to be unfamiliar to them. This makes reading a slow and painful process that leads to discouragement and frustration in the end.

In order to compensate for this deficiency, and help students increase their vocabulary, foreign language teacher should adopt appropirate techniques. Among the myriad of information available for reinforcing vocabulary development, EFL teachers should, to my mind, help learners develop a "Systematic approach" (Gaskill 1979) to vocabulary and recognize contextual clues.

The "systematic approach" involves word analysis which, in turn, includes the study of stems and affixes (i.e. prefixes and suffixes). Learners should learn the constituent parts that form words, rather than learning the meaning of individual words. In this way, they can work out the meaning of unfamiliar words. Take the word *demagnetize* for instance. It can be analyzed this way: *de* = to deprive of, *magnet* = some kind of iron that attract iron, - *ize* = to

make. If students can recognize one of the word parts in a word that they do not know, they can often get a pretty good idea about the meaning of word.

To help students cope with unfamiliar lexical items as they are encountered in the reading, EFL teachers should provide them with a varity of exercises in word formation, e.g:
- Have them underline the affixes,
- Have them fill in the blanks in the sentences with the correct affix form the list that you prepare.
- Have them underline affixes and clarify their meaning or part of speech.

Another way to deal with the problem of poor vocabulary is enhancing students' ability to recognize and use contextual clues. Learners should know that a word has often various meaning depending on the context that it is in. Cook (1991) believes that "words are not coins you exchange from one language to another according to a fixed exchange rate" (p.38). Words bahave in sentences in different ways. Thus, students should be discouraged from translating word-for-word and must be trained to infer meaning from context. Teachers should encourage students to guess the meaning of unfamiliar words. For a foreign language student this seems to be probably the most important strategy which is usually called "word-attack". Students can "attack a word" by inferring the relationships between unknown vocabulary items and the contexts in which they are used. Therefore, teachers need to make their students aware of the different types of clues they can find around the unknown word. Some of these contextual clues are as follows:

the reading process, and most valuable of all is some techniques suggested in order to increase learners' ability in reading at the intermediate level.

BUILDING UP READING SPEED

Enabling students to read at a speed as close to that of the native speaker as possible seems to be a perfect goal which has frequently gone unnoticed. As Tullius (1971) reports in his study EFL learners tend to spend as much as three times longer in an eye fixation than students needing in their native language. Conseqnently, they tend to read much more slowly. Slow readers keep reading word by word and are constantly concerned about missing essential information. When students read word by word, they do not have time to think about what they are reading because they spend most of their time trying to decode the language rather than getting the gist or the main ideas from the selection.

To remedy this situation, certain exercises in reading speed must be included in the curriculum. EFL teachers should emphasize special techniques such as *skimming*, *scanning* and *recognizing paragraph patterns* involved in writing.

A very useful technique to get a quick idea of what a selection is about is *skimming* which helps students find the information needed at a glance. They are asked to take a quick look at the printed page in order to get the gist of the reading. They do not have to read to text thorougly and go into details to decide whether there is usefull information in it.

EFL teachers can help learners learn how to skim in a number of ways:

(I) - Have the students read the first and last sentences of each paragraph,
- Have them read the introduction and the conclusion,
- Have them ead the transition words (e.g. however,...) which show a change in the writer's train of thought.

By doing this, the students will know where to spot the most useful information in a reading selection.

(II) - Have the students pay attention to the way material is organized and the way the writer puts stress on main points by using italics, subtitles, spacing, etc.

Students need to have constant practice in order to get used to skimming. They should always be given a certain amount of time to do skimming.

Another technique which is more similar to skimming is *scanning*. Through scanning, students locate specific information such as a name, a place, a date, etc. In fact, when we scan we search for answers related to our purpose. Take someone's date of birth for example. If asked about it, students should search only for that persons's name and numbers on the printed page. Or if asked about the place of birth, they just need to spot the word with a capitalized initial.

Another way of helping learners read fast is by introducing *patterns of rhetoric organization* used in English texts. Such various patterns actually act as a drawback when reading a selection. Once the students recognize the pattern of organization, they can understand better and read faster since they can anticipate what is to follow and how it is to be presented. The paragraph patterns used in writing are various. The commonest of them involve comparison/contrast, definition, description, analogy, argumentation, cause/ effect, and chronological description of events. If a passage is, for instance, argumentative,

Foreign Language Teaching Journal

we read; sometimes one predominates, sometimes the other, but both are needed. This has become known as interactive model of reading process proposed by Rumelhart (1977). In this model all the knowledge sources including orthographic, lexical, syntactic and semantic knowledge come together simultaneously to facilitate comprehension.

From what was said above we can claim that the reading process is a meaning-making one in which the reader has to work to get the meaning out. According to Nuttall (1998) there are at least four kinds of meaning that as single sentence may have and all EFL learners should take notice of: "conceptual, propositional, contextual and pragmatic" (p.20). We will look at them in terms of two levels of meaning: the surface level and deep level as found in grammatical analysis. At the surface level, meaning is categorized as either denotative (conceptual) meaning or connotative (propositional) meaning. It can be seen as the "central" meaning of a lexical item which relates it to phenomena in the real world or in a possible world. Connotative meaning, on the other hand, is the additional meanings that a word has beyond its denotative meaning. It can also reflect the personal experience one associates with a lexical item.

At the deep level, meaning falls into two categories: contextual meaning and pragmatic meaning. Contextual meaning refers to the meaning that a linguistic item has within the context in which it occurs. Contextual meaning might be realized either at the sentence level or at the paragraph level. Therefore, this type of meaning is not decided by the lexical item itself, rather by the context which the whole sentence function in. Pragmatic meaning is the writer or speaker intended meaning which has

not been expressed explicitly through the printed material or utterances. Pragmatic meaning lies outside the organization of language and depends on the reader's (or hearer's) congnitive ability to make inferences as to decode the writer's unwritten (or speaker's unspoken) meaning.

What has been said so far about the distinction of the surface-level meaning and deep-level meaning, which exists in a meaning system, appears to apply to the same distinction of literal comprehension and inferential comprehension (Barrett 1968). In simpler terms, meaning at the surface level has to do with literal comprehension and meaning at the deep level has to do with inferential comprehension.

In order to enhance students literal comprehension, two kinds of tasks have to be assigned i.e. recognition tasks and recall tasks. In recognition tasks students are required to spot the main points in the reading selection. But with recall tasks students are to make references to the selection so as the produce explicit statements. Inferential comprehension requires intuition, imagination, and thinking on the part of the students. Such cognitive abilities can be challenged by teachers' question which have been carefully designed. These kinds of tasks will be taken up later in this writing.

If one follows through the possible implications of our brief discussion on the nature of reading comprehension one is likely to come to the thought that any reading program ought to have three basic and essential goals. In a nutshell, a foreign language teacher of reading should strive to improve students' performance in reading speed, vocabulary and comprehension. What follows is a brief description of each goal and its relevance to

People have different reasons for reading. Whatever they are, one reads since one wants to get something from the writing. The overbearing purpose of reading is to get meaning from the print. This has become known as message, which the author of the text tries to transfer. In fact, as Nuttall (1998) believes there is "the transfer of meaning from mind to mind: the transfer of a message from writer to reader" (p.3) via the print. This implies that reading is an interactive activity between the writer who puts the message into the text and the reader who gets in out of the writing. However, it does not mean that the text contains meaning, or as Nuttall (1998) dismisses the view that "the text is full of meaning like a jug full of water; the reader's mind soaks it up like a sponge. ... the reader has only to open his mind and let the meaning pour in" (p.5). On the contrary, reading is a co-operative task because both reader and writer rely on each other in certain ways. One of the most salient requirement in this co-operation is that reader and writer should have certain mutual assumptions about the world and how it works.

In his classical research conducted in 1932, Bartlett described reading comprehension as an *effort after meaning*. He theorized that one's background knowledge is organized and stored in hypothetical abstract cognitive structures called schemata. It is in these schemata that our previous experiences are recorded and it is these schemata which in turn direct and what will be perceived in future events or activities.

In reading comprehension, schemata play an important role. In this regard, Nuttall (1998) advances an explanation. She has the following to say: *"the way we interpret depends on the schemata activated by the text; and wether we interpret successfully depends on whether our schemata are sufficiently similar to the writer's"* (p.7). In his article, Zakaluk (1982) elaborates on the way the schema functions in reading comprehension: "Schemata already in the reader's mind thus direct the search for information. In turn, the knowledge gained from reading alters the reader's original script or schema" (p.17). It can be inferred that reading comprehension is a constructive process in which the reader actively seeks meaning. As paul Kolers points out in his introduction to Huey's Psychology and Pedagogy of Reading published in 1968, "what the reader understands from what he has read is the result of a construction he makes and not the result of a simple transmission of the graphic symbols to his mind" (p.1). It denotes that meaning is not in the words on the page, but the reader constructs meaning by making inferences and interpretations. This new definition of reading process has been termed as top-down processing (see Goodman 1970, for more information).

In the traditional view of the reading process, readers are perceived as passive decoders of visual stimuli. To elaborate, Gough (1972) proposed what may be classified a bottom-up model of the reading process which portrays processing in reading as proceeding in serial fashion, from letters to sounds, to words, to sentence structures and to meaning. We can make use of this kind of processing when an initial reading leaves us confused, or rather perhaps when we can not believe that the apparent message was really what the writer intended.

Admittedly, bottom-up and top-down approaches represent complementary ways of processing a text. They are both used whenever

Abstract

In the study of English, reading has often been at the center of debate among teachers and scholars. Theories about reading and numberous teaching techniques have created an awareness of the influence reading has on listening, speaking, writing, and even translating.

It is all clear that nothing can be more frustrating for the student than having to struggle with a reading passage for which he or she is unprepared. Given this fact, students are often said to be in need of learning to read rather than reading to learn. The following article is an attempt to present specific problems that students face in learning how to read, basic goals for a reading program, and some techniques the teacher of reading can employ to achieve those goals. In other words, the article presents different practical ways of assisting the reading instructor in implementing a syllabus for the intermediate level reading class. For the purpose of this writing, it has been assumed that the target students are at the tertiary level.

The overall conclusion to be drawn from our discussion is that an EFL reading instructor should have three basic goals for any reading program: enhancing students' competency to read efficiently by building up their speed, vocabulary, and comprehension.

Key Words:

Schemata, Top-down/ Bottom-up Approaches, Inferential Comprehension, Literal Comprehension, Skimming, Scanning, Paragraph Patterns, Word Analysis, Contextual Clues, Organization of Information, Discourse Markers.

Introduction

Scrutinising the literature minutely, we realize the fact that among the language skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing), which are thought to be interrelated, one skill, that is reading has been given scant consideration in our county where English is not spoken, whereas the only access to the recent advances and latest information is simply through written texts which are mainly published in English. This means that students in scientific (and non-scientific) fields who are not native speakers or fluent users of English have an especially important need to be able to read relevant subject matter in English.

At the tertiary education, it is almost always true that a great majority of the students have been deprived of this ability, i.e. the skill to read. As a result, it is all clear that both students and teachers of reading suffer a great deal.

In this article, we shall attempt to give some clarification on three basic goals for a reading program in which intermediate students take part. Namely, they have already been exposed to what most foreign language courses consider basic grammatical concepts and the basic language skills have also been taught. Besides, we shall try to present our readers with a number of techniques through which these goals can be achieved.

WHAT IS THE NATURE OF READING COMPREHENSION?

To begin with, we should have an understanding of the reading process in order to be able to set our goals for a reading program. Under no cirumstances can the teacher of reading teach reading in an effective way without having a clear idea of what reading comprehension is or what it entails.

Building Reading Skills up at the Tertiary-Level Education

Masoud Zoghi
Islamic Azad University of Ahar
mentor1125@yahoo.com

چکیده

در مطالعهٔ زبان انگلیسی ، غالباً مهارت خواندن بیش‌تر از هر مهارت دیگری ، توجه معلمان و اهل علـم را در مباحث و محافل علمی به خـود اختصاص داده است . در این بین ، تئوری‌ها و فنون تدریس گوناگونی در ارتباط با این مهـارت ارائه شده‌اند که در نهایت ، باعث افزایش آگاهی هرچه بیش‌تر از تأثیر مهارت خواندن بر مهارت‌های دیگر زبانی ، همچون مهارت‌های سمعی ، گفتاری ، نوشتاری و حتی مهارت ترجمهٔ زبان انگلیسی می‌شوند .

حقیقت امر این است که برای فراگیران زبان خارجی ، هیچ چیز مأیوس کننده‌تر از این نیست که با متونی دست و پنجه نرم کنند که آمادگی خواندن آن‌ها را ندارند . با درنظر گـرفتن این حقیقت ، می‌توان چنین نتیجه گرفت که دانشجویان نیاز مبـرم به یادگیری اصول مهارت خواندن دارند تا این که بتوانند متنی را بخوانند و یاد بگیرند . این مقاله تلاشی است برای آشکار کردن برخی از مشکلاتی که دانشجویان به هنگام خواندن متون انگلیسی با آن‌ها مواجه می‌شوند . همچنین سعی شده است ، برخی از فنونی که مدرسان دوره‌های درک مطلب می‌توانند از آن‌ها برای نیل به هدف‌های اساسی خود استفاده کنند ، به صورتی آشکار و مفید ارائه شود . به عبارت دیگر ، این نوشتار ارائه کننده برخی از روش‌های عملی است که یک مربی دورهٔ خواندن و درک مطلب می‌تواند از آن‌ها یاری گیرد تا طرح درسی خود را در سطح متوسطه برای کلاس خواندن و درک مطلب به اجرا درآورد . به همین منظور ، در این نوشتار فرض بر این بوده است که فراگیران موردنظر در سطح دانشگاهی هستند . چنین افرادی از لحاظ دانش زبانی در سطح متوسط قرار دارند . بدین معنا که آن‌ها قبلاً دربارهٔ مفاهیم کلی دستوری و مهارت‌های اساسی زبانی ، آشنایی لازم را کسب کرده‌اند .

نتیجهٔ کلی که می‌توانیم از بحث‌هایمان در این مقاله بگیریم این است که ، یک مربی دورهٔ خواندن و درک مفاهیم ، باید برای آن دوره سه هدف اساسی را درنظر داشته باشد . یعنی درحقیقت مربیان باید توانایی فراگیران را در مهارت خواندن ، با توجه به سه هدف اساسی ، یعنی : «سرعت خواندن» ، «دانش واژگانی» و «درک مطلب» تقویت کنند .

کلیدواژگان : شیوه‌های صعودی ـ نزولی / نزولی ـ صعودی ؛ درک مفهوم استنباطی ؛ درک مفهوم تحت‌اللفظی ؛ سطح خوانی ؛ بررسی اجمالی ؛ الگوهای پراگراف ؛ تجزیه و تحلیل واژه ؛ سازماندهی اطلاعات ؛ نشانه‌های کلامی