

## ***An Overview of EFL Lecture Comprehension: The Case of Some Algerian University Contexts***

**BOULENOUAR Mohammed Yamin**  
(Université de Sidi-Bel-Abbès)

### **Abstract**

With the spread of English across the globe and whatever its overlap with other languages, there has been a fascinating debate over the years to how this world language has been accompanied by ever growing numbers of people studying at university level through the medium of English as a second language whether in their own country or in English speaking countries as overseas students. A main part of university study continues to be the lecture. <sup>1</sup> Academic listening skills are thus necessary elements of communicative competence in a university environment.

The aim of this paper is twofold: to present findings of a study which aimed at describing authentic teaching in some Algerian university contexts as it is perceived by students (ST) and to put forward a review of the research related to second language lecture comprehension. Furthermore, it gives an account of the latest findings related to the lecture comprehension process, lecture discourse, and lecture input variable.

### **Introduction**

The growing body of research concerned with teacher effectiveness has reinforced the notion that specific characteristics and behaviours matter in teaching in terms of student achievement and other desirable outcomes (Blase and Blasé, 2001). However, available research is inconsistent in defining elements of effective teaching behaviour (Stronge, 2002). In reply to this critique researchers knew how to look into the interacting variables that can be attributed to student performance. Consequently this study has been able to make a

---

<sup>1</sup> BARTLETT, L. (1990) *Teacher Development through Reflective Teaching*. In. RICHARDS, J. C. & NUNAN, D. *Second Language Education*. Cambridge: CUP. p. 209.

distinction between four major headings: comprehension on the whole, characteristics of listening comprehension, distinctive features of lecture comprehension, and lecture comprehension micro-skills.

Because the field of education grows towards a stronger focus on consistency, the teacher has once more turned out to be the focus of attention since he is the one and only most important element in student attainment. Accordingly, Algeria witnessed in the last few years a number of reform initiatives (LMD for instance) that were in line with the requirements for conformity with standards of best practice set by key International players such as EU, UNESCO, the World Bank, etc.

### **Controversy in the definition of effectiveness**

Research in the previous three decades has revealed that studies on well-organized teaching is liable to generate lists of distinct qualities, dispositions, traits and behaviours of successful teachers. Yet in recent time, more attention has been given to the value added relationship between teaching and learning because it has been found that successful teachers create a strong increasing result on student attainment, (Stronge and Hindman, 2003). Some researchers describe teacher success by relying on comments from students, and administrators, which more often than not center on teacher personality traits, behaviours, attitudes, aptitude, competences and lots of other personal characteristics (Cheng and Tsui, 1996).

### **Method and procedure**

This study set out to investigate the students' belief of the teaching act throughout the lectures of American together with British literature as well as to point to the problems they

come across all the way through the teaching process. In this paper primary focus will be on the pedagogical activities used in the six lectures I observed so as to define the type of activity used by teachers in teaching the *“The Great Gatsby”*, *“Heart of Darkness”*, *“The Glass Menagerie”*, and *“Eveline”* in turn. To compare the six teachers in this study, I have selected a set of teacher activities as well as illustrative segments of lecturer talk with reference to what they do.

The study answers the following questions:

- 1- Why are students uncaring on literature in EFL classrooms?
- 2- Why do learners have barely any possibility to be in charge of their personal learning experience as well as their own feelings concerning the literary text?

The following hypotheses were put forward

1. The dominant exchange is identical to the traditional exchange which is predominantly monologue. The teacher makes use of his power by constantly overusing the lockstep style through the whole lectures by being in charge of the content, stages and pace of the lecture.
2. Because the literature classes are teacher-centred, direct interaction involving the learners and the literary text is absent for the reason that the teacher's pressure and authority put a stop to any opportunity for the learners to construct their personal findings.

## **Research instruments**

The main instruments used in this study were grids of observation, audio-video recordings and two versions of a questionnaire, one in English and one in Arabic, developed by generating a list of effective teacher characteristics derived from literature. The questions on the questionnaire for the six different classes of informants are identical, with a combination of closed and open-ended questions. The

questions on the questionnaire can be classified into two major categories for all the students who attended the lectures I observed.

The first category, which includes eight closed questions (questions from 1 till 8), is to investigate the informants' ongoing learning during their literature learning. They ask informants to report whether they had been able to follow the lecture steps, whether they had given the opportunity to interact during the lecture, to mention the visual aids used as well as their personal impressions about the teacher, to state if the lecture content goes hand in hand with their needs and finally to evoke the difficulties met during the teaching process.

The second category contains only two open questions for all and is to investigate the informants' intake, that is, to know precisely what they kept from the lecture they attended and to provide suggestions linked with the literature teaching task.

The majority of the student informants answered in Arabic, while some of them answered in French. It is to be remarked that answers to closed questions can be easily quantified. Nonetheless, the free answers from the open questions are much more effort and time-consuming.

To compare the six teachers in this study, I have selected a set of teacher activities as well as illustrative segments of lecturer talk with reference to what they do. One question one could ask is why observe? It is particularly important for teachers to be free from time to time so as to avoid being

*(...) absorbed in the purpose, procedure and logistics of our [lecture] that we are not able to observe processes or learning and interaction as they occur through the [lecture]. Being an observer in the classroom, rather than the teacher, releases us from a range of different perspectives outside that of the actual [lecture] plan of the teacher.<sup>2</sup>*

It is to be remarked that the language classroom is the most important basis of information out of which teachers will expand their personal beliefs of what makes successful teaching and learning.

The classroom observations were documented by means of extensive field notes and audio as well as video recordings, which were collected during my own observations in 2009, 2010 and 2011. The observed lectures were soon after transcribed. Despite the fact that the data base does not include teacher's responses to the analyses, such data would be helpful to include in future investigations in this area. Due to objectives of my research, excerpts from the data used in the subsequent analyses have been summarized. I shall be looking at ways in which the observed teachers conducted their teaching, what activities they made use of, and how they used them during the visits a paid to them.

## **Samples**

The total population of this study included 483 students of 2<sup>nd</sup>, and 3<sup>rd</sup> year, 6 teachers of these two levels, representing all regional universities: DjilaliLiabès University in Sidi-Bel-Abbès, Dr. MoulayTahar University in Saïda, and Hassiba Ben Bouali University in Chlef.

---

<sup>2</sup> (Ibid: 7);

## **The Lecture Comprehension Process (LCP)**

Understanding how lectures are understood can not only offer suitable ways to persuade EFL hearers to focus on lectures but also show content lecturers in how to give their lectures to ensure best possible comprehension. Four headings of the most important findings are explained: comprehension on the whole, characteristics of listening comprehension, distinctive features of lecture comprehension, and lecture comprehension micro-skills. (See figure below)

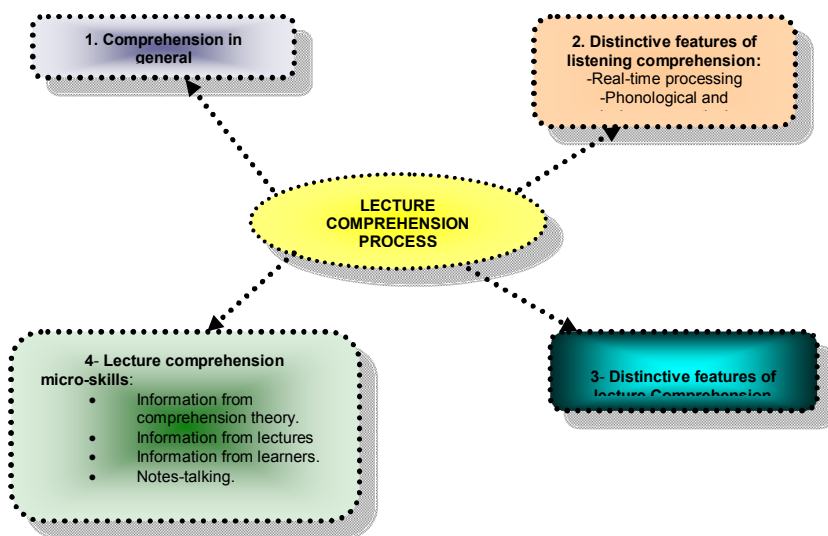


**Figure 1:** The Lecture Comprehension Process.

Consistent with linguistic theory, five key categories of knowledge at least are at work throughout the comprehension

process: pragmatic, semantic, syntactic, lexical, and phonological. Cognitive science (psycholinguistics in earlier times) advocates that these sections of knowledge act together.<sup>3</sup>For instance, at the opening of a lecture, our understanding of the schematic arrangement of this type permits us to make guesses about what is expected to be said, while the lecture advances. Consequently, we are able to guess that the utterance fragment, “*Now, I am going to be...*” is rather probable to be followed by the phrase “*speaking about*”. Minor phonological input may be the first sound or phoneme or syllable of “speaking” is necessary for this prediction to be confirmed; in fact, we may well not even be concerned to listen to the last phrase.

**Lately, a growing understanding about listening in a foreign language made a distinction between two essential features of listening comprehension<sup>4</sup>: real-time processing and phonological and lexico-grammatical features.<sup>5</sup>A listening text exists in time rather than space; it is brief and has to be identified while it is spoken. Problems are created by the sound system. The listener has not only to be on familiar terms with unit confines phonologically which would be indicated visually in a written text; but must also identify irregular pausing, false starts, hesitations, stress and intonation patterns.**

Since listening comprehension has its specific characteristics so does lecture comprehension has its

---

<sup>3</sup>ANDERSON, J. R. (1985)*The Architecture of Cognition*. Havard: Havard University Press. p. 20.

<sup>4</sup>LONG, M. H.(1989) Instructed Interlanguage Development. In. BEEBE, L. (ed.). *Issues in Second Language Acquisition: Multiple Perspectives*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House, pp.115-141.

<sup>5</sup>ROST, M. (1990)*Listening in Language Learning*. London: Longman.

identifiable usual characteristics. Richards <sup>6</sup> states that there are distinctions to be made between conversational listening and academic listening. In relation to the first, it is the type of background knowledge that makes a difference but in a lecture listeners are not only required to call for knowledge of the specialist area being discussed but also to make a distinction between what is vital to the main purpose and what is less significant (digressions, asides, jokes, etc.).

The turn-taking principles are another distinction between academic and conversational listening. Indeed during lectures turn-taking principles will simply be called for if questions are accepted from the listeners or come from the teacher. The fourth distinction concerns the stress within lectures which is in general supposed to take place on the information to be passed on, i.e. on prepositional meaning, whereas inside conversation interpersonal, or illocutionary meaning is more influential. <sup>7</sup>

Several specific skills are linked with lectures. The first of these is the prerequisite to be able to think as well as comprehend extended bits of talk with no option of using the facilitating functions of interactive discourse, for example asking for repetition, negotiating meaning, exploiting repair strategies, and so on. A subsequent difference of kind is note-taking. According to James<sup>8</sup> lecture comprehension includes a five stage process which ends in the note-taking process:

- decode,
- understand,
- spot main points,

---

<sup>6</sup> RICHARDS, J. C. (1985) Listening Comprehension: Approach, Design, Procedure. In Richards, J. C. (ed.) *The Context of Language Teaching*. Cambridge: CUP. pp. 189-207.

<sup>7</sup>BROWN, G. & YULE, G. (1983) *Discourse Analysis*. Cambridge: CUP.

<sup>8</sup> JAMES, K. (1977) Note-Taking in Lectures: Problems and Strategies. In A.P. COWIE & HEATON, J.B. (eds.) *English for Academic Purposes*. BAAL/SELMOUS.

- make a decision at what time to note down these,
- write down quickly and clearly.

Some researchers into L2 lecture comprehension have examined the particular skills, or micro-skills, which they suppose are crucial for the comprehension of lectures inside a foreign language.<sup>9</sup> Richards, for example, suggests the following for lecture comprehension:

|   | Functions for Lecture Comprehension (LCP)                                                                   |
|---|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 1 | Ability to identify purpose and scope of lecture                                                            |
| 2 | Ability to identify topic of lecture and follow topic development                                           |
| 3 | Ability to recognise role of discourse markers of signalling structure of a lecture                         |
| 4 | Ability to recognise key lexical items related to subject/topic                                             |
| 5 | Ability to deduce meaning of words from context                                                             |
| 6 | Ability to recognise function of intonation to signal information structure (e.g. pitch, volume, pace, key) |

**Table 1:** Information from Comprehension Theory<sup>10</sup>

**Powers (1986) managed to put forward nine important skills related to lecture comprehension:**

|   | Functions of Lecture Related Micro-Skills (LRMS) |
|---|--------------------------------------------------|
| 1 | Identifying major themes or ideas                |
| 2 | Identifying relationships among major ideas      |
| 3 | Identifying the topic of the lecture             |
| 4 | Retaining information through note taking        |
| 5 | Retrieving information from notes                |
| 6 | Inferring relationships between information      |
| 7 | Comprehending key vocabulary                     |
| 8 | Following the spoken mode of lectures            |
| 9 | Identifying supporting ideas and examples        |

**Table 2:** Lecture-related Micro-skills<sup>11</sup>

---

<sup>9</sup> (Ibid.)

<sup>10</sup> Adapted from MUMBY, J.(1978) *Communicative Syllabus Design*. Cambridge: CUP.

Flowerdrew and Miller <sup>12</sup> discovered that Chinese learners' problems during lectures were tempo of delivery, unnecessary load of fresh expressions and concepts, in addition to problems in concentrating. Last but not least refers to Rost's categories of notes into "topic-relation notes" (e.g. writing down a word or phrase, copying, decoding, diagramming), "concept-ordering notes" (e.g. listing topics in order, classifying notes as major points, indenting), "focussing notes" (e.g. highlighting, parenthesising), and "revising notes" (e.g. inserting, deleting)<sup>13</sup>.

### **The Lecture Discourse**

Research into lecture discourse can show to teachers and course designers alike the nature of linguistic and discourse qualities learners should to be accustomed to so as to comprehend a lecture along with what should be included into EFL courses. Besides, data of linguistic discourse structure of lectures will be helpful to content lecturers as it greatly helps them to put in order their personal lectures effectively. Five important lecture discourse areas will be looked at separately: lecturing styles, discourse structure, metapragmatic signalling, interpersonal features, and lexico-grammatical features.

---

<sup>11</sup> POWERS, D.E. (1986) Academic Demands Related to Listening Skills.*Language Testing*, 3(1),1-38.

<sup>12</sup>FLOWERDEW, J. & MILLER, L. (1994a) Problems and Strategies in Second Language Academic Lecture Comprehension.*Discourse Processes*. 15(2), 165-181.

<sup>13</sup>ROST, M. (1990) *Listening in Language Learning*. London: Longman.

Quite a few different styles have been recognized for giving lectures. Morrison<sup>14</sup> split lectures within two types: formal (“close to spoken prose”) and informal (“high informational content, but not essentially inside highly formal register”).

Dudley-Evans and John<sup>15</sup> make a distinction between three styles of lecturing: “reading style”, “conversational style”, and “rhetorical style”.

In sum from what has been dealt with above, the key parameters in illustrating lecture styles would seem to be:

- Whether the lecture dealt with is given by the speaker in real time or is read and
- Whether it accepts for any verbal interaction with the audience or is authentic monologue.

Due to the lack of published studies concerning the types of lecture style, it is widely believed that the informal, conversational style, based on notes or handouts, is without doubt the major mode of lecture preparation, to native and non-native audiences alike.<sup>16</sup>

---

<sup>14</sup> MORRISON, J. W. (1974) An Investigation of Problems in Listening and Cohesion in Selected Science Lectures. Unpublished M.A. thesis, University of Newcastle upon Tyne, reported in JORDAN, R. R. (1980). English for Academic Purposes (EAP). *Language Teaching*, 22(3), 151-164.

<sup>15</sup> DUDLEY-EVANS, A. & JOHNS, T. (1981) A Team Teaching Approach to Lecture Comprehension for Overseas Students. In *The Teaching of Listening Comprehension. ELT Documents Special*. London: The British Council.

<sup>16</sup> McDONOUGH, J. (1978) *Listening to Lectures*. Oxford: OUP.

The major research related to discourse structure of academic lectures was carried out in the 1970s<sup>17</sup>. It is built up through the Sinclair and Coulthard model of primary school classroom discourse<sup>18</sup>. In fact, Murphy and Candlin offer a variety of examples to demonstrate how a number of the interactive acts from their model take place in lectures as well:

| Interactive Acts | Examples                                                                               |
|------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 1. Marker        | "Well. Obviously...Right. Everybody...Now. Let me..."                                  |
| 2. Starter       | "Well now. Let's get on with the engineering."                                         |
| 3. Informative   | "for the three forces to be in equilibrium their vectors must form a closed triangle." |
| 4. Aside         | "running out of blackboard here."                                                      |
| 5. Metastatement | "let me sound reveille, I want to mention two types of generator."                     |
| 6. Conclusion    | "So there you've got 3 forces which are in equilibrium."                               |

**Table 3:** Interactive Acts (Murphy and Candlin)

An additional aspect frequent with classroom discourse concerns the rank scale of discourse units. Cooke,<sup>19</sup> for instance, modified Sinclair and Coulthard's rank scale designed for primary classroom discourse of *[Lesson: Transaction ---- Episode ----Move ----Act]*, to recommend for lectures the subsequent ranks: *[Lecture: Exposition ----Episode ----Move ----Act]*. Beginning at the summit of the hierarchy, every stage is made up of elements at the rank below. Thus a "lecture" is

<sup>17</sup>COOKE, J.R.S. (1975) A communicative Approach to the Analysis of Extended Monologue Discourse and its Relevance to the Development of Teaching Materials for ESP; Unpublished M. Lit. Thesis: University of Michigan.

<sup>18</sup>SINCLAIR, J. McH& COULTHARD, M. (1975)*Towards an Analysis of Discourse: The English Used by Teachers and Pupils*. Oxford: OUP.  
20 (Ibid.)

built from different categories of “exposition”, an “exposition” is built from diverse categories of “episode”, and so on. Yet, Cook is simply able “*to describe the boundaries of these units and is unable to say much about their internal structure which is the same problem in Sinclair and Coulthard.*”<sup>20</sup>

Two other researchers, Coulthard and Montgomery,<sup>21</sup> applied the Sinclair and Coulthard’s model to lectures by devising a framework that consists of no more than three ranks: [**Lecture: Transaction, Sequence, Member**] – where **Transaction** corresponds to focussing boundaries, **Sequence** to phonological means (the use of high pitch, for example), in addition to **Member** which is syntactically made of a boundless clause.

A failure to be aware of macro-structure is observed by some applied linguists as one of the major struggle of non-native speakers in comprehending lectures. Olsen and Hucker asserted that “*although students may understand all the words of a lecture, they still fail to understand the main points and logical argument.*”<sup>22</sup> Really this lack of understanding according to them is closely related to a failure to use knowledge of the overall discourse structure along with background knowledge.

The significance of metapragmatic signalling devices in making easy comprehension has been acknowledged by

---

<sup>20</sup>FLOWERDEW, J. & MILLER, L. (1992a) Problems and Strategies in Second Language Academic Lecture Comprehension. pp. 165-181.

<sup>21</sup> COULTHARD, M. & MONTGOMERY, M. (1981) The Structure of Monologue. In: COULTHARD, M and MONTGOMERY, M. (eds). *Studies in Discourse Analysis*. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul. pp. 31-39.

<sup>22</sup>OLSEN, L.A. & HUCKIN, T.N. (1990) Point-driven Understanding in Engineering Lecture Comprehension; *English for Specific Purposes* 9, 33-47.

numerous researchers<sup>23</sup> as well as EFL course book designers.<sup>24</sup>

From an analysis related to macro-organisers in lectures from a number of different disciplines, other researchers were able to set up eight major categories of “lexical phrase” because they refer to a range of purposes, such as, “lemme start with...” (Topic marker), “so let’s turn to...” (Topic shifter), “to tie this up...” (Summarizer). The belief is that these markers will help comprehension.

There is recurrent talk these days of a crisis in education; researchers are becoming aware that a lecture is not merely a medium for conveying information, but also for relating to the audience and conveying attitudes and opinions. Indeed, Rounds states that competent lecturers can build “*an atmosphere of cooperative interaction and consensus – a sense of working together to achieve a common goal.*”<sup>25</sup> This teaching attitude known as “elaboration” has the following features:

1. naming processes
2. overtly marking major points, both to evaluate and reinforce student achievement
3. develop cohesion and continuity within and between classes by repetition and “linking talk”
4. explicitly organising topics and marking topic change

---

<sup>23</sup> See CHAUDRON and RICHARDS, 1986 and DeCARRICO and NATTINGER, 1988 among others.

<sup>24</sup>DUNKEL, P. & PIALORSI, F. (1982) *Advanced Listening Comprehension*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House. & RUETTEN, M.K. (1986) *Comprehending Academic Lecture*. New York: Macmillan.

<sup>25</sup>ROUNDS, P. *Characterising Successful Classroom Discourse for NNS Teaching Assistant Training*.p. 666.

5. stating the scope of the students' responsibility
6. using questions in a timely fashion
7. using persuasive techniques<sup>26</sup>

Empirical research in learner's lexical errors or 'misperceptions', has proved that the lexical ignorance is the major barrier that prevents advanced learners from listening within academic lectures. In fact, a very small number of studies related to lectures, as a spoken type, have been published so far. As a result, lectures, considered as relatively literate, planned artefacts, are likely to have in common a great number of the features of written texts, though the degree to which they show this feature will once more be subject to variation. In sum, what characterises spoken text and written text is, on one hand,

1. a high incidence of the following linguistic features like 'that' clauses, subordinate cause clauses, subordinate conditional clauses, first person pronouns, second person pronouns, contractions, pronoun 'it'[ and]
2. an exhibition of high frequency of the following items [on the other hand]: nominalisations, prepositions, specific conjuncts, agent less passives, low type/token ratio.<sup>27</sup>

**Research related to the analysis of the lexis of academic lectures has not investigated yet the degree to which they do or do not show the linguistic features stated above.**

---

<sup>26</sup> (Ibid.)

<sup>27</sup> (Ibid)

### The Lecture input variable

To facilitate for non-native speakers the comprehension of lectures in a foreign language, John Flowerdew (1992a) among others suggests two possible ways:

- Modifying the input could be made so as to improve students' knowledge and skills in the TL until the comprehension process is no longer an obstacle. Another way is to somehow
- adapt the form of the lectures and to adjust the input in order to facilitate them to be grasped.

To make the input more comprehensible the following three major parts such as input studies, speech rate, and accent will be dealt with successively. "Input" studies made by researchers like Chaudron<sup>28</sup> for example focussed mainly on creating taxonomies and quantifying modifications made by speakers to non-natives in informal interaction. It was noticed "*interactive aspects of modification (repair, negotiation of meaning, confirmation checks, back-channel cues, etc.) tend to be effective in increasing communication.*"<sup>29</sup> It is thus likely that lectures of a more interactive nature wherein audience participation is encouraged will help non-natives to understand more.

In a lecture-oriented input study Chaudron and Richards<sup>30</sup> investigated the effect on comprehension of

---

<sup>28</sup>CHAUDRON, M. & MONTGOMERY, M. The Structure of Monologue. In. COULTHARD M. & MONTGOMERY, M. (eds.). *Studies in Discourse Analysis*.

<sup>29</sup>(Ibid.)

<sup>30</sup>CHAUDRON, C. & RICHARDS, J.C. (1986) The Effect of Discourse Markers on the Comprehension of Lectures. *Applied Linguistics*, 7(2), 113-127.

pragmatic signalling devices, or discourse markers. They presented subjects with the same lecture with and without discourse markers. Chaudron and Richards found tested subjects after listening that “macro-markers”, i.e. higher-order markers making major transitions had an important effect on recall than did “micro-markers”, i.e. lower-order markers that link clauses and sentences.

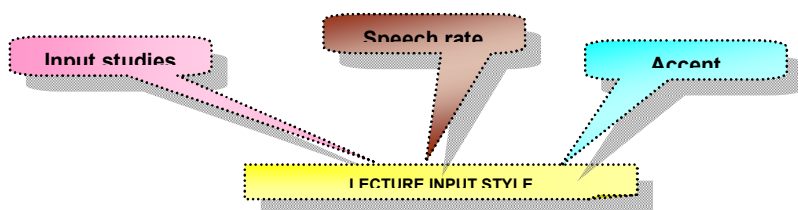


**Figure 2:** Lecture Input Variables

An important field for lecture comprehension research refers to speech rate. Flowerdew and Miller studied Cantonese speakers listening to lectures in English. They found that “*subjects were unanimous in rating speed of delivery as the greatest obstacle to understanding.*”<sup>31</sup> When asked why this should be so, the majority of the informants, mentioned “*the great amount of processing required of the incoming data in a very short space of time*”. These affirmations go hand in hand

---

<sup>31</sup> FLOWERDEW, J. & MILLER, L. (1994a) Problems and Strategies in Second Language Academic Lecture Comprehension; *Discourse Processes*; 15(2), 165-181.

with Griffith's remark that "*a normal speed of delivery requires great deal of work in a very restricted time.*"<sup>32</sup>

Finally, accent, a medium met by non-natives during lectures given by both natives and non-native teachers, is considered as an essential factor contributing to difficulties for non-native lecture comprehension.<sup>33</sup> Without a doubt, Anderson-Hsieh and Koehler<sup>34</sup> among others support the common viewpoint that unfamiliar accents cause difficulty in comprehension. Smith and Bisazza<sup>35</sup> state that most comprehensible lectures are likely to be those lectures with the accent closest to the model learners have been exposed to in their studies and in society at large. A similar phenomenon exists in Algeria where the British English is the current model. To avoid accent problems, it is necessary to 'equip' non-native students with a wide range of accents during preparatory EFL programmes.

---

<sup>32</sup> GRIFFITH, R. (1990) Speech Rate and NNS Comprehension: A Preliminary Study in Time-Benefit Analysis. *Language Learning*, 40(3), 311-336.

<sup>33</sup> KENNEDY, G. (1978) *The Testing of Listening Comprehension*. RELC Monograph Series Singapore: Singapore University press.

BILBOW, G.T. (1989) Towards an understanding of overseas students' difficulties in lectures: A Phenomenographic Approach. *Journal of Further and Higher Education*. 12(2), 85-99.

<sup>34</sup> ANDERSON-HSIEH, J. & KOEHLER, K. (1988) The Effect of Foreign Accent and Speaking Rate on Native Speaker Comprehension. *Language Learning*, 38, 561-613.

<sup>35</sup> SMITH, L.E. & BISAZZA, J.A. (1982) The Comprehensibility of three Varieties of English for College Students in Seven Countries. *Language Learning*, 32(2), 129-269.

| Major Factors<br>Modifying<br>Input | Explanations                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                       |
|-------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <b>1. Input studies</b>             | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Interactive aspects of modification such as repair, negotiation of meaning, confirming checks, back-channel cues, and so on, tend to be effective in expanding communication.</li> <li>• Lectures of a more interactive nature, encouraging more audience participation, will be more easily comprehended by non-natives.</li> <li>• “macro-markers”; i.e. higher-order markers marking major transitions had a greater effect than did “micro-markers”; i.e. lower-order markers linking clauses and sentences (Chaudron and Richards, 1986).</li> </ul> |
| <b>2. Speech rate</b>               | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Speech is an important area for lecture comprehension research.</li> <li>• Speed rate represents the major obstacle to understanding in a very restricted time.</li> <li>• Lecturers are unable to moderate their speech rate.</li> </ul>                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                 |
| <b>3. Accent</b>                    | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Exposure to a variety of accents creates comprehension problems to non-native speakers studying via the medium of English during lectures.</li> <li>• It is advisable to launch preparatory EFL programmes so that learners will be familiar with an extensive range of accents.</li> </ul>                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                               |

**Table 4:** Modifying the Input<sup>36</sup>

## Exploring Students’ Beliefs

In this type of research which is heuristic and deductive i.e.; qualitative research, the researcher makes known facts and truths which are analysed inside a natural setting and, data are more often than not collected by means of interviews, observations, diary and log, tape and recording, verbal

<sup>36</sup>After KENNEDY, 1978; RICHARDS, 1983; BILBOW, 1989

reporting, questionnaires, etc. Therefore taking into consideration the exceptional nature of our set research questions, which openly invites the performants to submit information in relation to their attitudes concerning the issue in question, we choose to use a non-experimental method by means of a survey to get essential information.

Surveys are frequently carried out in the form of questionnaire or interview, or a combination of both. Nevertheless there are also a few distinctions between these two instruments, as stated by Seliger&Shohamy (1989: 166),

*Interviews are personalised and therefore permit a level of in-depth information-gathering, free response, and flexibility that cannot be obtained by other procedures. The interviewer can probe for information and obtain data that have not been foreseen. Much of the information obtained during an open-unstructured interview is incidental and comes out as the interview proceeds. There are disadvantages, however, interviews can be costly, time-consuming, and often difficult to administer.*<sup>37</sup>

Whereas questionnaires, as said by Seliger&Shohamy (Ibid: 172)

*(a) are self-administered and can be given to large groups of subjects at the same time. They are therefore less expensive to administer than(...) interviews.*

*(b) When anonymity is assured, subjects tend to share the information of a sensitive nature more easily.*

*(c) Since they are usually given to all subjects of the research at exactly the same time, the data are more accurate.*<sup>38</sup>

From observing the classes, I became aware of what the teachers were trying to convey to the students, but I could not make certain how the students were receiving the information or what impressions they were forming. An attitude questionnaire was devised to make known some of the students' working opinions.

### **The Questionnaire Results**

The analysis of the questionnaire results revealed the vital importance of including learners' attitudes and opinions so as to determine their idiosyncratic English level, their needs and expectations. For example, McDonough defines learner awareness as *"What the learners perceive learning a language to be like and what they compare it with. How they view the process of teaching and what they can tell us about being on the receiving ends of tests."*<sup>39</sup>

In response to question one and two- whether the student informants have been able to follow the steps of the lecture and whether the lecture has been well done, of the total 483 informants, 51, (10%) reported that they followed the steps of the lecture with difficulty and 33, (07%) said they were able to follow the lecture while 8, (84%) said that they were unable to

---

<sup>38</sup>SELIGER & SHOHAMY (Ibid: 172)

<sup>39</sup>Mc DONOUGH, S. (1995) *Strategy and Skill Learning a Foreign Language*. London: Edward Arnold. p. 14.

comprehend the steps of the lecture. In answering question two, “Was the lecture well presented?” the findings show that most students [52, (63%) +39, (48%) =92, (11%)] said “Yes” and only (9, 86%) said “No” i.e.; the lecture presentation was not carefully done. In answering question three, “what visual aids were used during the lecture?” About (98 %) of the informants talked about the blackboard whereas a very small amount of them (2, 40%) mentioned the use of drawings during the lecture. This explains the total reliance of teachers on the blackboard as the sole means of aids during the process of teaching.

Questions 4 and 5 ask the informants whether they the teacher gave enough vocabulary explanations and whether the lecture content was adequate. In answering question 4 – “Did the teacher give enough vocabulary explanations?” half (49, 89 %) of the 483 who answered the questionnaire, said “Yes” and the other half [44, (68%) +5, (41%) =50, (09%)] said “No”. This in turn shows the degree of difference among informants in relation to vocabulary understanding.

In answering the follow-up question related to lecture content 60, (55%) affirmed that the lecture content does not go hand in hand with their needs and expectations; whereas (39,45%) openly said “Yes”. Again this contradictory learning situation gives us an opinion about the students’ failure to be on the same wavelength!

Turning to question 6, which is to elicit informants’ views about the amount of interaction during the process of teaching, the majority of the answers (73, 03%) complain about the lack of interaction with the teacher who has a tendency to talk excessively in the classroom. However, there is a fairly important number of them (26, 95%), who stated that

interaction sounded natural in that both the teacher and the students were not only given opportunities to generate knowledge rather than remain passive consumers of it, but also sharpen their desire to be more autonomous.

Question 7 asks the informants to recall the major problems met during the teaching process. The detailed questions and answers are summarised in the table below:

| Problems           | %      |
|--------------------|--------|
| 1. Speech delivery | 50, 10 |
| 2. Pronunciation   | 37, 15 |
| 3. Audibility      | 8, 55  |
| 4. Grammar         | 7, 93  |

**Table 5:** Major Problems Met During the Teaching Process

Data analysis further shows that of the 50, (10%) claimed that they could not keep pace with the teacher's delivery of speech and were therefore unable to follow the lecture in a normal way. This important percentage clearly illustrates the teaching atmosphere in classroom settings in which teachers really do not take into consideration their learners' anxiety. Another feature related to the teacher's profile concerns the pronunciation variable where the findings show that 37, (15%) of the informants had problems with the teachers' way of pronunciation. The last difficulty mentioned by the students relates to grammar in which (7, 93%) of the informants argued that this skill prevents them from getting the general picture of messages expressed by the lecturer. Last but not least, refers to the relatively minor percentage of students (2, 2 %), who gave very positive attitude towards the teacher's

profile. This type of feedback can help students have a reasonably apparent idea of where they are now.

As a matter of fact, and still in the attempt to unveil the subjects' appraisal with teacher profile, the analysis of question eight showed that 72% of them affirmed that the concerned teachers were not only angry and nervous but did not actually pay attention to students' needs, desires, emotions and attention. On the other hand, the findings also demonstrate the teachers' cooperation with learners throughout the process of teaching in that 30, (39%) qualified their teachers as being cooperative, enthusiastic, comforting as well as active. These results suggest that when students asked can provide useful appreciation which is likely to get better to some extent than worsen teacher-student relationships.

To elicit what students retained from the six different lectures, question nine –“What have you learnt from the lecture?” helped the majority to express an opinion; in that a slightly better awareness of the lecture comprehension was felt since they managed to give very interesting ideas about needs and difficulties, but not of their linguistic difficulties. The answers to this question were split within five most important sub-categories:

- the first points to contextual approaches<sup>40</sup> in which it is necessary to understand the context of the author's own society and the biographical information about an author's life;
- the second refers to textual approaches<sup>41</sup> in that primary focus is put on the form of a literary work;

---

<sup>40</sup> See pp 138-143 in *Studying the Novel* Fourth Edition Jeremy HAWTHORN ARNOLD 1985-2001.

<sup>41</sup> See Jeremy HAWTHORN pp. 138-143.

- the third indicates the informants' query about processing a literary work;
- the fourth, describes the respondents' difficulties about studying literature;
- the fifth and last concerns the students' odd views.

“A”: In responding to sub-category one, 83% of the informants affirmed that they have learnt facts related to extrinsic information about literature study throughout the progression of teaching inside the classrooms, as in the following examples:

- [In this lecture I learnt the way a literary work is processed, such as “*The Glass Menagerie*”, (...) how can a literary work unveil the image of the American society?].
- [A general idea of Irish literature in which Joyce puts in plain words throughout ‘Dubliners’ book life in Dublin].

“B”: Under the title of this sub-category, 41% of the informants suggest that teachers used textual approaches in their teaching in general. Data analysis shows that this group of suggestions is for the most part directly related to comprehending meaning of literary text in classroom settings:

- [The social contact of the American literature module, in which I learnt new vocabulary, new expressions directly related to American language”. I also learnt new vocabulary as well as how to use techniques of synthesis].
- [I learnt additional information mainly those related to vocabulary and new expressions] [I got an idea about various writing techniques used by the author]. [The

teacher taught us how to process and cope with literary texts [How to cope with literature in general].

“C” An appreciate percentage of informants (55%) which refers to students’ query about how to process a given literary text suggests that the teachers should focus on ways of analysing literary texts so that students can understand better the core of a given text. The following comments confirm their sayings:

- [Really the teacher keeps on mentioning literary facts but neglects analysing texts].
- [We attended a lecture in which the teacher went very quickly during the text analysis].

It is to be remarked that this group of suggestions are mainly put forward by some students who wait for the end of the lecture to go to the teacher’s desk then ask specific questions about the lecture.

“D” Still 41% of the informants strongly criticize the present situation of teaching literature which is perceived as being organised in a very traditional way, divorced from their needs, attitudes and wishes. As they argue:

- [I absolutely learnt nothing from the lecture].
- [Nothing! Truly I was unable to analyse and understand American literature. To be more precise I was unable to understand the core of a given literary text].

“E” Nevertheless 55% of the informants gave peculiar answers because these answers are too general and vague to be taken into consideration. Indeed, they either lack consistency when expressing an opinion or are unable to formulate an answer due to their lower linguistic awareness in L1. As a result, one may speculate if they own required learning

aptitudes which can help them cope with literature lectures as the subsequent comments reveal:

- [The teacher gave ideas about how to cope with literature in general].
- [I learnt that literature can be assessed with feelings and not with the brain].

As stated before, it is believed that there might be significant differences in the attitudes of students enrolled in literature modules to fulfill a requirement because of personal interest. However, 23% of informants gave no answer to this question; they have no judgment to say. Is it due to lack of cooperation? Was exhaustiveness which is closely related to the timetable constraints the inherent cause? Or simply put were students lacking motivation and lazy so as to refuse to lend a hand to their teachers while being offered questionnaires? All these pertinent questions need to be taken into consideration for the reason that there are always important causes which lay behind this students' state of mind.<sup>42</sup>

To make the teaching of literature in our English department consistent and systematic, question ten and last, "Have you got any further comments," is designed to elicit informants' open-ended suggestions to the teaching of foreign literature. The majority expressed an opinion and the suggested views are categorised in the following patterns and summarised in the table below.

---

<sup>42</sup>The answers I interpreted as misunderstanding are illustrated as follows: The following statements in square brackets are my personal translation of the students' initial answers in Arabic and the remainders are their own answers in English. Errors in spelling in addition to syntax have been kept. This is also valid for question eleven.

| Label | Sub Categories<br>“Question10” |   |
|-------|--------------------------------|---|
| A     | Contextual approaches          | 3 |
| B     | Textual approaches             | 0 |
| C     | Informants’ query              | 2 |
| D     | Informants’ difficulties       | 1 |
| E     | Informants’ odd views          | 5 |

**Table 6:** Results of the Students’ Survey (question 10)

The answers to this question were divided into five main categories in which there were seven sub-categories:

- the first indicates that the method of teaching literature used by teacher is a subject of controversies among students within classroom settings, along with the lack of visual aids, a real pedagogic support, which is also predominantly absent in almost all the literary lectures;
- the second refers to both “the role of the teacher” and the “biased teaching” which shows how the teacher behaved while giving the lecture under discussion;
- the third refers to class size which hampers learning on the whole;
- the fourth, entitled the library management is closely related to one of the most important drawbacks which students face today in Algerian English departments;

- the fifth and last concerns the students' linguistic background level.

“A”: In responding to sub-category one, 65% informants suggest to change the methodology of teaching literature and 96% % of them mentioned the crucial lack of visual aids during the process of teaching within classroom settings:

- [The teacher has to focus on the lecture and avoids giving irrelevant facts. Though he was most of the time willing to be helpful, his way of teaching does prevent students from playing truant during literature lectures].
- [The teacher is really competent but he lacks firm organisation during the teaching process].

“B”: Under the heading of this sub-category, 41% for biased teaching-lockstep and 42% for the role of the teacher, informants suggest that teachers should treat students' at the same level and avoid using discrimination among them in the classroom during the lectures on the whole. Data analysis reveals that this group of suggestions is mostly put forward by students who seat at the middle and the back of the classroom.

- [The teacher neglects the students who seat at the back of the classroom].
- [Generally the teacher stands at the front of the classroom and talks to those who are at the front facing him].

“C” An appreciate percentage of informants 55% suggests that the teachers should reduce class size so that students can appreciate and learn better. As the following comments show:

- [Most of the students are unable to understand because of the big number of students within the classroom].
- [Teaching a large group creates noise and prevents students from learning normally].

It is to be remarked that this group of suggestions are mainly put forward by students who sit either at the back or the center of the classroom.

“D” The analysis of the questionnaire results yielded also important information about the students’ use of the library facilities. Indeed, the great majority of them, that is 93%, reported that they not only felt dissatisfied with the lack of suitable references, but also criticised the way the library is managed. As the following statements assert:

- [Both the lack of references as well as the bad organisation in and outside the library hampers our learning].
- [Our reading room is always in a mess, both noise and mobile prevail].

Nevertheless, while having made a similar suggestion as the above one, one student made an addition comment, which reveals a divided attitude to the library facilities, namely: reading an overseas literature is required but risky. In his viewpoint, learning the foreign literature might cause the damage or at least dilution of Algerian literature. As argued in his comment:

- [I think that there is an urgent need to drop the book of “*The Great Gatsby*” from the Licence degree programme because there are many immoral facts which go counter to our Islamic religion. Don’t let our students be influenced by such vicious American ideas!!!].

“E” Still 9% of the informants attributes their poor intake to their lower linguistic level background. Accordingly, if the learners have a poor linguistic awareness in English, it may be attributed to bad orientation, either after the baccalaureate results or former ways of teaching English as a foreign language. It may be wondered whether they possess required listening abilities along with strategies in their L1 and L2 as the following remarks say:

- [The teacher should as a rule use translation from English to Arabic occasionally to help us understand the lecture].
- [I think he should slow down the speed of speech delivery so as to comprehend what is spoken by the teacher].

Nonetheless, 19% of informants gave no answer to this question, they have no opinions to express vis-à-vis this open question or are discouraged when writing about relevant information taking place in classroom settings or are even unable to show an awareness of their difficulties.

## **Discussion**

Upon completion of the questionnaire results, numerous fresh ideas came to my attention all the way through the experience that would have been valuable to the study. It seems to be evident, based on the results from the last two open ended questions, that the teaching of literature is very badly negotiated. This is confirmed by our findings that a significant amount of informants maintain that there are serious pedagogic as well as resources and human elements to be urgently reconsidered in our departments of English. Sub-categories of question nine and ten helped draw the learners' profile, agree on their proficiency level in literature, their problems, their

needs and expectations. The students' expressed needs, desires and viewpoints of teaching and learning a foreign literature, have focused the attention in relation to the degree of their existing level in literature comprehension. Some of them also draw attention to the fact that they show a specific awareness that is frequently believed to be a helpful factor making easy learning. In this context, McDonough (1995: 14) describes learner awareness as: *"What the learner perceives learning a language to be like and what they compare it with. How they view the process of teaching and what they can tell us about being on the receiving ends of tests."*<sup>43</sup>

It is necessary to create suitable teaching settings in which students are able to employ adequate learning strategies so that progress can be guaranteed. In consequence, through answers of the fifth sub-categories of question ten, informants expressed their needs and wants for a better way of teaching along with a reasonable number of students within classrooms. An important number of students reported that there is a vital need to renovate the library facilities soon. Therefore, they may see their lack of provision mainly with books as a real barrier to their learning. Their conception of attending literature classes' rests on the accessibility of suitable references is suggested through their answers. Besides they asked for an adequate style of grouping in order that teachers can not only get across accurately the teaching messages but also be offered the possibility to work in the company of individual students. To avoid dropping students' participation in classroom settings (see figure below), it is crucial to integrate another type of grouping in which

---

<sup>43</sup>Mc DONOUGH Mc DONOUGH, S. *Strategy and Skill Learning a Foreign Language*. London: Edward Arnold. p.14.

*Both pair work and group work [can] give the students chances for greater independence. Because they are working together without the teacher controlling every move, they can take some of their own learning decisions, they decide what language to use to complete a certain task, and they can work without the pressure of the whole class listening to what they are doing. Decisions are cooperatively arrived at, responsibilities are shared.*<sup>44</sup>(HARMER, 1998: 21)

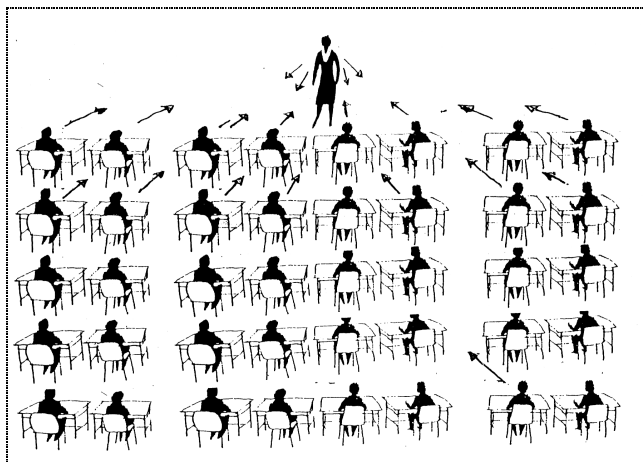


**Figure 3:** Teacher to Individual Students

This view of seating arrangement in classroom is well-liked nowadays in language teaching because students are not only inclined to contribute more consistently but “*are also more able to experiment and use the language than they are in a whole-class arrangement.*”<sup>45</sup> A negligible and yet significant quality of students’ reactions to lectures concerns their intrinsic

<sup>44</sup> HARMER, J.; *The Practice of Language Teaching*; p. 21

<sup>45</sup> (Ibid)

linguistic background. There are, to be sure, informants (10%) who are not only aware of their weak aptitude level in literature, but ready to express it frankly as well. One of the problems that teachers usually face with students who have a weak level in comprehending literature lectures is that they find it *“difficult to make contact with the students at the back and it is difficult for the students to ask for and receive individual attention (...).It may seem impossible to organise dynamic and creative teaching and learning sessions, etc”*<sup>46</sup>.

In spite of the complexity of large classes, there are some suggestions which teachers can take into account to change a possible failure into some type of an achievement. For example, with the help of worksheets teachers can enhance students' improvement within the whole group (Ibid). In literature large classes, teachers can take advantage of pair work and group work so as to *“maximize student participation”* (Ibid: 129)

These last two questions of the questionnaire have concentrated on informants' use and awareness of some of the sub-skills and strategies necessary for an effective lecture comprehension. Data collection has; in fact, unveiled poor learning styles ability as well as an ineffective stock of strategy use. The difference in percentages of learners' preferences shown after the lectures, point to an urgent need to review literature instructional methodology. Hence, it is necessary for teachers to assess students learning styles and strategy use because *the more teachers know about their students' style preferences, the effective they can orient their L2 instruction,*

---

<sup>46</sup> (Ibid: 128)

*as well as the strategy teaching that can be interwoven into language instruction, matched to those style preferences.*<sup>47</sup>

Furthermore, contrasting the inactive and fruitless role they had when being present at lectures, the students will be able to rely more on their knowledge, their personal point of view for the comprehension of a particular literature lecture.

## **Conclusion :**

In this paper I have tried to consider a large body of research concerning EFL lecture studies. More research is necessary so that a clear idea about what makes up a literature lecture will be available to both native and non-native lecturers. To give useful insights to pedagogy in the realm of teaching literature, it is paramount to know how a lecture is understood, what a lecture is made of, how the variable characteristics of a lecture may be controlled to guarantee greatest comprehension. In sum, more research in specific targeted areas is required in order to reduce students' as well as teachers' anxiety during lectures within institutions.

*Last but not least, it is necessary to state that “(...) a great deal of confusion about education can be cleared up if we speak about what goes on in classrooms as teachers and students sharing and negotiating ways of talking and doing, rather than as ‘transmitting knowledge.’”<sup>48</sup>As a result, data collected might be compiled to let educators know*

---

<sup>47</sup> OXFORD, R.L. (2003) *Language Learning Styles and Strategies: An Overview*. Oxford: Gala. p.16.

<sup>48</sup> LEMKE, J.K.; (1989); *Using Language in the Classroom*; Oxford: OUP. p. 8.

*and possibly make available a better understanding of how we can measure helpful teaching in our classrooms.*

***Bibliography:***

ANDERSON, J. R. (1985) *The Architecture of Cognition*. Harvard: HUP.

ANDERSON-HSIEH, J. & KOEHLER, K. (1988) The Effect of Foreign Accent and Speaking Rate on Native Speaker Comprehension. *Language Learning*, 38, 561-613.

BARTLETT, L. (1990) Teacher Development through Reflective Teaching. In RICHARDS, J. C. & NUNAN, D. *Second Language Education*. Cambridge: CUP. (1990) p. 209.

BILBOW, G.T. (1989) Towards an Understanding of Overseas Students' Difficulties in Lectures: A Phenomenographic Approach. *Journal of Further and Higher Education*, 12(2), 85-99.

BLASE J, & BLASE J. (2001) *Empowering Teachers*. Thousand Oaks: Corwin Press, INC. A Sag Publications Company,

CHAUDRON, C. & RICHARDS, J.C. (1986) The Effect of Discourse Markers on the Comprehension of Lectures. *Applied Linguistics*, 7(2), 113-127.

CHAUDRON, *et al.* (1988) Quality of Lecture Notes and Second Language Listening Comprehension. *Technical Report No.7* Center for Second Language Research: University of Hawaii.

CHAUDRON, M. & MONTGOMERY, M. (1981) The Structure of Monologue. In. COULTHARD M. & MONTGOMERY, M. (eds.). *Studies in Discourse Analysis*. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul. pp.31-39.

CHENG Y.C., & TSUI K.T. (1996) Total Teacher Effectiveness: New Conception and Improvement. *International Journal of Educational Management*, 10(6):7-17.

COOKE, J.R.S. (1975) A Communicative Approach to the Analysis of Extended Monologue Discourse and its Relevance to the

- Development of Teaching Materials for ESP. Unpublished M. Liitt. Thesis University of Edinburgh.
- COULHARD, M. Cited in MURPHY, D. F. & CANDLIN, C.N. (1979) Engineering Lecture Discourse and Listening Comprehension. Lancaster: University of Lancaster. *Practical Papers in Language Education*, 2, 1-79
- DeCARRICO, J. & NATTINGER, J.R. (1988) Lexical Phrases and the Comprehension of Academic Lectures. *English for Specific Purposes*, 7, 91-102.
- DUDLEY-EVANS, A. & JOHNS, T. (1981); A Team Teaching Approach to Lecture Comprehension for Overseas Students. In The Teaching of Listening Comprehension. *ELT Documents Special*. London: The British Council.
- DUNKEL, P. & PIALRSI, F. (1982) *Advanced Listening Comprehension*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- DUNKEL, P. (1988) The Content of L1 and L2 Students' Lectures Notes and its Relation to Test Performance. *TESOL Quarterly*, 22, 259-82. 1988,
- FLOWERDEW. & MILLER, L. (1994a) Problems and Strategies in Second Language Academic Lecture Comprehension. *Discourse Processes*, 15(2), 165-181.
- Frederick, P. J. (1986) The Lively Lecture – 8 Variations *College Teaching*, 34(2), 43-50.
- GOFFMAN, E. (1981) The Lecture. In GOFFMAN. *Forms of Talk*. pp. 162-195; Philadelphia, PA: University of Pennsylvania Press.
- GRIFFITH, R. (1990) Speech Rate and NNS Comprehension: A Preliminary Study in Time-Benefit Analysis. *Language Learning*, 40(3), 311-336.
- HARMER, J. (1983) *The Practice of Language Teaching*. London: Longman.
- KENNEDY, G. (1978) The Testing of Listening Comprehension. *RELIC Monograph Series*. Singapore: Singapore University Press;
- LEMKE, J.K. (1989) *Using Language in the Classroom*. Oxford: OUP.
- LONG, M. H. (1989) Instructed Interlanguage Development. In BEEBE, L. (ed.) *Issues in Second Language Acquisition: Multiple Perspectives*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House, 115-141.

- McDONOUGH, J. (1978)*Listening to Lectures*. Oxford: OUP.
- MORRISON, J. W. (1974) An Investigation of Problems in Listening and Cohesion in Selected Science Lectures. Unpublished M.A. thesis, University of Newcastle upon Tyne, reported in JORDAN, R. R. (1980) English for Academic Purposes (EAP)*Language Teaching*, 22(3), 151-164.
- MUMBY, J. (1978)*Communicative Syllabus Design*. Cambridge: CUP.
- OLSEN, L.A. & HUCKIN, T.N. (1990) Point-Driven Understanding in Engineering Lecture Comprehension.*English for Specific Purposes*, 9, 33-47.
- OXFORD, R.L. (2003)*Language Learning Styles and Strategies: An Overview* Oxford: Gala.
- POWERS, D.E. (1986) Academic Demands Related to Listening Skills.*Language Testing*, 3(1), 1-38.
- ROST, M. (1990)*Listening in Language Learning*. London: Longman.
- RUETTEN, M. K. (1986)*Comprehending Academic Lecture*. New York: Macmillan.
- SINCLAIR, J.McH & COULHARD, M. (1975)*Towards an Analysis of Discourse: The English Used by Teachers and Pupils*. Oxford: OUP.
- SMITH, L.E. & BISAZZA, J.A. (1982) The Comprehensibility of three Varieties of English for College Students in Seven Countries.*Language Learning*, 32(2), 129-269.
- STRODT-LOPEZ, B. (1991) Tying it all: Asides in University Lecture.*Applied Linguistics*, 12(2), 117-140.
- STRONGE J. H. & HINDMAN J. L. (2003)Hiring the Best Teachers.*Educational Leadership*, 60(8): 48-49.
- STRONGE J. H. (2002)*Qualities of Effective Teachers*. Alexandria, Virginia: ASCD.
- SWALES, J. (1990)*Genre Analysis: English in Academic Research Settings*. Cambridge: CUP.