Giving more Voice to Post-graduate Students’ ESP Lecture Comprehension Needs

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Abstract
The present paper reports on a small investigation that took place in the author’s teaching environment to highlight her students’ academic lecture comprehension needs related to the new subject matter of English for Specific Purposes (ESP). The aim of this research endeavour was to ponder over students’ perspective of the difficulties emerging from, and strategies needed for lecture comprehension, in a way to improve the author’s lecturing practice and ensure better academic achievement in the ESP subject. To this end, 26 Algerian post-graduate students in Didactics of English submitted written feedback about the ESP-subject lectures (including their difficulties and learning strategies). Additionally, the author’s lecturing strategies and perspective of learners’ academic lacks helped complete such learning/teaching situation. The findings revealed that students’ difficulties in ESP lecture comprehension were due to the complex skills required of them while listening to the lectures besides their unfamiliarity with the new ESP topics and terminology. To grasp better, student participants demanded more emphasis on some lecturing strategies (such as, pre-lecturing revision/reminder, while-lecturing explanation/repetition, and final recapitulation/comprehension check) while projecting a preference for particular visual supplements to oral lecturing (i.e., the whiteboard, handouts, additional reading materials). Because student participants showed little inclination towards note-taking from the lecturer’s speech and PowerPoint slides, the paper concluded with suggestions for pedagogical treatment to such difficult-to-attain academic lecture comprehension/listening strategies.

Keywords: Academic lecture comprehension, English for Academic purposes, learning needs/strategies, lecture/listening comprehension strategies, teaching situation analysis

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Introduction

The complex communicative requirements of the academic context have exerted a direct influence on the skills and strategies that second language (L2) students need to use to succeed in their field of study. L2 students, who are in the process of developing both their subject knowledge and L2 proficiency, need to participate in a wide range of academic events where the spoken, written, visual or sometimes electronic modes of academic communication interact (Hyland, 2006; Wang, 2017; Field, 2011). The most representative of such target academic event is the academic lecture, “the principle genre of academic instruction... [and]... effective way of delivering information to large groups of students” (Wang, 2017, pp. 7-8). How much L2 students grasp from the lecture determines their future academic achievement (Wang, 2017). Yet, the lecture’s highly nomological delivery mode requires L2 students to handle a complex set of activities to grasp the delivered information. While showing no apparent active interaction, L2 students need to engage in learning processes that activate different comprehension strategies required for lecture understanding/information retention.

Highlighting such learning processes, challenges, and strategies L2 students need to activate for lecture comprehension is the interest of English for Academic Purposes (EAP), whose research activities take place “at the heart of university teaching and learning” (Hyland, 2006: 20). Unlike second language researchers, EAP practitioners examine “students’ immediate needs and experiences in academy” (Hyland, 2006, p. 23). By adopting a needs-oriented perspective -known to the parent field of ESP- to students’ communicative requirements or study skills, EAP researchers, who are also language teachers, aim to help better students’ academic performance in their chosen field of study, bridging, therefore, the gap between research and practice. Additionally, EAP researchers may adopt a genre perspective to the academic lecture not to isolate students’ communicative practices from the specialist knowledge they aim to acquire (Hyland, 2006; Malavska, 2016).

The present paper aligns with the above research approach to survey students’ lecture comprehension needs related to ESP as a subject matter while addressing specific challenges and lacks in academic performance. The aim is to reach a compromise between the author’s and her learners’ preferred lecturing strategies; thus, to maximize academic achievement in ESP as a subject matter related to the particular ESP-subject. During this research endeavour, the author activated two roles known to the community of ESP/EAP practitioners, namely, those of teacher and researcher or needs analyst (see Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998). Granted that the types of needs investigated depend on the theoretical position of the needs analyst, Ample sketch of the theoretical conceptions of needs appears in the next section in a way to highlight the NA scope of the present investigation.

Theoretical Concepts

The types of needs of interest to the present paper are those that emerge out of the students’ learning experiences during the lecture. Hutchinson and Waters’ (1987) term of learning needs is appropriate here as it emphasizes what “learners need to do to learn” (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987, p. 54) to successfully participate in the target event. Also, learning needs carry a process-oriented interpretation as they derive from the learners during the learning process. As detailed below (see Brown, 2016), Hutchinson and Waters’ (1987) learning needs encompass learning
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preferences, expectations, or even learning strategies. Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) used another concept, Learning Situation Analysis, to highlight students’ perspectives of the most effective ways of learning the skills and language relevant to particular learning situations. Similarly, Belcher (2009) used the term ongoing needs analysis to describe the teacher’s constant examination of learners’ needs while the learning process is on to adapt the teaching strategies to students’ preferences. Considering learners’ own perspective of needs (i.e., learning needs, expectations, and wants) signals a shift of vision in ESP research rational that translates an incentive, as Belcher (2009, p. 3) states, “to help those especially disadvantaged by their lack of language needed for the situations they find themselves in, hope to enter, or eventually rise above”. This perspective highlighting the learners’ right to have their voice heard in ESP NA research brings another understanding to the concept of learner needs.

Newly coined related types of needs analysis are Brown’s (2016, pp. 23-25) individual differences analyses and classroom teaching analysis. According to Brown (2016, p. 23), individual differences analyses examines “what students’ individual preferences are with regard to learning processes” and takes into account students’ preferred learning styles (introvert, visual, aural, kinaesthetic, field-dependent/field-independent) and strategies (cognitive/comprehension strategies, social/cooperation strategies, etc.) to inform teaching. In conjunction with the above learning or individual differences analyses, classroom teaching analysis in Brown’s (2016, p. 24) terms is also used to reveal both “teacher’s preferred teaching styles and teaching strategies and how they relate to the learners’ preferred styles and strategies” (Brown, 2016, p. 25).

Common to the above conceptualizations, adopting a needs-responsive ESP approach in researching students’ learning needs means considering their learning preferences, interests and concerns to adjust the teaching strategies accordingly. Using the needs analysis (NA) information that emerges while the teaching/learning is in progress assures that the teacher considers learners’ preferences as to the choice of teaching aids, materials, type of practice, inter alia. Otherwise, discarding the learner’s voice will negatively affect learners’ perceptions of the course/module as Belcher truly puts it out (2009). Hereafter, a brief description of the data collection procedures undertaken in the present investigation is proposed.

Research Context and Methodology
The small learning needs investigation described in this paper took place at the beginning of the second semester (2018-2019) to rethink the author’s lecturing practice as well as the students’ academic lecture comprehension needs and strategies (related to ESP lectures). The NA target sample consisted of 26 Master1 students in their first year of post-graduation in English Didactics, department of English, Saida University, Algeria. English didactics specialism lasts for three semesters during which post-graduates acquire knowledge that addresses their immediate academic needs (including dissertation writing, methodology, and research proposal) as well as delayed needs related to the future teaching profession (via modules including ESP, educational psychology, psycholinguistics, inter alia). Hence, even in the English language department, English serves both as an end and a means of instruction, in the sense that post-graduate students need to develop both their academic English (study) skills and English didactics knowledge. This makes it a relevant setting where to investigate such study skills and strategies from an EAP stance.
As to the content of ESP as a subject matter, the first two semesters (Master1 Didactics Specialism) aim to develop students’ theoretical knowledge about ESP, and its areas/skills of research (needs/genre analysis). The third semester (Master2 Didactics Specialism) however, is about ESP course design and teaching methodology, among other things. Until their post-graduation, the case students had no prior solid knowledge in ESP including the above concepts. Though they had some instruction in introduction for languages for specific purposes (LSP) subject at the undergraduate level, it was only an introduction to some broad concepts like intercultural training and LSP, the use of ICT in LSP communication, attributes of the LSP learner/teacher, etc. As to ESP lecture delivery, it was under a spoken mode. Slides projection or whiteboard explanation often interfered with teacher speech while students were invited to take notes. The author often concluded the lecture with handout provision, homework assignment, and /or suggestions for further reading.

Having noticed that some of the students’ enthusiasm was not at its peak as when it was at the beginning of the academic session triggered the present research endeavour. Another reason was failure of some students (known for their acceptable academic performance) to fulfill some of the requirements of the ESP module exam. This pushed the author to reflect upon her teaching practice and the best way to ensure maximum understanding among them. Under the author’s request, the student participants submitted anonymous written feedback about the ESP lectures, which helped report on the difficulties, learning needs and strategies with ease. The author proceeded to a quantitative analysis of students’ feedback, out of which she derived a percentage table of recurrent themes. Qualitative analysis in the light of representative quotes also served illustrate the quantitative findings. Hereafter, the author’s results section offers a thorough examination of students’ feedback.

Results
This section presents the results of this small investigation. It details the quantitative findings that a manual examination of the participants’ written feedback revealed. Additionally, it proposes a qualitative analysis of their feedback in the light of similar results from previous studies. After a manual examination of the student participants’ written feedback about ESP lecture, it was easy to discern four significant themes that their comments addressed. The author roughly categorized them as (dis-)preferred type of practice, (dis-)preferred teaching aids, preferred lecturing strategies, and lecture comprehension difficulties (see the first column of Table 1).

The author could also identify and derive percentages out of clearly distinguished, recurrent sub-themes that composed these major themes (see the second column of Table 1). The results appear in Table 1. It is of note that the themes appear under a random order. In the analysis underneath, however, the author will first address the easiest-to-handle then the most difficult or problematic lecturing strategies, from the students’ perspective. The author will then propose her perspective of missing lecture comprehension strategies in students’ academic performance. This will set the scene for a comprehensive discussion of the results together with some pedagogical suggestions.
Table 1. Learners’ feedback in quantitative terms

<table>
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<th>Preferred lecturing strategies</th>
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| Teacher explanation                           | 8%  
| Illustration during Explanation               | 11%  
| Comprehension question                         | 15%  
| Revision of previous lesson                    | 23%  
| Recapitulation/ Summary of the lesson          | 19%  
| Repetition                                     | 8%  
| (Dis-)Preferred type of practice               |  
| More homework                                  | 46%  
| Less homework                                  | 4%  
| further reading                                | 7%  
| Guided reading                                 | 15%  
| (Dis-)Preferred teaching aids                  |  
| Handouts                                       | 27%  
| No overhead projector                          | 23%  
| Using the white/blackboard                     | 27%  
| Lecture comprehension difficulties             |  
| Teacher fast speech                            | 8%  
| Complicated vocabulary/terminology             | 8%  
| Note-taking during lecture delivery/ slide projection | 15%  
| Too much/complex information                   | 15%  

**Preferred lecturing strategies**

Student participants evoked four lecture comprehension strategies they needed the teacher to emphasize on at different stages of the academic lecture. This interestingly reflected Young’s (2004) academic lecture stages, i.e., the content, examples, conclusion, evaluation, and interaction stages.

**Figure 1**, Learners’ emphasized lecturing strategies

The importance granted to these phases appearing in percentages (Figure 1) shows participants’ preference for lecturing strategies that engage academic listening *per se*. In total, 19% of the
participants referred to examples stage, including 8% who insisted on the teacher’s explanation during the lecture and 11% who wanted more focus on ‘illustration’ (see table 1). This preference appears below in the comments of student 9. Others (8% of the students) preferred the teacher to proceed to more repetition, as the quote of student 1 indicates.

Student 1: I do like it when the teacher is repeating the main points...
Student 9: I understand better through vivid examples.

From the comment of Student 1, emphasis on repetition seemed to stress out the conclusion stage (summing up the main points) rather than the examples stage (i.e., repeating while explaining). In both cases, the importance of repetition in helping students take more notes has been highlighted by Bligh (2002), whereas Cervantes and Graner (1992) stressed out how repetition facilitated listening comprehension. From table 1, 19% of the student formulated clear comments insinuating the conclusion stage, through using the words summary or recapitulate:

Student 23: I suggest at the end of the lecture, you give us an overview of what has been said.
Student 11: I would like that you recapitulate the essential things of the lesson that we need

The learning need for a recapitulation or summary of the lecture’s main points seems to enhance their comprehension. The above-quoted learners’ wishes as to summarization evoke a lecture comprehension strategy that existing research (Flowerdew & Miller, 2005) already emphasized as pivotal to the lecturing process. Concerning the interaction stage, 15% of the student participants expressed another want through asking the teacher to conclude the lecture with comprehension questions. For them, this comprehension strategy helps “engage the learner (student 26)” or “check to understand at the end of the lesson (student 12)”. Henceforth, the above wants deserve consideration while lecturing to maximize learners’ understanding. In addition, some student participants (23%) demanded a revision of the previous lecture before starting the new one. This want is manifest in the comments below.

Student 19: Revision of previous lessons before moving to the next lecture
Student 15: At the beginning of the lesson, I need a quick revision of the previous lesson
Student 9: I want the teacher to revise previous lecture at the beginning of the new lecture
Student 2: I want the teacher to …. do a kind of revision (as a reminder).

For the students quoted above, a short reminder of previous lecture’s content (a lecturing strategy, which may recall Young’s (2004) content phase) seems essential in helping them establish links with new the lecture’s information. Seemingly, issues of information retention may denote their unfamiliarity with the new ESP subject. However, their attempt to link prior knowledge with the new one indicates their effort to grasp the lecture, as suggested by Buck (2001) and Field (2011). At this level, these students aspire to successfully handle the lecture in spite of their limited subject knowledge.
Difficulties in Processing New Information via Oral Lecturing Mode

Some students reported about the length and complexity of ESP lectures in general with an allusion to the lecture’s content stage. They used expressions similar to ‘I see that the lectures are a bit complicated’ or else, ‘ESP this year seems to be a little bit difficult’, (referring to the less complicated LSP lectures of the under-graduate level). As regards the presumed length, students commented that ‘the lectures are a bit long to grasp all the information’ or contain ‘too much information that we cannot handle or remember’. However, further examination of their written feedback revealed more details about the origin of these difficulties.

Student 8: …the teacher speaks fast in addition to some tricky words that I cannot understand.
Student 2: I found difficulties in understanding ESP-related vocabulary.
Student 3: ESP as a subject matter includes many complicated or ambiguous terms.

Apparently, students’ being busy decoding new information found it hard to follow the lecturer’s fast speech rate. In quantitative terms, 8% of the student participants found that the teacher was speaking at a fast rate. Such real-time listening seems to new information seems to be a challenging situation gave students the impression that the lectures were long and complicated. Additionally, student participants’ projected unfamiliarity with the lecture’s technical/specialist vocabulary that 8% of them qualified as ‘difficult, complex words’ in the data. Again, this may denote their lack of knowledge about the topic of the lecture. While such key-word-related listening difficulty needs a particular pedagogical remedy, students’ preferred strategies to compensate for gaps in listening falls on visual assistance. However, participants discard some visual supports as the findings below will show.

Visual Resourcing Strategies: The Chalk-/Whiteboard as an Alternative to the Overhead Projector

To the author’s surprise, student participants expressed their dis-preference for the overhead projector by qualifying it as the least appropriate visual resource.

Student 11: Using the overhead projector and reading (from the slides) was not helpful/was boring
Student 15: It is impossible to listen to your explanations, concentrate on the overhead projector, and take notes at the same time.
Student 17: I find it helpful to learn without the overhead projector because it distracts my concentration

Students in question seemingly seem to find PowerPoint slides a distraction rather than a helpful visual aid. They are overwhelmed when facing the multi-task of listening to the teacher’s explanation and looking at the projected content. Following the comments of student 15, the process of lecture comprehension can be problematic when they have to perform different tasks, picking information from two media, the oral medium (the lecturer’s speech) and the visual medium (here, overhead projector). As a result, the slides projection distracts rather than help students understand the lecture. Instead, student participants expressed their preference of an alternative to slides projection, that is the whiteboard. This appears in the feedback below.
Student 4: It is better to write on the board (than to use the overhead projector)

Student 5: I understand more through the chalkboard

Student 6: I would like that you explain more on the whiteboard (more often) to explain things that need to be explained.

Student 14: Please, write down the most essential concepts of the lecture on the whiteboard.

Students in question seem to grasp better through seeing the key concepts/primary information written down on the whiteboard. Unlike the transient projected content of PowerPoint slides, this more classical teaching aid seems to provide learners with a, more or less, permanent written record of the lecture’s key concepts. It is like a reference, a resource, “a linguistic...visual support” in Field’s (2011, p. 103) terms, or “visual assistance” in Wang’s (2017: 8) that helps process orally delivered information. Decidedly, some student participants’ preference for, a more or less, permanent, written supplement to the oral mode of lecturing suggests that they find it difficult to pick up information through solely listening to the lecturer’s speech.

Handout Provision: Another Resourcing Strategy

Participants’ wish to be provided with more permanent visual assistance transcended to handouts. 27% of them found handouts as a suitable visual aid to help them in their lecture comprehension process. In more qualitative terms, selected samples of their feedback are quoted below.

Student 15: I prefer the handout because I can read and grasp better on my own pace (when I see information written down).

Student 18: It is better to provide us with handouts during the session to make students grasp better

Student 8: I suggest you give us handout and we discuss their content in the classroom

From Student 18 quoted above, students’ inclination to secure a written record of the lecture - instead of picking up information through listening per se- is manifest. However, some student participants preferred using them during the lecture may be to cope with the lecturer’s fast speech as clearly indicated in the comments of Student 8 and student 18. clearly, the above-reported preferences for more interactive, resourceful, visually assisted lecture-style show that these students moved away from the rigid, one-way academic lecturing mode that requires active listenership and note-taking of students.

More Homework for Practice

Another -not necessarily in-class- lecture comprehension strategy that won the favour of most of the learners (46% against 4% ) is homework. This is expressed in the students’ feedback below.

Student 19: Please, give us more homework since I see that the lectures are a bit complicated

Student 10: I understand the lecture better through homework

Student 14: It would be better if the teacher gives us more homework to understand the topic more... please, give us references for further reading with comprehension questions that check to understand because it will help us understand the lecture and the primary information you have spoken about.
From the above-quoted feedback, this method of practice, that the author used to implement with them, seems to either compensate for their partial understanding of the lecture or enhance information retention. To accomplish their homework, student participants prefer to be provided with additional, reading materials (student 14). This remark is in fine tune, with 21% of the participants literally formulating their wish for practice through guided reading. Apparently, their demand for teacher-chosen reading materials -not to fall in the trap of relying on irrelevant content – seems to reiterate their limited knowledge about the topic. Nevertheless, this latter teacher-implemented strategy appears to have worked well with them during the previous semester. Hereafter the author will discuss the main findings.

Discussion

From the outset of the analysis of the results, student participants projected their familiarity with the different phases or lecturing strategies involved in the lecture as an academic genre. This familiarity appeared in their evoking the comprehension strategies they needed the teacher to reinforce at different phases of the academic lecture that Young (2004) called, the content, examples, conclusion, and interaction stages. In this vein, learners in question demanded that some lecturing strategies occur more frequently during the lecture, such as illustration, repetition, summarization and comprehension check. Their additional request for a short revision at the beginning of the lecture reflects difficulties in retaining the main information of the previous lecture. Otherwise, it indicates their effort to grasp the lecture by linking prior knowledge with the new one as suggested by Buck (2001) and Field (2011).

As regards the above-insinuated difficult content, further examination of students’ feedback revealed that their difficulties mainly concerned the new ESP subject-specific vocabulary that the lecture contained. After all, relying on content words to process information is strategy that L2 learners often opt to fill in gaps in listening (Field, 2011). Hence, the negative influence of their unfamiliarity with ESP-related topics and vocabulary on lecture listening/comprehension seems to be a logical outcome here.

Other student participants complained from the lecturer’s fast speech that was difficult to handle at times showing, therefore, a difficulty to adjust to the demands of real-time lecture listening. Flowerdew & Miller (2005) reported on similar students’ comprehension obstacles during lectures due to the lecturer’s fast speech. In fine-tune with the present findings, their informants also complained of the great amount of information that they had to process in a short time. Similar echo about “the rapidness of professor’s English speech” while lecturing also appeared in Huang’s (2004: 212) study with Chinese students. For Mason (1994), L2 students with acceptable language ability face such real-time listening difficulties. Then, in response to participants’ earlier request, repetition as a lecturing strategy is helpful here. It responds to L2 students’ need for more time to process lecturer’s speech, according to Cervantes and Graner (1992) suggest.

The findings unearthed a divergence between the student participants’ and the author’s preferred lecturing style as regards which visual aids to use. To the author’s surprise, some students’ preference for old “chalk-and-talk” (Malavska, 2016, p. 82) lecturing style was in sharp contrast with the author’s presentations based on commenting —instead of reading- PowerPoint slides’ content. Participants’ struggling to combine between what they heard and what they saw
on the slides apparently turned to be an ‘attention dividing activity’ Field, 2011, p. 108, citing Styles, 2006) rather than an effective visual medium. This finding echoes Field’s (2011, p. 106) comment on the “counterproductive effect” of PowerPoint slides for L2 students in general.

In parallel, convergence between teacher and learners’ strategies appeared in learners’ approval of some classroom-implemented teaching strategies, such as hand-out provision or reading-based homework. From the findings, students’ repeatedly expressed the need to back up their lecture comprehension and information retention through such reading-based homework. According to Mason (1994), even reading seems to be compatible with the students’ learning strategies as it compensates for the gaps in partial knowledge that students developed form the speaker’s fast speech during the lecture.

Handouts were additional resourcing strategies (Flowerdew & Miller, 2005) students helped themselves with to fill their gaps in knowledge and solve the problem of partial understanding (previously reported as resulting from lecturers’ fast speech or complex keywords). It is of note here that the author used to provide her students with handouts after the lecture under the form of lecture notes to avoid dictation (see Exley & Dennick, 2004). Student participants’ asking for an in-class-discussion of the handout content with the teacher, in an interactive way, in Exley & Dennick, (2004) sense of the term, was their preferred learning strategy to come into grips with the lecture’s new topic.

While handout provision is practical to some extent, a cautionary note from the author’s teacher perspective imposes itself here. The author of this paper warns against an over-reliance on such ready-made notes that se noticed among students, which may dis-engage their note-taking and listening ability. This urged the author think about other ways to use the handout. Following Exley and Dennick’s (2004, p. 114) suggestion, the latter should be used more appropriately in a way that ‘would enhance the quality of learning.’ To the same authors, appropriately designing this teaching aid can be done through leaving space at the bottom of handouts or between paragraphs to enable students insert their own notes. Another way that the author sets out to implement is to convert the text-only handout to tabular summaries or diagrams (with key ideas and words) that students have to reconvert to a text using their style.

The above-reported students’ over-reliance on other written forms of the lecture, nevertheless denotes a certain linguistic limitation or lack of listening experience that characterizes most L2 students (Field, 2011; Huang, 2004). The author believes that the case students’ failure to generate their own notes from lectures (that students themselves reported and the author noticed) is a weakness in their academic performance that needs serious pedagogical consideration. After all, note-taking from academic lectures or presentations is both a process-oriented strategy and an academic study skill that university students should be familiar with (Wang, 2017; Malavska, 2016; Hyland, 2006). Hyland (2006) put forth that lecture comprehension is a combination of lecture comprehension strategies, listening, and note-taking skills. The positive effect of note-taking strategy on lecture comprehension and information retention is what Wang (2017) and Kiliçkaya & Çokal-Karadas (2009) also confirm.
Therefore, teaching students how to take notes appropriately while listening to academic lectures should figure among the core elements of a listening class for undergraduate students to develop their academic listening competence before reaching the post-graduate level. This is why, the author suggests that instruction in listening comprehension addresses such students’ immediate academic needs. Following Wang (2017) and Bligh (2002), note-taking is not a matter of passively picking up words from the lecturer but the fruit of attentive, selective listening. While used for future reference, students’ own notes foster information retention far better than rehearsed handouts, as Kılıçkaya & Çokal-Karadas (2009) and Bligh (2002) confirm. Following Rost’s suggestion (2011, p. 89), developing students’ note-taking skills may entail showing them how to use personally coined/common keyword abbreviations; how to record the lecture’s main ideas under the form of an outline or diagram showing a linear relationship or a sequence, a matrix or a personal mind map showing how ideas relate to each other; then, reviewing and rewriting the notes in a more orderly way.

The author believes that lecturers -including herself- can also help discourage students from falling back on the handout as a straightforward strategy to gaps in lecture understanding. For example, announcing the main elements of the topic before starting the lecture is likely to help them cope with the new topic and listen more actively. In relation to problematic content reported in the findings, lecturers can apply Rost (2011) teaching strategy to help students cope with the burden of decoding new vocabulary related to the new knowledge. He suggests that the lecturer prepares a list of key terms for students to search for their definition/meaning before the lecture.

In spite of the case students’ overt disapproval of slide projection, it would not be reasonable to conclude from this small investigation that using PowerPoint presentation is not a suitable visual aid when lecturing to L2 learners. This is because projected content during lecturers’ speech is often the norm than the exception in academic lectures nowadays (Field, 2011; Wang, 2017). Still taking account of the findings, university students have to be taught about the requisite behaviour of the academic listener by getting them to pick up information from PowerPoint slides during lectures rather than continually relying on the more permanent written word of the whiteboard or hand-out. Nevertheless, adapting its use to students’ needs is the most judicious. Following Field (2011) suggestions as to slides content, the latter should be concise and comprehensive without secondary information. Differentiating the main points and key terms (by using different font sizes, style or colour) from extra information/illustration is of equal importance. Synchronizing slide content with oral presentation is of equal importance (Field, 2011). That said, to abide by lecture comprehension demands on the academic listener, learners should also familiarize with the longer classical lectures that are not forcibly interactive, nor visually-assisted, in which the typical behaviour of an academic listener consist of note-taking per se.

Conclusion
This little investigation attempted to highlight post-graduate students’ (dis-)preferred, and sometimes missing, lecture comprehension strategies during ESP lectures delivery. The findings showed how student participants’ concern with subject knowledge acquisition went hand in hand with these particular academic learning needs. To maximize the learning outcome of the ESP subject matter, adjusting the teacher’s preferred lecturing styles to the students’ expectations of and vice-versa was therefore necessary. This is why, the study concluded with some pedagogical
suggestions as to the students’ problematic and missing lecture comprehension strategies in a way to reach a compromise between their wants and the target academic requirements of lecture comprehension.

By adopting an EAP approach to researching particular students learning needs related to the academic situation of ESP lecture, the author attempted in this paper to transfer some ESP-related NA research skills to her teaching environment through giving more voice to the learners’ wants and priority learning needs. The preliminary results gathered served as a model of how teacher’s perspective and sensitivity to students’ lecture comprehension challenges, could inform practice. More importantly, the paper advocated a learner-centered teaching methodology whereby the choice of teaching aids, the type of practice/homework, lecture comprehension strategies, inter alia, were teacher-cum-learner-negotiated.

In a bid to increase lecturers’ sensitivity to students’ lecture comprehension challenges, the present research-based account was based on a real teaching experience. However, this attempt to provide an insider perspective from academia was the fruit of an individual endeavour. In this vein, it is hoped that Algerian EAP practitioners and English language teachers throughout Algerian universities work in collaboration through national seminars and workshops to share similar teaching experiences and insider knowledge that would further improve their teaching practice in Algerian higher education.

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