

Listening to lectures in a second language: A Southeast Asian perspective

Lindsay Miller

Department of English, City University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong

This paper examines the skill of listening within the context of English as a lingua franca in higher education. It begins with a review of the literature on listening in an academic context with Southeast Asian students in which selected research studies, over the past 30 years, are critiqued. These studies are grouped into four main research approaches: psychometric experiments, discourse analyses studies, identification of listening strategies, and ethnographic investigations. After summarizing this literature, some suggestions are offered as to how this body of research can sensitize us to issues of academic listening in a second language (L2) in Asian higher education contexts. It is hoped this will contribute to the greater understanding of one aspect of the issues associated with using English as a lingua franca.

Keywords: listening; academic English; higher education; Southeast Asia

Introduction

Academic listening is a key skill in the use of English as a lingua franca in higher education and it can occur in many forms: lecture-comprehension, participating in tutorial exchanges, receiving instructions in a laboratory, discussing topics with classmates, and during consultation sessions with professors. This paper focuses only on lectures as this is the area of academic listening that university students encounter most often. Lecturing is still the preferred mode of transmitting knowledge to large groups of students, and apart from the recent introduction of technology into lectures by way of PowerPoint presentations and references to online media (e.g. YouTube), the format of lectures remains an extended monologue from a professor to large groups of students in a lecture hall. For instance, Prober and Heath (2012) maintain that medical students in the USA are still taught (lectured to) in a way similar to that used 100 years ago. This paper selectively reviews research into L2 academic listening comprehension in Southeast Asia. Although this is a large geographical area, and, for instance, university students in China can differ in significant ways from students in Indonesia, it is a definable area with many overlapping features. The research reported here dates from 1985 to 2013, a period of almost 30 years.

Teaching in English in Asia has had a mixed and sometimes complicated history. The colonial past of some countries, and the debate of mother tongue teaching versus teaching in English are some reasons for the complex status of English in Asia. Some Southeast Asian countries have long traditions of teaching in English at both secondary level and university level, for example Hong Kong (Miller & Li, 2008), Malaysia (Noor, 2008) and Singapore (Farrell & Tan, 2007). Meanwhile, other countries are busy re-writing national curricula to give English a stronger focus at secondary and

university level, for instance, China (Wen & Coniam, 2008), Korea (Chan, 2008) and Japan (Stewart, 2009). With the ‘globalization’ of education over the past 20 years, or so, we have seen an increase in the number of international students; sharing of programmes between universities in English-speaking countries and Asian universities; and the mobility of staff from country to country, necessitating the use of a common language. Writing about the European context, Smit (2010) states that: “English has become the ‘additional’ language that is presupposed at tertiary level and functions increasingly as the lecturers’ and students’ lingua franca” (p. 3). A similar situation seems to have arisen in many Southeast Asian institutions of higher education. Increasingly, courses in Southeast Asian universities are now taught in English and in many universities it is now common to find English being used by Asian or non-Asian lecturers to teach Asian or non-Asian students; and to find Asian and non-Asian students in the same lecture which emphasises the need for a lingua franca. Universities in Southeast Asia are increasingly offering some, or many, courses in English as a way of showcasing their drive to ‘internationalization’ and in an attempt to be seen as a ‘top’ rated university with the funding implications this carries with it. One of the main concerns that the administrators of universities have is the degree to which their staff can teach courses effectively in English, and how students can be assisted to comprehend complex subject matter in a second language. In order to understand some of the issues involved in academic listening we need to consider insights from research into listening.

There was no defined research agenda into second language listening until the early 1970s. During the 1950s and 1960s while other language skills were researched, L2 listening was neglected. The assumption seems to have been that listening skills developed in similar ways in both the L1 and L2 contexts, and that as both reading and listening were receptive skills, then L2 reading research could be generalized to an L2 listening context: both these assumptions were wrong. Gilman and Moody (1984) suggested three reasons why L2 listening lacked its own research agenda for so long: firstly, speaking a second language was more highly prized than showing an ability to comprehend the language; secondly, teachers used to think that listening was a skill which could be easily ‘picked up’, and thirdly, as most second language teachers never had specific lessons on how to develop their own listening skills, they were unaware that the skill actually did need to be taught. The late start to investigating L2 listening is rather strange given that listening is the language skill we most often use in our daily communication (Imhof, 2008), and that students in universities spend a lot of their time in listening to academic texts. In a large scale study in the US Emanuel et al. (2008) discovered that students spent 55 percent of their communication time listening, 17 percent writing, 16 percent speaking, and 11 percent reading. Students often do not appreciate the huge listening load they are exposed to when at university. In a study with Taiwanese university students, Liu, Chang, Yang, and Sun (2011) discovered that although the students did not rate their listening skills as very good, they also did not consider it necessary to have this as part of an English for Academic Purposes course. They preferred to focus more on their reading skills. Similarly, Evans and Green (2007) found that Hong Kong university students were not overly concerned about their academic listening skills. It may be that such students are frustrated with a lack of perceived progress in developing their academic listening skills (Graham, 2011), and, as a result, they rely on other strategies such as: reading PowerPoint slides, consulting textbooks, or studying lecture hand-outs.

Although the amount of research into everyday second-language listening is increasing, we cannot rely on this research for all our insights into L2 academic

listening. Listening in an academic context is a well-established practice and, as it is something which occurs on a daily basis for most students at university, it deserves its own research agenda. Academic listening is different from other everyday life listening events. It differs in that there is a special disciplinary orientation, that it is delivered to an audience in particular ways, and that the underlying rhetorical structures are different from everyday English (MacDonald, Badger, & White, 2000). Academic speech is usually carefully planned with respect to the content and the ways in which it is delivered, and it has a distinct register from written texts or conversations, as pointed out by Chaudron (1995).

Problems associated with researching L2 listening

Academic listening is a complex phenomenon and has a number of dimensions to investigate: phonology, lexis, syntax-semantics, schema, socio-linguistics, and culture (Dirven & Oakeshott-Taylor, 1984). Each dimension inter-relates with the others. To add to this complexity, we also have to consider how to research something which is difficult to observe. In order to undertake research into L2 listening, we often need the cooperation of learners who already have sophisticated knowledge about the L2, about the socio-cultural context in which the language is used, and understand how to talk about the strategic competences they have (Faerch & Kasper, 1986).

Notwithstanding the slow start into L2 listening research, a research agenda has now developed and work into academic L2 listening is growing. However, as Bodie, Worthington, Imhof, and Cooper (2008) comment on L2 listening research in general, it is a "...fragmented and seemingly dizzying array of definitions, methodological approaches and theoretical frameworks" (p. 104), which sometimes make it difficult to make sense of the literature: the same is true in the academic context. In this paper I attempt to simplify the research agenda by outlining the four main areas of investigations for L2 academic listening, and give some examples of the work done with Southeast Asian students in an attempt to highlight what we now know about this area of research. Then, I briefly outline how the findings of such research might assist us in helping our students with their academic listening.

Miller (2003) identified four main approaches to researching L2 academic listening: *measurement*, *analysis*, *identification* and *perceptions*. These have resulted in: (i) psychometric studies measuring aspects of speech or listening, (ii) discourse analyses of speech, (iii) the identification of strategies conducive to success in listening, and (iv) ethnographic investigations describing and analysing perceptions. The following sections summarized some of this research in the Southeast Asian context.

Measurement: Psychometric research into listening to lectures

Some researchers into listening in academic contexts have taken a positivist approach. The areas which have been examined in the past 20 years include speech rate and pausology (Tauroza and Allison, 1990); the effect of syntactic modification (Chiang & Dunkel, 1992); lexis (Liao, 2007; Lin & Morrison, 2010); and foreign accents (Major, Fitzmaurice, Bunta, & Balasubramanian, 2002). Table 1 briefly describes these studies.

Analysis: Discourse analysis research into listening to lectures

A second research approach to listening to L2 academic lectures is discourse analysis. Discourse analysts examine the texts used in lectures with a view to investigating the cognitive processes which listeners use in comprehending such texts. Classifying the

features of a lecture might seem like a straightforward approach. For example, if we discovered that summarizing main points helped listeners comprehend an oral text better, then we might consider including this as a feature of all lectures. Textbook writers often use this approach when they suggest which linguistic features and factors constitute a coherent talk, and advise lecturers to use these features and train students to recognise them (for example, Lynch, 2004). However, as there are numerous features of lecturing, as well as many idiosyncratic aspects of individual lecturers, it is very difficult to produce a textbook with an exhaustive list of all the features of a lecture which can then be used train L2 students for any lecture situation. Identifying specific recurrent features of a lecture adds to our understanding of the issues involved in second language academic listening, but research in this area is far from conclusive and discourse analysis must be viewed as only one dimension of the research agenda.

Table 1. Psychometric research into listening to lectures

Theme	Researchers	Main Findings
Average speech rate of lecture delivery	Tauroza and Allison (1990)	Working with lectures from Hong Kong, these researchers found that the average speech rate of a lecture was 140 words per minute (WPM). This was compared with other forms of spoken texts: Radio, 160 WPM; Conversation, 210 WPM; and Interviews, 190 WPM. The implication is that when giving lectures to Asian students, lecturers need to be aware of the rate at which they speak, and that this rate is slower than other speaking contexts.
Syntactic modification	Chiang and Dunkel (1992)	Investigating low- and high-intermediate Chinese students, they discovered that different levels of L2 learners need different types of input in lectures and that once a number of (unspecified) cognitive and linguistic factors have been mastered, students are able to comprehend better if information is repeated since this provides L2 students with more processing times.
Vocabulary	Liao (2007)	Examined the listening test results of the Certificate of Competency in English in 140 test centres in Asia, Latin America and Europe. Drawing on a large data bank of over 42,000 students, including many Southeast Asian learners, he found that having a rich vocabulary indicated that learners had fewer difficulties in listening to extended spoken texts in a second language.
Vocabulary	Lin and Morrison (2010)	A large scale investigation was conducted (n=762) on first-year Hong Kong Chinese university students into their receptive and productive academic lexis. The results show that students who had received their secondary school education in English medium schools outperformed their Chinese medium school classmates. Students who attended Chinese medium schools “are likely to experience greater difficulties...when attempting to understand lectures.” (p. 260).
Foreign Accents	Major, et al. (2002)	Four different student groups studying in the US participated in this study (Chinese, Japanese, Spanish, and native English-speaking American). The results show that both native and non-native listeners had comprehension problems when listening to non-native speakers of English.

Some of the recent work by discourse analysts relevant to the Southeast Asian context has focused on: the role of discourse markers and lexical phrases in listening comprehension (Shahbaz, Sheikh, & Ali, 2013); the identification of propositions (Rost, 1994); the languages used in lectures (Hsieh and Kang, as cited in Chang, 2010); and the effect of kinesics (English, 1985). Several of the studies reported in this section may also be considered as ‘measurement’ studies but their main focus remains one of analysing the discourse features of lectures. Table 2 shows the main findings of the above cited studies.

Table 2. Discourse analysis research into listening to lectures

Theme	Researchers	Main Findings
Discourse markers in lectures	Shahbaz, et al. (2013)	Research into the use of discourse markers in lectures greatly aids listening comprehension of Asian students (see, for example, Flowerdew & Tauroza, 1995). Shahbaz, Sheikh and Ali’s research demonstrates that Chinese professors giving their lectures in English made use of discourse markers in different ways to how native-speaking professor used them. Although the Chinese lecturers used discourse markers their use was limited and lacked pragmatic function. One implication of this was that Chinese students may have more difficulty following a talk in English given by a non-native-speaking lecturer.
Identification of propositions	Rost (1994)	Japanese students, although they were able to identify the main points, had difficulty in forming summaries of their lectures in English. These students needed help in identifying how the main point was achieved via understanding subsidiary propositions in the talk.
Comparison of different languages used in lectures	Hsieh and Kang (as cited in, Chang, 2010)	These researchers found that when Taiwanese students listened to their lectures in English or Mandarin, they were able to comprehend both lectures equally well. In addition, students attending their lectures delivered using English felt that their four English language skills improved.
Kinesics	English (1985)	In an early study, this researcher looked at the impact kinesics had on 100 Chinese students studying in the UK. She found that students were aware of a lecturer’s non-verbal behaviour, for instance scratching his beard, or lighting a cigarette, which aided their note-taking. These non-verbal cues helped the students identify topic change, emphasis, examples, negations and comparisons.

Identification: Research into listening strategies in academic contexts

Based on influential work into what makes a successful language learner (Rubin, 1975; Stern, 1975), the past twenty-five years has seen an extensive body of work focusing on learner strategies, and more recently on listening strategies. According to (Willing, 1988), a learning strategy is “a specific mental procedure for gathering, processing, associating, categorizing, rehearsing and retrieving information or patterned skills” (p. 7). The initial work in this area suggested that once we were about to identify what ‘good’ learner strategies were, these could be introduced to weak language learners in

order to make them more effective learners. This hypothesis still inspires much of the research into learner strategies. However, the task of identifying ‘good’ strategies and how these can be introduced to learners is not as easy as first thought. The main problem is determining the effectiveness of a strategy, and how variables such as age, gender, culture, and proficiency level affect the use of strategies (Oxford, 1989).

In an illuminating study into the use of strategies, O’Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Russo, and Kupper (1985) report that ESL high school students’ in the United States used no fewer than 638 strategies in integrated learning tasks. O’Malley et al. classified this wide range of strategies into twenty distinct categories which encapsulated the three main uses of strategies, namely metacognitive, cognitive and socio-affective strategies respectively. Research into strategy use is perhaps best described by the research methods used. Table 3 shows the main research techniques used in investigating Southeast Asian students’ listening abilities, and summarises the results.

Table 3. Research into listening strategies in academic contexts

Theme	Researcher	Main findings
Listening tests and questionnaires	Shang (2005)	Beginner- and advanced-level Taiwanese students were tested with three question types: contrary-to-fact statements; functional expressions; and negative expressions. The findings indicate that contrary-to-fact types of statements were the easiest and negative expressions the hardest for both groups. Furthermore, advanced-level students performed better overall as they could integrate both bottom-up and top-down processing strategies.
Tests, questionnaire and interviews	Chien and Wei (1998)	A variety of research instruments were used with Taiwanese engineering students to determine what strategies they used to aid their English lecture comprehension. It was found that “...students who performed better on listening comprehension [tests] were able to handle a greater number of strategies simultaneously” (p. 73). They found large discrepancies between less and more skilful strategy use with less skilful students relying mostly on bottom-up processing, while more skilful students made use of a variety of strategies.
Listening dairies	Goh (1998)	Singaporean students were asked to keep focused listening dairies, which involved being given questions to reflect on, and then being asked to write entries of specific occasions when they listened to English and record how they managed to comprehend. Goh’s findings were similar to Chien and Wei in that high-ability Asian learners made use of more strategies than low-ability learners.
Listening dairies	Goh (2000)	Dairy entries were used by Goh with mainland Chinese students studying in Singapore. She used a perception, parsing and utilization model to investigate the listening problems these students had when preparing to study in English. Goh lists the problems identified by the students “...sound-script and word-referent processes were not automatized, poor sound representations of familiar words, failure to use appropriate comprehension tactics, a lack of appropriate schematic knowledge, insufficient prior knowledge, preoccupation with knowing the meaning of certain content words, limited processing capacity in short-term memory and shallow processing” (p. 69).

Lecturer Interviews	Chang (2010)	Six Taiwanese university professors were interviewed to find out how they delivered their content-based lectures, in English, to their local students. Chang discovered that, when lecturing in English, these professors used a variety of strategies to make their talks more comprehensible: requiring students to read the course textbook before the class, translations of chunks of the talk into Mandarin, and encouraging students to ask questions if they were confused.
---------------------	--------------	---

Perceptions: Ethnographic Research into Academic Listening

Although still not widely used to investigate listening skills, ethnographic research methods are generally becoming more popular in second language research. An ethnographic approach is an extended piece of research (sometimes over many years) in which qualitative research instruments are used: e.g. observations, interviews and dairies; and which often extends the research agenda into more social contexts: e.g. focus group discussions or life histories. A recently reported study using this approach is that by Terraschke and Wahid (2011) in a one-year study of Asian students at an Australian university. However, the most extensive work with Southeast Asian students in this area has taken place in Hong Kong over the past 18 years by Flowerdew and Miller (1992, 1995, 1996a, 1996b, 1997, 1998, 2005), Flowerdew, Li, and Miller (1998), Flowerdew, Miller, and Li (2000), and Miller (2002, 2007).

An ethnographic approach to research allows the building of multi-layered perspectives on the event, in this case the various dimensions and aspects of an academic lecture in a second language. This approach gives rise to investigating not only the type of language used, the features of the spoken texts, and the types of strategies students and lecturers might use but it also uncovers other dimensions to the lecture event such as the need for critical listening; intertextuality referencing; and contextualization (Flowerdew & Miller, 2005), and student and lecturer behaviour (Miller, 2002). Table 4 refers to some of the ethnographic work done in Asia.

Table 4. Ethnographic research into academic listening

Theme	Researchers	Main Findings
EAP study and listening	Terraschke and Wahid (2011)	In a large scale investigation into EAP study at an Australian university Chinese, Korean and Iranian students were interviewed over the course of a year. The researchers found that students had difficulty understanding technical vocabulary, following their Australian lecturers' accents, and understanding the socio-cultural context of some topics in their lectures. Over a period of three semesters these problems became less due to students' improved academic listening skills, or because they had developed a range of coping strategies.
Perceptions, problems and strategies	Flowerdew and Miller (1992, 1996a) Flowerdew, et al. (2000)	These papers report on an eight-year ethnographic study into the perceptions, problems and strategies Hong Kong Chinese students and their lecturers have when attending lectures in English. Some of the main findings are that most students and lecturers are aware of similar problems in the lectures such as: speed of delivery, new terminology and concepts, and difficulty in concentrating. But, there were grey areas where each group had differing perspectives on the lecture event.

Cultural dimensions of lectures	Flowerdew and Miller (1995)	From the ethnographic data bank, the researchers were able to identify four distinct cultural dimensions in lectures: ethnic culture; local culture; academic culture; and disciplinary culture. When lecturers are made aware of these different types of cultures then they may be more sensitive to the types of students they are lecturing to.
Socio-cultural features of lectures	Flowerdew and Miller (1996b)	The researchers outline six socio-cultural features of lecturing as a way to understand the event better. These features are, 1) purpose of the lecture; 2) roles of lectures; 3) styles of lecturing; 4) simplification; 5) listener behaviour; and 6) humour.
A model of the lecture event	Miller (2002, 2003, 2007)	Based on a 10-year ethnographic study of Chinese students attending engineering lectures, the author developed a model to illustrate the various dimensions which interact in a L2 lecture. Four main themes emerged: the multi-dimensional context of lectures in a second language; lecturer intention and student interpretation; the negative cycle of expectation; and the establishment of communities of learners and practice.

Discussion

From this selected review of the literature on academic listening in a second language in the Southeast Asian context we see that a body of knowledge has emerged over the past 30 years or so. Some of the main findings from the literature are as follows:

Measurement

Listening comprehension may be affected by:

- rate of lecture delivery
- syntactic modification
- lexis
- foreign accents

Analysis

In order to assist students to comprehend lectures more we need to consider:

- discourse markers
- the identification of propositions
- the use of different languages in lectures
- the use of kinesics in lectures

Identification

- students need to develop a range of listening strategies
- listening strategies may differ depending on the language proficiency of student;
- students need to become more aware of the effective strategies they already use, and have opportunities to practice other strategies;
- students are able to identify their listening problems, therefore they can be sensitized to the issues and helped to look for solutions;
- lecturers use strategies to make their talks more accessible to their students.

Perceptions

In-depth investigations reveal that:

- students do improve their academic listening over periods of time, or are able to adapt to foreign accents and develop survival strategies;
- lectures have to be seen as complex social events which are more than only linguistic events;
- students and lecturers need to share their perceptions of what they expect from a lecture delivered in a second language;
- there are several dimensions to lecturing in a second language. Students and lecturers have to become aware of these dimensions and know what part they can play in making the lectures successful.

Based on the interpretations of the collection of research studies cited we may see that during lectures in a second language both lecturers and students need to interpret the event from a number of perspectives and employ a range of strategies. Lecturers may need to rethink their approach to lecturing and have a greater awareness of the linguistic features which aid their students' listening comprehension as listed above under measurement and analysis. This may require an ability to not only consider the content of lectures but also the way in which the information can effectively be delivered.

Furthermore, students also have important roles to play in lectures. Previously, "Students were expected to sit, listen and take notes" (Tehrani & Dastjerdi, 2012, p. 424). Nowadays, lectures not only have to impart information and maintain order, but they are also expected to build a rapport with their students (Nesi, 2012). Therefore, students need to become aware that they can be active listeners in lectures and that there are behaviours which assist their comprehension, e.g. by adopting a range of listening strategies, preparing before attending a lecture by reading over the notes, checking their understanding (self-monitoring), asking lecturers for clarification when points are not understood, and becoming more aware of their roles in the lecture event.

Research into L2 listening is important as it guides us to develop theories and models to account for how students listen, and the type of support language courses our students need. It also informs trainers at universities who offer courses to lecturers delivering content courses. Taking this body of knowledge together we now have some recent attempts at developing pedagogical models which account for how students develop their L2 listening (Flowerdew & Miller, 2005; Vandergrift, 2004). Such models suggest that listening in a second language is a complex process and that students need to develop a variety of skills and strategies in order to become effective L2 listeners especially in contexts where the L2 is serving as a *lingua franca*.

The results of research into L2 listening and the development of second language models of listening are now finding their ways into commercial textbooks. These textbooks purport to support students to learn how to become better at listening to lectures. Flowerdew and Miller (1997) reviewed a selection of academic listening textbooks and discovered that most of the features found in real lectures were missing from the textbooks, for example there were no micro-level structures; false starts; redundancies or repetitions; visual clues; personalization; long stretches of information; links to previous lectures; or visual aids. Textbooks focussing on academic listening are improving and now the latest such books contain CD ROMs with examples of real lecturers delivering real lectures (see, for example, Sarosy & Sherak, 2006), although, Graham (2011) states: "Nothing can fully prepare a second-language student for the experience of listening to a full-length lecture" (p. 115).

English as the lingua franca in the context of institutions of higher education in S.E. Asia is here to stay. However, from the review of the literature conducted here it is apparent that much remains to be done in understanding one of its key elements, academic listening, which is a complex skill impacting on the success of lecturing as a mode of teaching in such a context. The application of our current research into listening is only just beginning. The next 30 years promises to uncover even more about academic listening in a second language in Southeast Asia.

About the author

Lindsay Miller is an associate professor in the Department of English at City University of Hong Kong. He has been responsible for designing, developing and teaching a wide variety of courses in the areas of ESP, specialist courses on listening and speaking proficiency skills and conceptual courses on learner autonomy and critical pedagogy. Dr Miller's main areas of research focus on self-access language learning, and academic listening. He has co-authored *Establishing Self-Access: From Theory To Practice* (1999) CUP, with D. Gardner; *Second Language Listening: Theory and Practice* (2005) CUP, with J. Flowerdew; and *Managing Self-Access Language Learning* (2014) with D. Gardner, City University Press.

References

- Bodie, G. D., Worthington, D., Imhof, M., & Cooper, L. O. (2008). What would a unified field of listening look like? A proposal linking past perspectives and future endeavors. *International Journal of Listening*, 22(2), 103-122.
- Chan, K. M. (2008). Innovative English education curricula and the strategies of implementation in Korea. In Y. H. Choi & B. Spolsky (Eds.), *ELT curriculum innovation and implementation in Asia* (pp. 101-129). Seoul: Asia TEFL.
- Chang, Y. Y. (2010). English-medium instruction for subject courses in tertiary education: Reactions from Taiwanese undergraduate students. *Taiwan International ESP Journal*, 1(2), 55-84.
- Chaudron, C. (1995). Academic listening. In D. J. Mendelson & J. Rubin (Eds.), *A guide for the teaching of second language listening*. San Diego, Calif.: Dominie Press.
- Chiang, C. S., & Dunkel, P. (1992). The effect of speech modification, prior knowledge, and listening proficiency on EFL lecture learning. *TESOL Quarterly*, 26(2), 345-374.
- Chien, C. N., & Wei, L. (1998). The strategy use in listening comprehension for EFL learners in Taiwan. *RELJ Journal*, 29(1), 66-91.
- Dirven, R., & Oakeshott-Taylor, J. (1984). State of the art: Listening comprehension (Part I). *Language Teaching*, 17(4), 326-342.
- Emanuel, R., Adams, J., Baker, K., Daufin, E. K., Ellington, C., Fitts, E., . . . Okeowo, D. (2008). How college students spend their time communicating. *International Journal of Listening*, 22(1), 13-28.
- English, S. L. (1985). Kinesics in academic lectures. *The ESP Journal*, 4(2), 161-170.
- Evans, S., & Green, C. (2007). Why EAP is necessary: A survey of Hong Kong tertiary students. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 6(1), 3-17.
- Faerch, C., & Kasper, G. (1986). The role of comprehension in second-language learning. *Applied Linguistics*, 7(3), 155-274.
- Farrell, T. S. C., & Tan, S. K. K. (2007). Language policy, language teachers' beliefs, and classroom practice. *Applied Linguistics*, 23(1), 1-23.
- Flowerdew, J., Li, D., & Miller, L. (1998). Attitudes towards English and Cantonese among Hong Kong Chinese university lecturers. *TESOL Quarterly*, 32(2), 201-231.
- Flowerdew, J., & Miller, L. (1992). Student perceptions, problems and strategies in second language lecture comprehension. *RELJ Journal*, 23(2), 60-80.
- Flowerdew, J., & Miller, L. (1995). On the notion of culture in L2 lectures. *TESOL Quarterly*, 29(2), 345-373.
- Flowerdew, J., & Miller, L. (1996a). Lecturer perceptions, problems and strategies in second language lectures. *RELJ Journal*, 21(1), 23-60.
- Flowerdew, J., & Miller, L. (1996b). Lectures in a second language: Notes towards a cultural grammar. *English for Specific Purposes*, 15(2), 121-140.
- Flowerdew, J., & Miller, L. (1997). The teaching of academic listening comprehension and the question of authenticity. *English for Specific Purposes*, 16(1), 27-46.

- Flowerdew, J., & Miller, L. (1998). English in Hong Kong and the reversion to Chinese sovereignty. *Perspectives: Working Papers of the English Department of City University of Hong Kong*, 10(1), 46-89.
- Flowerdew, J., & Miller, L. (2005). *Second language listening: Theory and practice*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Flowerdew, J., Miller, L., & Li, D. (2000). Chinese lecturers' perceptions, problems and strategies in lecturing in English to Chinese-speaking students. *RELJ Journal*, 31(1), 116-137.
- Flowerdew, J., & Tauroza, S. (1995). The effects of discourse markers on second language lecture comprehension. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 17 (4), 435-458.
- Gilman, R. A., & Moody, L. M. (1984). What practitioners say about listening: Research implications for the classroom. *Foreign Language Annals*, 17(4), 331-333.
- Goh, C. (1998). Emerging environments of English for academic purposes and the implications for learning materials. *RELJ Journal*, 29(1), 20-33.
- Goh, C. (2000). A cognitive perspective on language learners' listening comprehension problems. *System*, 28(1), 55-75.
- Graham, S. (2011). Self-efficacy and academic listening. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 10(2), 113-117.
- Imhof, M. (2008). What have you listened to in school today? *International Journal of Listening*, 22(1), 1-12.
- Liao, Y. F. (2007). Investigating the construct validity of the grammar and vocabulary section and the listening section of the ECCE: lexico-grammatical ability as a predictor of L2 listening ability. *Spain Fellow Working Papers in Second or Foreign Language Assessment*, 5, 37-77.
- Lin, L. H. F., & Morrison, B. (2010). The impact of the medium of instruction in Hong Kong secondary schools on tertiary students' vocabulary. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 9(4), 255-266.
- Liu, J. Y., Chang, Y. J., Yang, F. Y., & Sun, Y. C. (2011). Is what I need what I want? Reconceptualising college students' needs in English courses for general and specific/academic purposes. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 10(4), 271-280.
- Lynch, T. (2004). *Study listening: Understanding lectures and talk in English* (2nd ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- MacDonald, M., Badger, R., & White, G. (2000). The real thing?: Authenticity and academic listening. *English for Specific Purposes*, 19(3), 253-267.
- Major, R. C., Fitzmaurice, S. F., Bunta, F., & Balasubramanian, C. (2002). The effects of nonnative accent on listening comprehension: Implications for ESL assessment. *TESOL Quarterly*, 36(2), 173-190.
- Miller, L. (2002). Towards a model for lectures in a second language. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 1(2), 145-162.
- Miller, L. (2003). *Academic lectures and listening in a second language: An ethnographic case study*. Unpublished PhD thesis. City University of Hong Kong. Hong Kong.
- Miller, L. (2007). Issues in lecturing in a second language: Lecturer's behaviour and students' interpretations. *Studies in Higher Education*, 32(6), 747-760.
- Miller, L., & Li, D. C. S. (2008). Innovations in ELT curricula and strategies of implementation in Hong Kong SAR. In Y. H. Choi & B. Spolsky (Eds.), *ELT curriculum innovation and implementation in Asia* (pp. 71-100). Seoul: Asia TEFL.
- Nesi, H. (2012). Laughter in university lectures. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 11(2), 79-89.
- Noor, R. B. (2008). ELT curriculum innovations and strategies for implementation in Malaysia. In Y. H. Choi & B. Spolsky (Eds.), *ELT curriculum innovation and implementation in Asia* (pp. 131-143). Seoul: Asia TEFL.
- O'Malley, J. M., Chamot, A. U., Stewner-Manzanares, G., Russo, P. R., & Kupper, L. (1985). Learning strategies applications with students of English as a second language. *TESOL Quarterly*, 19(3), 557-584.
- Oxford, R. L. (1989). Use of language learning strategies: A synthesis of studies with implications for strategy training. *System*, 17(2), 235-247.
- Prober, C. G., & Heath, C. (2012). Lecture halls without lectures - A proposal for medical education. *New England Journal of Medicine*, 366(18), 1657-1659. doi: 10.1056/NEJMp1202451
- Rost, M. (1994). *Introducing listening*. London: Penguin Books.
- Rubin, J. (1975). What the "good language learner" can teach us. *TESOL Quarterly*, 9(1), 41-51.
- Sarosy, P., & Sherak, K. (2006). *Lecture ready: Strategies for academic listening, note-taking, and discussion*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

- Shahbaz, M., Sheikh, O. I., & Ali, M. S. (2013). Use of discourse markers by Chinese EFL professors: A corpus-based study of academic lectures by natives and non-natives. *Journal of Education in Practice*, 4(5), 80-89.
- Shang, H. F. (2005). An investigation of cognitive operations on L2 listening comprehension performance: An exploratory study. *International Journal of Listening*, 19, 51-62.
- Smit, U. (2010). *English as a lingua franca in higher education: A longitudinal study of classroom discourse*. Berlin: Walter de Gruyter.
- Stern, H. H. (1975). What can we learn from the good language learner? *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 31(4), 304-318.
- Stewart, T. (2009). Will the new English curriculum for 2013 work? *The Language Teacher*, 33(11), 9-13.
- Tauroza, S., & Allison, D. (1990). Speech rates in British English. *Applied Linguistics*, 11(1), 90-105.
- Tehrani, A. R., & Dastjerdi, H. V. (2012). The pedagogical impact of discourse markers in the lecture genre: EFL learners' writing in focus. *Journal of language Teaching and Research*, 3(3), 423-429.
- Terraschke, A., & Wahid, R. (2011). The impact of EAP study on the academic experiences of international postgraduate students in Australia. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 10(3), 173-182.
- Vandergrift, L. (2004). Learning to listen or listening to learn? *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 24, 3-25.
- Wen, Z., & Coniam, D. (2008). Rethinking the college English curriculum in China. In Y. H. Choi & B. Spolsky (Eds.), *ELT curriculum innovation and implementation in Asia* (pp. 39-69). Seoul: Asia TEFL.
- Willing, K. (1988). *Learning styles in adult migrant education*. Adelaide: National Curriculum Resource Centre Research Series.