

**MINISTRY OF HIGHER EDUCATION AND SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH**  
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**Exploring the Effect of Metacognitive Strategy  
Instruction on EFL Learners' Listening  
Comprehension Skill**

*A case study of First and Second years Algerian LMD Students in  
the English Department, of the University of Algiers2*

*Dissertation Submitted to the Department of English, University of Algiers 2,  
in Fulfilment of the Requirements for the Degree of  
Doctorate in English Linguistics and Didactics*

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## **Declaration**

I hereby declare that the substance of this dissertation is entirely the result of my own investigation and that due reference or acknowledgement is made, whenever necessary, to the work of other researchers.

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**Date:** 27/04/2016

## **Dedication**

To the dearest people in my life:

My mother,

My husband Adlaine, my son Ilyes, my daughters Sarah and Serine.

My sister and brother

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I would like to take this opportunity to express my immense gratitude to Professor Fatiha HAMITOUCHE as my supervisor for her help and precious time to correct and discuss my work though she was on a sabbatical leave in London. Special thanks are also addressed to Professor Faiza BENSEMMANE and Dr. Yasmine BOUKHEDIMI for their precious help and patience in reviewing this thesis. My acknowledgements are also addressed to all those who have provided me with their invaluable support and assistance. Moreover, special thanks are addressed to all the students who have participated in the survey for their collaboration and great help in the realisation of this piece of work.

## **Abstract**

The present study investigates the effect of treatment with five (05) metacognitive strategies namely problem solving, planning and evaluation, mental translation, personal knowledge and direct attention on EFL students' listening comprehension achievement. In this regard, a longitudinal mixed methods case study was carried out. It involved one hundred (100) informants belonging to first and second year level and preparing their bachelor degree in the English language at the level of the English department of University of Algiers<sup>2</sup>. The research developed during the academic years 2012-2013 and 2013-2014 lasted approximately eighteen (18) months, during which twenty two (22) metacognitive instructional sessions adopting Vandergrift's instructional framework were implemented. Each treatment session lasted ninety (90) minutes. The researcher made use of a combination of research instruments to collect data such as two written tests (a pre-test and a post test); retrospective interviews, think-aloud protocols, a questionnaire (comprising two parts: a background questionnaire and a Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ) as well as learners' diaries. The present study yielded positive results as far as listening metacognitive strategy awareness- raising instruction is concerned. Using listening metacognitive strategies has proved to be efficient. It helped in increasing awareness among the students in terms of developing their motivation, self-confidence and autonomy.

**Key words:** Metacognition; metacognitive strategies; metacognitive strategy instruction; listening comprehension skill.

## CONTENTS

<b>List of Abbreviations.....</b>	<b>xi</b>
<b>List of Figures.....</b>	<b>xii</b>
<b>List of tables.....</b>	<b>xiv</b>
<b>List of Appendices.....</b>	<b>xv</b>
<b>GENERAL INTRODUCTION.....</b>	<b>01</b>
- Research Problem.....	<b>03</b>
- Statement of Purpose.....	<b>04</b>
- Rationale.....	<b>07</b>
- Research Questions and Hypotheses.....	<b>10</b>
- Significance of the Study.....	<b>13</b>
- Structure of the Thesis.....	<b>14</b>

## PART ONE

### THEORETICAL CONSIDERATIONS

<b>CHAPTER ONE: THE NATURE OF THE LISTENING SKILL.....</b>	<b>17</b>
<b>Introduction.....</b>	<b>17</b>
1.1- Research into Listening Comprehension.....	<b>18</b>
1.1.1- Historical Overview.....	<b>18</b>
1.1.1.1- Approaches to Language Teaching and the Role of Listening.....	<b>20</b>
1.2- The Nature of Hearing and Listening.....	<b>27</b>
1.2.1- Hearing versus Listening.....	<b>28</b>
1.2.2- Listening Definitions.....	<b>29</b>
1.3- The Importance of Listening.....	<b>32</b>
1.4- Types of Listening.....	<b>34</b>

1.5- Processes in L2/EFL Listening Comprehension.....	37
1.6- Factors Standing against Listening Success.....	42
1.7- Contrasting Spoken and Written Languages.....	48
<b>Conclusion.....</b>	<b>50</b>
<b>CHAPTER TWO: LEARNERS' STRATEGIES .....</b>	<b>52</b>
<b>Introduction.....</b>	<b>52</b>
2.1- Communication Strategies.....	52
2.2- Language Learning Strategies.....	54
2.2.1- Learning Strategies definition.....	54
2.2.2- Learning Strategies Taxonomies.....	56
2.3- Learners' Differences.....	60
2.3.1-Learners' Age.....	60
2.3.2- Learning Style.....	61
2.3.3- Learners' Level.....	64
2.3.4- Learners' Cultural Background.....	65
2.4- Successful Language Learners' Characteristics.....	66
2.5- The Importance of Strategies to the Learning Process.....	68
2.6- Cognition and Metacognition in the Listening Skill.....	69
2.6.1-Cognition.....	69
2.6.2- The Concept of Metacognition.....	71
2.7- Flavell's Formal Metacognitive Model.....	73
2.7.1- Metacognitive Knowledge.....	73
2.7.2- Metacognitive Experiences.....	76
2.7.3- Metacognitive Goals and Tasks.....	77
2.7.4- Metacognitive Strategies or Actions.....	77

2.8- Classification of Metacognitive Strategies.....	78
<b>Conclusion.....</b>	<b>80</b>
<b>CHAPTER THREE: METACOGNITIVE STRATEGY INSTRUCTION</b>	<b>82</b>
<b>IN LISTENING</b>	
<b>Introduction.....</b>	<b>82</b>
3.1- Reasons for teaching Strategies.....	83
3.1.1- Strategy Training.....	84
3.1.2- Principles of Effective Strategy Training.....	85
3.2- Models of Strategy Instruction.....	91
3.2.1- An explicit Approach to Listening Instruction.....	91
3.2.2- An Implicit Approach to Listening Instruction.....	92
3.2.3- An Eclectic Approach to listening Instruction.....	93
3.3- Issues in Listening Instruction.....	94
3.3.1- Separate and Integrated Strategy Instruction.....	95
3.3.2- Direct and Embedded Strategy Instruction.....	95
3.4- Empirical Studies in Listening Strategy Training.....	97
3.5- Instructional Frameworks.....	100
3.5.1- Oxford’s Model.....	101
3.5.2- O’Malley and Chamot’s Model.....	102
3.5.3- Cohen’s Model.....	105
3.5.4- Grenfell and Harris’s Model.....	106
3.5.5- Macaro’s Model.....	107
3.5.6- Vandergrift’s Model.....	108
3.6- A Metacognitive Pedagogical Sequence.....	109
<b>Conclusion.....</b>	<b>113</b>

**PART TWO**  
**EMPIRICAL RESEARCH**

<b>CHAPTER FOUR: METHODOLOGY.....</b>	<b>114</b>
<b>Introduction.....</b>	<b>114</b>
4.1- Research Method.....	115
4.1.1- Purpose for using Mixed Type.....	118
4.1.2- Research Questions Relations to the research Methods.....	119
4.2- Research Design.....	123
4.2.1- The Setting.....	124
4.2.2- The Subjects.....	124
4.2.3- Research Tools.....	126
4.2.4- Research Procedure.....	143
4.3- Method of Data Analysis.....	162
4.3.1- Written Tests Analysis.....	165
4.3.2- Interviews and Think-Aloud Analysis.....	166
4.3.3- Questionnaire Analysis.....	169
4.3.4- Learners' Diaries Analysis.....	170
<b>Conclusion.....</b>	<b>171</b>
<b>CHAPTER FIVE: DATA ANALYSIS.....</b>	<b>172</b>
<b>Introduction.....</b>	<b>172</b>
5.1- Tests Scores Analysis.....	173
5.1.1- Pre-Instructional Phase.....	173
5.1.2- Post-Instructional Phase.....	178
5.2- Interviews and Think-Aloud Analysis Analysis.....	185

5.2.1.- Interviews Analysis.....	186
5.2.1.1- Pre-Instructional Phase.....	186
5.2.1.2- Post-Instructional Phase.....	189
5.2.2- Think-Aloud Protocol Analysis.....	194
5.3- Questionnaire Analysis.....	197
5.3.1- Comparative Analysis of Students’ use of Metacognitive Strategies Before and After Instruction.....	198
5.3.1.1- Pre-Instructional Phase.....	198
5.3.1.2- Post-Instructional Phase.....	202
5.3.2- Relationships Between Metacognitive Strategy Use and Listening Comprehension Performance.....	211
5.3.2.1- Pre-Instructional Phase.....	211
5.3.2.2- Post-Instructional Phase.....	214
5.4- EFL Learners’ Diaries Analysis.....	218
5.4.1- Pre-Instructional Phase.....	218
5.4.2- Post-Instructional Phase.....	220
5.5- Summary of the Results.....	223
<b>Conclusion.....</b>	<b>225</b>
<b>CHAPTER SIX: DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS.....</b>	<b>227</b>
<b>Introduction.....</b>	<b>227</b>
6.1- Discussion.....	227
6.1.1- On Students’ Awareness about Listening Metacognitive Strategies.....	228
6.1.2- On the Relationship Between Metacognitive Strategy Awareness-Raising and Algerian EFL Learners Listening Performance.....	238
6.1.3- On the Effect of Metacognitive Strategy Instruction on Listening Outcome.....	245

6.2- Implications and Suggestions.....	259
6.2.1- Implications for Teachers.....	269
6.2.2- Implications for Learners.....	264
<b>Conclusion.....</b>	<b>265</b>
<b>GENERAL CONCLUSION.....</b>	<b>267</b>
<b>Bibliography.....</b>	<b>276</b>
<b>Appendices.....</b>	<b>298</b>
<b>Abstract in Arabic.....</b>	<b>322</b>

## List of Abbreviations

<b>BA Degree</b>	Bachelor of Arts Degree (also known as “Licence”)
<b>CALLA</b>	Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach
<b>CANCODE</b>	Cambridge and Nottingham Corpus of Discourse in English
<b>CLT</b>	Communicative Language Teaching
<b>EFL Students</b>	Learners of English as a Foreign Language
<b>L2</b>	Second Language
<b>LEP</b>	Limited English proficiency
<b>LMD</b>	Licence, Master, Doctorate
<b>M</b>	Mean
<b>LSTC</b>	Learner Strategies Training Cycle
<b>MALQ</b>	Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire
<b>MI</b>	Multiple Intelligences
<b>NLP</b>	Neuro-Linguistic Programming
<b>S</b>	Student
<b>SD</b>	Standard Deviation
<b>SIMT</b>	Setting, Interpersonal relationships between speakers, Mood, and Topic
<b>SPSS</b>	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
<b>SSBI</b>	Style and Strategies-Based Instruction
<b>T</b>	Teacher
<b>TBL</b>	Task- Based Learning
<b>TOEFL</b>	Test of English as a Foreign Language
<b>TOEIC</b>	Test of English for International Communication
<b>UCLES</b>	University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate
<b>VAKOG</b>	Visual, Auditory, Kineasthetic, Olfactory and Gustatory

## List of Figures

<b>Figure 01</b>	The Importance of Listening skill	<b>34</b>
<b>Figure 02</b>	Speech Reception Framework	<b>38</b>
<b>Figure 03</b>	Oxford's Strategy Classification System/Direct Strategies	<b>57</b>
<b>Figure 04</b>	Oxford's Strategy Classification System/Indirect Strategies	<b>58</b>
<b>Figure 05</b>	Representation of Different Learners' Levels	<b>64</b>
<b>Figure 06</b>	Activities for Metacognitive Instruction	<b>89</b>
<b>Figure 07</b>	Vandergrift's Instructional Modal.	<b>110</b>
<b>Figure 08</b>	The Design of the Investigation	<b>123</b>
<b>Figure 09</b>	Research Variables	<b>143</b>
<b>Figure 10</b>	Research Procedure Representation	<b>146</b>
<b>Figure 11</b>	Approaches to Data Analysis	<b>162</b>
<b>Figure 12</b>	Statistical Representation of Students' Marks Prior Instruction	<b>177</b>
<b>Figure 13</b>	Statistical Representation of Students' Marks After Instruction	<b>182</b>
<b>Figure 14</b>	Statistical Representation of Pre and Post Test Scores Means	<b>184</b>
<b>Figure 15</b>	Impression about the Listening Task Prior treatment	<b>187</b>
<b>Figure 16</b>	Listening Difficulties Expressed Before Intervention	<b>188</b>
<b>Figure 17</b>	Strategies Used Prior Instruction	<b>188</b>
<b>Figure 18</b>	Informants' Performance Satisfaction Before Treatment	<b>189</b>
<b>Figure 19</b>	Impression about the Listening Task Following Treatment Phase	<b>190</b>
<b>Figure 20</b>	Listening Difficulties Expressed After Intervention	<b>191</b>
<b>Figure 21</b>	Strategies Used After Instruction	<b>192</b>
<b>Figure 22</b>	Informants' Performance Satisfaction After Treatment Reception	<b>193</b>

<b>Figure 23</b>	Statistical Representation of the Think-aloud	<b>196</b>
<b>Figure 24</b>	Statistical Representation of the MALQ Prior Treatment	<b>201</b>
<b>Figure 25</b>	Statistical Representation of the MALQ After Treatment	<b>206</b>
<b>Figure 26</b>	Comparative Representation of the MALQ Prior and After Treatment	<b>209</b>
<b>Figure 27</b>	Statistical Representation of Listening Test Scores and Metacognitive Strategies Relationship Prior Treatment	<b>213</b>
<b>Figure 28</b>	Statistical Representation of Listening Test Scores and Metacognitive Strategies Relationship After Treatment	<b>215</b>
<b>Figure 29</b>	Statistical Representation of Listening Test Scores and MALQ relationship Prior and After Treatment	<b>217</b>
<b>Figure 30</b>	Strategy Use frequencies Prior Instruction	<b>219</b>
<b>Figure 31</b>	Strategy Usefulness Evaluation Prior Instruction	<b>220</b>
<b>Figure 32</b>	Strategy Use frequencies Following Instruction	<b>221</b>
<b>Figure 33</b>	Strategy Usefulness Evaluation After Instruction	<b>222</b>

## List of Tables

<b>Table 1</b>	Communication Strategies	<b>53</b>
<b>Table 2</b>	Gardner's Seven Intelligences:	<b>63</b>
<b>Table 3</b>	The subjects Participating in the Investigation	<b>126</b>
<b>Table 04</b>	Experimental and Control Subjects' Pre-Test Marks	<b>175</b>
<b>Table 05</b>	Experimental and Control Subjects' Post-Test Marks	<b>180</b>
<b>Table 06</b>	Comparative Analysis between Pre and Post Tests means	<b>183</b>
<b>Table 07</b>	Summary of the Strategies Implemented During Think-aloud Procedure	<b>195</b>
<b>Table 08</b>	Descriptive Statistics Analysis of the MALQ Prior Instruction	<b>199</b>
<b>Table 09</b>	Participants' Use of Metacognitive Strategies	<b>202</b>
<b>Table 10</b>	Descriptive Statistics Analysis of MALQ After Instruction	<b>204</b>
<b>Table 11</b>	Participants' Use of Metacognitive Strategies	<b>207</b>
<b>Table 12</b>	Comparison of Metacognitive Strategy use Before and After Treatment	<b>207</b>
<b>Table 13</b>	Metacognitive Awareness and Listening Comprehension Performance relationship Prior Instruction	<b>212</b>
<b>Table 14</b>	Metacognitive Awareness and Listening Comprehension Performance relationship after Instruction	<b>215</b>
<b>Table 15</b>	Statistical Representation of Listening Test Scores and MALQ relationship Prior and After Treatment	<b>216</b>

## List of Appendices

<b>Appendix N° 01:</b> Data Sheet on Metacognitive Listening Strategies	<b>298</b>
<b>Appendix N° 02:</b> Pre-Test	<b>299</b>
<b>Appendix N° 03:</b> Post-Test	<b>300</b>
<b>Appendix N° 04:</b> Think-Aloud Test	<b>301</b>
<b>Appendix N° 05:</b> Listening Diary (Reflection on a Selected Listening Event)	<b>302</b>
<b>Appendix N° 05 bis:</b> Listening Diary (Reflection on a Selected Listening Event)	<b>303</b>
<b>Appendix N° 06:</b> Listening Diary (Self-Evaluation of Skills Learnt from Listening Lessons)	<b>304</b>
<b>Appendix N° 06 bis:</b> Listening Diary (Self-Evaluation of Skills Learnt from Listening Lessons)	<b>305</b>
<b>Appendix N° 07:</b> Listening Diary (Think-Aloud Immediately After a Lesson)	<b>306</b>
<b>Appendix N° 07 bis:</b> Listening Diary (Think-Aloud Immediately After a Lesson)	<b>307</b>
<b>Appendix N° 08:</b> Guide for Listening	<b>308</b>
<b>Appendix N° 09:</b> Questionnaire	<b>310</b>
<b>Appendix N° 10:</b> A Sample Interview (Before Instructional Phase)	<b>311</b>
<b>Appendix N° 11:</b> A Sample Interview (After Instructional Phase)	<b>312</b>
<b>Appendix N° 12:</b> Listening Instruction Stages and Related Metacognitive Strategies.	<b>313</b>
<b>Appendix N° 13:</b> Comparison of Texts	<b>314</b>
<b>Appendix N° 14:</b> Transcription Conventions.	<b>316</b>
<b>Appendix N° 15:</b> Listening Comprehension Strategy Inventory	<b>317</b>
<b>Appendix N° 16:</b> A sample of a Students' Think-Aloud	<b>318</b>
<b>Appendix N° 17:</b> Transcript of the Pre-Test	<b>319</b>
<b>Appendix N° 18:</b> Transcript of the Post-Test	<b>320</b>
<b>Appendix N° 19:</b> Transcript of the Think-Aloud Test	<b>321</b>

## GENERAL INTRODUCTION

In our daily interaction language is used to fulfil many different goals such as communicating information, ideas, beliefs, emotions and attitudes to one another. When using language for communication, both the addresser and the addressee are involved in two major processes: transmitting information and interpreting the message produced. The same processes take place when learning another language as English. The latter requires a combination of knowledge of the target language with strategies that enable one to use it effectively.

Besides, when talking about listening, there is a tendency to confuse it with hearing which is in fact “a dangerous misconception” (Burley- Allen 1995: 03) leading us to believe that it is instinctive. In fact, listening involves a more sophisticated mental process than hearing. According to Burley- Allen (1995: 03), it requires “energy and discipline” to be learnt. Therefore, this leads us to say that it is not “a passive skill” (Osada 2004: 53) but an active process needing assistance to be developed (Byrnes 1984; Richards 1989 and Goh 1997).

Though the listening skill is used more than the other skills in the communication process, it was not given its due importance for a long time. Indeed, listening was attributed the least attention than the other skills such as reading, writing and speaking. In many instances, it is treated as “a neglected stepchild” (Oxford, 1993: 205).

According to Vandergrift (2007: 291), such lack of attention rendered it “the least researched of all four language skills” and the poorly taught aspect of English (Osada 2004: 57). Furthermore, the very complex nature of the listening process makes it a challenging affair for both learners and teachers. It was only recently that this stand has changed to be substituted by an active interest in searching listening comprehension skill (Rubin 1988 ; O'Malley et al 1989 ;

Bacon 1991 ; Thompson and Rubin 1996 ; Vandergrift 1996) as its role is at the heart of second language acquisition.

Remaining with this concern, when dealing with L2/EFL listening comprehension, many issues emerge. The first issue to be addressed is the identification of the nature of listening. It is only by examining the various definitions assigned to it that the concept of listening will be elucidated. Likewise, the exploration of the factors standing against the comprehension of the oral input opens the path for thinking about measures to overcome listening difficulties. Furthermore, contrasting spoken and written languages will add to the explanation of this complex skill as well as the processes it goes through.

The second issue which needs to be accounted for is learning strategies concept. In fact, the notion of learner techniques or strategies assisting second and foreign language acquisition emerged in the work introduced by Rubin (1975) and Stern (1975). Besides, this notion contrasts with the idea that "some people have an 'ear' for language or that some individuals have an inherent ability for language learning" (O'Malley and Chamot 1990 : 02). Thus, the notion of learning strategies suggests that competent individuals are good at language learning because of special ways of processing information. It suggests also that these strategies could be learnt by others who had not yet uncovered them by themselves. Consequently, research in this field is necessary to discover these strategies, describe them, classify them and teach them.

In this context, tackling the issue of instruction arises. Indeed, once the strategies used by good learners are identified and classified, two issues emerge. The first one is linked to the type of strategies that should be taught to assist less effective learners. The second question concerns the type of instructional approach that could be adopted to implement strategy training in the language classroom and raise learners' awareness about some measures facilitating learning. Therefore, inspiration may be found in the empirical studies undertaken

for this concern. Additionally, exploring instructional models and materials tending to improve both learning and teaching is helpful in illustrating the ways to apply them in practice.

### ***Research Problem***

We are living nowadays in a world of globalization looking like a small village in which English language is playing a major role via facilitating political understanding, economic activities and cultural exchanges. It is emerging with a very fascinating speed displacing or leaving no place for other languages, such as the French language, formerly existing because of colonialism. It is spreading fastly among the Algerian population and is gaining more space within globalized Algeria. In fact, considering the economic changes taking place worldwide, the implementation of English in the Algerian educational system starts from the middle school and continues till reaching the University level.

Nonetheless, despite the importance attributed to the teaching of English in Algeria which covers the diverse language building blocks namely speaking, writing, reading and listening, students experience constant difficulties with the listening skill. In fact, the teaching taking place in laboratories aiming at enhancing students' ability to listen and speak, is focused mainly on testing learners' listening to oral discourse and answering comprehension questions based upon the information received rather than teaching them strategies for learning how to process, comprehend, and react to spoken language easily and confidently. The listening instruction provided fails to include the strategies that help less-effective learners to follow with confidence and without any anxiety. As a consequence, a feeling of boredom and demotivation is settled with time among the students leading to the failure of the teaching objectives.

Similar instructional issues have been described by Field (2008), Goh, (2008), and Vandergrift (2007) in major studies of ESL teaching contexts

such as England, Singapore and Canada respectively. The risks associated with neglecting listening strategies are that there is an instructional focus on the linguistic and semantic features of input in recorded dialogues and speech without due consideration to cognitive and metacognitive bases of inadequate understanding. Thus, students may be left with unresolved difficulties in their own understandings. Accordingly, an urgent need to emphasise the instruction of strategies that can enable students to overcome their difficulties and improve their competence as far as listening comprehension area is concerned constitutes the major concern of this study.

### *Statement of Purpose*

The purpose of the present research is to explore and identify the strategies employed by EFL learners to comprehend the listening texts they are exposed to in order to be able to intervene appropriately when trying to improve their listening comprehension skill. Furthermore, the emphasis is put on instructing five (05) metacognitive strategies such as problem solving, planning and evaluation, mental translation, personal knowledge and direct attention. The latter can enable students to overcome their difficulties and improve their competence as far as listening comprehension area is concerned. In other words, the main aim of this research is to investigate the use of listening strategies by Algerian students of English and explore the effect of listening metacognitive strategy instruction approach in the classroom on improving EFL students' aural competence. This can be achieved by uncovering the strategies frequently used in listening comprehension and understanding the level of awareness about listening metacognitive strategies among the Algerian EFL students to be able to intervene in this respect. Understanding the type of relationship existing between listening metacognitive strategy awareness and EFL students' aural skill constitutes also another way of intervention to overcome listening comprehension difficulties and

enhance this skill among EFL students. As our study deals with the University context, it seems necessary to mention that in Algeria, learners are taught English for seven years (07) before reaching higher education. During that period of time, they follow a curriculum developed for instructing the target languages which covers receptive skills and the productive ones. Yet, the listening skill constituting the concern of this study seems to be attributed less attention as students face difficulties at the university level. Therefore, I refer in this investigation to my personal experience as a learner then, as a student and later as a teacher at the University.

As a learner, I noticed that the listening skill is marginalized and almost ignored at the level of both middle and high school. Many of the learners with whom I studied in the middle school encountered more difficulties in listening and speaking than in reading and writing. This may be due to the kind of instruction received. The type of instruction delivered concentrated mainly on developing reading and writing skills and a little bit of speaking whereas the listening skill was put aside. The teachers focused principally on enriching pupils' vocabulary through reading and developing their writing via the correct production of what has been learnt. Regarding the speaking skill, though few discussions took place in class, which were restricted to short dialogues, the teacher insisted on the correct pronunciation of words. Concerning listening, the input was limited to the teacher's speech, and the pupils' listening skill was restricted to the instructor's voice.

Similarly, at high school, the major focus in English instruction was on reading and writing while a small degree of attention was devoted to speaking. Indeed, the syllabus assigned at this level put emphasis on reading long texts and comprehending the questions related to them. It focused also on developing pupils' writing skill via promoting the production of pieces of connected speech. As far as the speaking skill is concerned, the latter was almost neglected as

learners had limited opportunity to answer the comprehension questions of the text assigned to them. Concerning listening skill instruction, it was totally neglected and the only source of oral input was restricted to the English teacher who was expected to follow the syllabus, explain the lesson and provide clarifications when necessary.

Reaching the university after seven years of English language learning, students, who have chosen to specialize in the English field, find themselves confronted to a multitude of difficulties hindering their understanding when attending different modules lectured in the English language. In other words, they find it difficult to understand what teachers are saying to them in English as they do not have enough command of the English language rules besides their lack of vocabulary. In fact, in the process of explaining the lesson, teachers tend to switch from one idea to another or reformulate ideas via the use of certain devices such as connectors, coordinating conjunctions and discourse markers which enable them to clarify ideas. However, instead of getting clarifications, low level students find themselves sinking in the process of decoding what has been transmitted and get the feeling that everything is rushing. Consequently, if teachers do not attempt to bring those low level students to the level of their peers by raising their awareness to some strategies facilitating learners' interest, motivation and self-confidence, students' interest in learning will disappear with time till it vanishes; likewise, the purposes assigned to teaching will fail to be fulfilled.

In addition to what was stated, listening difficulties facing Algerian EFL students had been addressed recently in few master dissertations (Belouadne, 2015; Medoukali, 2015 and Kazouz, 2015).) where the researchers underlined the necessity to find solutions that would help less effective learners to comprehend better the aural messages received in the target language. There exists other reasons lying behind the present research which are summarized in the rationale.

## ***Rationale***

Throughout my modest experience as a teacher of oral and listening comprehension module at the English department of the University of Algiers<sup>2</sup>, one thing that stroke my attention is the fact that though the teaching taking place in the laboratories is meant to enhance students' ability to listen and speak, it is focused mainly on testing their listening to oral discourse and answering comprehension questions based upon the information received rather than teaching them strategies for learning how to process, comprehend, and react to spoken language easily and confidently. The listening instruction provided failed to include the strategies that help less-effective learners to follow with confidence and without any anxiety. As a consequence, a feeling of boredom and demotivation is settled with time among the students leading to the failure of the teaching objectives. Therefore, an urgent need to raise EFL learners' awareness about strategies as useful means to improve their listening skill is highly recommended.

Moreover, with reference to the literature review on listening comprehension, it is underlined that EFL learners want to be able to understand what people are saying to them in English either face-to-face, on TV or on the radio. However, this is not easy since "the way people speak is often significantly different from the way they write" (Harmer, 2007:133). Besides, foreign language learners find themselves confronted to a multitude of difficulties hindering their understanding of the oral input.

Next, as the listening skill is considered as a very complex and highly demanding activity (Vandergrift, 1999), it involves an ongoing problem solving processing to construct meaning. Some potential listening comprehension problems were tackled by scholars such as Underwood 1989; Rubin 1994, Goh 2000, Hamouda 2013 and Walker 2014. These listening problems are generally

associated with text characteristics, interlocutor characteristics, task characteristics, listener characteristics and process characteristics.

Additionally, many learners may feel anxious about listening to a foreign language because of difficulties presented by the text, and partly because learners have unrealistic expectations that they need to understand every word. Accordingly, Horwitz et al (1986: 128) as cited in Dörnyei (2001:364) attributed anxiety to various sources namely communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation and test anxiety. According to them, foreign language anxiety consists of “Self perception, beliefs, feelings and behaviour related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process”.

Besides these reasons, in EFL classes, there exists a tendency to put a great emphasis on teaching speaking, writing and reading skills disregarding the development of the listening skill which is not appropriately taught but tested. In this respect Trillo (2006:194) asserts: “Teachers and learners of a language tend to concentrate on the acquisition of the grammatical and lexical elements that enable communication”. However, this focus seems to disregard the listening skill which can develop faster in comparison to the speaking skill and often can have an effect in the development of reading and writing abilities in learning a new language (Scarcella and Oxford, 1992; Oxford, 1993). Besides, “one receives input through listening to instructions or explanations prior to responding orally or in writing” (Karbalaei et al, 2013:115). Therefore, an urgent need to raise EFL learners’ awareness about the importance of developing aural competence and listening strategies use in particular to learn the target language is required.

Finally, to my knowledge, the investigations undertaken in Algeria in relation with the listening skill are quite few. They are master dissertations focused on studying EFL learners’ listening comprehension difficulties and problems (Beloudnine, 2015; Medoukali, 2015 and Kazouz, 2015). The ones that

were conducted in Algiers were restricted to two studies. The first one explored the relationship between lexical knowledge and listening comprehension (Talbi, 2007). The second research examined note taking strategies in lectures (Missoum, 2008). Consequently, it seems that no study at this level has been conducted as far as metacognitive strategy instruction in listening comprehension is concerned in the Algerian context, a call for investigating this aspect is felt necessary to find out the real problems facing EFL learners as well as the potential strategies helping them to improve their listening capacities. This can be put into concrete form on the basis of previous studies carried out in this field.

For all these reasons, the present study focuses on listening metacognitive strategies putting aside cognitive and socio-affective strategies as it is difficult to address all of them in this study. In other words, this research attempts to find answer to some issues relating to student's use of listening metacognitive strategies such as problem solving, planning and evaluation, mental translation, personal knowledge and direct attention. This study also explores the effect of awareness-raising instruction about metacognitive strategies on developing Algerian EFL learners' listening skill. In this framework the following major question stands out:

- What is the effect of consciousness-raising instruction about metacognitive strategies on Algerian EFL students' listening comprehension skill?

Likewise, taking this principal question as a starting point to reach the objectives of the investigation, the researcher in the present study aims at obtaining answers that would help in improving students' listening skill via:

- Uncovering the strategies frequently used in listening comprehension and understanding the level of awareness about listening metacognitive strategies among the Algerian EFL students.

- Understanding the type of relationship existing between listening metacognitive strategy awareness and EFL learners' aural skill.
- Exploring EFL learners' use of metacognitive strategies in listening and investigating the effect of consciousness-raising instruction about those patterns on Algerian EFL students' listening comprehension outcome.

### ***Research Questions and Hypotheses***

In accordance with the three aforementioned objectives, three sub-questions, which are explained and discussed in the practical part (see 4.1.2), should be raised. These include the following:

- What are the listening strategies used by Algerian EFL students under study and to what extent are they aware of the listening processes used to achieve listening comprehension?
- Is there a relationship between metacognitive strategy awareness-raising instruction and students' performance in listening? Putting it differently, do students who score higher in the Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ) perform better in the listening test than those who score low?
- Does listening metacognitive strategy instruction, considered in this study, increase Algerian students' listening comprehension skill? Particularly, how well does the experimental group do before and after treatment as compared to the control one?

With reference to the three research questions above mentioned, three hypotheses stand out requiring confirmation or rejection by the end of the study.

**Hypothesis 1-** Algerian EFL learners are aware of the listening processes used to achieve listening comprehension.

**Hypothesis 2-** There exists a relationship between metacognitive strategy instruction and learners' listening outcome.

**Hypothesis 3-** Metacognitive strategy awareness-raising instruction enhances students' listening comprehension.

Regarding the first hypothesis, the investigator expected that consciousness-raising instruction as far as listening metacognitive strategies are concerned would affect positively Algerian EFL learners' aural skill. More precisely, from the review of the literature realised in this context (Mendelsohn 1994, 1995, 2001; Rubin and Thompson's 1994; Ur 1996), the researcher expected that the learners would show some awareness about some learning strategies acquired from their learning experience. The researcher assumed also that the strategies used are not enough to help overcoming listening difficulties; otherwise, the issue of listening difficulty would not have been raised at all if students had had wide knowledge about listening metacognitive strategies,.

Concerning the second hypothesis, the researcher expected that a tight link would exist to correlate between listening metacognitive strategy instruction and the learners' performance based on the assumption that high scores are a reflection of the instruction received in that matter. Likewise, students' test scores would reflect their knowledge about metacognitive strategies or their ignorance as far as these devices are concerned.

As far as the third hypothesis is concerned, the researcher sought to find positive results from the treatment with metacognitive strategies in terms of enhancing learners' listening comprehension. This hypothesis is formed on the basis of previous empirical studies in listening strategy training undertaken in this context by many scholars such as Rubin 1988 ; O'Malley et al 1989 ; Bacon 1991 ; Thompson and Rubin 1996 ; Vandergrift 1996 ; Goh 1997 ; Goh 2002a ; Vandetrgrift 2003b ; Goh and Taib 2006 ; Graham and Macaro 2008 ;

Vandergrift and Tafaghodtari 2010; Coşkun 2010, Bozorgian and Alamdari 2013, and Goh and Hu 2013. In fact, the results yielded from these studies have demonstrated the positive impact of strategy instruction on facilitating L2 listening.

Therefore, with the perspective to find answers to the aforementioned issues and with the intention to confirm or reject the hypotheses previously established, a longitudinal case study was carried out. The research developed during the academic years 2012-2013 and 2013-2014 lasted approximately eighteen (18) months, during which twenty six (26) metacognitive instructional sessions adopting Vandergrift's instructional framework were implemented; moreover, a mixed methods analysis; i.e, quantitative and qualitative, was adopted. The choice of a mixed methods research is to reach the ultimate goal of the study. To put it differently, the use of this research method helps in gaining insight into the effect of awareness-raising instruction about listening metacognitive strategies namely problem solving, planning and evaluation, mental translation, personal knowledge and direct attention, on the Algerian learners by testing the hypotheses already set and interpreting the results of the data collected via various tools. The latter include two written tests (a pre-test and a post test); retrospective interviews; think-aloud protocols; a questionnaire (comprising two parts: a background questionnaire and a Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire) as well as learners' diaries. This objective could have been realised by restricting the analysis to the use of quantitative method only; nevertheless, the use of qualitative methodology was necessary to complete what quantitative study could not reach. Consequently, the researcher made this choice purposefully out of a deep belief that the use of a variety of data sources and research methods would not only enrich the study but would also help in corroborating the findings.

In order to accomplish this investigation, Vandergrift's instructional framework (Vandergrift 2006; Vandergrift and Tafaghodtari 2010, Vandergrift and Goh 2012) was implemented. The research involved one hundred (100) English graduate informants belonging respectively to first and second years LMD. The researcher made use of a combination of multiple research instruments aforementioned. The reason lying behind using diverse research tools is to overcome the limitations of each one of them and to enhance validity (Goh, 2000; Hamman et al 2000; Chamot et al 1992; Chamot 1993; White 1995; White 1999; Vandergrift 2006; Vandergrift and Tafaghodtari 2010). Regarding the data collected from diverse research instruments, they were analysed quantitatively and qualitatively.

### ***Significance of the Study***

As concerns the significance of the study, the latter lies in the fact that it adds to the growing body of research investigating the effect of strategy awareness-raising instruction on EFL and ESL students' listening comprehension in general. It can also be considered as a reference to other researchers to start investigation tackling the same topic or dealing with the aspects previously mentioned that this survey could not explore. Therefore, by making use of both quantitative and qualitative approaches, this study examines the effect of metacognitive strategy instruction on Algerian EFL learners' listening performance more thoroughly. This research provides empirical evidence that EFL learners facing listening comprehension difficulties may benefit from metacognitive strategy use efficiently if they receive an appropriate treatment in that sense. They may even extend their metacognitive strategy use to reach not only listening as a skill but other skills which are crucial to language learning such as reading, writing and speaking.

This research also provides valuable insights into the Algerian university students' perception and practices of listening strategies and the change that may occur in their way of handling the learning tasks. Furthermore, by exploring the effect of metacognitive strategy training on students' listening skill, this study may provide EFL program professionals with a better understanding of how EFL students process listening input. Likewise, this investigation may offer suggestions to language teachers, who are concerned with developing EFL learners' listening skill, to review their method of teaching by involving students in consciousness-raising tasks helping them to overcome their listening obstacles as well as empowering learners with strategies helping them to learn both inside and outside the academic contexts.

### ***Structure of the Thesis***

Accordingly, this piece of research is divided into two major parts including a theoretical part and an empirical one. Each part comprises three chapters. Regarding the first part, chapter one is devoted to the overview of the listening comprehension skill. It is divided into three chapters exploring respectively the nature of second language listening and the principles that can be adopted to develop this receptive skill, language learning strategies as well as listening metacognitive instruction. That is to say, the first chapter is devoted to research listening throughout history (see 1.1), understanding the concept of listening (see 1.2), its importance (see 1.3) and types (see 1.4). This chapter also seeks to discover the processes involved in the listening skill (see 1.5) as well as the barriers standing against learning (see 1.6). Contrasting spoken and written languages (see 1.7) is also addressed in chapter one as there is a great difference between receptive skills and productive ones. The second chapter tackles the elements related to language learning strategies (see 2.2) namely the diverse definitions allotted to this concept (see 2.2.1); the taxonomies related to strategies

(see 2.2.2); cognition and metacognition (see 2.6), Flavell's metacognitive model (see 2.7) and classification of metacognitive strategies (see 2.8). The third and last chapter deals with metacognitive instruction in listening. In this context it is necessary to mention that instruction in this study refers to strategy training about listening metacognitive strategies (see 3.1.1). Accordingly, this chapter addresses the reasons for teaching strategies (see 3.1), frameworks of teaching (see 3.2) and looks at issues in listening instruction (see 3.3). The empirical studies developed in this field (see 3.4) are also reviewed in addition to some instructional models (see 3.5). The third chapter concludes Vandergrift's cognitive pedagogical sequence (see 3.6) which is adopted in the present study.

As concerns the second part related to practice, the fourth chapter is devoted to the methodology adopted in the investigation. Thus, it presents the research method (see 4.1) explaining the use of a mixed method research and its relation with the research questions. The research design (see 4.2) including the participating informants and the tools implemented as well as the steps undertaken to investigate the effect of consciousness-raising tasks about listening metacognitive strategies on developing Algerian EFL learners' aural skill is also dealt with. A number of justifications are put forward to explain the choice of the subjects, the procedure of investigation as well as the tools implemented. This chapter ends with an explanation of the method of data analysis (see 4.3).

The fifth chapter is concerned with the results obtained from the study. In this context, the data collected by the research tools aforementioned are analysed and presented as follows. First, an analysis of Pre and post tests scores is set out (see 5.1). Second, an analysis of pre and post oral tests is exhibited (see 5.2). Third, the MALQ questionnaire results before and after intervention are put forward (see 5.3). Finally, EFL students' diaries are analysed followed by explanation and interpretation (see 5.4).

The last chapter (chapter six) is concerned with the analysis and discussion (see 6.1) of the research findings of the data, obtained via various streams (tests, interviews MALQ questionnaire, diaries and think- aloud protocols), in the light of existing research studies. Moreover, it states the implications and possible recommendations for further research (see 6.2).

Finally, the present research ends with the general conclusion in which a recapitulation of all that has been dealt with is presented including answers to the issues and hypotheses raised at the beginning of the research. These answers are in fact empirical evidence that awareness-raising instruction about metacognitive strategies empowers learners and makes them autonomous individuals able to face learning problems confidently. Learners who are equipped with these facilitative devices may even extend their strategy use to reach not only listening as a skill but other skills which are crucial to language learning such as reading, writing as well as speaking. The general conclusion encompasses also the constraints faced throughout the study which prevented the researcher from gaining more desired results.

## **CHAPTER ONE**

### **THE NATURE OF THE LISTENING SKILL**

#### **Introduction**

For many years, listening skills was denied priority in language teaching. It was assumed that listening in a second language could be acquired through exposure to authentic language but not explicitly taught. Thus, instructional methods were mainly focused on productive skills. It was only until recently that this stand has changed to be substituted by an active interest in instructing listening comprehension skills as its role is at the heart of second language acquisition.

Therefore, with the perspective to develop appropriate approaches to teaching listening skills, it is first necessary to understand the nature of the latter. Accordingly, this chapter devoted to the overview of the background of listening comprehension is divided into seven sections exploring the nature of second language listening and the principles that can be adopted to develop this receptive skill. Thus, section one is devoted to research listening throughout history (see 1.1.1) by reviewing the main approaches to language teaching developed over the years. Viewing the diverse definitions attributed to listening and fixing the difference existing between hearing and listening is dealt with in the second section. The third and fourth sections tackle the importance of listening and its types. Regarding the processes involved in listening, the diverse obstacles hindering learner's understanding of the acoustic discourse and the contrast existing between spoken and written tasks are all discussed in sections five, six and seven respectively.

## **1.1- Research into Listening**

Listening comprehension is the most common activity in our daily life. It is also crucial for obtaining comprehensible input that is required for language learning. Thus, in order to get insight into the listening skill, its historical overview is addressed by looking at the main approaches that have been developed in language teaching over the years and the place of listening in these approaches. The latter include grammar-translation, direct-method, grammar-based, audio-lingual, discrete-item, communicative, task-based, learner-strategy and integrated approaches. Moreover, the definition of listening, the importance of this skill and its types are considered (see 1.2; 1.3 and 1.4). Likewise, the issues related to listening processing (see 1.5), the difficulties facing EFL learners while listening to verbal discourse (see 1.6) as well as the difference between spoken and written languages (see 1.7) are tackled. Accordingly, all what has been stated will be presented in the subsections forthcoming.

### ***1.1.1- Historical Overview***

Before reaching the actual state, listening comprehension had long been regarded as a passive skill and had been treated as “the Cinderella” (Flowerdew and Miller, 2005: xi with reference to Nunan 2002:238) of the other skills: speaking, reading and writing. Researchers also considered listening as an ability that would develop without assistance. It had undergone in the past few decades many changes with the diverse teaching approaches developed over the years.

Indeed, arguments for listening comprehension began to be voiced in the mid- 1960’s by Rivers who has been “long an advocate for listening comprehension” (Morley, 2001: 70). The latter, had enough foresight to say that “speaking does not of itself constitute communication unless what is being said is comprehended by another person” (Rivers, 1966: 196) and that “teaching the

comprehension of spoken speeches is therefore of primary importance if the aim of communication is to be reached” (ibid: 204).

Then, gradually, more attention has been devoted to listening comprehension. In the 1970’s, the status of the latter began to change from being incidental and peripheral to a status of central importance mainly after the emergence of Krashen’s input hypothesis (1981). Instructional programs expanded their focus on pragmatic skills to include listening as well as reading, writing and speaking. During the 1980’s as researchers became increasingly interested in exploring the intricacies of this complex skill, more research, theory building and curriculum development on listening were realised. Throughout the 1990’s, attention to listening in language teaching increased and aural comprehension in second or foreign language acquisition became an important area of study.

In this framework, it is necessary to mention that most of the studies conducted on listening were concerned either with the product of this skill or its process. The ones that addressed the product of listening investigated the level of success in listening comprehension. A review of studies conducted in this context focussed mostly on listening tests such as listening cloze, gap filling activities, dictation and translation (Buck 1992, Hughes 1989). Yet, because product oriented studies did not provide details about listeners’ thinking processes, a shift towards the process of listening gained the attention of researchers such as Rubin 1988 ; O’Malley et al 1989 ; Bacon 1991 ; Thompson and Rubin 1996 ; Vandergrift 1996 ; Goh 1997 ; Goh 2002a ; Vandergrift 2003b ; Goh and Taib 2006 ; Graham and Macaro 2008 ; Vandergrift and Tafaghodtari 2010; Coşkun 2010, Bozorgian and Alamdari 2013, and Goh and Hu 2014). More details about the empirical studies concerned with the process of listening will be provided in section 3.4.

Listening is now considered as an active skill involving many processes however, much work remains to be done since this skill, as Byrnes (1984:318) characterises it, is a “highly complex problem solving activity that can be broken down into a set of distinct sub-skills”. In addition, Goh (1997: 161) stresses the fact that the research available on listening is insufficient comparing with other skills. She said in this respect: “there are fewer insights about the process of listening and the way it is learnt”. Similarly, Richards (1989: 189) stated that “there is little direct research on second language listening comprehension”.

Therefore, on the ground of what has been mentioned before and with the perspective to get insight into the different changes that this skill has undergone over time, a look at the main approaches that have been adopted to language teaching as well as the role of listening in these approaches are considered .

#### ***1.1.1.1- Approaches to Language Teaching and the Role of Listening***

In this sub-section, we briefly review the history of language teaching methods which reflect “the changes in the kind of recognition of proficiency learners need” (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 1). Therefore, all the approaches at this level are considered to have a great influence on the ways in which language has been taught. These approaches are related to the grammar- translation approach, the direct approach, the grammar approach, the audio-lingual approach, the communicative approach, the task-based approach, the learner strategy approach and the integrated approach.

##### ***a- The Grammar Translation Approach***

In this approach, John and Flowerdew (2005) viewed listening as “a set of finite rules that, once learnt, gave access to the language” (p 04). The major focus in this approach was primarily to learn the grammar of Latin and Greek

languages to be able to read their literature. In this regard, Richards and Rodgers (2005: 5-6 as cited by *ibid*) listed the components that made up a grammar-translation syllabus:

- The main goal of learning the language is to be able to read its literature;
- Reading and writing were the main focus;
- Vocabulary is taught through translation;
- The method focuses on translating sentences into and out of L2;
- Accuracy is important as all learning leads to an exam;
- Grammar is taught deductively;
- The L1 is the medium of instruction.

Therefore, according to the syllabus, it is evident that the listening skill was disregarded in this approach. In other words, the learning targeted via the grammar-translation approach was mainly focused on equipping learners with reading and writing skills that would enable them to understand Latin and Greek literature.

Indeed, learning goals related to listening in the grammar-translation approach were absent as “listening was not taught in language classes” (Flowerdew and Miller: 2005, 04). The only listening that learners had to experience was the one related to the description of second language (L2) rules through the use of first language (L1) as a medium of instruction. So the only goal of learning in this approach was to enable learners to attain a certain level in reading and translating Latin and Greek literature.

### ***b- The Direct Approach***

As a reaction to the grammar-translation approach, came the direct-method. The latter is also known as “the natural method or the conversational method” (John and Flowerdew, 2005: 4). The learning goals in listening in this approach were restricted to listening and answering questions. Besides, the L2

was the only medium of instruction used in the class by the teacher and the students. The draw-back to this method relies in the fact that it was founded on the idea that learners can best learn the target language via “osmosis” (Mendelson 1994 as cited in Flowerdew and Miller, 2005: 06). In other words, “the students could hear what was being said and that comprehension would follow later” (ibid). Likewise, as grammar was assumed to be learnt inductively, learners wasted time trying to find out rules for themselves.

### ***c- The Grammar Approach***

The grammar-approach appeared with the major listening aim to match patterns and to test listening ability rather than developing specific listening skill. This method is based on the idea that students can make sense of the spoken text once they analyze it and reconstruct its components. In Rost’s (1994: 35 as cited in Flowerdew and Miller, 2005: 06) terms: “in order to understand utterances, we must know how words and phrases are bound to each other”. However, this approach did not give opportunity to the learner to be an active part of the learning process. Therefore, it gave way to the emergence of another method of teaching.

### ***d- The Audio-Lingual Approach***

The Audio-lingual approach, which became wellknown in the 1960s and 1970s, “was generated by the US Defense Forces language programs during and after World War II” (Flowerdew and Miller, 2005: 08). The learning goals in connection with listening in this approach were focused on matching patterns, listening, imitating and memorizing. This method which relied on behaviourist views of learning, involved much drilling by making the learners listen to the pronunciation and grammatical forms first, then imitating those forms by way of exercises. The drawback attributed to this method was that students interacted

much less with humans than with machines. Besides, the major aim of this approach was not to develop listening strategies to learning but rather manipulating the structure of the target language.

#### ***e- The Discrete-Item Approach***

The audio-lingual approach led to the appearance of the discrete-item approach. As opposed to the former, this approach aimed at developing listening skill teaching via processing discrete –point of information namely vowels and consonant sounds as well as stress and tone. In other words, it “deals with the segmental and suprasegmental aspects of spoken text and their contextualization” (Flowerdew and Miller, 2005: 10). In this respect, Ur (1994) underlined the fact that students face difficulty in recognizing sounds in English as the latter may not be present in their native language. Therefore, she insists on the importance to make learners “achieve familiarity with common phonemes of the target language as soon as possible if he is to be an efficient listener” (Ur, 1994: 12 as cited in Flowerdew and Miller 2005: 10-11).

This approach is wellknown in tests administration and marking. However, it shows only the learners’ ability to recognize and produce individual items of the language. In other words, this approach does not provide evidence of the learners’ ability to use language in actual communication

#### ***f- The Communicative Language Teaching Approach***

Following the discrete-item approach, came a shift towards communicative language teaching (CLT) with “its twin stands of a focus on how language is used and on communicative activities” (Harmer, 2007: 58). As a matter of fact, this approach aimed at processing the spoken input for functional purposes by making the students listen to the spoken discourse and making use of

the input received to speak as well as completing the task at hands. However, in this approach there was no teaching of listening strategies.

#### ***g- The Task-Based Approach***

The task-based learning (TBL) approach came into existence taking communicative language teaching a little bit further by making learners “listen and carry out real tasks using the information” (Flowerdew and Miller 2005:14). In other words, students are asked in this approach to listen to authentic situations and to do something with the the information. For instance, they can transfer the spoken information to a graphic form by filling in a chart or drawing a picture. However, the drawback to this approach lies in the fact that it neglects listening strategy teaching and gives importance to “holistic inferential strategies” (Flowerdew and Miller 2005:14); ie, students are required to find their own way to retain the information so as to make use of it later.

#### ***h- The Learner-Strategy Approach***

It was only with the emergence of the learner-strategy approach that the listening skill started to gain some interest as far as strategy use is concerned. In fact, the major goal of this approach is to raise learners’ awareness of the listening skills by making the student an active part of the learning process via thinking and deciding on the best strategy that enables him/her to comprehend the acoustic input. Putting it differently, “the focus is on learners making decisions based on their own preferences concerning a learning task, rather than on the teacher making the decisions for them” (Flowerdew and Miller 2005:16). This does not imply giving them the total freedom, but the process of learning will be under the supervision of a trainer. This approach gained the support of various researchers such as Flavell (1979), Wenden (1991), Mendelson (1994) and Goh (1997).

### *i- The Integrated Approach*

Apart from carrying out real tasks using the input received, the integrated approach emerged to “develop listening as part of interactive communication; to develop critical listening, critical thinking, and effective speaking” (Flowerdew and Miller 2005:16). In other words, learners are expected not only to understand the verbal discourse but also to develop personal opinions expression about the ideas included in it. In fact, this approach is a kind of a melting pot in which all the previous approaches already tackled are involved. That is this approach encompasses the discrete-item approach, the grammar approach, the task-based approach and the learner strategy approach. In this regard, Flowerdew and Miller (2005: 19) gave a concise definition of each one of them as follows:

“a discrete-item-based approach when listening for the sounds or words; a grammar-based approach when completing close sentences or paragraphs; a task-based approach when all the exercises build on one another around a similar topic; and a strategy-based approach when asking students to think about how they listen and to generate hints on how to listen”

All in all, as stated previously, language teaching approaches did not acknowledge at the beginning the necessity to teach the listening skill, but through time, the need to consider it has become a serious issue which led to the emergence of various changes with different teaching approaches. These changes have taken place as a result of three main reasons (Field 1998). They include the change of focus from the product of listening to its process, the raise of concern to use authentic language in the language classroom and finally the raise of awareness of the importance of motivating learners to listen to the target language.

Indeed, Field (1998: 110-111) underlined the shift in approaching language teaching and mentioned three major reasons that led to this change:

“First, there has been a shift in perspective, so that listening as a skill takes priority over details of language content. Secondly, there has been a wish to relate the nature of listening practised in the classroom to the kind of listening that takes place in real life...Thirdly, we have become aware of the importance of providing motivation and a focus for listening”

However, listening comprehension as a skill to be learnt by L2/EFL learners did not and still does not receive the required value it deserves. In fact, in many countries, namely in Algeria where the research is conducted, though the listening skill is taught in the language laboratories, this area continues to be a field devoted to assess students’ ability to comprehend the spoken input instead of teaching them how to process the latter and transcend their listening problems. In other words, the focus is on the product of listening and there exists no attempt from the part of teachers to examine what has gone wrong with the listening process. Thus, the learners will find themselves using the same unsuccessful techniques when receiving the same listening task.

In this regard, Mendelson (2001: 35) calls for a shift from “focus on product to focus on process” by proposing a “strategy-based approach”, which teaches students how to listen better in a second or a foreign language via adopting a set of strategies. This idea has been supported by Field (1998) who proposes a ‘diagnostic approach’ allowing the gaps in the learners’ listening skills to be “examined and redressed through short micro-listening exercises” (as cited in Mendelson 2001: 36).

Accordingly, it is definitely obvious that teaching listening skill to EFL learners requires greater attention as it will equip students with strategies enabling them to overcome their listening comprehension difficulties. Therefore,

understanding the nature of the listening skill as well as undertaking investigations in this field is highly recommended.

To sum up, this section reviewed the literature addressing the major approaches that have developed in language teaching over the years. These approaches include the grammar- translation approach, the direct approach, the grammar approach, the audio-lingual approach, the communicative approach, the task-based approach, the learner strategy approach and the integrated approach. This overview will help in understanding the reason from implementing learner strategy approach in this study by making the student an active part of the learning process via thinking and deciding on the best strategy that enables him/her to comprehend the spoken message. That is, this section explained the necessity of the shift that took place from teacher-centred approach to learner-centred approach which constitutes the focus of the present research. Before tackling listening comprehension as a skill, it seems judicious to distinguish between hearing and listening. This distinction is set out in the section forthcoming.

## **1.2- The Nature of Hearing and Listening**

As mentioned in the literature review on listening instruction, it was only after 1970's that considerable changes in listening training took place, in which much broader understanding started to emerge including the very definition of listening itself. Indeed, until quite recently listening comprehension or "the Cinderella skill", as referred to by Nunan (2002: 238), won the interest of scholars and became a prerequisite for oral proficiency as well as an important skill in its own right. It is now "recognized as an important facet of language learning" (Morley, 2001: 69). Yet, before tackling the concept of listening and the diverse definitions allotted to it, the distinction between hearing and listening needs to be set out.

### ***1.2.1- Hearing versus Listening***

By examining the definitions attributed both to hearing and listening, we find that these two concepts differ from each other. In fact, Devito's definition of hearing as "a passive physiological process where vibrations impose on your eardrums and requires little effort from you" (1992: 54 as cited in McMurray et al 2004: 223) exhibits the features of hearing. The latter is presented as being passive, requiring no reflection from the part of the hearer. Besides, it is involuntary as the sounds are received without the hearer's will. Moreover, it is effortless as it does not require the hearer to furnish any energy to receive the signals of the acoustic message transmitted. This definition is sustained by The Oxford English dictionary where Little et al (1973 as cited in Coles, 2002: 22) define hearing as "the action of the faculty or sense by which sound is perceived". On the other hand, McMurray et al (2004: 223) define listening as:

"an active process requiring effort on your part to connect with another by interpreting their signals and messages. Active listening requires the most energy because it requires serious attention and concentration".

Therefore, with reference to this definition, some features of listening can be stated. First, listening is an active process, which implies that it requires lot of energy from the part of the listener to concentrate and receive the signals attentively. Second, listening needs a lot of effort from the listener to receive the transmitted message, decipher it and comprehend it. Finally, listening involves the will of the listener to give an ear and pay attention to the aural discourse transmitted. In Rost's terms, it is "a process that is triggered by our attention" (1994: 2). A definition of listening as it is presented in this framework is also supported by The Oxford English dictionary where Little et al (1973 as cited in Coles, 2002: 22) define hearing as "the action or act of listening [...] to hear attentively [...] to give ear to [...] to pay attention to [...] to make an effort to hear something".

Obviously, from the definitions outlined above it appears that differentiating the concepts of listening and hearing constitutes an important step in discussing the features of the latter. Moreover, the ambiguity that was covering the issue existing between hearing and listening has been cleared up. Consequently, the rest of the discussion will be devoted to listening mainly as the present study focuses principally on developing this skill via metacognitive strategy instruction.

### ***1.2.2- Listening Definitions***

Indeed, on the basis of the previous researches undertaken by many scholars acting in this field, listening has been presented as an active skill in which listeners are no more “empty vessels waiting to be filled” (Thornbury, 2008: 38), but it plays a very active and important role in constructing the meaning of the spoken input. Accordingly, this skill has been attributed various definitions (Howatt 1974, Willis and Rivers 1981, Pearson 1983, Hirsch 1986, O’malley 1989; Lund 1990, Wolvin and Coakley and Morley 1991, Fan Yagang 1994, Rubin 1995, Purdy, Vandergrift and Underwood 1999, Rost 2005, and Cook 2008) which will be briefly summarized as follows:

Rost (2005: 503) highlights the complexity of the listening process and underlines the active role in which the listener is involved. According to him, “listening refers to a complex cognitive process that allows a person to understand spoken language”. Besides, Cook (2008: 131) characterises the processing of listening skill as the work of a cryptographer “working out an unknown code from an intercepted message”. Another functional definition is set out by Howatt and Dakin (1974) who define listening as “the ability to identify and understand what others are saying. This involves understanding a speaker’s accent or pronunciation, his grammar and his vocabulary, and grasping his meaning”. This definition is adopted by Fan Yagang (1994: 189) who emphasises the necessity for a listener to master the language features. According

to this scholar, “an able listener is capable of doing these four things simultaneously”.

Other definitions of listening were suggested by Willis (1981) and Hirsch (1986) who were mainly concerned with the characteristics of the listening skill. For instance, Willis (1981: 134) on her part lists a series of micro-skills of listening which she calls “enabling skills”. These include: predicting what people are going to talk about; guessing at unknown words; using previous knowledge; summarising; recognising discourse markers; recognising cohesive devices; understanding different intonation patterns; and understanding inferred information. In the same stream, Hirsch (1986) enumerates the diverse aspects that listening involves namely “neurological responses and interpretations of sounds to understand and to give meaning by reacting, selecting meaning, remembering, attending, analysing and including previous experience.”

In addition to the features characterising the listening skill, other researchers (Lund 1990; Rivers 1981; Wolvin and Coakley 1991 and Morley 1991) concentrated, in their definition, on highlighting the importance and the complexity of this receptive skill. For example, Lund (1990) presents listening as more than just hearing but rather a highly complex, interactive process that has been defined as “the process by which spoken language is converted to meaning in the mind”. As this definition suggests, listening is more than just hearing”. Rivers (1981) on her part highlights the importance of listening in learning any foreign language. According to her, “it helps the Learner to acquire competence in language and he can exhibit his competence if he is communicating at school, at work or in the community”. Wolvin and Coakley (1991) insist that “listening was regarded as a crucial element for communication at work at any level for employment, job success, and general career competence and for effective relationship between supervisor and subordinates”. According to these scholars, listening attentively plays a crucial role in professional life as it requires lot of efforts to understand and analyse what is intended from the spoken message.

Regarding Morley (1991: 82), he emphasised the importance of listening as a receptive skill and sees that its complexity should be underlined. According to him, “we can expect to listen twice as much as we speak, four times more than we read, and five times more than we write”. He states also that “despite the recognition of the critical role that listening skills play in communication and acquisition of language, it remains one of the least understood skills in language learning.”

Besides what has been mentioned concerning the complexity of listening, this skill was attributed diverse functional definitions. For instance, Pearson (1983) states that “listening involves the simultaneous organization and combination of skills in phonology, syntax, semantics, and knowledge of the text structure, all of which seem to be controlled by the cognitive process. Thus it can be said that though not fully realised, listening skill is essential in acquiring language proficiency”. Another useful definition is offered by O’Malley et al (1989: 434). According to them, “listening comprehension is an active and conscious process in which the listener constructs meaning by using cues from contextual information and from existing knowledge, while relying upon multiple strategic resources to fulfill the task requirement”. Rubin (1995: 7) also gives another definition to listening comprehension in which he stresses the active aspect of this skill. The latter is presented as “an active process in which listeners select and interpret information that comes from auditory and visual clues”. Purdy (1997: 8) joins Rubin in this characterisation and presents listening as “the active and dynamic process of attending, perceiving, interpreting, remembering and responding to the expressed (verbal and non verbal) needs, concerns and information offered by other human beings”.

Furthermore, Vandergrift (1999) and Underwood (1999), Chamot (1995) underlined the complexity of this aural skill. Indeed, Vandergrift (1999) holds the view that listening comprehension is

“a complex, active process in which the listener must discriminate between sounds, understands vocabulary and grammatical structure, interpret stress and intonation, retain what was gathered in all the above, and interpret it within the immediate as well as the larger social and cultural context of the utterance. Coordinating all of this involves a great deal of mental activity from the part of the listener”

Vandergrift, 1999: 168

In the same context, Underwood (1999: 13) defines listening as “the activity of paying attention to and trying to get information from something we hear. To listen successfully, we need to be able to work out what speakers mean when they use particular words in particular ways on particular occasions and not simply to understand the words themselves”. Chamot (1995: 16) further explains the concept of listening as a cognitive process in term of stages where the aural information “is filtered through the listener’s short- term memory, working memory and long term memory”.

From the above discussion, listening comprehension emerges as a complex and active skill which requires to be studied and attributed the importance it deserves in L2/EFL teaching. Therefore, this idea will be thoroughly expanded in the section forthcoming.

### **1.3-The Importance of Listening**

The crucial role that the listening skill plays in the educational process and in our daily life has been emphasised by many scholars (Krashen 1982, 1985; Oxford 1993; Rost 1990 and Rubin 1995). As far as the instructional field is concerned, for instance, Oxford (1993: 205) stressed the importance of this receptive skill and argued that “listening is perhaps the most fundamental language skill”. According to her, the development of learning can not take place without listening.

Moreover, research suggests that there is no output from the part of the learners unless there exists a comprehensible input (Krashen 1982, 1985). Therefore, learners attempting to acquire a second language are required to pay great attention to listening to the target language, which is not an easy task. According to Rubin (1995: 08), for second language/foreign language learners, listening constitutes “the skill that makes the heaviest processing demands because learners must store information in short term memory at the same time as they are working to understand the information”. Likewise, Rubin explained, “Whereas in reading learners can go over the text at leisure, they generally do not have the opportunity to do so in listening”.

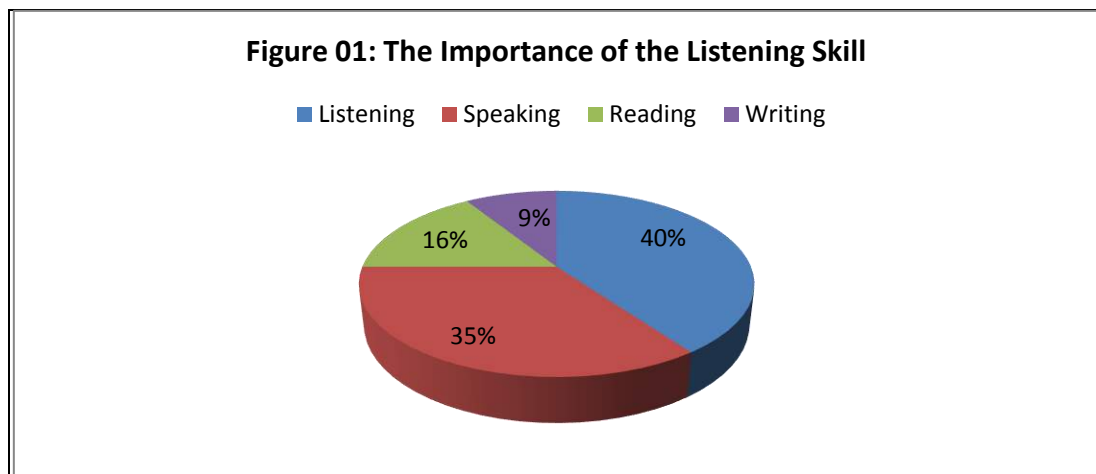
The importance of this aural skill has also been emphasised by Rost (1991: 141 -142). ) who summarised the importance of listening in developing second language learning proficiency as follows:

1. Listening is vital in the language classroom because it provides input for the learner. Without understanding input at the right level, any learning simply cannot begin.
2. Authentic spoken language presents a challenge for the learner to understand language as native speakers actually use it.
3. Listening exercises provide teachers with a means for drawing learners’ attention to new forms (vocabulary, grammar, new interaction patterns) in the language.

In other words, listening as a skill is vital for the development of any foreign language learning. It constitutes the source from which the learner can retrieve vocabulary, the language system and the structures native speakers actually use. Therefore, teaching this skill in the language classroom should be targeted to achieve second language proficiency.

Continuing with the importance of listening, Burley –Allen (1995: 2) underlined the crucial role of this skill in our daily life on the ground of statistical calculations (see figure 01 forthcoming). According to him, the largest portion (40%) of our daily communication is devoted to listening, with thirty five (35%)

being dedicated to speaking, sixteen (16%) is devoted to reading and only nine (09%) is occupied by writing.



From what had been addressed, it appears that scholars agree upon the fact that listening is a crucial skill for the development of language proficiency. This skill with its diverse types requires to be attributed the necessary consideration from the researchers acting in the field of listening comprehension. Thus, listening classification will be discussed in the next section.

#### **1.4- Types of listening**

In the field of listening, researchers (Wolvin and Coakley 1996; Brown 2004; Harmer 2007 and Nation and Newton 2009) differ in their way of setting out types of listening. These types are classified according to a number of variables namely the purpose for listening, the role of the listener and the type of text being listened to.

In fact, Wolvin and Coakley (1996:152-154) defined listening as “the process of receiving, attending to and assigning meaning to aural and visual stimuli”. Their taxonomy of listening “describes how listeners function at various listening purposes or levels” (ibid: 151). The taxonomy distinguishes five types of listening that are represented graphically in the form of a tree (in which

discriminative listening stands in the roots while the comprehensive one is at the trunk position. The three remaining types, i.e., therapeutic, critical and appreciative listening, form the branches of the listening tree. These five types are explained in the following. According to Wolvin and Coakley (1996):

- ***Discriminative listening*** is when the listener distinguishes between the auditory and/or the visual stimuli in order to interpret them meaningfully.
- ***Comprehensive listening*** requires the listener to pay attention to understand a message and remember important information.
- ***Appreciative listening*** is the process of listening for pleasure or enjoyment.
- ***Therapeutic listening*** is the ability to listen to the speaker not only to empathize with him/her but also to help him/her understand, change or develop in some way.
- ***Critical listening*** is the process of listening critically to a message with the intention to make evaluations or judgments.

In addition to the aforementioned classification, Brown (2004) identified four basic types of listening performance encompassing respectively “intensive listening, responsive listening, selective listening and extensive listening” (ibid: 104). This classification is based on the objective expected from listening. According to this scholar, listening objectives include:

- “Comprehending of surface structure elements such as phonemes, words, intonation, or a grammatical category.
- Understanding of pragmatic context.
- Determining meaning of auditory input
- Developing the gist, a global or comprehensive understanding”.

(Brown, 2004: 120)

In the same stream of listening type categorisation, Harmer (2007: 134) made a distinction between “intensive listening and extensive listening”. According to him students can improve their listening capacities through the combination of extensive and intensive listening materials and procedures.

- ***Extensive Listening:*** This type of aural skill is according to Harmer (2007: 228) “it usually takes place outside the classroom, in the students’ home, car or on personal stereos as they travel from one place to another”.
- ***Intensive Listening:*** It is different from extensive listening in that “it usually takes place in classrooms or language laboratories...” (Harmer, 2007, 134).

Nation and Newton (2009: 40) also divided listening into two broad types namely “one-way listening and two-way listening”. This division is based principally on the distinction existing between traditional views of listening from the contemporary views. According to them, the first one referring to “transactional listening” (Brown and Yule, 1983a: 01) is associated with the transmission of information. This can be witnessed in “the extensive use of monologues in older listening materials”. Concerning the two-way listening, which is called also “interactional listening” (Brown and Yule, 1983a: 01), it is associated with social relations maintenance as it occurs in our everyday interactions.

All in all, though researchers acting in the field of listening differ in their classification of this skill, they all agree on the vital role of listening comprehension in developing second or foreign language proficiency. This comprehension is activated via various processes which will be explained in the following section.

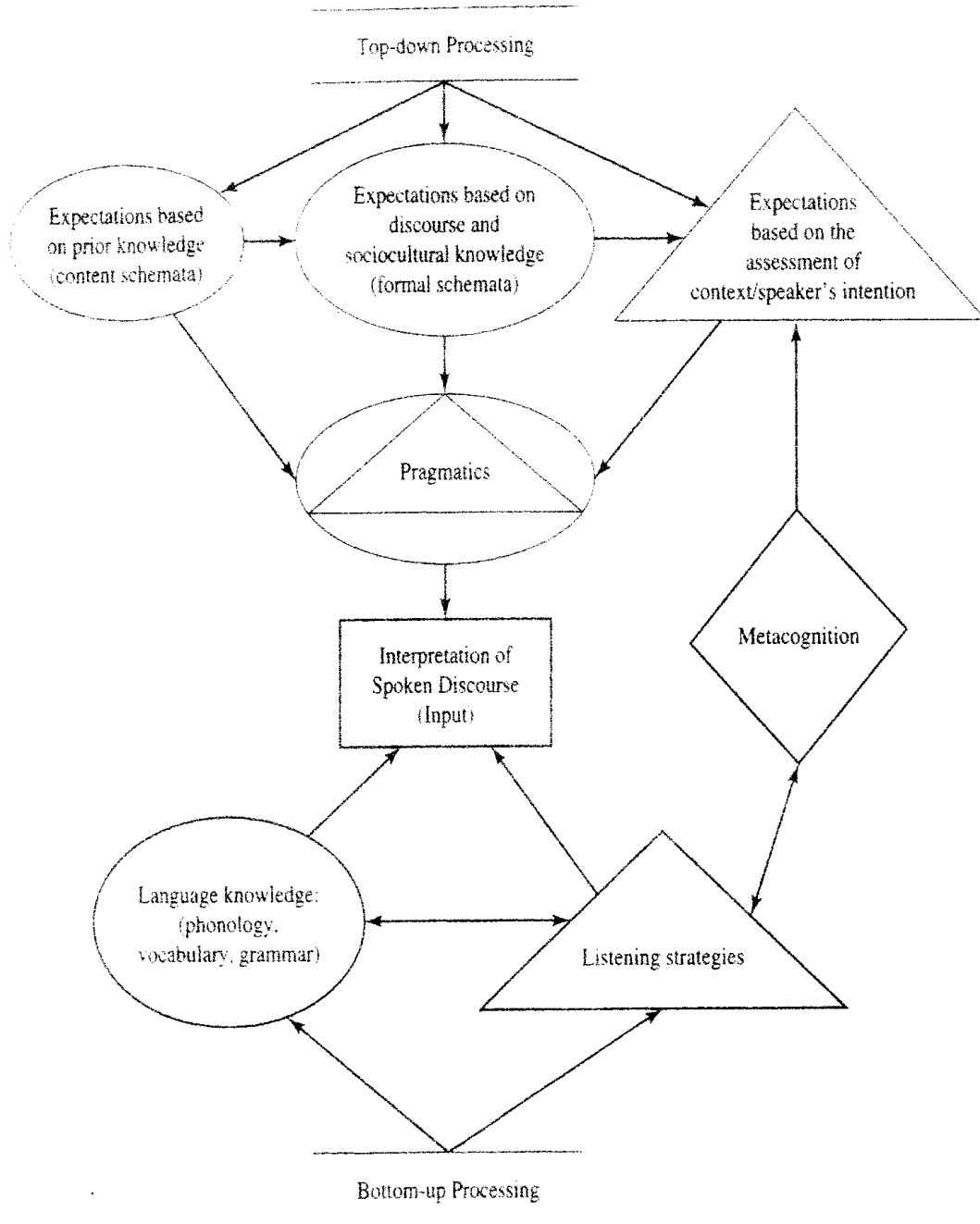
## **1.5- Processes in L2/EFL Listening Comprehension**

On the basis of what has been discussed previously, listening appears as a crucial means of acquiring a second or a foreign language. It represents the means through which the learner processes language in order to decipher the spoken message transmitted and respond accordingly. Therefore, explaining what is meant by comprehension and shedding light on the processes that the listener goes through is essential.

In fact, processing aural input for comprehension requires learners to relate the incoming information in real time to what they already know. In this context, it is judicious to highlight the key term “input” which is used to describe “the incoming speech signals that listeners hear, and from which they select cues in order to construct a mental model of the speaker’s message” (Anderson and Lynch 1988: 34). The latter is directly linked to Krashen’s (1981, 1985) “comprehensible input hypothesis”. Comprehension for him is “at the heart of language acquisition” as we acquire by “understanding language that is a bit beyond our current level of competence” (ibid, 1981: p 102 as cited in Anderson et al, 1988). Thus, comprehension occurs by progressing from the current level “i” to the next stage “i+1” and only if “the learner’s affective filters are low enough to allow the input ‘in’” (ibid, 1985: 04). Precisely, according to Krashen, input alone is insufficient for acquisition to take place. It requires learners to be motivated, self-confident and calm (Krashen, 1985: 03).

Remaining in the same context of processing input for comprehension, researches on listening strategies undertaken by a lot of scholars (Chaudron and Richards 1986; Celce-Murcia and Olshtain 2000; Mendelson 2001; Brown 2006 and Vandergrift 2004) refer to two types of processes that learners make use of to extract meaning from an aural input: “bottom up and top down processing” (see figure 02: p 37). The interaction between these two processes is crucial to the speech reception. Though both processes come into play during the process

of L2 listening comprehension, the degree of utilisation of one process more than another depends on the purpose of listening.



**Figure02:** Speech Reception Framework (adapted from Celce-Murcia and Olshtain 2000:104)

Concerning the bottom-up processing, listeners use their linguistic knowledge of sounds and word forms and build up to more complex lexical items and grammatical relationships to comprehend the input. In other words, bottom-up processing “involves segmentation of the sound stream into meaningful units to interpret the message” (Vandergrift and Goh, 2012: 18). In this context, (Morley, 2001: 73) refers to it as “that part of the aural comprehension process in which the understanding of the heard language is worked out proceeding from sounds to words to grammatical relationships to lexical meanings”. Besides, Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000: 103) acknowledge that the bottom-up aspect of the listening process “involves prior knowledge of the system; i.e., phonology, grammar and vocabulary”.

In the same context, Vandergrift (2004: 4) mentions that listeners use bottom-up processes “when they construct meaning by accretion, gradually combining increasingly larger units of meaning from the phoneme-level up to discourse-level features”. Moreover, Brown (2006: 02) states that “Bottom-up processing means using the information we have about sounds, word meanings, and discourse markers like first, then and after that to assemble our understanding of what we read or hear one step at a time”.

Regarding the top-down processing, the latter involves the listeners’ capacity to make use of his/her prior knowledge to predict the sense of the incoming message. That is, “Top-down means using our prior knowledge and experiences; we know certain things about certain topics and situations and use that information to understand” (Brown, 2006: 02). Likewise, Chaudron and Richards (1986: 11-115) note “top-down processing involves prediction and inferencing on the basis of hierarchies of facts, propositions, and expectations, and it enables the listener or the reader to bypass some aspects of bottom-up processing”. In the same stretch of speech, Vandergrift (2004: 04) mentions that listeners employ top-down processes “when they use context and prior

knowledge (topic, genre, culture and other schema knowledge in long-term memory).

Besides, Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000: 102- 103) state that top-down listening processes “involve schematic knowledge and contextual knowledge”. The former includes “content schemata”; i.e. background information about the topic, and “formal schemata” consisting of knowledge about how discourse is organized. Regarding the contextual knowledge, it involves an understanding of the specific listening situation at hand. In addition to what has been mentioned before, all of this gets filtered through “pragmatic knowledge to assist in the processing of the oral discourse” (ibid).

Continuing with the processing of aural input, Rost (2005: 504) went beyond bottom-up and top-down processes. He divided listening processes into three basic simultaneous phases tightly interlinked. These include “decoding, comprehension and interpretation” in addition to “listener response”. Each of these phases forthcoming contributes in some way to the understanding of the transmitted input.

Accordingly, decoding involves attention, speech perception, word recognition and grammatical parsing. It aims at paving the way to comprehension via detecting lexical items. In Rost’s terms, its goal is “to feed recognised lexical items and parsed propositions for comprehension” (2005: 504). Comprehension constituting the second phase of listening refers to the recognition of the spoken language. For Rost, it comprises “activation of prior knowledge and logical inference” (ibid). The last phase which is interpretation encompasses “comparison of meanings with prior expectations” and leads to the listener’s response. This means that decoding the items of the transmitted input leads to comprehension resulting from the activation of the listener’s prior knowledge. Once the message comprehended, it will be interpreted in the form of an act or in the form of a verbal or a non-verbal response.

Another perspective on cognitive processes that can supply additional insight into how listeners build meaning is Anderson's (1995) division of listening comprehension into three interrelated phases: "perceptual processing (perception), parsing, and utilisation" (as cited in Vandergrift and Goh, 2012 : 22). According to Anderson, during the perception phase, listeners make use of bottom-up processing to recognise sound categories of the language such as phonemes. This phonetic representation of what is retained is passed on for parsing. The parsing phase is devoted mainly to use the parsed speech to identify function and content words. Finally, in the utilisation phase, top-down processing of the parsed speech is involved. At this stage, listeners interpret the intended or implied meanings by drawing on diverse knowledge sources stored as schemata in long-term memory in the form of linguistic knowledge, pragmatic knowledge, prior knowledge, and discourse knowledge.

In addition to the cognitive processes that come into play during the process of L2 listening comprehension such as top-down and bottom-up processing; decoding, comprehension and interpretation processing as well as perception, parsing, and utilisation processing, it is necessary to underline that L1 and L2 listeners go through the same processes yet with a slight difference in processing. In this context, highlighting the difference between controlled and automatic listening comprehension seems useful.

In fact, bearing in mind that L1 speakers master their mother tongue, they encounter no difficulty in understanding any message delivered in their native language because cognitive processing "[...] occurs extremely rapidly moving back and forth between top-down and bottom-up processes [...]" (Vandergrift and Goh, 2012:19). In this case, L1 listeners do it unconsciously and automatically without paying attention to individual words contained in the message. However, L2 listeners, usually do not master the second language and have limited knowledge about it. Therefore, they cannot process automatically all what they hear. Depending on their level of language proficiency, they have to

pay conscious attention to every single word in the speech stream and make use of compensatory strategies to guess what they did not understand. Differently speaking, whatever cannot be processed automatically is subject to controlled processing. Yet, according to Vandergrift and Goh (2012: 19) controlled processing as opposed to automatic one “becomes automatic with practice like other skilled behaviours”.

In the light of the previous discussion, it is clear that listening comprehension is a complex skill encompassing complex processes. Besides, successful L2 listening depends on the ability of the listeners to coordinate between the processes. Therefore, with the perspective to increase comprehension rate of the delivered input and in order to avoid misunderstanding, it is necessary to orchestrate between top-down and bottom up processes. In this context, Carrell and Eisterhold (1983: 557) point out that “relying only on top-down processing may result in the failure of comprehension”. Furthermore, L2/EFL listening instruction research must take into consideration the difficult character of this skill as well as the complex cognitive processes underlying the listening construct.

Accordingly, with the perspective to improve EFL students’ listening skill as well as the teaching of listening, it is necessary to identify the difficulties facing learners during listening processing. Moreover, since learning speaking skill is totally linked with listening, shedding light on the potential problems that may stand against the process of comprehension is felt necessary. These problems are addressed in the following section.

### **1.6- Factors Standing Against Listening Success**

As it has been stated previously, though listening is categorised as a receptive skill, it does not match the passive character attributed to it. As a matter of fact, listening is much more complicated and highly demanding

activity. Listening appears to be an on-going problem solving activity requiring lot of efforts from the learner to construct meaning. Accordingly, when dealing with listening difficulties, one can understand that they refer to the hurdles or potential problems impeding the listener from comprehending the message transmitted. In other words, listening difficulties refer to the factors influencing the failure of “input” (Krashen, 1985) reception. In this framework, before continuing in the elaboration of listening difficulties, it is important to pause and consider the concept related to “comprehensible input” already stated in the previous section (see section 1.3) and stress its crucial role in promoting language development.

Indeed, the comprehensible input concept is a term introduced by Krashen (1977, 1982, 1985 as cited in Allwright and Bailey 1991) to refer to “the language which the learners hear (or read) - that is, the language samples to which they are exposed” (Allwright and Bailey 1991:120). This definition implies that not all the the transmitted data is understandable: only some of what they receive makes sense to them. Furthermore, according to Krashen, “language acquisition takes place through comprehension” (Nunan, 1999: 44), that is foreign language learning can not take place unless the input is comprehended. In Krashen’s terms “comprehensible input is responsible for progress in language acquisition” (1982: 61).

Therefore, bearing in mind the tight link existing between learning and “comprehensible input” and in order to teach the listening skill efficiently by giving a hand to EFL learners to overcome their listening difficulties, it seems judicious to begin by identifying the possible factors hindering the listening process and understanding the barriers to the oral message reception. In this context, various researchers (Underwood 1989; Rubin 1994, Goh 2000, Hamouda 2013 and Walker 2014) tackled this issue and mentioned some potential problems encountered by students. The latter are generally linked to the message to be listened to, the speaker, the listener, and the physical setting.

Indeed, Underwood (1989, as cited in Osada 2004: 62) offered seven potential problems in learning to listen to English. They include speed of delivery, lack of repetition, limited vocabulary, signals recognition failure, lack of social and cultural knowledge, inability to concentrate and the attempt to decipher each word in the aural message. Firstly, speed of delivery is considered as an obstacle to efficient listening comprehension. According to Underwood, “ many English language learners believe that the greatest difficulty with listening comprehension, as opposed to reading comprehension, is that the listener cannot control how quickly a speaker speaks” (Underwood, 1989: 16). The second hurdle to listening is lack of repetition; ie, listeners can not always have words repeated. The third area claimed to affect EFL listening comprehension is the student's limited vocabulary. In this respect, Underwood (1989:17) suggests the following:

“For people listening to a foreign language, an unknown word can be like a suddenly dropped barrier causing them to stop and think about the meaning of the word and thus making them miss the next part of the speech”.

The fourth problem in listening is failure to recognize the signals indicating the move from one point to another, giving an example or repeating a point. In fact, signals such as “discourse markers, pauses, gestures, increased loudness, a clear change of pitch or different intonation patterns” (ibid in Osada, 2004: 62) are very helpful for proficient listeners in understanding the intended meaning; however, they can be misleading and constitute a source of ambiguity in case of lower level listeners.

Additionally, the lack of sociocultural and contextual knowledge of the target language represents the fifth obstacle to comprehension. Indeed, as language is culture specific, interpretation of the transmitted message is hard to reach for those who lack this knowledge. Thus, Underwood (1989:19) states,

“Students who are unfamiliar with the cultural context may have considerable difficulty in interpreting the words they hear even if they can understand their ‘surface’ meaning”. The sixth source of trouble resides in the inability to concentrate. Thus, learners’ interest should be taken into consideration during the selection or preparation of the listening materials. In this context, Underwood (1989) associates concentration with interest. According to him, “if students find the topic interesting, they will find concentration easier.” The seventh and last difficulty facing EFL/ ESL listeners is the established learning habits to understand every word in the message.

Moreover, in her review of over 130 studies of which 115 report directly on research in listening comprehension, Rubin (1994: 199) listed five factors that she believes affect the aural input comprehension. These are linked to

- “Variation in a listening passage/textor associated visual support;
- Variation in the speaker’s personal characteristics;
- Variation in the purpose of listening and associated responses;
- Variation in the listener’s personal characteristics;
- Variation in the listener’s cognitive activities and in the nature of the interaction between the speaker and the listener”.

In other words, Rubin (ibid) identified five major problems standing against listening success. They include respectively text characteristics, interlocutor characteristics, task characteristics, listener characteristics and process characteristics.

Besides, in a research studying the difficulties faced by a group of 40 Chinese ESL learners and examining these difficulties within Anderson’s (1995) three phase model of language comprehension, perception, parsing and utilisation, Goh (2000: 59) identified ten processing problems related to listening comprehension. She mentioned five problems experienced at the perception phase. The latter had mainly to do with “recognising sounds as distinct words or

group of words”. Perception difficulties also included problems of attention namely missing the next part of speech; missing the beginning of texts; incapacity to chunk streams of speech and lack of concentration. Regarding the utilisation phase, problems comprised “various difficulties with developing a coherent mental representation of words heard” (Goh, 2000: 59) such as quick forgetting of what is heard, inability to represent words in mind or understand subsequent parts of the input. In the utilisation stage, learners expressed problems with understanding the intended meaning of the input besides their inability to process the text further due to “either a lack of prior knowledge or inappropriate application of prior knowledge” (Goh, 2000: 59).

Furthermore, Hamouda (2013: 124-139) investigated the listening problems encountered by 60 EFL first year Saudi students. He summarised the results of the research in eight major difficulties namely:

1. Rate of speech too fast to comprehend;
2. Limited English vocabulary;
3. Unclear pronunciation, different accents and dialects;
4. Difficulties related to listening strategies (forgetting to apply strategies, inability to apply strategies, ineffective use of strategy);
5. Poor knowledge of grammar;
6. The inability to concentrate (distractions inside and outside the class);
7. Lack of familiarity with the topic;
8. Problems pertaining to the length and difficulty of listening materials

Additionally, in an attempt to evaluate contemporary research with the aim of dissecting and discussing the reasons why the teaching of listening skills seems to be so complex and consequently suggesting some solutions for improving listening competence in the second language (L2) classroom, Walker

(2014: 168) identified in her article on “Listening” some difficulties which students face when undergoing this process. She first mentioned the variety in pronunciation which could be problematic in “the identification of words that constitute the oral discourse”. In addition to that, prosodic characteristics of spoken discourse such as “where the stress falls, weak forms and strong forms of words and intonation” (Walker, 2014: 168) also influence comprehension of the oral passage.

Furthermore, spoken discourse according to Walker (2014) is often presented in incomplete sentences in which “mispronunciation, hesitation, the rephrasing of utterances, repetition and even the loss of track of what is wanting to be said all play a role in verbal interaction”. Another point to be considered concerns vocabulary and grammar which may be confusing for learners as they “tend to be far more colloquial and much less formal” (Walker, 2014: 168).

Another issue she considered is that listening requires instantaneous processing “with little or no option to access the spoken input again, making the skill arguably more complex than reading” she concluded by stating the sociolinguistic elements of listening “such as the student’s cultural background and the student’s knowledge of the cultural background of the foreign language” (ibid) which can play a significant role in the understanding of the verbal discourse.

According to what has been reviewed in the literature regarding the potential problems in learning to listen to English, it is obvious that unlike reading, listening as a receptive skill is very complex requiring lot of concentration, patience and will to overcome the difficulties. Furthermore, since the main substance for listening is the spoken input and the written language for reading, a comparison between spoken and written languages will be developed in the next section in order to get a picture of what exists and what is needed to

be elaborated by the teacher in the language classroom to promote language proficiency.

### **1.7- Contrasting Spoken and Written Languages**

Since we are addressing the issue related to listening comprehension, it is necessary to mention that the latter differs greatly from reading as both are considered to be receptive skills. Moreover, as the main substance for listening is the spoken input and written language for reading; therefore, the necessity to contrast spoken and written languages is raised.

Although the speaking skill shares the production process with the writing skill, it is very different from the act of writing. This idea is supported by Cook (1989: 115) who claims:

“Spoken language, as has been pointed out happens in time, and must therefore be produced and processed ‘on line’. There is no going back and changing or restructuring our words as there is in writing; there is often no time to pause and think, and while we are talking or listening, we cannot stand back and view the discourse in spatial or diagrammatic terms [...]”

Therefore, from this statement, it is evident that there exists a great discrepancy between productive and receptive skills; i.e, speaking and listening. Arguments supporting this idea can be found in the literature addressing language skills

Indeed, current literature (Bailey 2005, Cook 1989, Nunan 1993, Lazaraton 2001, Miller and Weinert 1998, Van Lier 1995) indicates that spoken and written languages are different. The terms spoken language and written language “do not refer merely to different media but relate to partially different systems of morphology, syntax, vocabulary and the organisation of texts”

(Miller and Weinert, 1998: 4-5). According to Van Lier (1995) “spoken and written languages differ in many important ways”. Thus, the message conveyed orally is temporary as it is received by the hearer sometime after the text was generated and sometimes even centuries later. Moreover, meaning according to Bailey (2005: 125) in spoken language is “conveyed in part through the suprasegmental phonemes (including rhythm, stress and intonation), whereas punctuation marks and type fonts convey such information in writing”.

Spoken and written languages also differ in terms of the demands they make on the listener or reader. In other words, as speaking happens in real time” unlike reading or writing, it requires the addressee; ie, the person we are talking to, to listen, understand and wait to take his/her turn to speak. In this context, Lazaraton (2001: 103) supports this idea by suggesting that:

Spoken English is almost always accomplished via interaction with at least one other speaker. This means that a variety of demands are in place at once: monitoring and understanding the other speaker (s), thinking about one’s own contribution, producing its effects, and so on.

In addition, Bailey (2005:125) maintains that since spoken communication occurs in real time, “the opportunities to plan and edit output are limited, whereas in most written communication, the message originator has time for planning, editing, and revision”. Furthermore, with written language there is no opportunity for the readers to signal that they do not understand as in face to face interaction in which “interaction can be conveyed by non-verbal behaviour” (Nunan, 1993:14). This idea is emphasised by Bailey (2005: 125) who notes: “verbal interaction typically involves immediate feedback from one’s interlocutor, whereas feedback to the authors of written texts may be delayed or nonexistent”.

Written language has also certain features that are not shared by spoken language. As signalled by Nunan (1993: 10), both written and spoken languages differ in terms of grammar and lexical density. In other words: “linguistically, written language tends to consist of clauses that are internally complex, whereas with spoken language the complexity exists in the ways in which clauses are joined together”. As far as lexical density is concerned or what is referred to by Nunan (1993: 11) as “the number of content words per clause”, it is highly present in written language than in the spoken one.

In the light of the aforementioned discussion, it is clear that spontaneous spoken language differs importantly from the standard written form. Besides, since learning speaking skill is totally linked with listening, it is essential to highlight these main differences existing between spoken and written languages in the language classroom in order to develop EFL learners’ awareness about the difficulty of the listening skill. It is also important to emphasise the necessity to teach it in foreign language settings.

## **Conclusion**

This chapter gave an overview of the listening skill as a key element to language learning. Accordingly, several elements in connection with this important skill were discussed in seven major sections. In the first one, a general introduction to the listening skill was developed via the consideration of its historical overview (see 1.1) by looking at the main approaches that had been developed in language teaching over the years and the place of listening in these approaches. The latter include grammar-translation, direct-method, grammar-based, audio-lingual, discrete- item, communicative, task-based, learner-strategy and integrated approaches. Moreover, the diverse definitions assigned to listening (see 1.2) as well as the difference existing between listening and hearing (see 1.2.1) were tackled. Likewise, the issues related to the processes involved in

listening (see 1.5), the difficulties facing EFL learners while listening to verbal discourse (see 1.6) and the difference between spoken and written languages (see 1.7) were addressed.

In the light of what has been reviewed from the literature addressing the major approaches that have developed in language teaching and the complex processes that listening encompass, listening as a skill emerges as a crucial building block in developing foreign language proficiency. The importance allotted to it witnessed lot of changes through time which explains the shift occurring in the instructional approaches developed over the years. Listening as a skill also evolved from being considered as a passive skill meriting little attention to be recognised as an active one deserving development in its own right. Therefore, the literature reviewed in this chapter serves as a theoretical means explaining the issues related to listening including learning and teaching. The insights literature puts forward would help in exploring the intricacies of this skill and explaining the potential problems facing learners and the possible solutions to improve listening processing in the Algerian context.

The next chapter will deal with the strategies that learners make use of in order to facilitate the comprehension of the transmitted message and the retention of the new information efficiently and confidently.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **LEARNERS' STRATEGIES**

#### **Introduction**

In the field of second language acquisition, two types of strategies are distinguished: communication strategies and learning strategies. The former corresponds to output and the latter relates to input. In this chapter, consequently, we start dealing briefly with communication strategies as they are beyond the scope of our research. After that, we look in general at learning strategies and concentrate our interest on metacognitive strategies constituting the concern of this piece of work.

Therefore, the concept of communication strategies (see 2.1) is briefly addressed. After that, learning strategies (see 2.2) and all the issues related to it namely the definitions allotted to listening strategies (see 2.2.1), the taxonomies (see 2.2.2) that emerged in this context, learners' differences (see 2.3) and characteristics for success (see 2.4) are reviewed. The importance of learning strategies (see 2.5), differentiating cognition and metacognition (see 2.6) as well as the classification (2.7) of metacognitive strategies are also tackled. Finally, Flavell's metacognitive model is presented (see 2.8). All these issues are exposed in the sections forthcoming.

#### **2.1- Communication Strategies**

When involved in interaction, learners generally make use of a certain potential of strategies to overcome their language deficiencies. This potential is coined by Hedge (2000: 52) "strategic competence". The latter is defined by Canale and Swain (1980: 25) as "how to cope in an authentic communicative situation and how to keep the communicative channel open".

Consequently, strategic competence consists of using communication strategies to enable learners to compensate the gaps in their second language knowledge either by “changing their original attention or by searching for other means of expression” (Hedge, 2000: 52). Thus, when learners use gestures, mime, translate or paraphrase, they are using communication strategies.

In this respect, the process of employing verbal and non verbal mechanisms for communication is classified by Dörnyei (1995: 58) into two sub-categories namely “avoidance strategies” and “compensatory strategies” which are reflected in the following table adopted from Brown (2000: 128).

**Table 1: Communication Strategies**

<p><b>Avoidance Strategies</b></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Message Abandonment: Leaving A Message Unfinished Because Of Language Difficulties.</li> <li>2. Topic avoidance: Avoiding topic areas or concepts that pose language difficulties.</li> </ol>
<p><b>Compensatory Strategies</b></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>3. Circumlocution: describing or exemplifying the target object of action (e.g., the thing you open bottles with for corkscrew).</li> <li>4. Approximation: Using an alternative term which expresses the meaning of the target lexical item as closely as possible (e.g., ship for sailboat).</li> <li>5. Use of all-purpose words: Extending a general, empty lexical item to contexts where specific words are lacking (e.g., the overuse of thing, stuff, what do you call it, thingie).</li> <li>6. Word Coinage: Creating a nonexisting L2 word based on a supposed rule (vegetarianist for vegetarian).</li> <li>7. Prefabricated patterns: Using memorized stocks phrases, usually for “survival” purposes.</li> <li>8. Nonlinguistic signals: Mime, gesture, facial expression, or sound imitation.</li> <li>9. Literal translation: Translating Literally a lexical item, idiom, compound word, or structure from L1 to L2.</li> <li>10. Foreignizing: Using a L1 word by adjusting it to L2 phonology (e.g., with a L2 pronunciation ) and/or morphology (e.g., adding to it a L2 suffix).</li> <li>11. Code switching: using a L1 word with L1 pronunciation or L3 word with a L3 pronunciation while speaking in L2.</li> <li>12. Appeal for help: Asking for aid from the interlocutor either directly (e.g., <i>What do you call...?</i>) or indirectly (e.g., rising intonation, pause, eye contact, puzzled expression).</li> <li>13. Stalling or time gaining strategies: Using fillers or hesitation devices to fill pauses and to gain time to think (e.g., well, now, let’s see, uh, as a matter of fact).</li> </ol>

## **2.2-Language Learning Strategies**

While communicative strategies deal with direct and indirect processes to keep the flow of speech going on, learning strategies deal with the measures that learners make use of to comprehend messages and store them in the memory.

Moreover, approaching the listening skill cannot be realised without elucidating the strategies involved in the process of learning. The latter had been investigated by many researchers such as O'Malley and Chamot (1985), Wenden and Rubin (1987), Rubin (1981, 1987), Dörnyei and Scott (1997) as well as Oxford (1990, 2001) and had been classified into diverse categories. These include cognitive, metacognitive and socioaffective strategies.

Consequently, in order to have a clear picture about metacognitive strategies, the object of this study, and to understand clearly the significance of this concept, it is judicious to shed light first on learning strategies in general as metacognitive strategies pertain to them.

### ***2.2.1- Learning Strategies Definition***

In fact, several terminologies (Chamot and Kupper 1989; O'Malley and Chamot 1990; Morley 1993; McDonough 1995; Oxford 1994, 2001 and 2005) had been attributed to language learning strategies such as techniques, special thoughts, behaviours, measures, actions, and operations employed by learners to solve problems posed by second language input or output.

Besides, investigations undertaken in the field of foreign language learning have generated various definitions regarding what constitutes learning strategies. This diversity presents a challenge for educators in terms of selecting appropriate strategies to attain their teaching goals. This process of strategy

search is referred by Ellis (1986: 188) as “stumbling blindfolded round a room to find hidden objects”.

Indeed, many definitions had been allotted to the strategies used in learning. For instance Chamot and Kupper (1989: 13) define learning strategies as ‘...techniques which students use to comprehend, store and remember new information and skills’. Another definition is given by O’Malley and Chamot (1990:01) in which they describe them as “...special thoughts or behaviours that individuals use to comprehend learning or to retain new information”. Additionally, Morley (1993: 118) describes learning strategies as “measures taken by language learners to facilitate their own learning. They are tactics employed by an individual in attacking particular problems in particular contexts”. Moreover, McDonough (1995: 03) defines learning strategies as, “articulated plans for meeting particular types of problems not just a piece of problem-solving itself”. Furthermore, Oxford (1994:01) refers to them as “...actions, behaviours, steps or techniques students use, often unconsciously, to improve their progress in comprehending, internalizing and using L2”. She also defines learning strategies as “operations... specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more-efficient, and more transferable to new situations” (Oxford, 2001:166).

In addition to what has been mentioned before, the Concise Encyclopaedia of Educational Linguistics (Oxford, 1999: 598), sets forth a definition of learning strategies for second or foreign language students. The latter includes

“specific actions, behaviours, steps, or techniques that students may use to improve their own progress in developing skills in second or foreign language learning and learning strategies can facilitate the internalization, storage, retrieval, or use of the new language”.

Thus, according to this scholar, learning strategies are facilitators of language learning which goes through diverse processes namely comprehension of the transmitted message, memorisation and use of the new language. Language strategies according to Oxford encompass also the actions, the attitudes, the stages learners explore in order to facilitate the learning of the new language.

In more recent work, Anderson (2005) attempted to clarify the definition, by stating that “learning strategies are the conscious actions that students take to improve their language learning” (Anderson, 2005: 757).

In this respect, it is worth noting that though the definitions proposed differ in the way of describing learning strategies, they seem to share the same idea suggesting that they are conscious actions; however, once the user becomes accustomed to them, they turn out to be “automatic” ;i.e. unconscious (Oxford, 1990: 12).

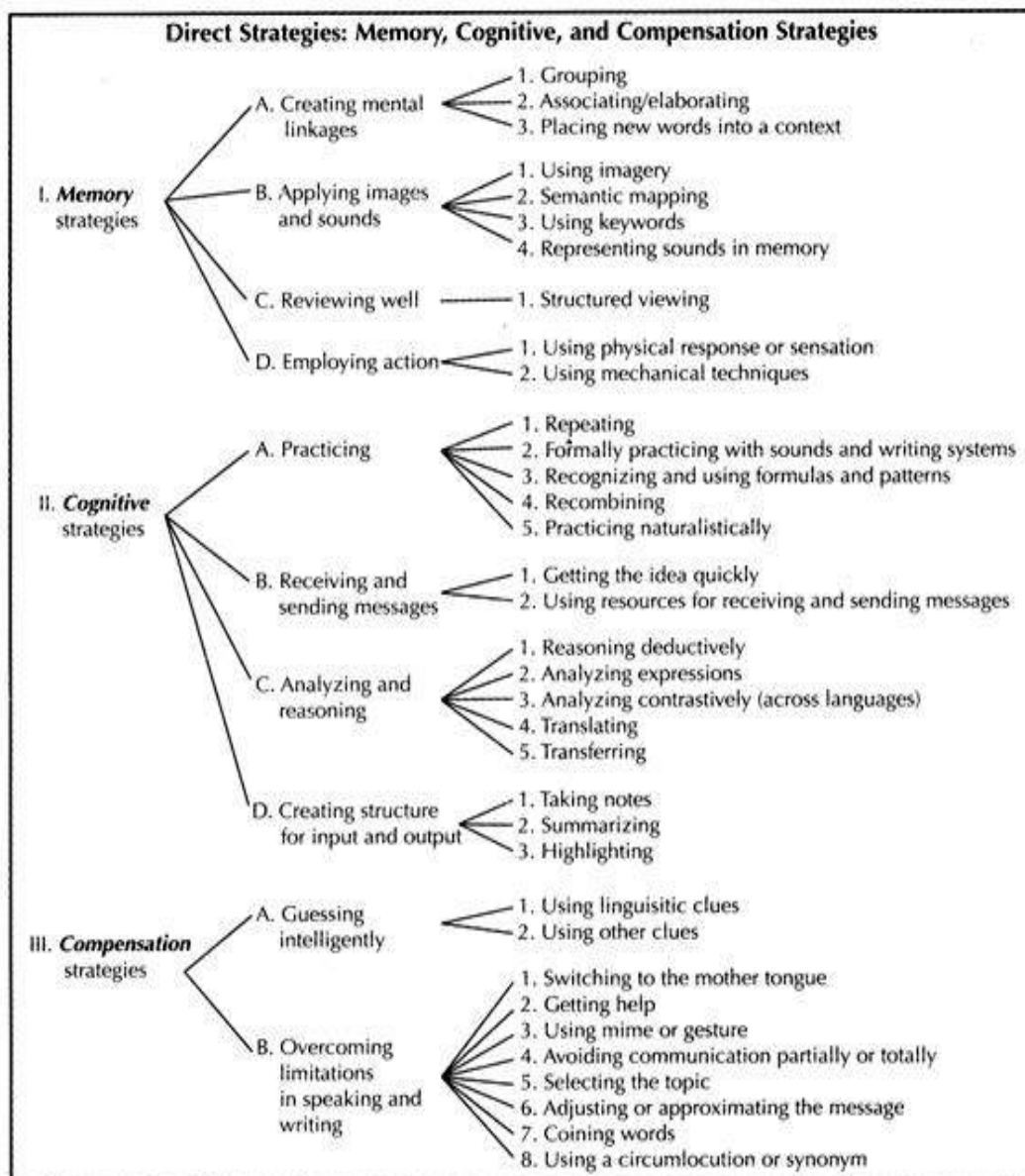
### ***2.2.2- Learning Strategies Taxonomies***

Continuing in the same track, and on the basis of studies identifying the strategies used by language learners, various taxonomies emerged. Thus, a variety of frameworks has developed. O’Malley et al (1985), for instance, have developed a scheme categorising learning strategies. The latter was divided into three main categories: metacognitive strategies, cognitive strategies and socioaffective ones.

Rubin (1987) has also suggested three major types of strategies contributing directly or indirectly to language learning. These have to do with learning strategies such as cognitive and metacognitive ones which will be further explained in the next section. The third of Rubin’s categories is social strategies which refer to “the activities that learners use in an attempt to increase their exposure to language’ (Williams and Burden, 1997: 151).

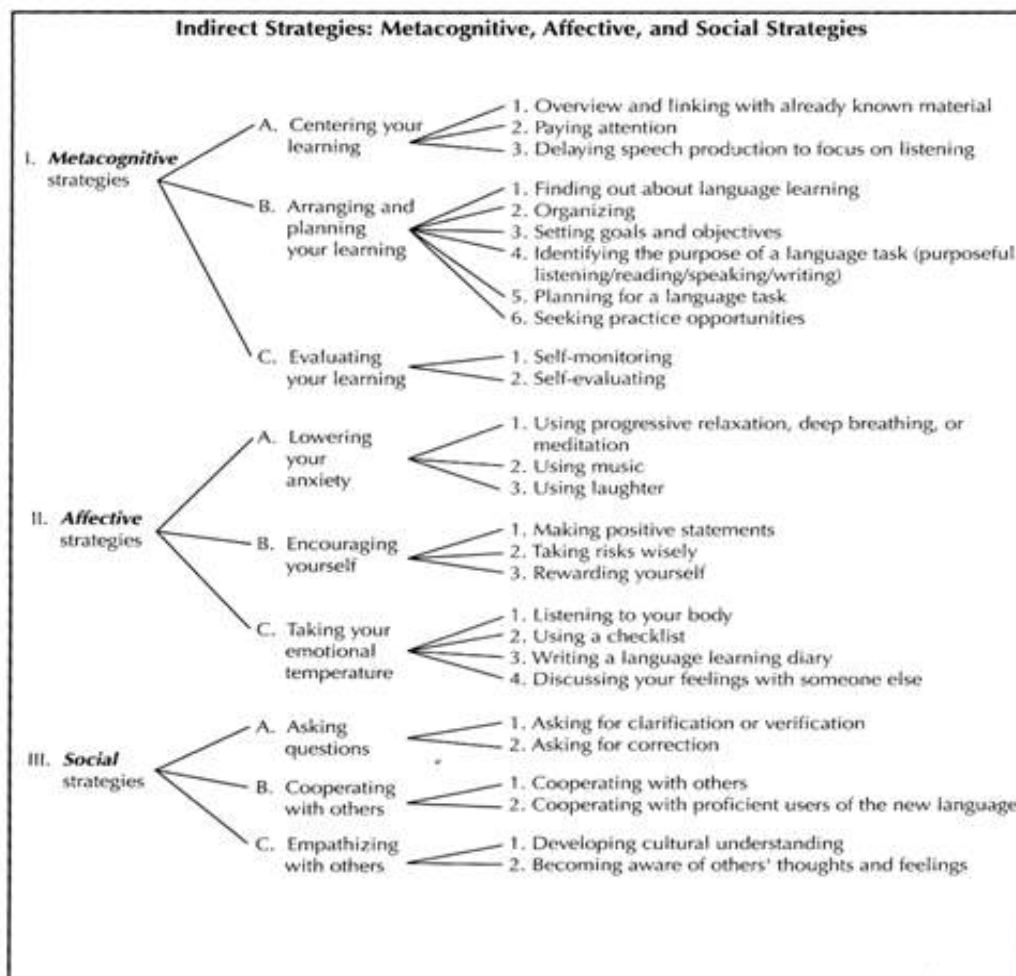
The definition and categorisation of language learning strategies was further developed by Oxford (1990) who provided a detailed system of classification. The latter comprises two major categories direct strategies (see figure 03 beneath) and indirect strategies (see figure 04 page 57) which are respectfully further subdivided into six groups: “memory (mnemonic) strategies, cognitive strategies, compensation strategies, metacognitive strategies, affective strategies and social strategies” (Oxford, 1990: 17).

**Figure 03:** Oxford’s Strategy Classification System/Direct Strategies (Adopted from Brown, 2000: 132)



In fact, Oxford’s direct strategies, exhibited above, refer to every strategy involving the processing of new language directly. They include “such things as memorizing and reasoning, and guessing intelligently” (Nunan, 1999: 172). The latter comprise the mental processes for the new information storage; conscious ways of handling the target language in addition to the compensation strategies enabling the learners to make use of the target language despite their knowledge deficiencies. Regarding indirect strategies, presented in the figure 04 below, they “provide support for language learning by employing different strategies such as focusing, arranging, evaluating, seeking opportunities and lowering anxiety” (Zare, 2012: 166). They encompass metacognitive, affective and social strategies.

**Figure 04:** Oxford’s Strategy Classification System/Indirect Strategies (adopted from Brown, 2000: 132)



Additionally, Dörnyei and Scott (1997 as cited in Field, 2009: 299) set out a list of the most important communication strategies that occur in second language listening. They organised them in three categories: “avoidance strategies, achievement strategies and repair strategies”. Regarding the first category, it includes message abandonment, generalization and message reduction. Concerning the second category, it comprises hypothesis formation, translation, listening for key words, focus on sentence stress and focus on lexically stressed syllables. As far as repair strategies are concerned, they encompass seven elements namely direct appeal for help, indirect appeal for help, request for repetition, request for clarification, request for confirmation, paraphrasing the speaker’s message and other checking strategies such as switching into L1.

Similar to Oxford (1990), Dörnyei (2005: 169) categorised the various language learning strategies into four level typology namely “cognitive strategies, metacognitive strategies, social strategies and affective strategies”.

- i) Cognitive strategies- involving the manipulation or transformation of the learning materials/input (such as repetition, summarizing, using images);
- ii) Metacognitive strategies- involving higher-order strategies aimed at analysing, monitoring, evaluating, planning, and organizing ones’ own learning process;
- iii) Social strategies - involving interpersonal behaviours aimed at increasing the amount of *L2* communication and practice the student undertakes (e.g., initiating interaction with native speakers, cooperating with peers); and
- iv) Affective strategies - involving taking control of the emotional (affective) conditions and experiences that shape one’s subjective involvement in learning

With reference to the taxonomies mentioned above, it should be mentioned that Oxford's (1990) strategy classification system is the most detailed one encompassing all the strategies used by language learners. Besides, though these strategies are allotted different labels and have different functions, they are adopted by researchers as frameworks to classify learning strategies.

Having dealt with learner strategies and their classifications, the next section will deal with learners' differences. This can be explained by the fact that the diversity in strategy use is a reflection of the diversity in the students' characteristics which should be taken into account by language instructors.

### **2.3- Learners' Differences**

All around the world, teachers are in constant contact with students of all ages attempting to learn to speak English. Their reasons for desiring to study it differ according to their purposes. For instance, many people learn English because they have moved into a target-language community or because they need it for specific purposes. Whatever their reasons for learning, the real concern of the teacher is how to respond to his/her students' needs bearing in mind that they are different individuals not only in terms of age and learning styles, but also in terms of level and cultural background. Therefore, learners' diversity will be discussed in the sub-sections forthcoming.

#### ***2.3.1- Learners' Age***

Regarding age, teachers in the language classroom have to deal with a variety of individuals of diverse ages who differ in their ways of grasping information. By reviewing the literature, Harmer (2001, 2007) divided learners into five categories including children, young learners, adolescents, young adults and adults. According to Harmer (2007:14), students are generally described as

“*children* between the ages of 2 to about 14....*young learners* between the ages of about 5 to 9.... *very young learners* between 2 and 5....and *adolescents* between 12 and 17, whereas *young adults* are generally thought to be between 16 and 20”

In fact, children have the ability to take in new information from whatever is going on around them. That is, they do not only focus on what is being taught but also learn everything worth to be discovered. The main feature characterizing them is that they “respond well to individual attention from the teacher and are usually pleased to receive teacher approval” (Harmer 2007:14). Concerning adolescents, one of the greatest differences between them and children is that they show more interest to what reflects their individual identity. The latter according to Harmer (2001:39) has to be “forged among classmates and friends”. Thus, contrary to children, peer approval is crucial for the adolescent learners than the teacher’s attention. With regard to adult students, they generally come with previous learning experiences and “may have strong views about teaching methods from their past, which teachers will have to take into account.

In the light of these characteristics, it can be said language teachers have to cater for this diversity of age. Therefore, bearing in mind that students at different ages differ in their characteristics and vary in their ways of learning, teachers’ ways of instructing them will differ too.

### ***2.3.2- Learning Style***

Besides age factor, instructors have to consider the learning styles which determine the way students learn. On the basis of the assumption that individuals respond to various stimuli differently, two theories have tried to explain such individual variation. These have to do with the Neuro-Linguistic Programming model and Multiple Intelligences theory.

### **2.3.2.1- *Neuro-Linguistic Programming model***

This model, often called NLP, takes into account the diversity of responses in reaction to various stimuli. According to practitioners of Neuro linguistic programming, learners as individuals make use of a multitude of “primary representational systems” to experience the world; nevertheless, they have one “preferred primary system” (Revell and Norman 1997: 31 as cited in Harmer 2001: 46). These systems are described in the acronym VAKOG standing for “Visual (we look and see), Auditory (we hear and listen), Kinaesthetic (we feel externally, internally or through movement), Olfactory (we smell things) and Gustatory (we taste things)” (Revell and Norman 1997).

What is meant by this explanation is that though all of us respond to all these stimuli, we tend to rely on one of them to learn best or remember what we have learnt. Therefore, this variety in response creates variety of learners’ styles that the teacher has to consider.

### **2.3.2.2- *Multiple Intelligences theory***

This theory, often referred to by MI, was introduced by the psychologist Howard Gardner (1983) who suggested that humanbeings possess a range of intelligences. The latter determine individuals’ way of learning.in this respect, he listed seven of these: “Musical/Rythmic, Verbal/Linguistic, Visual/Spatial, Bodily/Kinaesthetic, Logical/Mathematical, Intrapersonal and Interpersonal” Howard Gardner (1983 as cited in Harmer 2001: 46). This explains why some people are good in some areas and are not in others such as being good in mathematics and being unable to remember melodies. This inability to realise things is not due to the lack of intelligence, but because of the diversity in the use of the intelligences with which we are endowed. The chart forthcoming adopted from Gardner (1983) gives a clear picture of what has been presented.

**Table 2: Gardner's Seven Intelligences**

<b>TYPE</b>	<b>LIKES TO</b>	<b>IS GOOD AT</b>	<b>LEARNS BEST BY</b>
Linguistic Learner 'The word player'	read, write, tell stories	memorising names, places, dates and trivia	saying, hearing and seeing words
Logical/ Mathematical Learner 'The questioner'	do experiments, figure things out, work things out, work with numbers, ask questions, explore patterns and relationships	maths, reasoning, logic and problem solving	categorising, classifying working with abstract patterns/relationships
Spatial Learner 'The visualiser'	draw, build, design and create things, daydream, look at pictures, watch movies, play with machines	imagining things, sensing changes, mazes/puzzles, reading maps, charts	visualising, dreaming, using the mind's eye, working with colours and pictures
Musical Learner 'The music lover'	sing, hum tunes, listen to music, play an instrument, respond to music	picking up sounds, remembering melodies, noticing pitches/rhythms, keeping time	rhythm, melody, music
Bodily/ Kinaesthetic Learner	move around, touch and talk, use body language	physical activities, (sport/dancing/acting)	touching, moving, interacting with space, processing knowledge through bodily sensations
Interpersonal Learner 'The Socialiser'	have lots of friends, talk to people, join groups	understanding people, leading others, organising, communicating, manipulating, mediating conflicts	sharing, comparing, relating, cooperating, interviewing
Intrapersonal Learner	work alone, pursue own interests	understanding self, focusing inward on feelings/dreams following instincts, pursuing interests/goals, being original	working alone, individualised projects, self-paced instruction, having own space

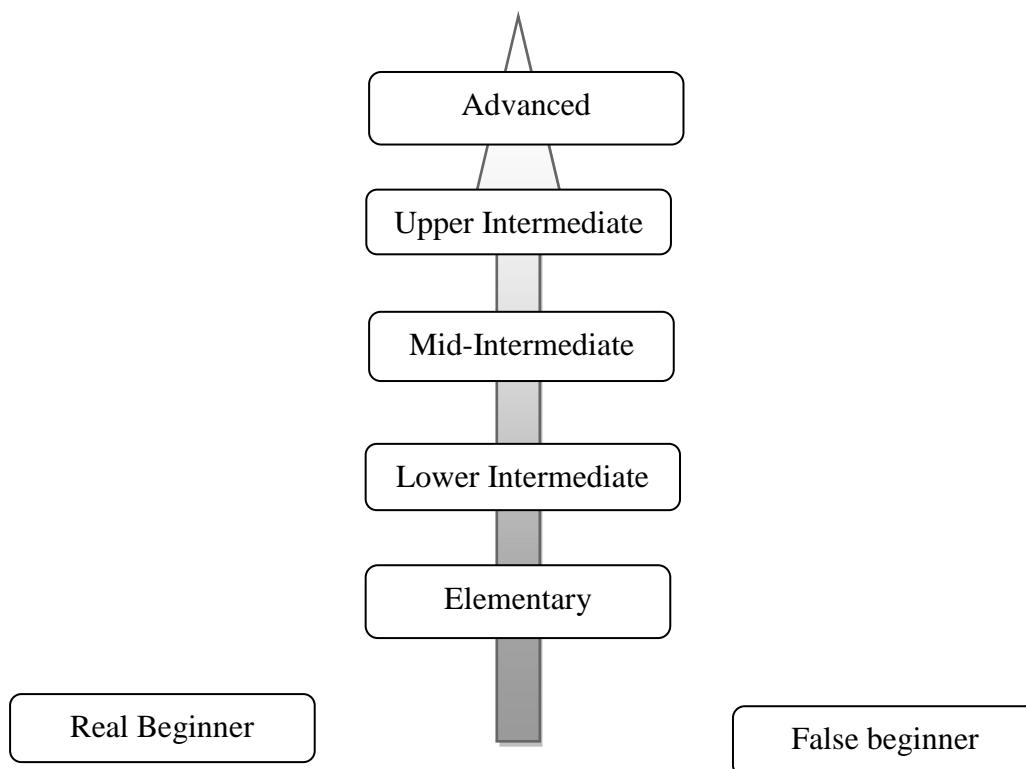
What can be understood from these two theories; ie, NLP and MI, is that language classrooms comprise different individuals with various learning styles and preferences. Thus, the language teacher task is very complex as he/she is

required to take these aspects into account when giving a lesson. That is, he/she has to prepare a range of diverse activities to meet the learners' differences and needs.

### 2.3.3- Learners' Level

In the language classroom, learners differ in their level of mastery of the target language. Thus, language levels are generally divided into three levels, beginner, intermediate and advanced. These categories are further subdivided into real beginners and false beginners. The elementary level stands between beginner and intermediate. The latter is subdivided into lower intermediate, mid-intermediate and upper intermediate. The representation of the different levels, therefore, is shown in the following figure.

**Figure 05:** Representation of Different Learners' Levels



The labels aforementioned may hold different meanings to different people, this is why special examinations are organised to determine learners' levels according to the scores realised. Examples of these examinations include TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language) or TOEIC (Test of English for International Communication) from the USA and the UCLES (University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate) offered by the United Kingdom. Therefore, teachers should be sensitive to this variation and take measures accordingly by choosing appropriate topics, methodology and language that fit the students' level and requirements.

#### ***2.3.4- Learners' Cultural Background***

We have discussed how students at different ages (see 2.3.1), with diverse learning styles (see 2.3.2) and levels (see 2.3.3) present different characteristics in the language classroom. Another aspect of students' variation lies in their cultural background.

When students come from different cultural backgrounds, they may have different behaviours to classroom practices from the ones the teacher expected. For instance, in some educational cultures, students are expected to remain calm and quiet when the teacher explains the lesson; however, in other cultures, students are expected to be active and to question their teachers. Accordingly, instructors need to select different material, topics and teaching techniques that would serve the expectations of the diverse learners.

Moreover, Harmer (2001: 48), gave some suggestions to face individual differences. These are summarised as follows:

- "Recognition of students as individuals as well as being members of a group;
- Establishing who the different students in the class are
- Recognition of the other differences (age, style, level and cultural background)"

From what has been developed in this section, it is evident that though the students attending language classes share the same objective which is learning the same target language, they do not share the same characteristics. This diversity compels the language teacher to cater for the choice of topics, methodology and language to be used before presenting his course in order to respond to the diverse learners' needs.

Additionally, this diversity that characterises learners, in terms of age, learning styles, level and cultural background, entails variation in the strategies used to achieve the learning of the target language. In this respect, it is worth underlining that investigations led in the field of language learning (O'Malley and Chamot (1990), Oxford (1990), Vandergrift (1997) and Vandergrift et al (2006)) have agreed on the idea that advanced students make use of learning strategies more frequently than lower level students. Consequently, examining the features of successful learners will be addressed in the following section.

#### **2.4- Successful Language Learners' Characteristics**

Insights into learners' strategies coming from studies undertaken by various researchers such as O'Malley and Chamot (1990), Oxford (1990), Vandergrift (1997) and Vandergrift et al (2006) contributed to English language teaching. In fact, these studies demonstrated that successful language learners take special measures to solve their learning problems in particular contexts. These studies also demonstrated that strategy use is crucial for language development (see 2.5) as it may help lower level students in many ways such as removing their anxiety, fostering their self-confidence and making them autonomous individuals.

Furthermore, other investigations focused their efforts on another line of enquiry which is to find out what successful learners' characteristics are.

According to them, “if we narrow down a number of characteristics that all good learners share, then we can perhaps cultivate these characteristics in all our students” (Harmer 2001: 41).

In this respect, Naiman et al (1978 as cited in Harmer 2001: 42) included some features of good learning namely “tolerance of ambiguity, positive task orientation, ego involvement, high aspirations, goal orientation and perseverance”. Moreover, Rubin and Thompson (1982 as cited in Harmer 2001: 42) listed no less than fourteen good learner characteristics. According to them, good students are those who “can find their own way, who are creative, who make intelligent guesses, who make errors work for them and who use contextual clues”.

In the same context, Soars and Soars (1987:vii as cited in Hedge 2000: 82) good language learners are reported to be:

- Confident in his/ her ability to learn;
- Self-reliant;
- Motivated and enthusiastic;
- Aware of why he/she wants to learn;
- Unafraid of making mistakes;
- Unafraid of what he/she does not know;
- A good risk-taker;a good guesser;
- Positive in his/her attitude to English language and culture;
- A good pattern perceiver

In short, all the investigations mentioned above acknowledged the importance of strategy use in improving language learning. The use of these strategies varies according to the learners’ characteristics (see 2.3) which differs according to individuals. Therefore, gaining possession of useful knowledge about strategies will hopefully help teachers to take decisions about how to help learners develop efficient strategies for language learning. The following section will deal with the important role that strategies play in the process of learning.

## **2.5- The Importance of Strategies to the Learning Process**

The possession of knowledge about strategies is important because the greater awareness the learner has about what he is doing the more he/she will be more effective. In this context, Oxford (1990) set out a strategy system (see section 2.2.2) identifying the diverse tools used by learners to overcome their target language gaps. She argued that strategies are crucial for two major reasons. Firstly, strategies according to her “are tools for active, self-directed involvement, which is essential for developing communicative competence” (1990: 01). In the second place, when learners make an appropriate use of these strategies, they will gain greater self-confidence and will be efficient in learning.

In her introduction to the field of strategies, Oxford (1990: 09 as cited in Nunan 1999: 172) identifies twelve key features of strategies. According to her, language learning strategies

- contribute to the main goal, communicative competence,
- allow learners to become more self-directed,
- expand the role of teachers,
- are problem oriented,
- are specific actions taken by the learner;
- involve many actions taken by the learner, not just the cognitive;
- support learning both directly and indirectly;
- are not always observable;
- are often conscious;
- can be taught;
- are flexible;
- are influenced by a variety of factors.

As these characteristics suggest, language learning strategies appear to be crucial tools for developing learners’ receptive and productive skills. They are

also a means by which learners transcend the barriers of their target language deficiencies. Therefore, deep reflection on how to equip learners with these devices to become independent individuals relies on the teacher's knowledge about learner's variations (see section 2.2.3). The next section will highlight the cognition and metacognition concepts as strategies contributing directly or indirectly to language learning.

## **2.6- Cognition and Metacognition in the Listening Skill**

Recent views related to listening comprehension indicate that listeners process the language input actively. Moreover, research undertaken in the field of applied linguistics demonstrates that strategies are inherent in any learning process and can be more effective when explicitly taught.

Besides, with reference to Flavell's (1976: 232) definition in connection with metacognition in which he sites its three major key elements consisting of "active monitoring, consequent regulation and orchestration of those processes in relation to the cognitive objects or data on which they bear...", we can understand that this definition implies individuals' active involvement in performing a task and awareness of their thinking processes while performing the latter. Flavell's definition also reveals the nature of metacognition, namely the awareness, monitoring and regulation of cognition. Therefore, defining and discussing what is meant by cognitive strategies is important to elucidate the meaning of metacognition concept.

### **2.6.1- Cognition**

In order to clarify the meaning of cognition, it is necessary to have a look at different definitions attributed to the latter. For instance, Van den Aardweg &

Van den Aardweg (1993: 41) have defined it as “knowing in its broadest sense”. It includes according to them “perception, concept formation, reasoning, thinking, fantasy and imagination”.

Besides, McMillan (2011: 148) has viewed reasoning as “the overarching higher level thinking skill”. According to him, reasoning comprises three elements : mental skills, knowledge, and task. In reasoning, mental skills are used in the manipulation of declarative or procedural knowledge needed to perform a task. Moreover, the mental skills for him such as classifying, comparing, analysing, and synthesising are differentiated from the task which includes problem-solving, creative thinking, critical thinking, hypothesising, and generalising (McMillan, 2011: 148). Another definition states that cognition “... refers to a variety of higher level mental processes such as comprehending, analysing, reasoning, problem-solving, and evaluating” (Lock, 2003: 61).

Thus, if we consider carefully the aforementioned definitions, we notice that reasoning is considered as an aspect of higher level thinking of cognition. Furthermore, relying on what had been cited in the literature as far as cognition and metacognition are concerned, no clear identification of the nature of interaction linking these two constructs has been established. In fact, according to Larkin (2010: 16), cognitive strategies are used when a learning problem such as listening comprehension task is solved; however, metacognitive processing takes place “when learners start thinking about the way adopted to solve the task, or when they begin to evaluate their progress in solving the. Veenman (2011: 205) also stresses the difficulty of distinguishing between these concepts as learners alternate between them in practice.

According to what has been developed in the previous section, it is plain that cognitive and metacognitive strategies as facilitators of learning are closely interlinked; likewise, making distinction between them appears to be a very hard task. Thus, a better understanding of metacognition, the concern of this piece of

work, could be achieved via exploring diverse definitions allotted to this concept. The latter will be thoroughly discussed in the following section.

### ***2.6.2- The Concept of Metacognition***

The concept of metacognition, which was introduced by Flavell ( 1976, 1979, 1985), is at the heart of metacognitive instruction. It was introduced in cognitive psychology more than 30 years ago to refer to an individual's awareness of thinking and learning. In his 1976 article, Flavell recognized that metacognition consists of both monitoring and regulation aspects. He defined metacognition as follows:

“Metacognition refers to one's knowledge concerning one's own cognitive processes and products or anything related to them....Metacognition refers, among other things, to active monitoring and consequent regulation and orchestration of these processes in relation to the cognitive objects or data on which they bear, usually in service of some concrete goal or objective”

(Flavell 1976:232)

In other words, according to this definition metacognition encompasses what we are thinking, how we are thinking and why we are thinking in a particular way. Furthermore, in this definition, Flavell focuses on the way the individual learns and how he regulates the cognitive processes. Additionally, Flavell's (1985: 104) later definition of metacognition as “ knowledge or cognitive activity that takes as its object, or regulates any aspect of cognitive enterprise”. Besides, the concept of metacognition has been emphasised by various scholars namely Nisbet and Shucksmith (1986), Wenden (1987, 1991, 1998), Mendelson (1998, 2001), Chamot (1995), Field (1998), Buck (1995),

Goh (1997, 2002a, 2008), Anderson (2002), Harris (2003), Vandergrift (1998, 1999, 2003, 2004) and Vandergrift and Goh (2012).

Indeed, the previously mentioned researchers all underlined the importance of metacognition and acted to bring it to the forefront of listening instruction. They allotted it diverse definitions. For instance, Nisbet and Shucksmith (1986) referred to metacognition as the “seventh sense” in learning (as cited in Goh, 2008: 194). Vandergrift and Goh (2012: 05) gave it an operational definition as “the ability of learners to control their thoughts and to regulate their own learning”. Anderson (2002: 02) underlined the major role metacognition plays in developing students’ autonomy stating that “strong metacognitive skills empower second language learners”. Likewise, Harris (2003:04) shares the same belief with Anderson (2002) and mentions that “metacognition is concerned with guiding the learning process itself and so includes strategies for planning, monitoring and evaluating both language use and language learning; key elements in developing autonomy”.

On the basis of what has been mentioned before and regarding the diverse definitions allotted to the concept of metacognition, it is obvious that all researchers agree on the subcomponents of metacognition and on its importance in learning. The latter, cannot occur without the interaction among “four classes of phenomena: (a) metacognitive knowledge, (b) metacognitive experiences, (c) goals (or tasks), and (d) actions (or strategies”’) (Flavell, 1979: 906). These categories are going to be detailed in the forthcoming section (see 2.7).

Regarding the terminology characterising metacognition, Wenden (1987, 1991, 1998) noted that several metacognitive terms had been used in an interchangeable way in many surveys such as “beliefs, metacognitive knowledge, metacognitive skills, metacognitive strategies, learning strategies, comprehension monitoring and self-regulation” (as cited in Goh, 2008: 194). Therefore, the diversity of these terms indicates the diverse views surrounding the construct of

metacognition. It indicates also the lack of consistency in the way metacognitive processes are conceptualised in the field of language teaching and learning.

Reference was made earlier in this section to Flavell's (1979: 906) distinction between four categories of metacognition. The next section presents a detailed explanation of metacognition components according to Flavell's Model.

## **2.7- Flavell's Formal Metacognitive Model**

Reference was made earlier in this chapter to Flavell's (1979) metacognitive model. Indeed, Flavell who is regarded as "the father of the field of metacognition" (Papaleontiou-Louca, 2003: 09), has proposed the first formal metacognitive monitoring model in his 1979 paper which included four classes: "metacognitive knowledge, metacognitive experiences, tasks and goals, and strategies or actions" (Flavell, 1979: 907- 908). Each of these categories will be discussed thoroughly.

### ***2.7.1- Metacognitive Knowledge***

This knowledge is the first of Flavell's (1979: 906) classes. He relates it to the beliefs about the factors that can affect positively or negatively any person's "diverse cognitive tasks, goals, actions and experiences". In Flavell's words, he defined metacognitive knowledge as one consisting "primarily of knowledge or beliefs about what factors or variables act and interact in what ways to affect the course and outcome of cognitive enterprises" (Flavell, 1979: 907). According to him, metacognitive knowledge concerns the combination of two or three factors namely: person factors ; task factors and strategy factors which will be detailed in the following.

Regarding the first category related to person factors, the latter encompasses everything that an individual believes about himself and about the others. This belief can either play the role of facilitator or impeder of learning. It is defined by Wenden (1998: 518) as “general knowledge learners have acquired about human factors that facilitate or inhibit learning”. Further, person Knowledge according to her includes learners’ beliefs about their effectiveness; i.e, “self-efficacy beliefs about their ability to mobilize and manage the resources necessary to learn and to sustain the effort”. It encompasses also learners’ “achievement beliefs” (ibid) which is linked to their conviction of their ability to reach a specific learning goal.

As far as task category is concerned, the latter is linked with knowledge of the way how to deal with the task at hands. According to Wenden (1998: 518), task knowledge has “three facets”. It refers to learners’ knowledge of the task; their ability to differentiate tasks and how to achieve a task. Particularly, task knowledge comprises

“...what learners know about the purpose of a task and how it will serve their language learning needs...It also includes knowledge that is the outcome of a classification process that determines the nature of a particular task...Finally, task knowledge includes information about a task's demands...”

Finally, the strategy factors linked with metacognitive knowledge are the ones dealing with knowledge about the effective strategies for the accomplishment of the task (Flavell 1979: 907). Besides, Wenden (1998: 519) refers to strategic knowledge as “general knowledge about what strategies are, why they are useful and specific knowledge about when and how to use them”. It is viewed by Wenden (1998: 519) as a subset of task knowledge; however, following Flavell (1979, 1981a, 1981b as cited in Wenden 1998), she includes it as “a separate classification because of the unique role it plays in the processing (rather than the planning) of learning” (p 519). Moreover, Flavell mentioned that

metacognitive knowledge may be "consciously or unconsciously activated" Wenden (1998: 908).

Additionally, according to Larkin (2010: 10), Flavell distinguished between declarative Knowledge ; procedural knowledge and conditional knowledge. The first one "is the knowledge that we can state about ourselves, about others and about the world". Procedural knowledge refers to "knowledge about how to do things" (ibid: 10). Putting it differently, declarative knowledge is knowledge about ourselves and others whereas procedural knowledge is the one related with knowing how to deal with diverse tasks via the use of different strategies. Conditional knowledge is associated with "monitoring and control of our thinking" (ibid, p 11). It enables us to understand how and when to use our knowledge as well as think about introducing any changes if any are required.

Furthermore, Wenden (1998: 519) stressed the importance of distinguishing metacognitive knowledge and metacognitive strategies as they constitute "two separate and distinct components of the broader notion of metacognition". Therefore, the fact of considering them as interchangeable or similar concepts is wrong. She explains this difference by referring to Brown et al (1981) (as cited in Wenden, 1998: 532) who distinguished between knowledge about learning (metacognitive knowledge) and the regulation of learning (metacognitive strategies). She states that "metacognitive knowledge refers to information learners acquire about their learning, while metacognitive strategies are general skills through which learners manage, direct, regulate, guide their learning, i.e planning, monitoring and evaluating"( Wenden, 1998: 519). The deployment of these three strategies in learning is referred to as "self-regulation in cognitive psychology and as self-direction in adult education and in the literature on learner autonomy in FL/ SL learning" (op.cit).

### ***2.7.2- Metacognitive Experiences***

With reference to the father of metacognition, Flavell (1979: 906) defined metacognitive experiences as "any conscious cognitive or affective experiences that accompany and pertain to any intellectual enterprise". In other words, this second category of the metacognitive model refers to any conscious feeling, thought or attitude that an individual recalls as a source to solve a current problem at hand. These Metacognitive experiences "can be brief or lengthy in duration, simple or complex in content" (Flavell, 1979: 908). They can also occur before, during or after the process of solving a task.

Besides, according to Flavell (1979: 908), metacognitive experiences are closely linked to knowledge, goals and tasks as well as strategies. Thus, they can have an important effect on them. They can lead an individual to review his goals "to establish new goals and to revise or abandon old ones". They can also have an effect on metacognitive knowledge base by "adding to it, deleting from it, or revising it" (ibid). Finally, they can activate the strategies to be used to solve a task.

All in all, in order for these metacognitive experiences to be fruitful in developing metacognitive knowledge base, "they must be worked through and not shied away from as too time consuming or too psychologically difficult" (Larkin, 2010:09). Fortunately, Flavell (1979: 909) stated the conditions under which metacognitive experiences are luckily to take place:

“[...] in situations that stimulate a lot of careful, highly conscious thinking: in a job or school task that expressly demands that kind of thinking; in novel roles or situations, where every major step you take requires planning beforehand and evaluation afterwards, where decisions and actions are at once weighty and risky; where high affective arousal or other inhibitors of reflective thinking are absent”.

With reference to Flavell's quotation, metacognitive experiences are activated depending on the task or the situation to which the learner is confronted. They are implemented to overcome task difficulties and time restrictions.

### ***2.7.3- Metacognitive Goals or Tasks***

Flavell's (1979: 907) third category of the metacognitive model concerns metacognitive goals and tasks. The latter refer "to the objectives of a cognitive enterprise". They refer to the desired outcome from the achievement of a task or the expectations that a learner aspires from the fulfillment of a task. In this respect, it is essential to mention that the achievement of objectives relies heavily on metacognitive experiences. The latter can have an important effect on them by leading an individual "to establish new goals and to revise or abandon old ones" (Flavell, 1979 : 908). That is, objectives already settled depend on one's experiences according to which introduction of changes will be decided.

### ***2.7.4- Metacognitive Strategies or Actions***

According to Flavell (1979), this fourth category refers to "the cognitions or other behaviors employed to achieve goals" (p 907). Williams and Burden (1997: 145) have stated that strategies are "purposeful and goal-oriented". They are means which a learner can make use of to reach a precise purpose at an appropriate moment. This involves the ability to plan, to select the appropriate skills, to monitor and to assess their effectiveness. Moreover, Vandergrift and Goh (2012: 89) have defined it as "the deployment of specific procedures or actions to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-regulated, more effective, or more transferable to new situations".

All in all, it can be said that the metacognitive model as proposed by Flavell (1979) encourages the development of metacognition in learning. It can also have tremendous results for both children and adults if applied in a learning environment. In fact, if this model is adopted in schools, it will help the development of wise individuals who know how to reach their goals via the implementation of appropriate strategies when required, i.e., individuals who understand themselves and the world surrounding them.

## **2.8- Classification of Metacognitive Strategies**

As it has been pointed out in the previous section (see 2.2.2), a variety of frameworks has been developed regarding learning strategies. The latter have received diverse classifications by various researchers such as Brown et al (1983) O'Malley et al (1985) and Rubin (1987). Metacognitive strategies as part of this categorization have also been classified differently. For instance, Brown et al (1983) (as cited in Wenden 1998: 519) classified metacognitive strategies into three categories namely "planning, monitoring and evaluating". O'Malley et al (1985: 582-584) divided language learning strategies into three main sub-categories: metacognitive strategies, cognitive strategies and socioaffective strategies. Metacognitive strategies according to them encompass planning for learning, monitoring and evaluation. They can include "advance organizers, directed attention, selective attention, self-management, functional planning, self-monitoring, delayed production, self-evaluation". Rubin (1987) (as cited in Liu 2010: 100) categorisation of metacognitive strategies involve various processes such as "planning, prioritizing, setting goals, and self-management".

In fact, O'Malley and Chamot (1990: 44) have defined metacognitive strategies as "higher order executive skills that may entail of planning for, monitoring, or evaluating the success of an activity". Relying on this definition, it is evident that the development of L2 learning is associated with the ability to

plan, monitor and evaluate language performance. Accordingly, on the basis of this definition, three metacognitive categories can be distinguished namely planning the organization of the language task, monitoring the information to be remembered and evaluating comprehension.

With regard to the above classification, the one realised by Oxford (1990: 136) is relatively broad. She has classified the metacognitive strategies into three groups: “centering your learning, arranging and planning your learning and evaluating your learning”, and each category consists of several sub-categories. There are three sub-categories in the "centering your learning" group, namely, combing the already known material, paying attention, and focusing on the input by delaying the output. In the "arranging and planning of your learning" group, there are six sub-categories: finding out the learning task, organizing, setting goals and objectives, identifying the purposes of the language task, planning for it and seeking practice opportunities. Finally, the "evaluating your learning" group comprises two sub divisions which are Self-monitoring and self-evaluating.

Additionally, Vandergrift (1997 : 392-394) (as cited in Richards 2005 : 73) has produced a summary of listening strategies on the basis of think-aloud procedure recorded while students performed the task. Accordingly, he has followed O’Malley and Chamot (1990) classification by splitting metacognitive strategies into three categories (planning, monitoring and evaluation) under which sub-categories derive. Regarding planning strategy, it comprises four sub-strategies namely, advanced organization, directed attention, selective attention and self- management. Concerning monitoring, it encompasses comprehension monitoring, auditory monitoring and double-check monitoring. As concerns evaluation, the latter comprises performance evaluation and problem identification.

Furthermore, Vandergrift, Goh, Mareschal, & Tafaghodtari (2006: 450-451) have offered another classification of metacognitive listening strategies. According to them, the latter includes five types of strategies: problem-solving, planning and evaluation, mental translation, person knowledge, and directed attention. Problem-solving for instance, represents a group of strategies used by listeners “to inference and monitor these inferences” (p 450). Planning and evaluation, represents the strategies listeners use “to prepare themselves for listenig, and to evaluate the results of their listening efforts” (p 450). Mental translation represents strategies that listeners “must learn to avoid if they are to become skilled listeners” (p 450). Person knowledge represents “listeners’ perceptions concerning the difficulty presented by L2 listening and their self-efficacy in L2 listening” (p 451). Directed attention represents strategies that listeners use "to concentrate and to stay on task” (p 151).

All in all, though the metacognitive strategies addressed in this section had been classified differently and had been associated with diverse instructional modals (see section 3.5), they all aim at prompting learner-centred approach. Thus, the present research is based on the classification proposed by Vandergrift (1997), Vandergrift et al (2006) and Vandergrift et Goh (2012). The reason behind this choice relies in the fact that the instructional framework reflecting this classification emphasizes implicit instruction rather than the explicit one.

## **Conclusion**

We dealt in this chapter with strategies in general by reviewing communication (see 2.1) and learning strategies (see 2.2) as tools to overcome language gaps. We shifted then focus on reviewing all the issues related to strategies namely the definitions attributed to listening strategies (see 2.2.1), the taxonomies that emerged in this context (see 2.2.2), learners’ differences (see 2.3) and characteristics for success (see 2.4) were addressed. The importance

of learning strategies (see 2.5), differentiating cognition and metacognition (see 2.6) besides Flavell's metacognitive model (see 2.7) were presented. Finally, the classification of metacognitive strategies was tackled in section 2.8.

In the light of what has been discussed in this chapter, listening comprehension is viewed as an active process in which individuals go through various complicated processes to extract the meaning of the transmitted message. In doing so, learners involve various elements in the process of decoding the input namely their knowledge, experience, expectations and strategies. Moreover, the decoding process depends on many factors that are at the basis of learners' differences. These factors are related to learners' age, learning style, level and cultural background. Therefore, deep reflection on how to respond to learners' needs requires the teacher to cater for learners' variations. Additionally, insights into learners' strategies coming from studies undertaken by various researchers such as O'Malley and Chamot (1990), Oxford (1990), Vandergrift (1997) and Vandergrift et al (2006) demonstrated that successful language learners take special measures to solve their learning problems in particular contexts and demonstrated also that strategy use is crucial for language development.

Consequently, this theoretical review will serve as a support to the present research which focuses mainly on the implementation of listening metacognitive strategies in the Algerian context. This literature will clarify the mental processes and the strategies that learners may apply when engaged in a listening task. It will also contribute to our understanding of listening comprehension strategies in general and listening metacognitive strategies used by Algerian English learners in particular. The forthcoming chapter is concerned with the issues related to listening metacognitive strategy instruction

**CHAPTER THREE**  
**METACOGNITIVE STRATEGY INSTRUCTION**  
**IN LISTENING**

**Introduction**

L2 listening instruction has witnessed lot of changes through time. It has evolved from being considered as a passive skill "meriting little classroom attention" (Vandergrift 2004 : 03) to be recognised as an active skill "deseving systematic development in its own right". Moreover, approach to listening instruction has also shifted from the audio lingual teaching to the communicative teaching to the recent approach involving "real life listening in real time" (Vandergrift 2004 : 03). Furthermore, focus on listening has moved from focus on the product to focus on the process. Particularly, it expanded from "listening to learn" (ibid) to include "learning how to listen" (Goh, 2008 : 192).

The review of current literature in L2 listening instruction reveals that research undertaken in this field has brought useful insights for language practitioners ; nevertheless, many questions related to L2 listening instruction remain unexplored requiring investigation from researchers and teachers. Therefore, this chapter discusses the reasons for teaching strategies (see 3.1) and elucidates the concept of strategy training (see 3.1.1). This chapter also reviews some of the models of strategy instruction (see 3.2) and the major issues needing to be tackled in listening strategy training (see 3.3). It is followed by an overview of some empirical studies (see 3.4) realised by various researchers (Rubin 1988 ; O'Malley et al 1989 ; Bacon 1991 ; Thompson and Rubin 1996 ; Vandergrift 1996 ; Goh 1997 ; Goh 2002a ; Vandergrift 2003b ; Goh and Taib 2006 ; Graham and Macaro 2008 ; Vandergrift and Tafaghodtari 2010; Coşkun 2010 and Bozorgian and Alamdari 2013). Additionally, instructional frameworks (see 3.5) devised by many L2 listening scholars (Oxford 1990 ; O'Malley and Chamot

1990 ; Cohn 1998 ; Vandergrift 2004 and Goh 2008) as well as the metacognitive pedagogical sequence (see 3.6) adopted in this research are exposed. Thus, all the issues mentioned above are discussed in the following.

### **3.1- Reasons for Teaching Strategies**

As it has been mentioned previously (see 2.2), strategies are the purposeful actions that learners make use of in order to achieve their learning goal. They play a crucial role in the learning process (see 2.2.5). Thus, strategy instruction is concerned with facilitating the process of learning by raising students' awareness about some strategies that enable them to have insight into control over their learning process and increase their motivation to manage their own learning.

Furthermore, strategy instruction can help learners in many ways such as removing their anxiety, fostering their self-confidence and making them autonomous individuals (Flavel 1979, Graham and Macaro 2008; Goh 2008; Vandergrift and Tafaghodtari 2010; Coşkun 2010; Bozorgian and Alamdari 2013; Goh and Hu 2013; Zeng 2014). In this context, Oxford & Leaver (1996 : 227) wrapped up the whole benefits that can be gained from strategy instruction in five major points:

“...Strategy instruction teaches students how to be better learners in several specific ways: (1) identifying and improving strategies that are currently used by the individuals; (2) identifying strategies that the individual might not be using but that might be helpful for the task at hand, and then teaching those strategies; (3) helping students learn to transfer strategies across language tasks and even across subject fields; (4) aiding students in evaluating the success of their use of particular strategies with specific tasks; and (5) assisting subjects in gaining learning style flexibility by teaching them strategies that are instinctively used by students with other learning styles”.

Therefore, the overall goal of strategy training is to empower students with effective tools that enable them to become more self-directed, autonomous and efficient learners. However, strategy training that aims at awareness-raising should not be looked at as an ultimate solution or the key for every learning problem but is just a means to meet learners' needs. In this regard, the concept of strategy training (see 3.1.1) requires to be clarified.

### ***3.1.1- Strategy Training***

As it has been stated previously (see chapter two), learning strategies are very useful tools by which learners overcome their learning difficulties and solve their target language gaps. It has also been stated that strategy use differs according to the individual's differences (see 2.3) and was concluded that teachers should cater for these differences and learn from the insights about successful learners' characteristics (2.4) what the best strategies to be implemented in the language classroom are. This knowledge will hopefully help teachers to take decisions about how to help low level learners develop efficient strategies for language learning.

In this context, the ultimate goal of strategy training according to Cohen (1998: 70) is "to empower students by allowing them to take control of the language learning process". Cohen (ibid) outlined two major objectives for strategy training which include developing learners' strategy system and promoting learners' autonomy. According to this scholar, these objectives can not be attained unless instruction in this context is implemented.

Accordingly, Mendelsohn (1994, 1995, 2001), Rubin and Thompson's (1994), Ur (1996), Goh (2002), Lynch (2009), Vandergrift & Tafaghodtari (2010), Cecilia Aponte de Hana (2012) all claim the implementation of strategies in language learning via instruction. The latter aims at raising-

students awareness about some techniques that would eventually facilitate learning by empowering students to be self confident, autonomous and have control on their learning process.

Indeed, Mendelsohn (1995: 134) calls for a strategic based approach to teach listening and advises teachers to focus on teaching students the process of listening instead of the product one with the premise “to help learners become autonomous”. This can be achieved through the "orchestration" between metacognitive, cognitive, and socioaffective strategies to facilitate comprehension and to make learning more effective (Vandergrift, 2011). In this respect, Mendelson (1994), Rubin and Thompson's (1994) and Chamot (1995) devised principles to ensure successful strategy instruction. Thus, the next section will discuss some principles for effective strategy training.

### ***3.1.2- Principles of Effective Strategy Training***

As it has been stated previously, strategy based instruction is a learner-centred approach that aims at helping learners discover new ways of learning language effectively and easily via developing students' knowledge about their own thinking and encouraging them to adopt strategies enabling them to have control over their learning process. In this framework, Mendelson (1994), Rubin and Thompson's (1994) and Chamot (1995) (as cited in Cecilia Aponte de Hana 2012: 05) offer for teachers six suggestions for an effective implementation of strategy-based approach in the language classroom. These suggestions are as follows:

- Find out what strategies students are using;
- Select one or two strategies found to be missing and identify them by name. Then explicitly explain to students why and when these strategies could be used during the listening process;

- Model how to use each strategy by incorporating 'think aloud' protocols;
- Ask students to describe what they heard/observed;
- Give opportunities for students to practise their listening strategies, and ask them to assess how well they used them by engaging them in discussions.
- Encourage students to practice their strategies on a variety of tasks on a continuous basis.

It is evident from the above mentioned principles that strategy instruction as suggested by the aforementioned scholars has a double aim. These principles do not only offer the teacher the key steps for effective strategy training but also offer an opportunity to the students to discover themselves and have control over their language learning process. Consequently, a further explanation of these principles is discussed in the following.

### ***3.1.2.1- Find out what strategies students are using***

Before starting to give language courses, teachers can collect information about the students' strategies that they generally make use of. This can be achieved through the administration of some measures (see 4.2.3) such as the Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ) to raise learners' awareness about listening strategies (Goh 2008 and Vandergrift et al 2006). The teacher also can employ diaries as a means to collect data and get insights into learners' strategies in processing information as the latter are difficult to access (Cohen 1987, Allwright and Bailey 1991, Wenden 1991 and Goh 1997).

### ***3.1.2.2- Select strategies and explain them explicitly***

In order to remedy students' problems (see 1.6) regarding listening comprehension, teachers have to consider how the learners process

the information received when preparing a lesson plan. They can adopt, as Goh (2000) had done, Anderson's (1985, 2000) three-stage comprehension model comprising perception, parsing and utilisation (see 1.5) to raise the learners' awareness about listening strategies. Teachers may need to plan for activities that could help learners to overcome their language gaps. For instance, they may address this problem by "pre-teaching vocabulary, using extensive listening and considering alternatives to authentic language" (Harmer, 2001: 203).

In fact, pre-teaching the vocabulary existing in the listening text removes some of the barriers to understanding which students are likely to encounter. Another way of helping students is to expose them to extensive and intensive listening programmes which make students "more positive about listening, improve their overall comprehension and give them a wider vocabulary" (Harmer 2001: 204). Another key feature in the successful teaching of listening is the choice of comprehension tasks that can be realised through the selection of topics that capture the students' interest. Exposing learners to a variety of text types is also a way to familiarise them with spoken genres.

### ***3.1.2.3- Modeling strategy use via incorporating 'think aloud'***

Another way to raise students' awareness about listening strategies is by involving them in think-aloud activities. This method developed by Kasper (1984) and elaborated by Vandergrift (1997, 1998) enables teachers to access the processes through which learners go to complete a listening task (see 4.2.3). Thus, the instructor can explicitly show how a task should be completed by modeling. This does not imply that the instructor gives answers to the learners, but it is an opportunity for him/her to introduce pre-listening activities that "facilitate the perception and parsing phases of comprehension" (Goh, 2000: 28).

Therefore, during a listening activity, the teacher may adopt Mendelsohn's (1994) SIMT model referring to Setting, Interpersonal relationships between speakers, Mood, and Topic of a particular listening task. The teacher can ask various questions to "facilitate comprehension: where, when, who, how, what, and why". This strategy is useful because it "greatly enhances the chances of successful predicting, hypothesis formation, and inferencing" (Mendelsohn, 1994: 81).

#### ***3.1.2.4- Ask students to describe what they heard/observed***

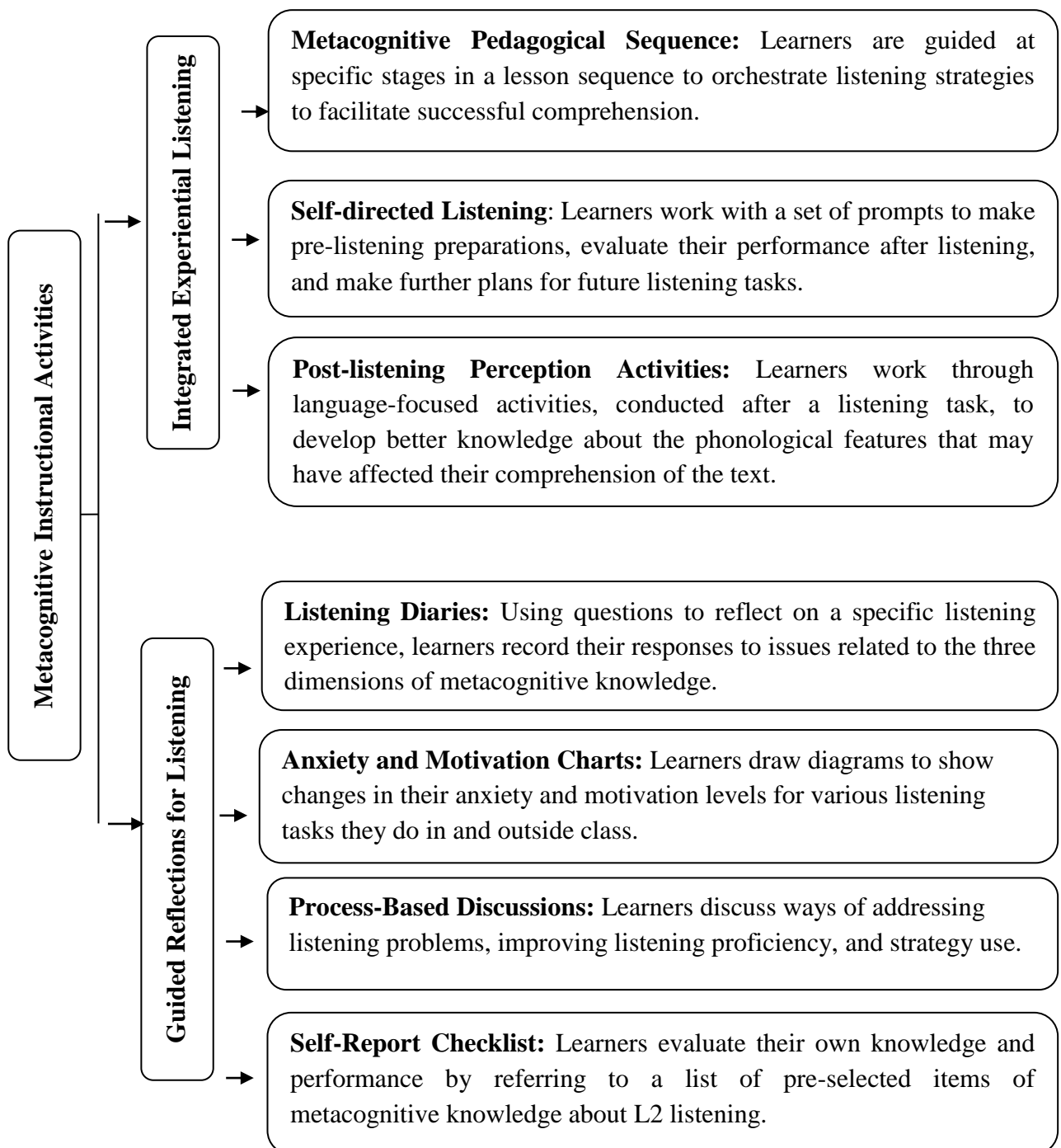
Another measure to get insight into how learners' process the aural message received is to ask them to describe the message they listened to. In this respect it is worth to mention that learners' understanding depends on whether the type of utterance was accompanied by specific linguistic, paralinguistic, and/or extralinguistic signals (Cecilia Aponte de Hanna 2012). The linguistic signals are the language coding system that humans make use of to communicate such as "syntax, lexis, morphology, phonology" (Mendelsohn, 1994: 82). Regarding paralinguistic signals, they are non-linguistic and non-verbal but coded signals. They give information about the speakers' feelings, attitude or emotional state. Concerning extralinguistic signals, as opposed to paralinguistic signals, they are not coded but contain evidential information which are not communicated but are inferred from "background noise, visual signals and choice of clothes being worn" (Mendelsohn, 1994: 83).

#### ***3.1.2.5- Give opportunities for students to practise their listening strategies and reflect on them***

According to Mendelson 1994, practice is important in a listening strategy based approach. Therefore, teachers have to implement diverse listening tasks to fulfill the goals and objectives of metacognitive instruction bearing in mind the

difference regarding learners' proficiency level (see 2.3.3). For example they can apply Goh's (2008) metacognitive instructional activities comprising "integrated experiential listening tasks and guided reflections for listening" (Vandergrift and Goh 2012: 126) reflected in figure 06 forthcoming.

**Figure 06:** Activities for Metacognitive Instruction



These activities offer an opportunity for learners to improve their understanding of the content of the text and at the same time become familiarised with the metacognitive processes involved. These include planning, predicting, monitoring, evaluation, directed attention, selective attention, and problem-solving.

### ***3.1.2.6- Encourage students to practice their strategies on a variety of tasks on a continuous basis***

In order to empower students with effective listening strategies and make of them autonomous learners, teachers have to motivate students and remind them constantly of the importance of those devices in facilitating aural comprehension. Instructors have to invite learners to do extra listening outside the language classroom and reflect on their experience in their diaries. The latter will be as a guiding map that would give them an idea about how to improve themselves on the basis of the language gaps noticed. Other practice activities involving reflection can be found in Vandergrift and Goh's (2012: 126) in the figure aforementioned. These kinds of tasks will not only enable learners to transcend their difficulties but will empower them to become autonomous and self-confident individuals.

In the light of what had been discussed in this section, the overall aim of strategy training should not be regarded as the ultimate solution to every learning problem, but it constitutes another way of approaching learners' needs. All in all, strategy instruction does not only leave learners use strategies to take control over the language learning process but it also aids them to consciously select the appropriate ones that might be useful to a given learning situation. In this framework, approaches addressing strategy instruction are considered in the section forthcoming.

### **3.2- Models of Strategy Instruction**

The three different models for engaging with strategies have been developed by Mendelsohn (1995), Vandergrift (2003a) and Field (2008). Each model can be located at a different point on a continuum of ‘explicitness’, where direct training is at one end and embedded training is at the other (Chen, 2005).

#### ***3.2.1- An Explicit Approach to Listening Instruction***

Mendelsohn’s (1995) approach proposes an explicit approach to listening instruction and is positioned towards the direct training end of the continuum. In the explicit instruction model, teachers inform learners of the value and purpose of target strategies. Demonstration think-aloud protocols, practice activities and teacher feedback help students to develop a detailed understanding of how, when and why to apply listening strategies (Chamot, 2005). Chamot believes this approach to L2 instruction is now widely valued amongst researchers. The core element of the approach is strategy training, which may necessitate the rewriting of listening curricula (Mendelsohn, 1995).

The approach advocates that teachers use authentic texts as the primary source of listening materials. When selecting passages, three criteria should be considered: the proficiency level of the learners; the appropriateness of the topic; and the relevance of the topic to students’ lives (Mendelsohn, 1995). Furthermore, scripted and graded passages should be restricted to practice exercises only. Additionally, teachers should design comprehension tasks which are simple to administer and do not burden students’ recall of information (Mendelsohn, 1995).

### ***3.2.2- An Implicit Approach to Listening Instruction: The Metacognitive Cycle***

In contrast, Vandergrift (2003a) proposes an implicit instructional model (see section 3.5.6) located at the embedded end of the explicitness continuum, known as the metacognitive cycle. The latter has been adopted for the current research and is thoroughly explained in section (3.6) forthcoming. Indeed, this cycle as preconised by Vandergrift (2003, 2007, 2010, 2012) allows the development of

“both top-down and bottom-up dimensions of listening as well as metacognitive awareness of the cognitive processes underlying successful L2 listening. Through an orchestrated use of hypothesis formation and verification, with the judicious application of prior knowledge to compensate for gaps in understanding, students acquire knowledge about listening processes”

(Vandergrift 2007: 198)

In other words, this metacognitive cycle as proposed by Vandergrift provides learners with listening strategies that enable them to process input effectively. Thus, it is implied that the way how to process information is left to the freedom of the learner. The latter is free to choose between analysing all the linguistic structures of the target language or relying on inferencing by drawing upon background knowledge and expectations of what comes next. According to Vandergrift (2003), metacognitive instruction requires the instruction of bottom-up and top-down processings respectively as both contribute to the understanding of the transmitted message. Yet, the degree to which listeners use the first process or the other one depends on “their knowledge of the language, familiarity with the topic or the purpose for listening” (Vandergrift, 2003: 427).

In implicit instruction, teachers facilitate students’ procedural knowledge through materials that elicit the use of specific strategies. Students are not informed of why or when the strategies are appropriate to use. Similar to

Mendelsohn (1995), Vandergrift (2004) recommends the selection and use of authentic texts and suggests that beginner level students can successfully comprehend short announcements and advertisements. Task performance is said to improve through practice, particularly when learners are prompted to reflect on their strategy use (Pressley, 2002, as cited in Vandergrift & Tafaghodtari, 2010). Furthermore, theorists now agree that indirect knowledge can play a significant role in L2 acquisition (Ellis, 2006).

The metacognitive cycle consists of five phases. In the pre-listening stage, the teacher provides learners with the topic and genre of the passage. This is used to predict the type of information and language (Vandergrift & Tafaghodtari, 2010). During the first listening, students verify their initial hypotheses, making notes to correct and add data (Vandergrift, 2003a). Learners then compare what they have comprehended with their peers and make modifications to their notes (Vandergrift & Tafaghodtari, 2010). As a group, students discuss what problems remain and which sections of the passage require further attention (Vandergrift, 2003a). During the second listening, learners verify points of disagreement and note extra information. The teacher leads a class discussion to reconstruct the main ideas and important details of the passage. Learners reflect on their strategy use in comprehending specific words and ideas (Vandergrift & Tafaghodtari, 2010). During the third listening, students listen for information elicited in the class discussion that they were not able to understand independently. In the final reflection stage, learners set goals for the next listening activity based on their performance of the task.

### ***3.2.3- An Eclectic Approach to Listening Instruction***

Field (2008) proposes a multi-strand teaching model that is located midway along the explicitness continuum. The model endeavours to realise the benefits of both direct and embedded instruction, with the view that an eclectic

approach to listening instruction is more effective in catering for different learning styles. The multi-strand approach uses an alternative inventory of strategies to those proposed by Mendelsohn (1995) and Vandergrift (2003a). Four categories of strategies are identified: achievement, repair, pro-activity and avoidance. Achievement strategies assist students to “make maximum sense of what has been decoded”, while repair strategies enable “learners [to] appeal for help” (Field, 2008: 298). Pro-active strategies assist in the prevention of comprehension breakdowns and avoidance strategies help learners to ‘get by’ without understanding all of the input. Teachers are advised to expose low proficiency level students to short narrative or instructional recordings. Tasks may be simplified or staged to ensure level appropriateness but learners should be gradually introduced to authentic texts.

Having reviewed the diverse frameworks to listening strategy instruction, it can be said that though each of them differs in its treatment approach and method, all the models aim “to equip learners as rapidly as possible with a range of strategies that will assist them to deal with everyday texts” (Field, 2008: 310). That is, all listening strategy instruction approaches aim at prompting language learning proficiency by equipping learners with tools that facilitate this process.

### **3.3- Issues in Listening Instruction**

Before tackling issues in the instruction of listening strategies, it will be judicious to define the term Instruction with the perspective to elucidate its meaning. In fact, Ellis (2005: 713) states that “instruction constitutes an attempt to intervene in the process of language learning”. As concerns the teaching of listening in second language programs, listening strategy instruction has witnessed divergent methodological issues differing between proponents and opponents of explicit and integrated strategy training and those related to direct versus embedded instruction.

### ***3.3.1- Separate and Integrated Strategy Instruction***

O'Malley and Chamot (1990) addressed in their book *Learning Strategies in Second Language Acquisition* some issues in instruction that require to be considered. The latter are linked with whether teaching should be separated or integrated with instruction.

Concerning "separate instruction" (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990 : 151), it consists of teaching students how to make use of strategies in an effective way disregarding the content. In this respect, The proponents of separate instruction or "isolated training" (Spada and Lightbrown, 2008: 186) argue that strategies will be better learnt if learners focus all their attention on "developing strategic processing skills rather than trying to learn content at the same time" (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990 : 152). In this kind of instruction, little teacher training is required.

Regarding "Integrated training" (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990 : 151), it consists of incorporating strategy instruction with the content. Those in favour of the current training argue that students learn language better if strategies are taught in context rather than being separated. Likewise, "practicing strategies on authentic academic and language tasks", according to them, "facilitates the transfer of strategies to similar tasks encountered in other classes" (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990 : 152). Furthermore, they suggest training teachers on how to implement strategy instruction into their classrooms.

### ***3.3.2- Direct and Embedded Strategy Instruction***

The issue related to separate and integrated learning strategy instruction is similar to the one linked to "direct and embedded training" (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990: 153). As far as direct or informed training is concerned, the latter refers to informing students of the importance and purpose of teaching strategy

and using it in learning. Arguments in favour of the actual training are that learners who are aware of the strategies being used have great opportunity to develop independent learning and be autonomous. Furthermore, Nunan (1996, 1997) as cited in Anderson (2005 : 763) stresses the importance of integrating explicit strategy instruction into the classroom curriculum. According to this scholar, " language classrooms should have a dual focus, not only teaching language content but also on developing language processes as well" (ibid). Thus, the major purpose of instruction is to raise students' awareness of learning strategies, then leave the freedom to choose what is appropriate to serve their objective.

As concerns "embedded or uninformed instruction" (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990 : 153), called in literature "covert or camouflaged training" (Oxford 1990 : p 209) the latter refers to training that presents students with activities and exercises structured in a way to elicit the strategies being taught without informing them of the reasons why this learning approach is being used. It assumes that learners can acquire strategy competence simply by doing it. This means "as students work on exercises and activities, they learn to use the strategies cued by the textbook" (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990 :153). Arguments in favour of embedded instruction are that little teacher training is required.

To sum up, this section has attempted to explore the major issues to the teaching of listening strategies for EFL learners. In the light of what has been discussed, a look at studies undertaken in listening instruction is highly recommended as unsolved instructional issues remain. An overview of previous studies, for instance, (Cohen 1998; O'Malley & Chamot 1990 ; Ozeki 2000 ; Oxford 2002 ; Carrier 2003 and Clement 2007 as cited in Guan 2015 :45) has proven the efficiency of informed teaching and advise to apply it in the language classroom. Accordingly, Chamot (2004: 19) calls for explicit training where teachers should "integrate the instruction into their regular course work, rather than providing a separate learning strategies course". Regardless of direct or

embedded strategy instruction, Vandergrift (2003) also advocates integrated training. The next section, will address the diverse investigations undertaken in listening strategy instruction.

### **3.4- Empirical Studies in Listening Strategy Training**

Reviewing current literature tackling metacognitive instruction reveals the important role that metacognitive strategies play in assisting students to self-regulate their learning and raising students' awareness about learning processes in which they are involved. In this context, many studies undertaken by many scholars (Rubin 1988 ; O'Malley et al 1989 ; Bacon 1991 ; Thompson and Rubin 1996 ; Vandergrift 1996 ; Goh 1997 ; Goh 2002a ; Vandergrift 2003b ; Goh and Taib 2006 ; Graham and Macaro 2008 ; Vandergrift and Tafaghodtari 2010; Coşkun 2010, Bozorgian and Alamdari 2013, and Goh and Hu 2014) have been realised.

Rubin (1988) investigated the effect of strategy instruction on the performance of high school learners of Spanish. The performance of the three experimental groups was compared with that of two control ones in the comprehension of video. Results revealed that the use of some listening strategies can help students work with difficult material. Rubin concluded that “the combination of well selected video and the acquisition of effective learning strategies can improve student affect and motivation” (Rubin, 1988: 32 as cited in Vandergrift, 1999 :171). Another investigation was developed by O'Malley, Chamot and Kupper (1989) as cited in Rahimi (2012). They explored differences between more and less effective language learners listening comprehension. The results revealed significant differences between the two categories of high school learners. Besides, O'Malley et al found that effective listeners used four strategies more than others namely: comprehension monitoring, problem identification, inferencing and elaboration.

In the same stream of strategy instruction, the strategies and effective reactions of students while listening to radio broadcasts in Spanish were studied by Bacon (1991). Differences were discovered between men and women. She found also that "men were significantly more confident, of their comprehension, felt better and relied more on English and bottom-up processing strategies than did women" (Bacon, 1991: 401). Thompson and Rubin (1996), as cited in Vandergrift (1999: 171), investigated also the effect of cognitive and metacognitive strategy instruction on Russian university students in a longitudinal study which lasted two years period. The results indicated that the use of metacognitive strategies helped students to improve their performance on the listening task.

Other investigations took place in Canada. For instance Vandergrift (1996) examined the strategies employed by learners of French of different grades in a selection of schools in Canada. The research indicated difference in strategy use between more and less proficient listeners mainly in comprehension, monitoring and problem identification. He also found that females reported using a greater variety of cognitive and metacognitive strategies than their male counterparts (Vandergrift, 1996: 212 as cited in Jing 2013 : 116). Vandergrift (2003b) examined also the differences in listeners' strategy use by more and less skilled Canadian seven grade students of French. The study revealed significant differences in the use of metacognitive strategies as well as in "individual strategies for comprehension monitoring, questioning for elaboration and translation" ( Vandergrift, 2003b: 463).

Additionally, Goh (1997) investigated Chinese students' metacognitive knowledge in L2 listening comprehension via analysing ESL learners' diaries. The study revealed that many of them had clear ideas about three aspects of listening: "their own role and performance as second language listeners, the demands and products of second language listening, and strategies for listening" (p 361). Likewise, Goh (2002a) examined a group of Chinese ESL learners'

listening strategies and the tactics operationalizing the latter via a retrospective verbalisation procedure. The study identified 44 tactics: 22 cognitive tactics grouped under eight cognitive strategies and 22 metacognitive tactics grouped under metacognitive strategies. Furthermore, a wider use of tactics was revealed to be used by more proficient learners. She concludes: “although individual tactics were useful, successful comprehension also depended on whether the listener was able to combine various mental tactics in a way that could truly enhance comprehension” (2002, p. 203).

Furthermore, Goh and Taib (2006: 222) had undertaken a small-scale study on metacognitive instruction for young ten primary school pupils. The investigation unveiled "deeper understanding of the nature and the demands of listening, increased confidence in completing listening tasks, and better strategic knowledge for coping with comprehension difficulties". Positive results were also discovered from Graham and Macaro's (2008) study which was concerned with measuring the effect of strategy instruction on both listening performance and self-efficacy of 68 lower intermediate learners of French in England against a comparison group. Results suggested that "the program improved listening proficiency and learners' confidence about listening" (Graham and Macaro, 2008: 747).

In addition to the previous investigations, many others focusing on metacognitive strategies, the concern of our study, were conducted. For example, Vandergrift and Tafaghodtari (2010) explored the effects of a metacognitive strategy instruction on 106 students of French. The empirical study disclosed that the experimental group, who received training on metacognitive strategies including prediction, planning, monitoring, evaluation and problem solving, outperformed the control group in listening. Later, Coşkun (2010) led a survey in turkey. He studied the effect of metacognitive strategy training on the listening performance of a group of beginner preparatory school students at a university in Turkey. The survey applied on two groups of learners comprising twenty

participants each revealed that the experimental group receiving instruction performed better than the control one.

In a more recent investigation, Bozorgian and Alamdari (2013) studied whether metacognitive instruction through a pedagogical cycle shifts high-intermediate students' English language learning and English as a second language (ESL) teacher's teaching focus on listening input. The intervention was applied on Twenty (20) male Iranian students who received a guided methodology including metacognitive strategies (planning, monitoring, and evaluation) for a period of three months. The results have shown that metacognitive "helped both the ESL teacher's and the students' shift of thinking about teaching and learning listening input" (p 01). Finally, the very recent study is linked to Goh and Hu's (2013) survey on the relationship between metacognitive awareness and listening performance by eliciting from 113 English-as-a-second-language (ESL) Chinese learners their metacognitive awareness with regard to knowledge of listening strategies used and perceptions of difficulty and anxiety following a listening lesson. The results unveiled a positive relationship between learners' metacognitive awareness scores and their listening performance.

To sum up, this section has attempted to address the diverse investigations undertaken in the field of listening strategy instruction and highlight the studies results as far as the crucial role of metacognition in promoting language development. The next section will tackle some instructional models devised for enhancing language learning via strategy awareness-raising instruction.

### **3.5- Instructional Frameworks**

Metacognitive instruction, as discussed by Vandergrift and Goh (2012), refers to "pedagogical procedures that enable learners to increase awareness of

the listening process by developing richer metacognitive knowledge about themselves as listeners, the nature and demands of listening, and strategies for listening. At the same time, learners also learn to plan, monitor, and evaluate their comprehension efforts and the progress of their overall listening development” (p 97). In fact, research undertaken in this area has proven that learners who are taught metacognitive strategies are more likely to develop deep thinking about the process they go through to learn. Additionally, they have great opportunity to self- regulate their learning and be autonomous. Accordingly, diverse instructional models forthcoming have been devised by researchers (Oxford 1990 ; O’Malley and Chamot 1990 ; Cohen 1998 ; Grenfell and Harris 1999 ; Macaro 2001 and Vandergrift 2004) with the perspective to maximize learning and bridge the gap between research findings and foreign language practices.

### ***3.5.1- Oxford’s Model***

Regardless of direct or embedded strategy instruction is used, Oxford et al (1990) advice to provide plenty of practice involving meaningful language learning tasks. With the perspective to enhance students’ thinking about their way of learning, Oxford (1990) designed a model for strategy training which focuses on “learning beliefs, attitudes, motivations as well as teaching specific strategies” (Oxford et al, 1990: 208). This model is outlined in eight (08) stages forthcoming.

First, the cycle starts by “setting the scene and exploring attitudes, expectations, and current strategies” (Oxford et al 1990: 208). This stage involves the collection of data from the learners, during a language task without any strategy training, regarding their beliefs about their role, expectations from language learning as well as “their anxieties, fears and even anger towards language learning” (ibid). This stage also involves assessing the students’

strategies via the use of various techniques such as observations, interviews, diaries and think-aloud procedures.

Then, once they finish the task, the teacher identifies and chooses the strategies based on some criteria such as “relevance of strategies; the needs and cultural/personal characteristics of the learners; transferability of strategies to different kinds of learning tasks; usefulness of strategies across different cultural backgrounds” (Oxford et al, 1990: 209). Next, the trainer considers “strategy training integration” (ibid) followed by a direct focus on affective issues to diminish learners’ fears and anxiety.

After that, teacher prepares the materials and activities that will be implemented in strategy training. This stage is followed by “conducting a completely informed strategy training” (op.cit) in which the trainer explicitly teaches the strategies and talks with the learners about the need for greater self-direction. The next stage involves “evaluating strategy training” (Oxford et al, 1990: 210) in which the teacher evaluates the success of what has been developed. Finally, comes the “revising stage” (ibid) where the trainer revises the strategy training procedure based on the evaluation preceding it. And the cycle begins again.

Though the steps suggested in Oxford’s model can be modified or rearranged in different orders depending on the purpose, the weak point of this framework, according to Liu (2010: 103), relies in the fact that it is hard to invest this model into a regular classroom program.

### ***3.5.2- O’Malley and Chamot’s Model***

With the intention to extend information gained from research to improve both foreign language learning and teaching in the language classroom, O’Malley and Chamot (1990) developed an instructional framework based on their own

research with second language learning strategies. This model called the Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA) is “designed to develop the academic language skills of limited English proficient (LEP) students in upper elementary and secondary schools” (O’Malley and Chamot, 1990: 190). It is intended to meet the academic needs of three types of students: those who have learnt the language via taking ESL classes or exposure to an English environment but could not develop academic skills serving their grade level; those who have acquired academic language skills in their mother language but find difficulty in transferring this knowledge to English; the third type concerns bilingual students who have not yet developed academic skills in both languages.

The CALLA lesson plan model includes "learning strategy instruction, content area topics, and language development activities" (O’Malley and Chamot, 1990: 201). The instruction provided is both direct and embedded and includes teacher-directed and learner centered tasks. O’Malley and Chamot (1990) splitted each CALLA lesson into five phases forthcoming: preparation, presentation, practice, evaluation, and expansion activities. They have even given a detailed description of each phase explaining how “content topics, academic language skills, and learning strategies can be developed in a CALLA lesson”.

Regarding preparation phase, the teacher attempts to find out what the students already know about the subject to be tackled, what gaps require to be addressed and tries to identify how they were taught to approach such a task. The strategies taught and practiced at this level are "elaboration (students recall prior knowledge), advance organisation (students preview the lesson), and selective attention (students focus on key vocabulary and concepts to be introduced in the lesson)" (O’Malley and Chamot, 1990: 201).

In the second phase, the teacher presents the new information as well as the strategies to work with. Additionally, he makes sure that the learners

understand the new information so that meaningful practice takes place in the following stage. The strategies taught and practiced at this level are

"selective attention while listening or reading (attending to or scanning for key ideas), self-monitoring (checking one's degree of comprehension), inferencing (guessing meaning from context), elaboration (relating new information to prior knowledge), note taking, imagery (imagining descriptions or events presented), and questioning for clarification".

(O'Malley and Chamot 1990: 202)

Concerning the third phase, students are given the opportunity to practise what has been taught and the teacher acts as a facilitator in assimilating the new information already presented and applying it effectively. The learning strategies practised in this phase of the CALLA lesson are:

"self-monitoring (students check their language production), organizational planning (planning how to develop an oral or written report or composition), resourcing (using reference materials), grouping (classifying concepts, events, and terminology), summarizing, deduction (using a rule to understand or produce language or to solve a problem), imagery (making sketches, diagrams, charts), auditory representation (playing back mentally information presented by the teacher), elaboration, inferencing, cooperation (working with peers), and questioning for clarification".

(O'Malley and Chamot 1990: 202)

As far as evaluation phase is concerned, students evaluate their performance with the teacher assistance so that they gain insight about what has been learnt and what remains to be reviewed. Learning strategies practised in the evaluation phase of a CALLA lesson are: "self-evaluation, elaboration,

questioning for clarification, cooperation, and self-talk (assuring oneself of one's ability to accomplish the task)" (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990: 202).

The last phase of the CALLA lesson is devoted to expansion activities. At this level, students are offered the opportunity to transfer the strategies learnt to other tasks, integrate them in their existing knowledge and continue developing academic language. In the expansion activities of a CALLA lesson, students can make use of any combination of learning strategies appropriate to the activities.

The CALLA model as presented by O'Malley and Chamot (1990) is an opportunity for both the teachers and learners to improve language teaching and learning via strategy training. According to Liu (2010: 103), it offers them the chance to revisit prior instructional phases as much as needed.

### ***3.5.3- Cohen's Model***

With the objective to help students to learn languages with great ease and efficiency, Cohen (1998) designed Styles and Strategies-Based Instruction Model (SSBI) which is learner-centered and implements both explicit and embedded strategy training in the course content.

This model is organised in five stages: "preparation, awareness-raising, strategy training, strategy practice and personalization of strategies" (Cohen 1998 as cited in Guan, 2015 : 52). During the development of training, the teacher plays various roles : "diagnostician, language learner, trainer, coordinator and coach" (Cohen 1998 as cited in Chamot, 2008 : 270). First, in the strategy preparation phase, the teacher diagnoses students' strategy knowledge which they have acquired from previous experiences. Besides, he identifies their current learning styles. In the second phase, the teacher provides his learners with new strategies through sharing his own learning experiences and thinking. In the third phase, the teacher trains the students explicitly how to make use of the learning

strategies by explaining what, when and where to use them. In the fourth phase, students are given the opportunity to practise what they learnt with the assistance of their teacher who supervises and monitors their difficulties. Finally, in the personalisation phase, the teacher evaluates the outcome of the learners' performance and provides them with ongoing guidance to progress.

This instructional model presented by Cohen (1998) describes and prescribes what a teacher should do in a regular EFL classroom. Though it provides teachers with great flexibility in teaching strategies, it seems that learners' freedom in selecting the strategies that suit their learning style (see 2.3.3) is neglected. In other words, the teacher stands at the center of the learning process where the learners have to follow the instructions regardless of their way of learning.

#### ***3.5.4- Grenfell and Harris's Model***

Sharing the same objectives of the previous models, Grenfell and Harris developed a strategy training model to promote students' metacognitive understanding of the importance of strategies in learning. Grenfell and Harris (1999) Model has students to work on a six stages cycle: "Awareness raising, modeling, general practice, action planning, focused practice and evaluation" (Grenfell and Harris 1999 as cited in Chamot, 2008: 270).

In the first phase, learners are asked to complete a task, and then identify the strategies they made use of. In the next stage, the teacher presents information about learning strategies, models them and emphasises their value. This stage is followed by a practice phase where the students transfer new strategies to new tasks. After that, students plan goals to reach and select appropriate strategies to attain them. In the fifth phase, the teacher gives chance to students by their own to carry out action plan using the chosen strategies.

Finally, the teacher and students evaluate the success of the action plan and fix new goals.

The strategy instructional model presented by Grenfell and Harris (1999) promotes strategy training by providing the teacher and learners with the opportunity to identify listening strategies, practise them and evaluate the effectiveness of their use.

### ***3.5.5- Macaro's Model***

Macaro (2001) proposed a cyclical strategy training model aiming at enhancing students' self-dependency and maximizing their autonomy. Macaro's model called Learner Strategies Training Cycle (LSTC) encompassing nine (09) steps into it (Macaro 2001: 176). The latter can be developed as follows.

In the first step, the teacher raises students' awareness about strategies by taking them back to previous experiences during which they made use of some strategies to solve a task. After that, the teacher explores other possible strategies available and underlines their great value in facilitating language learning. Then, these strategies are modelled by the teacher or other students. Next, specific strategies are combined with specific tasks with the teacher assistance. This step is followed by application of strategies learnt on other tasks with the trainer's support. Then, students' initial evaluation process comes where students decide on their success in strategy use followed by gradual removal of teacher's support. After that, students evaluate their performance by their own and monitor strategy use (op.cit).

The strategy instructional model presented by Macaro (2001) promotes strategy training by involving both teachers and learners in the process of reflection; ie, learners are prompted to reflect on their strategy use and teachers to

teachers are involved in thinking about how to approach listening strategy instruction.

### ***3.5.6- Vandergrift's Model***

Another strategy instructional model is developed by Vandergrift (1999, 2004, 2007 as cited in Vandergrift and Goh 2012) and Vandergrift and Tafaghodtari (2010). This model aims at developing students' awareness about the processes of learning and helping "listeners acquire the metacognitive knowledge critical to succeed in comprehension and in becoming self-regulated listeners" (Vandergrift et al 2012: 108- 110). This model involves five pedagogical stages namely "planning and predicting, first verification, second verification, final verification and reflection and goal setting". The latter will be thoroughly elaborated in the section (3.6) forthcoming as it constitutes the framework that has been adopted for this study. In this regard, it is necessary to mention that this model has been chosen for it differed from the other models already explained in the instructional approach. In fact, all the models share the same objective of equipping learners with a range of strategies that facilitate language development proficiency; however, they differ with Vandergrift's model in the fact that they emphasise explicit training based on the teacher rather than the implicit one. In other words, Vandergrift's framework is mainly focused on implicit training which aims at enhancing learners' reflection over their strategy use by relying on themselves without the intervention of the teacher.

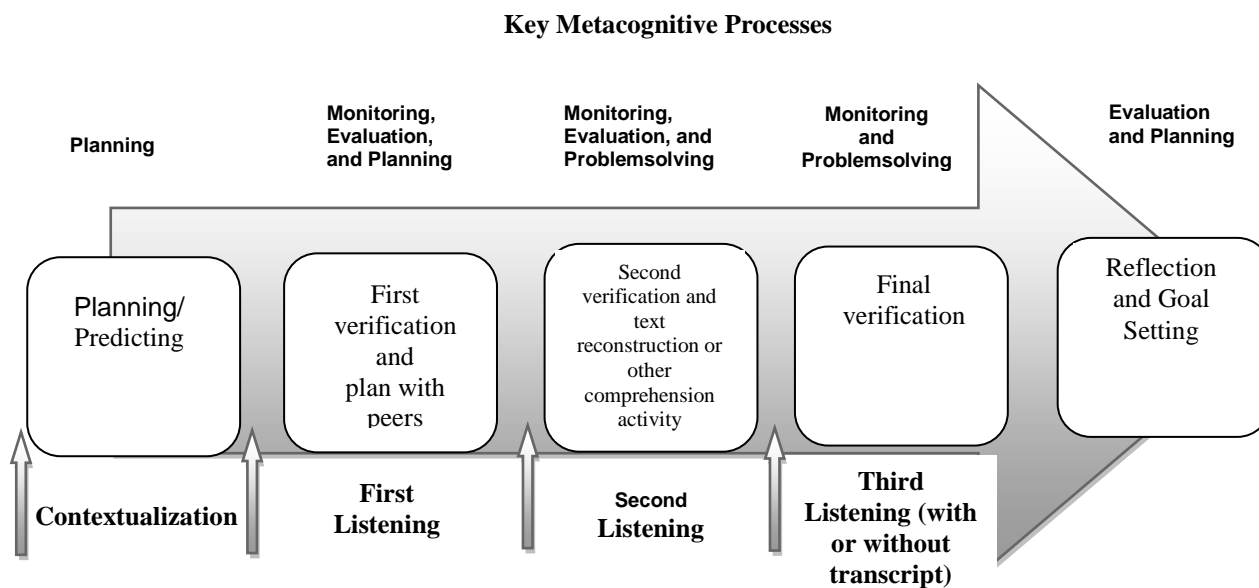
To sum up, though the diverse models of listening strategy instruction presented above differ in their way of training, they all share a common objective. All of them aim at helping learners discover new ways of learning languages effectively and easily via developing students' knowledge about their own thinking and encouraging them to adopt strategies that will develop their self regulation and autonomy. Besides, all the aforementioned models suggest the

new strategy should be modelled by the teacher, thus making training explicit. That is, an explicit strategy instruction, as discussed in section 3.2.1, includes the development of learners' strategy awareness via the teacher who is in charge of modelling of strategic thinking, identifying strategies by name and providing opportunities for practice and self-evaluation (Mendelson, 1995 and Chamot, 2005). However, the model presented by Vandergrift (1999,2004,2007 as cited in Vandergrift and Goh 2012) stresses implicit instruction of listening strategies where the students are not informed of why and when to use the latter but are prompted to reflect on their strategy use by themselves. The following section will deal in detail with Vandergrift's listening strategy instruction model adopted in the present investigation.

### **3.6- A Metacognitive Pedagogical Sequence**

The metacognitive framework to L2 instruction as proposed by Vandergrift and Tafaghodtary (2010) and Vandergrift and Goh (2012) offers principles that foster learners' self-regulation of listening (see figure 07). This approach encompasses three major components: experience, knowledge and strategy use. According to this model "experience is an involuntary response" whereas the two other components namely knowledge and strategy use "are amenable to instruction and can contribute to more effective listening, confidence, and motivation" (Vandergrift and Tafaghodtary, 2010: 101). Besides, through metacognitive instruction, learners will become more skilled in the use of metacognitive processes such as « planning for the activity ; monitoring comprehension ; solving comprehension problems and evaluating the approach and outcomes" (Vandergrift and Tafaghodtary, 2010: 105). The incorporation of these processes into the pedagogical model will be explained in the following.

**Figure 07:** Vandergrift’s Instructional Model (Vandergrift and Goh, 2012: 109)



Indeed, as it has been mentioned previously (see 3.5.6), Vandergrift’s instructional model is developed in five pedagogical stages. The latter are explained as follows:

***3.6.1- Pre-listening- Planning/Predicting stage***

The pre-listening phase is devoted to brainstorming activity during which the teacher leaves the students predict the types of information and possible words they may encounter.

***3.6.2- First listening-First Verification Stage***

This phase aims at developing monitoring and evaluating processes as well as planning. First, the learners verify their hypothesis fixed at the beginning, introduce corrections where required and take notes of additional information comprehended. After that, learners compare what they have understood with a

partener, introduce the required modifications and plan for a way to catch details that still need special focus.

### ***3.6.3- Second Listening- Second Verification Stage***

This phase is devoted at developing monitoring, evaluation and problem solving processes. At this stage, learners listen a second time to the audio text and verify points of disagreement, introduce corrections and write down additional details comprehended. Once learners have updated their understanding of the text, the teacher leads a class discussion in which all the class members participate in the reconstruction of pertinent details of the text.

### ***3.6.4- Third Listening- Final Verification Stage***

This stage develops monitoring and problem solving processes. After the third and last listening to the text, learners listen for the information discussed in the class that they could not grasp. The teacher may also distribute transcript of all or part of the text to verify difficult points to understand (Vandergrift and Tafaghodtary, 2010: 110).

### ***3.6.5- Reflection and Goal- Setting Stage***

This stage is devoted to evaluation and planning processes. At this level, the teacher encourages learners to think about the process they went through to solve the task at hand and evaluate their performance. Furthermore, students are given opportunity to set goals for future listening activities (Vandergrift and Tafaghodtary, 2010: 110).

To wrap up, section 3.6 addressed Vandergrift's framework related to listening metacognitive strategy instruction. This model which involves five pedagogical stages is adopted in the present study. The reason lying behind this

choice is the fact that this model differs from the other models already explained in the instructional approach. Vandergrift's model is mainly focused on implicit training which aims at prompting learners' reflection over their strategy use by relying on themselves without the intervention of the teacher

## **Conclusion**

With the perspective to implement listening metacognitive strategy instruction in the Algerian context, revisiting previous works developed in the field of listening was necessary to get insights into recent achievements. Therefore, chapter three of this study discussed thoroughly this aspect by tackling the reasons for teaching strategies (see 3.1), elucidating the concept of strategy-training (see 3.1.1) and the principles for its effective implementation in the language classroom (see 3.1.2). This chapter also reviewed some of the models of strategy instruction (see 3.2) and the major issues needing to be addressed in listening strategy training (see 3.3). It is followed by an overview of some empirical studies (see 3.4) undertaken in this field. Additionally, diverse instructional frameworks (see 3.5) besides the metacognitive pedagogical sequence (see 3.6) adopted in the present research were exposed.

The review of current literature in L2 listening instruction has allowed us to gain further knowledge about the practices related to listening metacognitive strategy instruction constituting the major concern of the present study. In fact, strategy training emerges as a very important tool in developing language proficiency. It plays a crucial role in the learning process as it helps learners in many ways such as removing their anxiety, fostering their self-confidence and making them autonomous individuals. The diverse instructional models based on learner-centred approach proved to be beneficial in terms of helping learners discover new ways of learning the target language effectively.

In fact, previous researches suggest that instruction designed to strengthen students' metacognitive awareness in listening should be introduced as an integral part of EFL instruction. These findings also revealed that EFL learners should be trained to reflect on and evaluate their progress in listening. This process can help them not only in improving their listening skill which is necessary to their academic progress but also in making them autonomous learners capable of holding control on their learning process. Therefore, bringing new ideas and new ways of approaching the listening skill in the Algerian language classrooms is worthy to be tested. Besides, it seems relevant to start considering new instructional frameworks that promote both students' learning and listening strategies for a better listening proficiency.

The three chapters forthcoming present respectively the research methodology and design adopted in this study, the research results as well as an analysis and discussion of the latter in the light of previous studies. Moreover, some implications and recommendations for future investigations are put forward.

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **METHODOLOGY**

#### **Introduction**

As it has been stated in the theoretical part, previous investigations in the field of listening established that metacognitive strategy instruction plays an important role in improving EFL learners' listening skill. The review of the literature revealed that developing students' thinking about their learning process, particularly in listening, and encouraging them to adopt strategies that will develop their self regulation and autonomy can increase language learning proficiency. Hence, the necessity to investigate this topic in the Algerian context rises. Therefore, with the perspective to find answers to the major research questions of the present study and in order to confirm or reject the hypotheses previously established in the general introduction, this chapter is devoted to the development of the methodology used for of the present study. The research method (see 4.1) adopted and the reasons for mixed type choice are presented. Likewise, the research design (see 4.2) including the participating informants and the tools implemented as well as the steps pursued to investigate the effect of consciousness-raising instruction about listening metacognitive strategies on developing Algerian EFL learners' aural skill are described. A number of justifications are put forward to explain the choice of the subjects, the tools used (see 4.2.2) as well as the procedure of investigation (see 4.2.4). This chapter also deals with the method of the analysis of the data collected via various research instruments. The data were collected via the use of a combination of research instruments namely two written tests (a pre-test and a post test); retrospective interviews, think-aloud protocols, a questionnaire (comprising two parts: a background questionnaire and a Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire) as well as learners' diaries.

#### **4.1- Research Method**

The present investigation is a longitudinal mixed methods case study. It aims at finding an answer to the major issue stated at the beginning of the general introduction, related to the effect of metacognitive strategy instruction on Algerian EFL learners' listening skill. In this context, it is necessary to mention that metacognitive strategies in the present research refer to the use of problem solving, planning and evaluation, mental translation, personal knowledge and direct attention. Moreover, it seems necessary to explain what is meant by case study.

Case studies according to Bell (2005: 10) "are used as a means of identifying key issues which merit further investigation, but the majority can be carried out as free-standing experiences". In our case, the field work and the collection of data are geared towards answering the research question already formulated.

Besides, this study is said to be longitudinal as it lasted approximately eighteen (18) months and was mainly focused on an experimental group to examine the extent to which there would be a change in the informants' performance during that period of time. According to Menard (2002) (as cited in Dörnyei 2007: 78), a longitudinal investigation is a

"research in which (a) data are collected for two or more distinct time periods; (b) the subjects or cases analysed are the same or are comparable (i.e. drawn from the same population) from one period to the next; and (c) the analysis involves some comparison of data between periods".

With regard to the conditions stated by Menard (2002), the three prerequisites for the realisation of a case study are met. That is, the period of time taken to conduct this research almost corresponds to the period stated by the scholar. The experimental and control informants of the study are drawn from the

same population before and after instruction with listening metacognitive strategies. Finally, the data collected before and after training are analysed quantitatively and qualitatively.

We should note at this point that a longitudinal study was traditionally associated with the quantitative paradigm aiming at “providing statistical pictures of wider social trends” (Dörnyei 2007: 79). Nowadays, however, longitudinal researches have extended this scope to reach mixed methods studies.

Regarding the term mixed methods, it implies the involvement of both quantitative and qualitative methods. This word entails the involvement of “different combinations of qualitative and quantitative research either at the data collection or at the analysis levels” (Dörnyei, 2007: 24). In this respect, quantitative research implies the collection of numerical data which are analysed statistically. Concerning the qualitative data, the latter involves the collection of non-numerical data which are then analysed by non-statistical methods. This combination of both methods is advocated by Lazaratou (2005: 219) who called to “combine qualitative and quantitative research methods, since each highlights "reality" in a different, yet complementary way”.

Therefore, our study adopted a mixed methods research as the use of both methods plays a great role in fostering the development of theories. This idea was emphasised by Strauss and Corbin (1998: 34 as cited in Dörnyei: 2007: 43) who advocated the true interplay existing between them. They claimed “The qualitative should direct the quantitative and the quantitative feedback into the qualitative in a circular, but at the same time evolving, process with each method contributing to the theory in ways that only each can”.

These scholars proclaim the combination between quantitative and qualitative methods as the interplay between them may eliminate the weaknesses of one approach and helps in increasing the strengths of another. Putting it differently, the use of one form of research or another can lead to the

development of theory, yet the major concern is how these might work together to foster the development of theory.

Additionally, mixed methods research design according to Creswell et al. (2003) means the occurrence of qualitative and quantitative research methods at one or at several stages of the study: setting up research questions, data collection and data analysis. Data can be collected simultaneously or sequentially during the study. They can also be integrated at different stages of the research process. Creswell et al. (ibid), summarized various possibilities in mixed methods studies as follows:

“A mixed methods study involves the collection or analysis of both quantitative and/or qualitative data in a single study in which the data are collected concurrently or sequentially, are given apriority, and involve the integration of the data at one or more stages in the process of research”

(p 212)

In the present study the application of mixed research methodology was chosen. As a matter of fact, the complex nature of the listening skill and the complex processes through which learning takes place call for both quantitative and qualitative approaches in data analysis. On the other hand, the mere statistical interpretation of the data might lead to misunderstanding the effect of awareness-raising instruction on the Algerian students' listening skill in terms of listening metacognitive strategies, namely problem solving, planning and evaluation, mental translation, personal knowledge and direct attention. Thus, a better understanding of the learning process can be achieved if the numerical data are backed up with qualitative data. More details about the reasons for the choice of a dual approach are provided in the following sub-section.

#### ***4.1.1- Purpose for Using Mixed Type Approach***

This longitudinal mixed methods case study has involved the mixing of quantitative and qualitative research methods. In this context, it is worth to mention that this type of method is known under various names. The latter include “multitrait, multimethod research, interrelating qualitative and quantitative data, methodological triangulation, multimethodological research, mixed model studies and mixed methods research” (Dörnyei, 2007: 163).

The purposes lying behind adopting a mixed methods research are multiple. Indeed, in addition to achieving a fuller understanding of the target phenomenon and verifying one set of findings against the other, mixed type methods aim to

- “ achieve an elaborate and comprehensive understanding of a complex matter, looking at it from different angles.
- Validate one’s conclusion by presenting converging results obtained through different methods.
- Reach the audience that would not be sympathetic to one of the approaches if applied alone”

(Dörnyei, 2007, 164)

In our case, the choice of a mixed methods research is to answer the research questions raised at the beginning of the study. Especially, the use of this research method helps in gaining insight into the effect of metacognitive awareness-raising instruction on the Algerian learners under study by testing the hypotheses already set and interpreting the results of the data collected via various streams. In this regard, it is necessary to remind that three hypotheses were put forward in the general introduction: the first one is related to the level of awareness about listening metacognitive strategies; the second one is linked to the type of relationship existing between metacognitive strategy awareness and learners’ aural performance. The third and last hypothesis is connected with the positive effect that strategy instruction may have on students’ listening

comprehension. This objective could have been realised by adopting one of the methods. However, the researcher made this choice purposefully as the use of a variety of data sources and research methods would not only enrich the study but would also help in corroborating the interpretations.

In addition to that, many investigations that have been realised in the field of listening comprehension and listening strategies ((Rubin 1988 ; O'Malley et al 1989 ; Bacon 1991 ; Thompson and Rubin 1996 ; Vandergrift 1996 ; Goh 1997 ; Goh 2002a ; Vandergrift 2003b ; Goh and Taib 2006 ; Graham and Macaro 2008 ; Vandergrift and Tafaghodtari 2010; Coşkun 2010, Bozorgian and Alamdari 2013, and Goh and Hu 2014) have used quantitative methodology. Some of them are reviewed in chapter three (see 3.4). Furthermore, many of the quantitative studies have relied on frequency counts and percentages. However, “quantitative methodology strips the individual participants and their culture out of the research” (Macaro, 2006: 321-322). Therefore, the use of qualitative methodology was necessary to complete what quantitative study could not reach.

Additionally, the obstacles that EFL learners encounter while listening to oral texts, the strategies they employ to remedy to their language gaps and the complexity of listening processing require the interplay between both methods. Consequently, following this dual approach, the current investigation involved quantitative approach, encompassing pre-post test design as well as an adapted version of Vandergrift's et al (2006) MALQ questionnaire. Then, in the qualitative approach, interviews , think-aloud protocol and diaries were implemented with the aim to collect supplementary data to support the quantitative one.

#### ***4.1.2- Research Questions in Relation to the Research Methods***

On the ground of the reasons aforementioned for the choice of a mixed type method, the present investigation aims at finding answers to three research

sub-questions directly linked with three hypotheses seeking confirmation or rejection. The latter are related to the use of listening metacognitive strategies by Algerian non-native speakers of English. Moreover, the study seeks to explore the effect of awareness-raising treatment about metacognitive strategies, namely problem solving, planning and evaluation, mental translation, personal knowledge and direct attention, on developing students' listening skill confidence in understanding native speakers' speech. These research questions are as follows:

- What are the listening strategies used by Algerian EFL students under study and to what extent are they aware of the listening processes used to achieve listening comprehension?

As it has been mentioned previously, the development of the listening skill is very crucial for the improvement of the students' competence and performance as far as the target language is concerned. This skill is developed at the University of Algiers<sup>2</sup> through the teaching of a module called Listening Comprehension and speaking module. Yet, the time allotted to the teaching of the latter is not sufficient as it is taught once a week for ninety (90) minutes time. Moreover, though this module is important for improving students' listening skill, EFL learners are not taught appropriately how to comprehend listening texts. In fact, great focus is put on testing students' ability to listen to aural texts and then answer comprehension questions based upon the information received rather than teaching them strategies that enable them process, comprehend the content and complete the tasks with great confidence.

Therefore, by determining the extent to which Algerian learners are conscious about listening processes, the researcher's path for moving to the next step will be obvious. That is, if learners are found to be aware of listening strategies and how to make use of them, teachers may look for a way to increase their use and make students feel more confident when responding to the spoken

language. However, if students are found to know nothing about those metacognitive strategies facilitating the processing of the audio texts, teachers will bring them forth to improve their listening level through seeking an appropriate approach to instruct them as well as attract their attention to their decisive role in facilitating comprehension of oral texts with great facility, competence, and confidence. Therefore, finding an answer to the first issue will confirm or reject the first hypothesis already put forward by the researcher suggesting that Algerian EFL learners under study are aware of of the listening processes used to achieve listening comprehension.

Accordingly, addressing this question can be reached via assessing students' level of awareness by conducting a pre-test and an interview besides administering the MALQ questionnaire and diary keeping. Furthermore, with the purpose to unveil the strategies frequently employed in listening comprehension and the students' level in listening, a comparison is set out between the data retrieved from the experimental group and that related to the control informants belonging to first year and second year English LMD.

- Is there a relationship between metacognitive strategy awareness-raising instruction and students' performance in listening? Putting it differently, do students who score higher in the Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ) perform better in the listening test than those who score low?

This question is meant to answer the researcher's enquiries related to the possible link existing between metacognitive strategy awareness and learners' test scores. In other terms, in order to find out whether there is an intercorrelation between MALQ scores and test scores, the focus was put on the analysis of experimental group achievements prior and after receiving treatment about metacognitive strategies. Accordingly, a pre-test and a post-test were assigned to the both the experimental and control participants to assess their listening

comprehension level; besides, the MALQ questionnaire was administered to the informants to evaluate their listening metacognitive strategy awareness. Thus, the students' level of metacognitive awareness was determined by the analysis of the results of the questionnaire. Besides, the intercorrelations between metacognitive awareness and actual listening behaviour were examined by correlating the MALQ scores with listening comprehension test scores. Consequently, by examining this issue, the second hypothesis set out by the researcher could be confirmed or rejected. The latter states that there exists a relationship between metacognitive strategy instruction and learners' listening outcome.

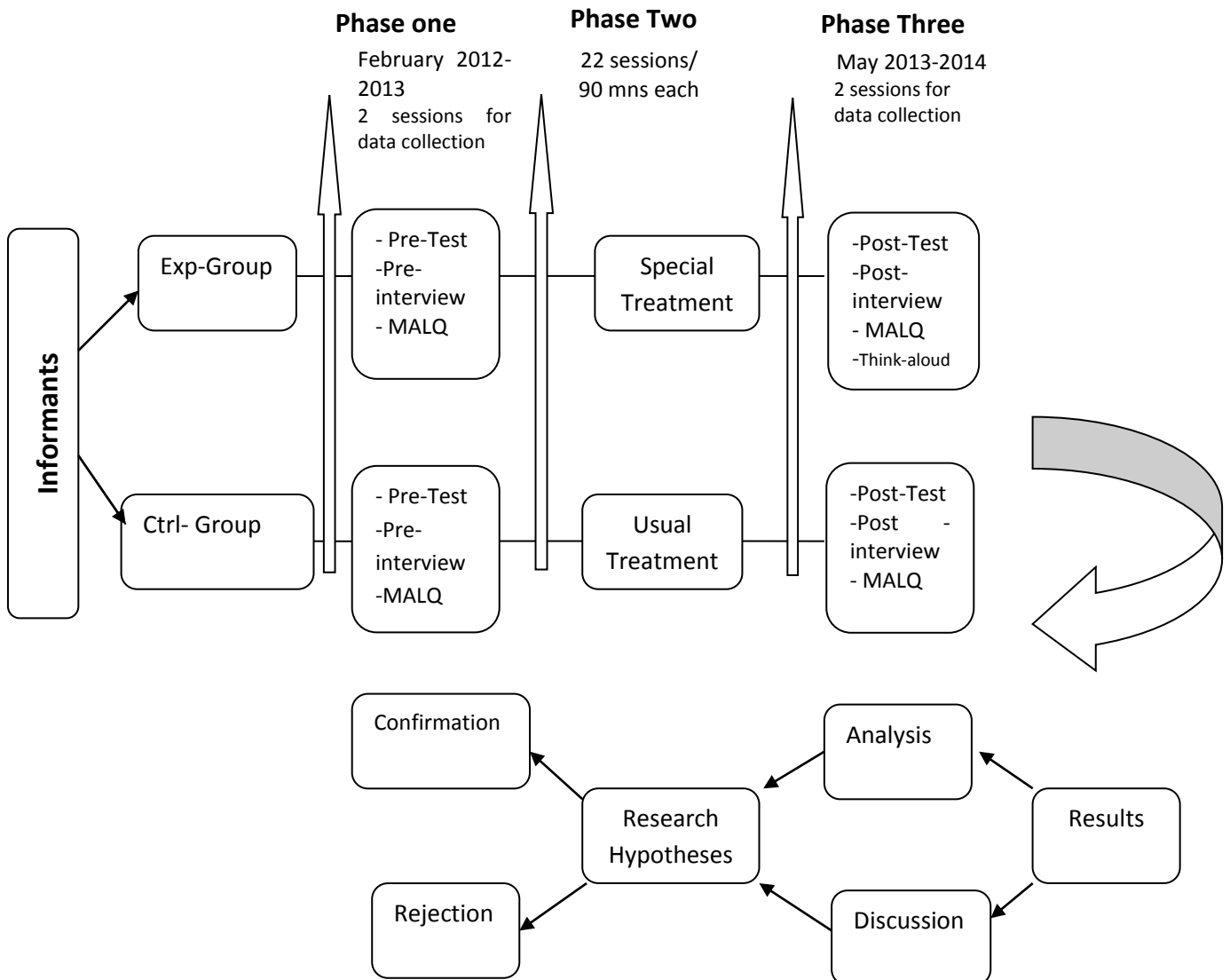
- Does listening metacognitive strategy instruction, considered in this study, increase Algerian students' listening comprehension skill? Particularly, how well does the experimental group do before and after treatment as compared to the control one?

Indeed, answering this question will allow us to draw conclusions about the efficiency or deficiency of classroom instruction, and whether the treatment received as far as listening metacognitive strategies are concerned enhanced Algerian EFL learners' listening comprehension level. Consequently, the answer to this question can be attained through comparing the experimental group and control groups data realised before instruction with that collected after treatment. The participants' listening tests score, the interviews, the MALQ questionnaire results, the think-aloud protocols besides diaries, achieved during the pre-instructional phase, were analysed and compared with the results of the data retrieved from post-instructional phase analysis to determine the evolution of the Algerian students' listening level. Moreover, in accordance with the answer to this research question, the confirmation or rejection of the third hypothesis put forward by the researcher will be established.

## 4.2- Research Design

With the perspective to find answers to the three research questions related to the effect of instruction with listening metacognitive strategies such as problem solving, planning and evaluation, mental translation, personal knowledge and direct attention, on developing students' listening skill , this section presents a short explanation of the design adopted in the present study namely the setting where the survey was undertaken, the subjects involved in the survey, the research tools employed as well as the procedure followed in the investigation.

**Figure 08:** The Design of the Investigation



#### ***4.2.1- The Setting***

As it has been stated previously, the present research focuses on equipping Algerian EFL learners with listening metacognitive strategies namely problem solving, planning and evaluation, mental translation, personal knowledge and direct attention. This research also attempts to answer some issues relating to students' use of these learning strategies as well as the effect of awareness-raising treatment about those elements on developing Algerian students' listening skill.

The researcher conducted the present study in Algeria at the level of University of Algiers<sup>2</sup>. In this respect, it is necessary to mention that the researcher teaches at the English Department which facilitated the task of collecting the data serving the study and offered an opportunity to meet the informants when needed.

#### ***4.2.2- The Subjects***

With the perspective to find answers to the aforementioned research questions and with the intention to confirm or reject the hypotheses previously established, the researcher carried out a longitudinal study lasting approximately eighteen (18) months. The latter started in the academic year 2012-2013 and continued till the end of the academic year 2013-2014. During this period of time, twenty (26) sessions were devoted to the instruction of the listening metacognitive strategies and to the collection of the data serving the research. Besides, a quasi-experimental approach was adopted. As previously introduced, the population of the present investigation, presented in table n°03, comprises one hundred (100) Algerian graduate students belonging respectively to first and second year English LMD. The population is a mixture of male and female young students aged between eighteen (18) and twenty five (25) years old belonging to different social and cultural backgrounds. Precisely, they come from

different regions of Algeria and have different baccalaureates: literary, scientific and exact sciences. Additionally, all the members of the population are multilingual. They speak at least two of the following three languages: Arabic, French, Berber besides the English language which they have been studying for approximately seven years.

The study population was divided randomly into experimental and control groups. Thus, two groups, each one comprising twenty five (25) elements, participated in the phase prior instruction whereas the two other groups, consisting of twenty five (25) subjects each, participated in the post instructional phase. It is necessary to mention that the experimental group that received a special treatment is the same one that was followed in the second year. The treatment received lasted twenty two (22) sessions, each one lasting ninety (90) minutes. It aimed at raising awareness about listening metacognitive strategies particularly problem solving, planning and evaluation, mental translation, personal knowledge and direct attention strategies. Concerning the control groups, they received a normal instruction. All the groups are enrolled in the English department, at the University of Algiers 2 “Abouelkacem Saadallah” to get a Bachelor degree (BA degree) in English as a foreign language.

It is worth mentioning in this respect that the reason lying behind choosing an experimental group and a control one is to make a comparison between them as far as awareness-raising instruction about listening metacognitive strategies is concerned. In fact, comparing the experimental informants' scores with those of the control ones helps us to gain insight into the experimental group level of awareness about listening metacognitive strategies prior treatment. Besides, the results obtained after treatment are compared with those of the control group to see whether the special treatment received affected the listening skill of the experimental participants and get a picture of their performance.

**Table 03:** The Subjects Participating in the Investigation

	<b>Subjects</b>	<b>Number of Students</b>	<b>Age</b>	<b>Occupation</b>	<b>Level</b>
<b>Prior-treatment Phase (2012-2013)</b>	<b>Experimental Group</b>	25	18-25 years old	Algerian English University Students	First year English LMD
	<b>Control Group</b>	25			First year English LMD
<b>Post-Treatment Phase (2013-2014)</b>	<b>Experimental Group</b>	25	19-25 years old		Second year LMD students (The same experimental group followed from first year)
	<b>Control Group</b>	25			Second year English LMD

As it is exhibited in table 03, the total number of the informants participating in this investigation is one hundred (100) participants. The subjects were divided from the beginning into experimental and control groups to ease the flow of the experiment. All four groups are a mixture of male and female young students aged between eighteen and twenty five years old belonging to different social and cultural backgrounds. Particularly, they come from different regions of Algeria and have different baccalaureates: literary, scientific and exact sciences streams. Additionally, all the participants are multilingual. They speak at least two of the following three languages: Arabic, French, Berber besides the English language which they have been studying for approximately seven years.

#### **4.2.3- Research Tools**

Exploring language learning strategies implemented by language listeners is a hard task to undertake since listening is a “covert process” (Vandergrift, 2007: 192). Furthermore, identifying the listening processes taking

place in the learners' brain is hard to access. This idea has been underlined by Grenfell and Harris (1999: 54) who stated:

"it is not easy to get inside the 'black box' of the human brain and find out what is going on there. We work with what we can get, which, despite the limitations, provides food for thought"

Therefore, investigating L2 listening via the implementation of a process-based approach might supply studies with valuable insights into the processes of listening. This can be achieved by the use of various techniques. For instance, with retrospection techniques, listeners can supply information about their listening experience. As a matter of fact, questionnaires can reflect the level of students' awareness of the process of listening and, when used repeatedly "can track any changes in awareness of the listening process" (Vandergrift, 2007: 192). Stimulated recall also can reflect listeners' changes in response over time on the same questionnaire. Besides, according to Vandergrift (2007: 192), "interviews and diaries can provide insights into the ways in which listeners deal with strategy training or their perceptions of a new experience".

Introspection techniques as another way of investigating listening processes try to make listeners reflect on the oral text while they are listening. According to Vandergrift (2007), data collected through think-aloud procedure "are useful for shedding light on how listeners arrive at different interpretations of a text, how they orchestrate cognitive and metacognitive strategies to construct meaning, or how they use visual and aural information to understand videos" (p 192).

Furthermore, a process oriented approach into listening can be dealt with "bi-directionally" (Vandergrift, 2007: 192) by involving both the researcher and the informant in the investigation. For example, observing videotaped interviews can bring information about the interactions occurring between the speaker and the listener (Farrel & Mallard 2006 as cited in Vandergrift, 2007: 192).

All of the techniques outlined above can shed light on the processes of listening. Nevertheless, they are often called into question when used alone. Consequently, a combination of multiple techniques is necessary to overcome these limitations and enhance reliability (Goh, 2000; Hamman et al 2000; Chamot et al 1992; Chamot 1993; White 1995; White 1999; Vandergrift 2006; Vandergrift and Tafaghodtari 2010).

In fact, many studies of learning strategies have successfully used multiple techniques in exploring listening processing. For instance, Chamot et al (1992) used think-aloud protocols as well as retrospective interviews in which the subjects were asked to explain how they solved the problem. White (1995) used questionnaires and verbal protocols in her research. In another study by White (1999), interviews, ranking exercises, questionnaires and scenarios were all used to examine learners' aural input processing. Observation and self-report questionnaires were also used by Hamman et al (2000). Goh (2000) made use of diaries and semi-standardized interviews to collect data about listeners' comprehension problems. Additionally, questionnaires and classroom observation were employed by Chamot (1993) and diaries as well as questionnaires were implemented by Vandergrift (2006, 2012).

In this context, with reference to what has been mentioned before, and with the perspective to ensure validity of the findings, we made use in this research of multiple techniques to gather the quantitative and qualitative data necessary to answer the enquiries of the present research related to the effect of metacognitive strategy instruction on learners' listening skill. Particularly, we employed "multiple lines of sight" (Bruce, 2001: 04) like written tests, interviews, questionnaires and diaries. This can be explained by the fact that by combining diverse lines of sight, "researchers obtain a better, more substantive picture of reality; a richer, more complete array of symbols and theoretical concepts; and a means of verifying many of these elements" (op.cit). Thus, in this survey we employed two written tests (a pre-test and a post test);

retrospective interviews, think-aloud protocols, a questionnaire (comprising two parts: a background questionnaire and a Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ) as well as learners' diaries. Each of these tools is presented below.

#### **a- A Pre-Test and a Post- Test**

Two written tests were assigned to the subjects of the study: a pre test, administered in February 2013, and a post test, administered in May 2014. The reason for the choice of this tool is to discover the extent to which Algerian EFL learners under study can manage to understand the overall conversations to which they were exposed and assess their level in metacognitive listening strategies use prior and after treatment in this matter. The informants were devoted 15 minutes to do the task to which twenty (20) points were allotted; that is one point for each correct answer. Then, the results scored were compared and analysed to determine the extent to which awareness about metacognitive strategies had developed.

With regard to the pre-test (see appendix N°02), the subjects of the experimental group and the control one, belonging to first year LMD, were assigned a task adapted from London and Richards' Expanding Tactics for Listening (2004: 18), comprising two activities, to assess students' ability to comprehend listening texts and identify their awareness about listening metacognitive strategies namely problem solving, planning and evaluation, mental translation, personal knowledge and direct attention. Thus, the learners were asked to answer the two parts of the test in addition to a third one, added by the researcher, which focused on gap filling with key words. In this respect, it is worth mentioning that the additional activity was implemented by the researcher on purpose in case the two former activities would not provide informative evidence about students' metacognitive strategy use under study.

Regarding the first listening activity, the experimental and control informants were required to put the sentences in the correct order relying on the information presented to them. They were expected to rely mainly on direct attention, personal knowledge and problem solving strategies to answer this activity. Concerning the second listening activity, the participants were required to put a tick on the correct answer with reference to the information provided. They were also assumed to make use of some metacognitive strategies particularly personal knowledge and direct attention strategies. As far as the last activity is concerned, the students were expected to fill in the gaps with words extracted from the audio recording to which they were exposed. They were required to make use of one of the five metacognitive strategies aforementioned. Therefore, one point was allotted to each item so that the maximum score would be 20.

As concerns the post-test (see appendix N°03), it was similar to the pre-test in terms of the test format and the metacognitive strategies under study. The post-test consisted of a task adapted from London and Richards' *Expanding Tactics for Listening* (2004: 19). The purpose behind it was to assess the students' listening skill development and identify the metacognitive strategies used to comprehend the listening text. Therefore, the subjects of the experimental group, who received special treatment from first year, and the informants of the control group, belonging to second year English LMD, were asked to answer the two parts of the test in addition to a third one, added by the researcher, which focused on gap filling with key words. In this framework, it is necessary to state that the additional activity was implemented by the researcher on purpose in case the two former activities would not provide informative evidence in terms of students' use of the five listening metacognitive strategies under study such as problem solving, planning and evaluation, mental translation, personal knowledge and direct attention. The test included 20 items

where one point was allotted to each correct answer so that the maximum score would be 20.

Regarding the first listening activity, the informants were required to check the correct answer relying on the information presented to them and the metacognitive strategies on which they received instruction. In this activity, the informants were expected to rely mainly on direct attention and personal knowledge to answer the task. Concerning the second listening activity, the participants were asked to circle the correct answer with reference to the information provided. They were also required to make use of some metacognitive strategies particularly personal knowledge and direct attention strategies. As far as the last activity is concerned, the students were expected to fill in the gaps with words extracted from the audio recording to which they were exposed. They were required to make use of one of the five metacognitive strategies previously stated.

It is worth underlining in this context that because the written tests conducted were too succinct, and because the link between metacognitive strategies and the students' tests scores was not obvious, the researcher considered the results reached insufficient to draw conclusions about the learners' improvement as far as listening metacognitive strategy use is concerned. Consequently, it was necessary to employ other research instruments such as the MALQ questionnaire, retrospective interviews as well as diaries and think-aloud protocols to carry out the present study.

#### **b- Retrospective Interviews**

In this study, the investigator employed two retrospective interviews with the intention to collect information about students' consciousness in relation to aural strategy use while engaging in listening tasks. That is, the retrospective

interviews carried out required the subjects of study; i.e., experimental group, to reflect verbally on the listening task they had already listened to by answering few questions in relation to it. Therefore, the elucidation of the term “retrospective” as used by Anderson and Vandergrift (1996: 4) is necessary. According to them “if an informant tries to analyse or interpret his or her thought processes, during a task or after a task has been completed, it becomes self-observation, ie; retrospective”.

The first retrospective interview took place before the instructional phase; i.e., in February 2013. The second one was conducted in the fourth semester just after the post-test; i.e., in May 2014. Besides, it is worth noting that the participants were informed that the interview was more like a casual conversation without knowing that their strategy use in understanding the listening task was the research target. In this context, it is judicious to elucidate the meaning of interview concept.

In fact, interviewing is defined simply “as a conversation with a purpose. Specifically, the purpose is to gather information” (Berg, 2001: 66). Moreover, according to Bell (2005:157), it is a means by which “the interviewer can follow up ideas, probe responses and investigate motives and feelings which the questionnaire can never do. It can provide information that a written response would conceal”.

Three types of interviews can be determined: the standardized interview, the unstandardized interview and the semistandardized interview. As concerns the first one, it is designed “to elicit information using a set of predetermined questions that are expected to elicit the subjects’ thoughts, opinions and attitudes about study-related issues” (Berg, 2001: 69). In contrast to the standardized interview, the unstandardized one requires the interviewer “to develop, adapt, and generate questions and follow-up probes appropriate to the given situation and the central purpose of the investigation” (Berg, 2001: 70). Concerning the

last type of interview; ie, the semistandardized interview, it is located between both the aforementioned types. It involves “the implementation of a number of predetermined questions and/or special topics, but interviewers are permitted to probe far beyond the answers to their prepared and standardized questions” (Berg, 2001: 70).

Accordingly, the interviews carried out in this investigation took the form of semistandardized interviews. That is, in the interview preceding instruction, the experimental subjects were asked questions having connection with the strategies used to comprehend the listening passage (see appendix N°10). However, the research was restricted to only ten (10) interviews, which were chosen randomly, as the transcription, coding and analysis procedures are time consuming. The purpose behind the employment of the interviews is to gather information about the kind of problems that EFL students may face in the language classroom and the possible strategies that might be used to overcome listening obstacles. Additionally, interviews make students reflect on the process they went through in order to accomplish the listening task. The time allotted to each interviewee ranged between three (3) to five (5) minutes talk.

As concerns the second interview, conducted after the treatment phase; i.e. in May 2014, the subjects of the investigation belonging to the experimental group were asked almost the same questions as in the pre-interview. The aim behind this interview is twofold: to investigate how EFL students dealt with aural task problems besides assessing the improvement of the students’ listening skill as far as metacognitive listening strategies use is concerned. The time allotted to each interviewee was not fixed but was open till the interviewee finished answering. In sum, the average talking time ranged between 3 to 5 minutes talk. In this context, it is worth mentioning that both the pre and post interviews were recorded and transcribed. Consequently, students’ corpora were realised and analysed.

Before putting into concrete form these corpora, the student data were transcribed, for “spoken language must be transcribed before it can be studied” (Biber, Conrad and Leech, 2002: 10). That is we had to listen to the recorded interviews and write down exactly what was said so as to achieve the goal of transcription which is to be “detailed enough to retain enough information to conduct linguistic analysis in an efficient way and simple enough to be readable” (Taglimonte, 2006: 54). The student corpora were transcribed in a standard orthography resembling in some way Cambridge and Nottingham Corpus of Discourse in English (CANCODE) transcription. In this transcription, the ordinary symbols of written texts as well as conventional punctuation were used. For instance, a full stop indicates a completed intonation unit; a comma indicates a continuing intonation unit; and a question mark indicates a question (see transcription conventions in appendix N°14). In the present investigation, the researcher adopted CANCODE transcription symbols as cited in Adolphs (2008: 137-138).

### **c- Questionnaire**

A questionnaire was designed and administered twice to the subjects of the survey; i.e., the experimental and the control groups. Indeed, the informants were first presented with the MALQ questionnaire just after the interview preceding instructional phase; i.e. in the third week of the first semester March 2013 (see appendix N°09). The MALQ was implemented the following academic year for a second time by the end of May 2014; i.e., after listening metacognitive strategy instructional phase took place. It aimed at providing us with the necessary information to answer the research questions aforementioned and to assess the effect of listening metacognitive strategy instruction on EFL learners’ awareness of the processes underlying listening.

In fact, the questionnaire is viewed by Nunan (1986) as a popular means of collecting data. According to him, “it enables the researcher to collect data in field settings, and the data themselves are more amenable to quantification than discursive data such as free-form field notes, participant observers’ journals, and the transcripts of oral language” (Nunan, 1986:143).

With regard to this questionnaire, it comprises two parts: a background questionnaire and a Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ) adapted from Vandergrift et al (2006). The latter had two fold objectives: the first one aimed at gathering information about the subjects participating in the investigation and the second objective related to the processes EFL students went through in order to comprehend the aural message presented and accomplish the listening task. That is, the background questionnaire was used to obtain information about the participants’ number, gender, age, occupation and level. The second part of the questionnaire concerned the Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ) (see appendix N°09). The latter requires to be further explained.

In fact, the MALQ, consisting of 21 randomly ordered items related to metacognitive strategies in L2 listening comprehension, was administered to the subjects of the study as a “teaching tool for raising learners’ awareness about L2 listening” (Goh: 2008: 206) and as a pretest/posttest instrument to assess the impact of metacognitive strategy instruction on students’ comprehension. The twenty one (21) items measure the perceived use of five (05) metacognitive strategies underlined by Vandergrift (1997) and Goh (2002a) involving problem solving, planning and evaluation, mental translation, person knowledge and direct attention. According to Vandergrift et al (2006: 446), the 21 items were randomly organised in a scale corresponding to five factors related to metacognitive strategies (see appendix N°09). In other terms, questions 5, 7, 9, 13, 17 and 19 correspond to “Problem solving” strategy; questions 1, 10, 14, 20 and 21 refer to “Planning and Evaluation” strategy; questions 4, 11 and 18

identify “Mental translation” strategy; questions 3, 8 and 15 refer to “Person Knowledge” strategy and questions 2, 6, 12 and 16 relating to “Directed Attention” strategy. Finally, an information note was introduced at the front cover page assuring respondents that this was not a test and that their honest responses were important for the research.

As pointed out earlier, the participants were required to complete a retrospective self-report questionnaire constructed in a way to answer the issues considered to be significantly informative about the use of metacognitive listening strategies by EFL students and designed to measure metacognitive awareness at both the beginning and end of the treatment. Accordingly, the subjects had to supply their answers in twenty (20) minutes.

The MALQ is designed in the form of “Likert scales” (Bell, 2005:138). The latter was originally devised by R. Likert in 1932 to discover the strength of feeling or attitude towards a given statement or series of statements. With reference to this scale, the highest category chosen reflects the strength of agreement on the given statement. The reason behind the choice of this type of questions is that the more they are well structured the fewer problems will be encountered at the analysis stage (Bell, *ibid*). Thus, a list of items is presented.

It is worth underlining in this context that the questionnaire had been piloted before being administered to the subjects of survey. The purpose lying behind this step is to make sure that the questions set are answerable and that the respondents in the main study will experience no difficulties in completing it. Accordingly, Bell (2005) and Nunan (1986) stressed the necessity to pilot questionnaires. Bell (2005:147), for instance, asserts that piloting enables us “to test how long it takes recipients to complete them, to check that all questions and instructions are clear and to enable to remove any items which do not yield usable data”. Moreover, Nunan (1986: 145) stated that “it is imperative to pilot any questionnaire which is developed”.

Consequently, in the first week of the first semester March 2013 before starting the treatment phase, the pilot study was applied on eight (08) subjects belonging to both control groups (first, second and third years LMD) and experimental group (first year LMD). These learners were given copies of the questionnaire as it appeared in Vandergrift et al. (2006), and were asked to identify (by circling) any words, phrases, or entire statements which they did not completely understand. The results revealed no difficulty in understanding the wording of the statements; however, as concerns the time allotted to answer of the questionnaire, five more minutes were required; i.e., twenty (20) minutes were applied instead of fifteen (15) minutes.

Having constructed the questionnaire, piloted it with reference to Bell's (2005) instructions and administered it to the informants of the study, the next task was to interpret and analyse the responses collected. These will be set out in chapter five forthcoming. Before that, listening diaries, another instrument employed in the collection of data relevant to metacognitive strategy use, is put forward.

#### **d- Learners' Listening Diaries**

Investigating language learning strategies used by language learners while listening is a hard task for researchers as it is not easy to find out the processes taking place in the human brain. In this context, Goh (1997: 362) stated that "like all mental processes, learners' awareness about listening cannot be observed directly". Nevertheless, she states that it is possible to "have access to this knowledge by asking learners to tell us about it" (Goh, *ibid*). Thus, in order to investigate the latter various researchers suggested the implementation of a procedure that enables to provide insight into learners' strategy use which "classroom observations and structured questionnaires may fail to capture" (Allwright and Bailey, 1991: 04). Therefore, listening diaries had been adopted

in the language classroom as an investigation measure. The latter had been assigned diverse terminologies by various scholars. Goh (1997: 362), for instance, suggested the implementation of “listening diaries”. The same procedure has been underlined by Cohen (1987:32), Wenden (1991:77) as well as Allwright and Bailey (1991: 04) who referred to it as “self-reporting”.

Another fairly frequent term is provided by Rubin et al (2008) who labeled diaries “Reflective journals”. Anderson (2005) also used the same term when referring to the tool used to “explore learners’ awareness, development and use of language learning strategies as well as what effect guided reflection has on the development of language learning strategies” (Anderson,2005: 761). Besides, the “listening log” has also been used by researchers such as Kemp (2010: 387) to refer to a form of journal in which learners keep notes of the process of their language development as well as skills and strategies. In our research we are to adopt Goh’s (1997) denomination which is “listening diaries”.

Indeed, “diary studies are a useful project for understanding learner’s awareness” (Rost, 2002: 240). One way to get extensive information about learners’ metacognitive listening awareness is to make them describe the process they went through to interpret the oral message via keeping a diary. In the latter, they can record their observations, reactions and perceptions.

Studies of listening diaries can be found in the literature. Flowerdew and Miller (1992) for example, used diaries to research problems facing Chinese undergraduate students attending lectures in Hong Kong and the strategies employed to overcome the latter. Additionally, studies by Fujiwara (1990 as cited in Rost 2002: 241) and Goh (1997) showed that keeping a journal can greatly enhance listening development and promote learners’ autonomy. In fact, the act of keeping listening diaries stimulates reflection and helps learners to develop awareness of both language and language learning. It is seen as “the sine qua non of autonomous learning” (Cotterall 2000: 116).

Accordingly, in order to promote awareness about metacognitive listening strategies and develop its use among Algerian EFL students, listening diaries were employed as both treatment and exploratory instrument (see appendices N° 5, 6 and 7). In this context, Rubin (2003: 12) provides an example of the kind of questions to promote effective reflection. Such questions include “what problem do/did you have in class or with your homework? How did you deal with these problems? How well did these solutions work for you?”

In our case study we adopted Vandergrift and Goh’s (2012: 149) listening diaries. In fact, the experimental subjects were asked questions aiming at promoting their reflection on specific listening experience. They were asked to report their responses in a focused manner. In order to objectively collect consistent data, participants were assigned to complete the same listening diary before and after treatment phases. In other terms, three diaries before instruction and three others after receiving instruction about Metacognitive listening strategies. It is worth reminding that the present research focuses on five (05) listening metacognitive strategies involving problem solving, planning and evaluation, mental translation, personal knowledge and direct attention. Furthermore, participants were informed that the purpose of keeping these listening diaries was not related to assessment but was to help them reflect on their listening process in order to encourage them to report honestly and without reservations on their learning progress.

#### **e- Learners’ Retrospective Recall (Think-Aloud)**

It is generally acknowledged that accessing the processes through which learners go to complete a listening task is very difficult. Besides, it is hard to get a comprehensible data about listening processing unless it is delivered by the listener himself. In this context, Grenfell and Harris (1999: 54 as cited in Chamot 2008: 267) referred to the human brain as “a black box” where the entrance

inside it as well as the exploration of what goes in there constitutes a real hurdle to overcome. Thus, researchers must make use of indirect means to observe them. According to Rost (2002: 238), one method to reach this goal is the “think-aloud protocol” developed by Kasper (1984) and elaborated by Vandergrift (1997, 1998).

This method has been allotted several names by various researchers (Anderson, 1991; Anderson and Vandergrift, 1996; Cohen and Scott, 1996; Cohen and Olshtain 1993) such as “Think-aloud protocols”, “Protocols” and “Verbal reports”. It has also been defined by Anderson (2005: 761) as a measure allowing “the researcher insights into the language learning process that would not be available without its use”.

In this method, experimental subjects of the study were asked to work on a task (see appendix 4 part 2) after receiving instruction on how to think-aloud. After that, their verbal reports were recorded, transcribed, coded and used as research data. “This is a very direct method to gain insight into the knowledge and methods of human problem solving” (Someren et al, 1994: 1).

Therefore, the first thing the researcher did to collect the spoken and written protocols was to get the students involved in the study to think-aloud and made sure that the setting was such that “the subject feel at ease” (Someren et al, 1994: 41). The subjects were met individually in a quiet language laboratory. Besides, the situation was focused on the task, and the investigator made sure to interfere as little as possible with the thought process, mainly when the subject stopped talking, to “avoid influencing its course” (Someren et al, 1994: 41).

To realise this investigation, the experimental subjects were assigned simple instruction which is to perform the task at hand and say loud what comes to their mind. Here is an example of the instruction given: “please listen carefully to the oral passage, and while you are doing the task try to say aloud everything that goes through your mind”. Furthermore, participants were informed that the

purpose of keeping these listening protocols was not related to assessment but was to help them reflect on their listening process in order to encourage them to report honestly and without reservations on their learning progress. Accordingly, the students were allowed to listen to the extract as many times as they wanted and pause it wherever they felt necessary. Yet, at each pause point or repetition, the subjects were asked to verbalise what she or he was thinking.

Regarding the texts used in the think-aloud protocol they were similar to those students were used to listen to in the listening comprehension classes i.e., the tasks administered to the subjects of study in the language laboratory were adapted from Hutchins and Richards' (2004) book on "Developing tactics for listening". The task used in the present investigation particularly activity two (ibid: 19) appears in appendix 04 while the transcripts of the text employed is presented in appendix N° 19.

As concerns the equipment used in the collection of learners' verbal reports, the protocols were conducted at the research site using an Acer TravelMate 5742 laptop computer with high quality headphones. The researcher verified the smooth functioning of the equipment before conducting the protocol. Concerning the recording session, the experimental participants met the researcher individually in the language laboratory. It is necessary to remind that the experimental group, belonging to second year English LMD, had received treatment about listening metacognitive strategies since their first year. The treatment focused mainly on five major metacognitive strategies namely problem solving, planning and evaluation, mental translation, personal knowledge and direct attention. The experimental informants listened, then, to the aural passages directly from the laptop computer using the CD accompanying the test booklet already mentioned. They were allowed to listen as many times as they wanted to the aural passage in an attempt to complete the listening task at hands (see appendix 04/ activity two) and pause it wherever they felt necessary. Likewise, the second year experimental subjects were required to reflect on their

listening process and say loud what they were thinking. Simultaneously, the researcher recorded each individual via microphone onto the laptop.

In the same context, it is judicious to mention that before starting the think-aloud procedure, the subjects of the research undertook a training or what is called by Someren et al (1994: 43) “a warming up”. In fact, the students had the opportunity to practise thinking-aloud two weeks before achieving the targeted task. They had practised on tasks that were not too different from the one targeted. This idea had been stressed by Someren et al (1994) who mentioned that “practicing does not only give the subject an opportunity to familiarise himself with thinking –aloud, but it also gives the experimenter an opportunity to train the subject to stick to verbalising his thoughts and not to interpret the thoughts” (Someren et al 1994: 44).

In the case of the present study, the reasons lying behind think-aloud training were twofold: to familiarise the subjects with the protocol by prompting them to say aloud the processes they went through while trying to solve the listening task at hand in addition to avoid getting useless data.

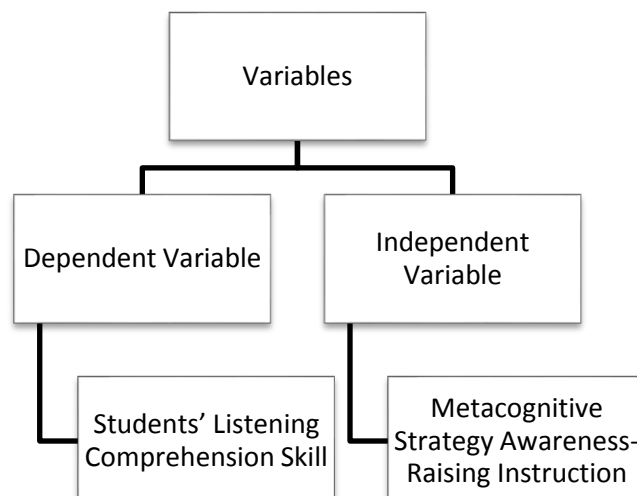
Once the session recorded via microphone onto the laptop ended, the protocols were transcribed following Cancode transcription coding cited in Adolphs’ (2008: 137-138) (see appendix N°14). The next step was to code the data by realising a coding scheme to help the analysis of the latter. In other terms, each metacognitive process was allotted a code (see appendix N°15).

All in all, having presented the diverse tools adopted in this and having explained the reasons behind their implementation in the language classroom, it is necessary to go further explaining how these tools, namely the pre-test and post test, the retrospective interviews, the think-aloud protocols, the MALQ questionnaire and the diaries, were used in this research in the process of data collection. This can be elucidated in the following sub-section.

#### 4.2.4- Research Procedure

In order to investigate the effect of listening metacognitive strategy instruction on EFL students' understanding and comprehension of aural texts, we have conducted a longitudinal study, lasting approximately eighteen (18) months from February 2013 till May 2014, during which we have adopted a quasi-experimental approach (see figure 09 forthcoming, which is developed by the researcher). The latter allows the independent variable “listening awareness-raising instruction about metacognitive strategies”, such as problem solving, planning and evaluation, mental translation, personal knowledge and direct attention, to have its effect on the dependent variable “students' understanding and comprehension of aural passages via the use of these strategies”. In this respect, it is essential to elucidate the quasi-experiment concept.

**Figure 09: Research Variables**



Indeed, current literature (Pitts, Prost and Winters 2005; Shadish and Luellen 2006; Vanderstoep and Johnston 2009) indicates that though quasi experiments share similar purposes as experiments, they are often considered not truly experimental research. For instance, Pitts, Prost and Winters (2005: 82) mentioned a number of consideration to take into account when developing a research. According to them, “[...] quasi experiments will

have some form of a treatment or intervention and will have two or more measurement waves’’. Moreover, Shadish and Luellen (2006: 539) defined quasi-experiments as ‘‘experiments that lack random assignment of units to conditions but otherwise have similar purposes and structural attributes as all other experiments’’.

In addition, Vanderstoep and Johston (2009:147) defined quasi-experiment research as ‘‘a study that takes place in a real-life setting as opposed to a laboratory’’. They added: a quasi-experiment ‘‘falls somewhere between naturalistic observation and experimental research’’. A quasi-experiment according to them ‘‘...involves conducting an experiment, usually in a real - life setting, without the benefit of random assignment of participants to conditions or other controls’’ (2009: 37).

Therefore, the current investigation was developed in a language classroom at the level of the English department of the University of Algiers 2 ‘‘Aboukacem Saadallah’’ where one hundred (100) informants participated. The subjects were divided from the beginning into experimental and control groups to ease the flow of the experiment. Thus, as it was explained in the subsection 4.2.2, two groups, comprising twenty five (25) elements each one, participated in the phase prior instruction whereas the two other groups, comprising twenty five (25) subjects each, participated in the post instructional phase. It is necessary to mention that the experimental group that received a special treatment is the same one that was followed in the second year. The treatment received lasted four semesters (2012-2013 and 2013-2014); i.e., it lasted 22 sessions with 90 minutes time devoted for each one .It aimed at raising awareness about listening metacognitive strategies particularly solving, planning and evaluation, mental translation, personal knowledge and direct attention strategies. Concerning the control groups, they received a simple instruction which aimed solely at enabling students to

understand the audio text without any focus on the strategies employed to reach comprehension.

The present research was developed in three phases during which diverse tools were implemented. This can be explained as follows:

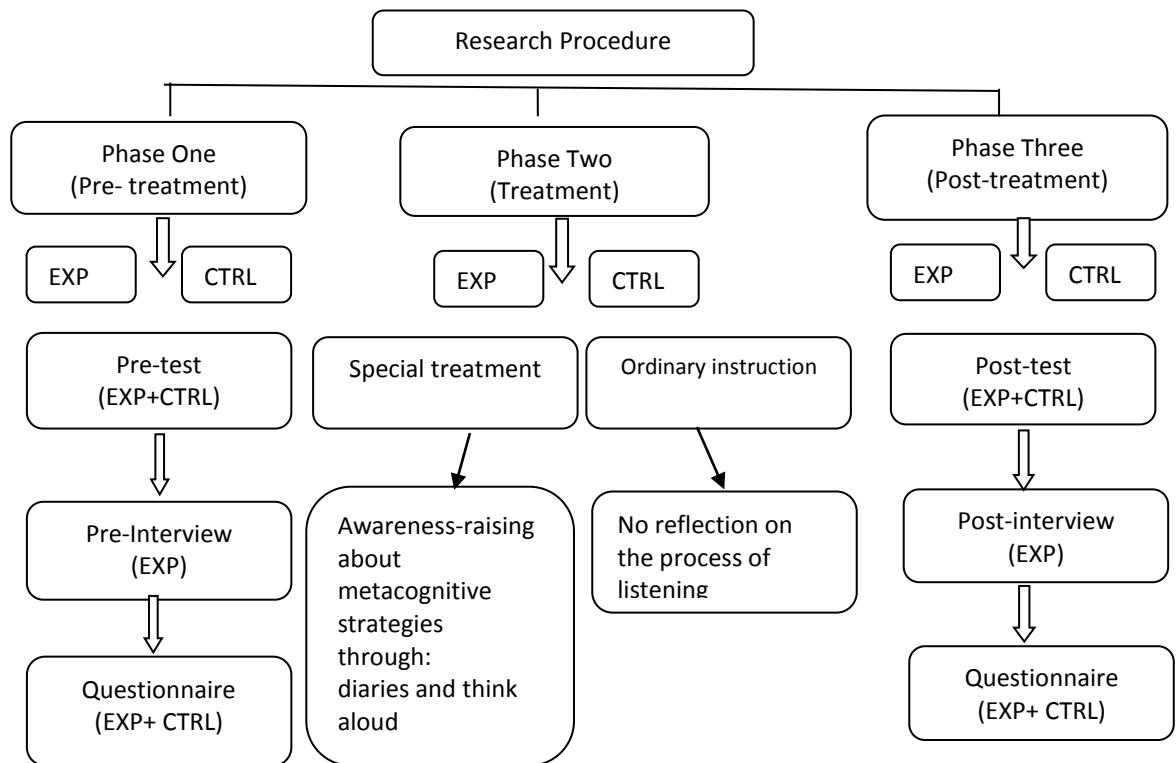
- **Phase one:** this phase constitutes the pre- instructional period where both the experimental and control groups; i.e., first year graduate students, were administered written tests, interviews as well as MALQ questionnaire before instruction to identify their level as far as their awareness and use of the five metacognitive listening strategies, the concern of this study, are concerned. These strategies are related to problem solving, planning and evaluation, mental translation, personal knowledge and direct attention. Besides, the experimental informants were asked to report their responses in diaries before treatment to compare the results with those of post treatment phase.

- **Phase two:** this phase concerns the instructional period where the informants belonging to both groups received listening treatment. Unlike the experimental group, the control groups received an ordinary treatment which did not aim at raising learners' awareness about metacognitive strategies, the object of this study. Particularly, the students were not offered the chance to plan, monitor, evaluate and identify problems hindering their task completion. Regarding the experimental subjects, they were involved in listening tasks aiming at raising their awareness about metacognitive listening processes via instructing them a repertoire of listening strategies such as problem solving, planning and evaluation, mental translation, personal knowledge and direct attention. This was achieved by following closely Vandergrift's (2010) five cycle pedagogical framework (see 3.6). During this phase, the experimental informants were administered the MALQ questionnaire and the diaries as a means to prompt their reflection about metacognitive strategies. They were also trained to reflect on their listening processes by thinking-aloud.

- **Phase three:** this phase constitutes the post- instructional period where both the experimental and control groups; i.e., second year graduate students, were administered written tests, interviews as well as MALQ questionnaire after instruction to identify their level as far as their awareness and use of the five metacognitive listening strategies the concern of this study. These strategies are related to problem solving, planning and evaluation, mental translation, personal knowledge and direct attention. Besides, the experimental informants were asked to report their responses in diaries after treatment to investigate the effect of instruction about listening metacognitive strategies on the experimental subjects and compare their level with the control groups, receiving no instruction in that matter.

With reference to what had been explained before, figure 10 summarises the procedure followed in the realisation of this piece of work.

**Figure 10:** Research Procedure Representation



As stated previously, the experiment which lasted four semesters (2012-2013 and 2013-2014) involved four groups: experimental and control groups comprising twenty five elements each. First year graduate informants participated in the phase prior instruction whereas the others; i.e., second year graduate subjects participated in the post instructional phase. It is necessary to mention that the experimental group that received a special treatment is the same one that was followed in the second year. The treatment aimed at raising awareness about listening metacognitive strategies particularly problem solving, planning and evaluation, mental translation, personal knowledge and direct attention strategies. Concerning the control groups, they received a normal instruction.

The experiment was conducted in three phases during which multiple techniques were adopted in the collection of the required data. Precisely, the researcher made use of two written tests (a pre-test and a post test); retrospective interviews; think-aloud protocols, a questionnaire (comprising two parts: a background questionnaire and a MALQ questionnaire) in addition to learners' diaries. The procedure followed in the achievement of this research is explained thoroughly as follows.

- ***Phase One***

As concerns the first phase related to the pre-instructional period, the subjects of the research belonging to first year experimental and control groups were assigned a pre-test (see appendix N° 02) consisting of a task adapted from London and Richards' Expanding Tactics for Listening (2004: 18) to assess their ability to comprehend listening texts and identify their awareness about metacognitive strategies. Thus, the learners were asked to answer the two parts of the test in addition to a third one, added by the researcher, which focused on gap filling with key words. In this respect, it is worth mentioning that the additional

activity was implemented by the researcher on purpose in case the two former activities would not provide informative evidence about students' metacognitive strategy use under study namely problem solving, planning and evaluation, mental translation, personal knowledge and direct attention.

Regarding the first listening activity, the informants were required to put the sentences in the correct order relying on the information presented to them. They were expected to rely mainly on direct attention, personal knowledge and problem solving strategies to answer this activity. Concerning the second listening activity, the participants were required to put a tick on the correct answer with reference to the information provided. They were also assumed to make use of some metacognitive strategies particularly personal knowledge and direct attention strategies. As far as the last activity is concerned, the students were expected to fill in the gaps with words extracted from the audio recording to which they were exposed. They were required to make use of the five metacognitive strategies aforementioned. Therefore, one point was allotted to each item so that the maximum score would be 20.

It is worth underlining in this context that because the tests conducted were too succinct, and because it was not obvious to link between metacognitive strategies and the students' tests scores, we considered it not enough to draw conclusions about the learners' improvement as far as metacognitive strategy use is concerned. Consequently, adding retrospective interviews and the MALQ questionnaire was felt both useful and necessary.

Indeed, a pre-interview was employed with the intention to collect information about the participants' consciousness in relation to aural strategy use while engaging in listening tasks. In other terms, the pre-interview carried out required the subjects of study to reflect verbally on the listening task they have already listened to by answering four questions in relation to it (see appendix N°10). It is worth noting at this level that the participants were informed that the

interview was more like a casual conversation without knowing that their strategy use in understanding the listening task was the research target.

Accordingly, the informants had to respond to four major questions included in the semi standardized interview. The latter comprised three major parts: the first one dealt with the overall understanding of the aural text; the second part of the interview underlined the strategies adopted to comprehend the listening text and the last part aimed at having a picture about the students' performance. In other terms, this interview had a twofold objective: the first one was to gather information about the kind of problems that the participants' may face in the language classroom, while the second objective concerns the students' reflection on the process they went through in order to accomplish the listening task and overcome listening obstacles. It is worth noting that the interviews were recorded, transcribed and analysed. Just after that, the students were given a questionnaire to complete.

In fact, as pointed out earlier, the experimental and control participants were required to complete a retrospective self-report questionnaire (see appendix N°09) constructed in a way to answer the issues considered to be significantly informative about the use of metacognitive listening strategies, namely problem solving, planning and evaluation, mental translation, personal knowledge and direct attention, by the informants and designed to measure metacognitive awareness at both the beginning and end of the treatment. With regard to this questionnaire, it comprises two parts: a background questionnaire and a Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ) adapted from Vandergrift et al (2006). The latter had a twofold objective: the first one aimed at gathering information about the subjects participating in the investigation and the second objective related to the processes EFL students went through in order to comprehend the aural message presented and accomplish the listening task. Putting it differently, the background questionnaire was used to obtain information about the participants' number, gender, age, occupation and level.

The second part of the questionnaire concerned the 21 randomly ordered items related to metacognitive strategies used in L2 listening comprehension.

- ***Phase Two***

As concerns the instructional phase, in an attempt to raise students' awareness about metacognitive listening strategies and develop their awareness about the processes underlying their own learning, I have decided to proceed in the experiment as follows:

Concerning the control group, the participants were assigned listening lessons, conducted at the language laboratory, devoted to enable EFL learners to comprehend aural texts to which they are exposed. Thus, to achieve this purpose, the control groups listened to the same texts as those to which the experimental group was exposed to facilitate overall language learning. However, the participants in this group did not “[...] engage in any formal prediction activity, nor were they given an opportunity to discuss, predict or monitor their comprehension with their classmates” (Vandergrift and Tafaghodtari, 2010: 479). In other terms, the control informants were not given the opportunity to reflect on their way of approaching the listening task or even discuss with their peers their strategy use.

As it has been mentioned previously, the participants of the control groups, namely first and second years, received an ordinary instruction, and they were presented with a multitude of listening activities similar to those of the treatment group. Concerning the audio tasks, set out in appendices forthcoming, they were adapted from both Curry's book *Talking English* (1983) besides Hutchins and Richards's book (2004) *Tactics for Listening*. The tasks designed aimed at providing Algerian EFL students with examples of spoken English in

communicative mode as well as developing their perception concerning English pronunciation and intonation in addition to enriching their vocabulary.

The procedure followed to realise this aim was a three stages procedure; i.e.; a pre-, while- and post- listening stages as suggested by Hedge (2000:247), Flowerdew and Miller (2005:72), Lynch (2009:94) as well as Vandergrift and Goh (2012: 110). Accordingly, during the pre-listening phase, the students are given instruction about the task to be achieved and think about the vocabulary that they may encounter. During the while listening phase, the informants were to listen to the audio task three times. Finally, in the post-listening stage, the learners were to evaluate their success in achieving the listening task. For the first listening, the control subjects had to find out the missing words or answer the questions. Concerning the second listening, students tried to find answers to more detailed questions and tackle the vocabulary part. Regarding the last listening, students confirmed their answers. Finally, the post-listening stage, was devoted to retelling the story by the whole class (Celce-Murcia and Olshtain, 2000:115), which means that the learners had to listen carefully to what their peers were saying. Likewise, this stage was devoted to giving feed-back; i.e. the teacher and the students checked and discussed the responses related to the while listening task. Here, the students had the opportunity to know how successful they had been doing the task.

In this context, it is necessary to underline some problems noted with the above listening activities which were treated by Ur (1996: 121). These were to do with “inhibition; nothing to say; and mother –tongue- use”. In fact, learners were at the beginning worried about what to say and fearful of making mistakes. Furthermore, they sometimes complained about having nothing to say when asked to talk. In addition, some learners occasionally slipped into their mother tongue for lack of vocabulary or because they were not accustomed to talk to one another in a foreign language. Nevertheless, putting them at ease and explaining them that the language classroom is an opportunity for them to

practise the English language helped them in some way to overcome these difficulties.

To sum up, we have sketched out the three steps undertaken for developing the control group subjects' listening skill bearing in mind that they received simple listening instruction which did not aim at raising learners' awareness about metacognitive strategies. In other terms, the students were not offered the chance to plan, monitor, evaluate and identify problems hindering their task completion.

As concerns the experimental group, the students were involved in tasks aiming at exploring language of interaction as it is hard to separate speaking from listening; besides, to be a proficient partner in conversation, an L2 learner "needs to be skilled as both speaker and listener" (Anderson and Lynch 1988:15). Like the control groups, experimental subjects were introduced to a multitude of listening structured around a simple format of pre-, while-, and post-task activities as suggested by Hedge (2000:247), Flowerdew and Miller (2005:72), Lynch (2009:94) as well as Vandergrift and Goh (2012: 110). Nevertheless, these tasks differed in the target they were set for. The experimental group tasks had twofold objectives: in addition to developing the experimental subjects' overall language learning, the second target aimed at raising their awareness about metacognitive listening processes via instructing them a repertoire of listening strategies such as problem solving, planning and evaluation, mental translation, personal knowledge and direct attention. This was achieved by following closely the pedagogical framework previously used by several researchers such as Vandergrift (2004), Vandergrift and Tafaghodtary (2010) as well as Vandergrift and Goh (2012). In other terms, we have adopted in our case- study the "Process-Based Approach" (p 457) (see appendix N°12) devised by Vandergrift and Tafaghodtary (2010) besides Vandergrift and Goh (2012:112) (see appendix N°08) to instil in learners:

- “ knowledge about themselves as listeners (person knowledge);
- the inherent complexities of L2 listening in relationship to task demands (task knowledge);
- effective listening strategies (strategy knowledge). The goal is to open up”

Vandergrift and Goh (2012: 108)

This model of metacognitive instruction, geared specifically at improving listening comprehension and “opening up avenues to regulate listening comprehension and, ultimately, achieve greater success in L2 listening” (Vandergrift and Goh, 2012: 108). It involved a cycle of five stages initially proposed by Field (2000), to which Vandergrift introduced slight modifications. The most important of these is that the cycle “should be implemented with every single listening practice activity in order to fully sensitize listeners to the metacognitive processes underlying listening comprehension” (Freday, 2011:23).

Accordingly, with the perspective to familiarise the participants with metacognitive listening strategies, the experimental group received instruction in that matter in a repetitive cycle during which the participants were delivered a handout comprising the five cycle stages already mentioned which they had to complete gradually (see appendix N°08). It is necessary to mention in this respect that the participants attended ninety (90) minutes training sessions held once a week during twenty two (22) sessions of the academic years 2012/2013-2013/2014. Likewise, Vandergrift’s (2010) metacognitive pedagogical steps followed during the strategy instruction period require to be explained (see appendix N°12).

In fact, the first step in this cycle concerns planning or predicting. At this stage learners were informed about the topic (interview, conversation, story...etc) and were asked to set goals and to activate their background knowledge in order to predict what would be mentioned in the aural text as well

as the likely lexical items they might encounter. These predictions were to be jotted down on a paper handed out.

Next, comes the first verification stage, during which students were involved in diverse processes including selective attention, monitoring and evaluation as well as planning. In other terms, students were asked to verify their initial hypothesis, correct it and provide any additional information. Besides, they were asked to compare their notes with their classmates and decide on the details that still require to be solved.

After that, comes the second verification stage, during which the learners listened again to the selection to verify points of disagreement with their peers, introduce corrections and add other details understood. Furthermore, with class discussion they were able to reconstruct the text as a whole and reflect on the processes they went through to solve their problems related to certain parts or words of the text. Thus, at this stage selective attention, monitoring, evaluating and problem solving metacognitive processes are involved. This discussion was followed by a final verification stage in which learners made use of selective attention, monitoring, and problem solving processes via focusing their listening on the information revealed in the class discussion which they were unable to decipher.

The final stage of Vandergrift's model is called the "reflection stage" and encompasses evaluation and planning metacognitive processes. During this stage, learners were asked to write personal reflections about their experience as listeners. In other terms, they were asked to reflect on the strategies employed that helped them succeed/fail achieving their task besides setting goals for eventual future listening activities. In addition to that, it is necessary to mention that at the end of each listening session, the students were administered a kind of diary keeping handout in which they reflected their impressions, the difficulties

encountered to comprehend the listening task and the strategies adopted to overcome the latter (see appendix N°05).

Referring to the listening activities developed during this instructional period, the students were presented with a multitude of listening activities. Concerning the audio tasks, set out in appendices forthcoming, they were adapted from both Curry's book *Talking English* (1983) besides Hutchins and Richards's book (2004) *Tactics for Listening*. Besides raising students' awareness about metacognitive strategies, the tasks designed aimed at providing Algerian EFL students with examples of spoken English in communicative mode as well as developing their perception concerning English pronunciation and intonation in addition to enriching their vocabulary. The written tasks, which are set out in appendices forthcoming, were adapted from textbooks, while the others were downloaded from the internet.

With regard to the first type of tasks, the students received a data sheet on metacognitive listening strategies containing a chart adapted from Vandergrift (2003:494) (see appendix N°01) summarising the main strategies as well as their definitions. The latter aimed at familiarising the participants with those strategies in order to use them in compensating the elements difficult to grasp or understand.

Furthermore, since spontaneous spoken language differs importantly from the standard written form as indicated in the current literature aforementioned in the first chapter (Bailey 2005, Cook 1989, Nunan 1993, Lazaraton 2001, Miller and Weinert 1998, Van Lier 1995), it was essential to highlight these main differences existing between spoken and written languages in order to develop the students' listening skill as well as raising their awareness about listening strategies. Thus, tasks aiming at highlighting the differences between spoken and written languages were assigned to the students. These tasks consisted of activities adapted from Willis's work (2003: 186; 194) (see appendix N°13).

Accordingly, the first task presented in appendix N° 13 is an extract from a discussion between two people talking about their fear of heights. It contains several features which are common in spoken English, but unusual or non-existent in the written one. The aim of this task is to make students identify the differences existing between spoken and written language.

As concerns the second task of appendix N° 13, the students were asked to rewrite the previous extract as though it were part of a letter. Thus in order to produce a written version of the story, the learners had to do a lot of work on the spoken version through the introduction of various changes such as cutting out *ers* and *erms*, changing colloquial forms to written forms, rewriting the ungrammatical forms and rewriting non-sentences. In making these adjustments, they would be focussing on the differences between spoken and written language.

Regarding the task presented in appendix N°13, this task like the previous ones attempts to shed light on differences between spoken and written forms. Learners had to make a comparison between the scripted text and the written one focusing their discussion on features which are common in spoken English, but unusual or non-existent in the written one.

Besides, to develop learners' ability for noticing and analysing, the students had to consider two texts (see appendix N° 13) adapted from Willis (2003: 186; 194). The learners were asked to establish a comparison between the original texts (Script A) in which discourse markers have been highlighted and the deleted text (Script B) where all those devices are taken out. After that, they were required to draw conclusions about the effect discourse markers have on the spoken exchange when they are presented and when they are omitted.

Always with the objective of raising students' awareness about metacognitive listening strategies, special tasks reflecting accurately how language is used were administered to the learners. In this context we borrowed

Thornbury's method to teach speaking. According to him "one way to raise learners' awareness of features of spoken language is to expose them to recordings of speaking, and to study the transcripts of these recordings" (2005:12). Therefore, we proceeded as follows.

We presented the experimental group with a set of authentic language data through the implementation of audio sequences adopted from the internet; meanwhile, we handed over the sheet of Metacognitive Pedagogical Sequence adapted from Vandergrift and Goh (2012: 113) (see appendix N°08) to complete. The subjects of the survey were asked to pay attention to the conversation and to follow the five cycle stages aforementioned. Once the audio information was over, the students were asked to reproduce some extracts already heard. After that, they received the transcript of the oral language they were exposed to and had to perform orally with the characters at the same time.

Then, in order to integrate this new knowledge into their existing one, "appropriation activities" were implemented through repetition of the spoken task since one way of gaining control over a speaking task is to repeat it (Thornbury, 2005: 13). Accordingly, we had the students listen again to the sequence presented but this time with a transcript. The latter was distributed to the students to verify to what extent their answers were right and to have them reflect on the strategies used to compensate for what they have not comprehended and to plan goals for the next listening activity.

Another highly recommended activity aiming at developing both planning and monitoring strategies to which the learners were exposed is "a form of close exercise" suggested by Vandergrift (1999: 172). Thus, using a written version of oral texts, adapted from Curry (1983), with individual words missing, students were asked to read the text and to try to supply the missing words. This helped them to use context to develop inferencing and to predict the words they were to

hear. A class discussion allowed them to review difficulties and justify their choice.

In addition to the major tasks developed with the experimental subjects, it is worth mentioning that at the end of each session, the informants were asked to complete a diary adopted from Vandergrift and Goh's (2012: 149) (see appendix n°05). The latter geared at promoting their reflection on specific listening experience. Furthermore, participants were informed that the purpose from keeping these listening diaries was not related to assessment but was to help them reflect on their listening process in order to encourage them to report honestly and without reservations on their learning progress.

- ***Phase Three***

As concerns the third phase related to the post-instructional period, the subjects of all the groups of the research were assigned a post-test (see appendix N°03) consisting of a task adapted from London and Richards' *Expanding Tactics for Listening* (2004: 19) to assess their ability to comprehend listening texts and more precisely about their awareness about metacognitive strategies. Therefore, the subjects of the experimental group, who received special treatment from first year, and the informants of the control group, belonging to second year English LMD, were asked to answer the two parts of the test in addition to a third one ,added by the researcher, which focused on gap filling with key words. In this framework, it is necessary to state that the additional activity was implemented by the researcher on purpose in case the two former activities would not provide informative evidence in terms of students' use of the five listening metacognitive strategies under study such as problem solving, planning and evaluation, mental translation, personal knowledge and direct attention. One point was allotted to each correct answer so that the maximum score would be 20.

Regarding the first listening activity, the informants were required to check the correct answer relying on the information presented to them and the metacognitive strategies on which they received instruction. In this activity, the informants were expected to rely mainly on direct attention and personal knowledge to answer the task. Concerning the second listening activity, the participants were asked to circle the correct answer with reference to the information provided. They were also required to make use of some metacognitive strategies particularly personal knowledge and direct attention strategies. As far as the last activity is concerned, the students were expected to fill in the gaps with words extracted from the audio recording to which they were exposed. They were required to make use of one of the five metacognitive strategies previously stated.

It is worth underlining in this context that because the written tests conducted were too succinct, and because the link between metacognitive strategies and the students' tests scores was not obvious, the researcher considered the results reached insufficient to draw conclusions about the learners' improvement as far as listening metacognitive strategy use is concerned. Consequently, it was necessary to employ other research instruments such as the MALQ questionnaire, retrospective interviews as well as diaries and think-aloud protocols to carry out the present study.

Indeed, a post-interview was employed with the intention to collect information about the participants' consciousness in relation to aural strategy use while engaging in listening tasks. In other terms, the oral tests carried out required the subjects of study to reflect verbally on the listening task they have already listened to by answering three questions in relation to it (see appendix N°11). It is worth noting at this level that the participants were informed that the interview was more like a casual conversation without knowing that their strategy use in understanding the listening task was the research target.

Accordingly, the informants had to respond to three major questions included in the retrospective interview. The latter comprised three major parts: the first one dealt with the difficulty or easiness of the listening task; the second part of the interview underlined the strategies adopted to comprehend the listening text and the last part aimed at evaluating the students' listening performance before and after receiving instruction in metacognitive strategies. In other terms, this interview had twofold objectives: the first one was to gather information about the kind of problems that the participants may face in the language classroom, while the second objective concerns the students' reflection on the process they went through in order to accomplish the listening task. It is worth noting that the interviews were recorded and transcribed and analysed. Just after that, the students were required to complete a retrospective self-report questionnaire.

In fact, as pointed out earlier, the Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ) (see appendix N°09) adapted from Vandergrift et al (2006) had two fold objectives: the first one aimed at gathering information about the subjects participating in the investigation and the second objective related to the processes EFL students went through in order to comprehend the aural message presented and accomplish the listening task besides measuring metacognitive awareness at both the beginning and end of the treatment.

At this stage, we have followed Vandergrift and al (2006) advice to use the MALQ research tool as a posttest instrument to get insight about the evolution of students' awareness about metacognitive listening strategies. In fact, "several studies have used the instrument successfully to measure learners' change in metacognitive awareness" (Goh, 2008: 205). Thus, the questionnaire was administered to the subjects of study retrospectively, that is immediately after the listening task,

Besides the post interview and MALQ questionnaire, the researcher made use of diaries and think aloud protocol to gather the necessary data reflecting students' evolution as far as listening metacognitive strategy use. Indeed, listening diaries adopted from Vandergrift and Goh's (2012: 149) were implemented in the listening classes in order to promote awareness about metacognitive listening strategies and develop its use among Algerian EFL students. The latter were assigned to complete the listening diary after treatment phase; besides, the participants were informed that the purpose from keeping these listening diaries was not related to assessment but was to help them reflect on their listening process in order to encourage them to report honestly and without reservations on their learning progress.

Furthermore, after receiving instruction on how to think aloud, the informants were assigned simple instruction which is to perform the task at hand and say loud what comes to their mind. Besides, participants were informed that the purpose from keeping these listening protocols was not related to assessment but was to help them reflect on their listening process in order to encourage them to report honestly and without reservations on their learning progress. Accordingly, the students were allowed to listen to the extract as many times as they wanted and pause it wherever they felt necessity. Yet, at each pause point or repetition, the subjects were asked to verbalise what she or he was thinking.

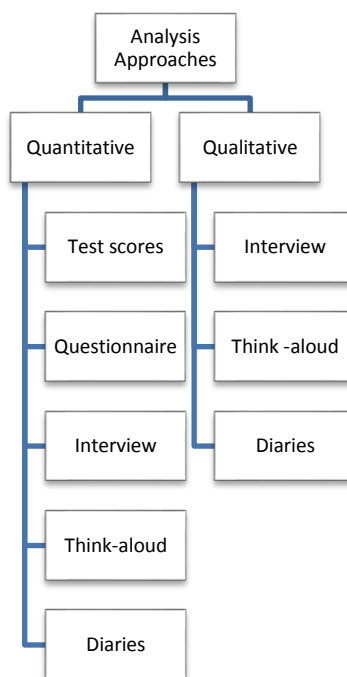
Once the data necessary for the accomplishment of the present research were gathered, results were retrieved, analysed and discussed to try to find answers to the principal issue related to the effect of treatment with metacognitive strategies, namely problem solving, planning and evaluation, mental translation, personal knowledge and direct attention , on EFL learners' listening skill. Yet, before looking at that, we will deal with the method of analysing the data collected via a combination of research instruments such as two written tests (a pre-test and a post test); retrospective interviews, think-aloud protocols, a questionnaire (comprising two parts: a background questionnaire and

a Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ) as well as learners' diaries.

### 4.3- Method of Data Analysis

With the perspective to find answers to the research questions raised at the beginning of the survey and eventually confirm or reject the hypotheses already established by the researcher, we have analysed the data collected quantitatively and qualitatively with the research tools employed (see sections 4.3.1, 4.3.2, 4.3.3 and 4.3.4). We proceeded by analysing the two written tests (a pre-test and a post test); the retrospective interviews and Think-aloud protocols, the questionnaire (comprising two parts: a background questionnaire and a Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire) in addition to learners' diaries (see the figure below). Yet, before proceeding to the method of analysis, it is judicious to elucidate what is meant by quantitative and qualitative analysis adopted in this survey.

**Figure 11:** Approaches to Data Analysis.



- **The Quantitative Analysis**

With the perspective to get insight into the changes that took place in learners' listening comprehension test scores prior and after awareness-raising instruction, quantitative analysis was adopted in the study. This analysis also concerned the changes that occurred at the level of the informants' responses in the MALQ questionnaire. The numerical results were summarized in tables in the format of means and percentages to facilitate the comparison between the experimental and the control groups' achievements. Besides, statistical figures reflecting the results were presented.

It is worth noting in this respect that the data collected were introduced into SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) Statistics 22 software to analyse their frequency, percentage and mean. The reason for this choice is to get statistical representations of the data that would help us in the analysis process.

Regarding the non-numerical data, collected from interviews, think-aloud protocols and diaries, they were analysed quantitatively by examining the number of times the metacognitive strategies, namely problem solving, planning and evaluation, mental translation, personal knowledge and direct attention, were used. The number of redundancy was then incorporated in the SPSS Statistics 22 software which took in charge the calculation process of their frequency, means and percentages.

Concerning the mean, it was calculated as follows by the SPSS software. It is the result of dividing the summation of all the variables (the scores in our case) divided by the number of frequency:

$$\bar{x} = \frac{\sum x_i}{n}$$

Where

$\bar{x}$  is the mean

$n$  is the number of observations and

$\sum x_i$  is the sum of all the observations

$\bar{X}$  = The symbol we use for mean (pronounced as  $\bar{X}$  bar)

$n$  = is the number of observations (in our case is the students' test scores and the strategies used reflected in the questionnaire).

$\Sigma$  = (the Greek letter *sigma*) Symbol for summation

$X_i$  = is the symbol for the individual scores.

Regarding standard deviation calculation, the following formula was applied by the SPSS 22 software:

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (x_i - \mu)^2}$$

$\sigma$  = The symbol for Standard Deviation is (the Greek letter sigma)

$\mu$  = In the formula above  $\mu$  (the Greek letter "mu") is the Mean of all our values

$x_i$  = is the symbol for the individual scores.

$\Sigma$  = (the Greek letter *sigma*) Symbol for summation

$N$  = the number of variance

As concerns percentages calculations, the following formula was adopted and applied on all the data collected by the various research tools namely test scores, questionnaire, interviews, think-aloud and diaries. This formula consists of dividing frequency on the total number of frequencies Then, the result is multiplied by one hundred.

$$\text{Percentage} = \frac{\text{Frequency}}{\text{Total number of frequencies}} \times 100$$

- **The Qualitative analysis**

This approach was adopted in the present investigation with the intention to describe and analyse the students' views regarding the instruction received, the

listening problems faced and the way EFL students dealt with them. Likewise, the qualitative approach sought to describe the listening processing which is hard to access if the learners do not verbalise their thoughts. It is worth mentioning in this respect that the instruments concerned by this analysis are diaries, interviews and think-aloud protocols.

A thorough explanation of data analysis and the procedure of approaching the collected information is presented in the subsections forthcoming.

#### ***4.3.1- Written Tests Analysis***

As mentioned previously (see 4.2.3), two listening tests were presented to the experimental and control subjects prior and after instruction. The informants were required to answer the test in a written form. The subjects of the experimental group and the control one were assigned a task adapted from London and Richards' *Expanding Tactics for Listening* (2004). The written tests, comprising two activities, were handed the students to assess their ability to comprehend listening texts and identify learners' awareness about listening metacognitive strategies namely problem solving, planning and evaluation, mental translation, personal knowledge and direct attention. Thus, the informants were asked to answer the two parts of the test in addition to a third one, added by the researcher, which focused on gap filling with key words. In this respect, it is worth mentioning that the additional activity was implemented by the researcher on purpose in case the two former activities would not provide informative evidence about students' metacognitive strategy use under study.

Accordingly, a marking system was adopted to evaluate the students' listening comprehension performance which would reflect the use of metacognitive strategies the object of this research. In fact with reference to the literature review (see 3.4) addressing listening metacognitive strategy instruction, the investigations led by Vandergrift (1996, 2003b and 2006) besides Goh and Hu

(2013) revealed the existence of a strong evidence of a positive relationship between strategy use and listening test scores. Bearing in mind that the written tests comprised two parts in addition to a third part added by the researcher, the whole test included 20 items. Each one was allotted one point so that the maximum score would be 20. Such grading enabled us to distinguish the subjects' level. In other terms, based on the assumption that there exists a link between learners' listening performance and strategy use, the informants scoring 10/20 and beyond would exhibit awareness in this matter. However, those scoring below 10/20 would need instruction in metacognitive strategies.

In addition to marking the written tests, the results of the latter were analysed quantitatively in the light of the objectives of the present research; i.e., investigating learners' level of awareness of listening metacognitive strategies through the comparison of listening test scores prior and after instruction. Indeed, the pre and post tests scores related to experimental and control subjects were compared to determine the participants' listening comprehension as well as their strategy use level development.

#### ***4.3.2- Interviews and Think-Aloud Protocols Analysis***

In the present investigation, interviews and think-aloud protocols were used (see 4.2.3). The informants were asked to reflect on how they solved their listening problems in terms of metacognitive strategy use. Thus, before analysing the collected data, the audio recordings realised during the interviews and the think-aloud protocols were transcribed. Besides, the parts of the audio recording that were spoken in Algerian Arabic or French were translated into English. Then, the students corpora were reduced via adopting a coding system (see appendix N°15). In this context, it is necessary to underline that the predefined taxonomy of listening comprehension strategies elaborated by Vandergrift (1997), Vandergrift and Tafaghodtary (2010) and Vandergrift and

Goh (2012) stated in chapter one section 3.6, were adopted. The corpora were after that analysed to draw conclusions.

- **Transcription of both the Interviews and Think-aloud Protocols**

Indeed, these corpora were established on the basis of the interviews and think-aloud protocols audio recording, aforementioned, carried out with Algerian EFL learners in educational setting before receiving instruction about listening metacognitive strategies and after instructional period. Yet, before realising these corpora, the student data were transcribed, for “spoken language must be transcribed before it can be studied” (Biber, Conrad and Leech, 2002: 10). That is we had to listen to the recorded interviews and think-aloud protocols and write down exactly what was said. The purpose behind it was to achieve the goal of transcription which is “to be detailed enough to retain enough information to conduct linguistic analysis in an efficient way and simple enough to be readable” (Taglimonte, 2006). Moreover, the student corpora were transcribed in a standard orthography resembling in some way CANCODE transcription. In the latter, the ordinary symbols of written texts as well as conventional punctuation were used. For instance, a full stop indicated a completed intonation unit; a comma indicated a continuing intonation unit; and a question mark indicated a question (see transcription conventions in appendix N°14).

- **Coding of both the Interviews and Think-aloud Protocols**

As mentioned earlier, the students corpora were reduced via adopting a coding system by allotting to each metacognitive strategy a special code (see appendix N° 14, 15, 16). In fact, by listening to the audio recording and reading the transcript related to it simultaneously, the corpora were coded. In

other terms, each time there was a remark in the protocol that related to a specific pre-defined metacognitive strategy set, that particular segment was coded with an appropriate code.

In this context, it is important to highlight that part of analysing data is to choose a way of doing it which is coding in our survey. Accordingly, Maxwell (2005: 96) lists three primary ways to do this: memos, categorizing strategies, and connecting strategies. Thus, coding analysis adopted in this research is part of categorizing strategies which “dissect the data into small, manageable pieces”. This method of analysing data made the research much easier.

#### • **Analysis of the Audio Recordings**

The audio recordings carried out in educational settings with the subjects of study before and after instruction about listening metacognitive strategies enabled us to realise students’ corpora. The latter is defined by O’Keeffe (2007: 01) as “a collection of texts, written or spoken which is stored on a computer”. Accordingly, this collection of texts was analysed quantitatively by examining the number of times the strategy was used. The number of occurrences was then compared with the number of frequencies in other corpora. Besides, we made use of percentages and means to make comparison between groups much easier. The latter are according to Woodley (2004:25) “the most used statistical technique in institutional and practitioner research...” In this regard, it is necessary to underline that the redundancy of strategies use was calculated via the adoption of the SPSS Statistics 22 software. Indeed, the data collected were incorporated in this software which took in charge the calculation process.

Additionally, with the aim to determine Algerian students’ listening comprehension and strategy use development, a comparative analysis was established between the experimental group subjects’ data collected from the 10

interviews before treatment and after it. Regarding the think-aloud protocol, the data were analysed by first setting out a list of the participants, then allotting codes to each strategy mentioned in the transcript. After that, the transcripts were compared with the observations recorded by the researcher to confirm the frequency of the strategies adopted. Once the comparison finished, the SPSS 22 took in charge the calculation process.

#### ***4.3.3- Questionnaire Analysis***

A questionnaire was conducted twice in this study: before instructional phase and after treatment. With regard to this questionnaire, it comprises two parts: a background questionnaire and a Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ) adapted from Vandergrift et al (2006) (see appendix N°09). The latter had two fold objectives: the first one aimed at gathering information about the subjects participating in the investigation; i.e. their number, gender, age, occupation and level. The second objective is related to the processes EFL students went through in order to comprehend the aural message presented and accomplish the listening task. In other terms, the background questionnaire was used to obtain information about the participants' number, gender, age, occupation and level. The second part of the questionnaire concerns the Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ) (see appendix N°09).

The MALQ consisted of 21 randomly ordered items organised in a scale corresponding to five factors related to metacognitive strategies. In other terms, questions 5, 7, 9, 13, 17 and 19 correspond to “Problem solving” factor; questions 1, 10, 14, 20 and 21 refer to “Planning and Evaluation” factor; questions 4, 11 and 18 identify “Mental translation” factor; questions 3, 8 and 15 refer to “Person Knowledge” and questions 2, 6, 12 and 16 relating to “Directed Attention” factor. The answer scale was a Likert-type six-point scale to discover

the strength of feeling or attitude towards a given statement or series of statements. Thus, the strength of agreement on a given statement was reflected in the selection of a higher category.

Once the data, answering the issues considered to be significantly informative about the use of listening metacognitive strategies by EFL students, were collected, they were analysed quantitatively (see 4.3). This was realised by introducing the data to the SPSS Statistics 22 software to analyse their frequency, percentage and mean to facilitate the comparison between the experimental and the control group's responses.

#### ***4.3.4- Learners' Diaries Analysis***

In order to get extensive information about learners' use of the five (05) listening metacognitive strategies under study, namely problem solving, planning and evaluation, mental translation, personal knowledge and direct attention, the participants belonging to the experimental group were asked to describe the process they went through to interpret the oral message via keeping a diary. In the latter, they can record their observations, reactions and perceptions. The collected data were analysed both quantitatively and qualitatively (see 4.3).

In fact, as with the interviews and think-aloud protocols, each diary was read deeply several times, and allotted codes under each strategy used (see appendix N°15). This procedure helped to reduce the amount of information collected to a manageable size and facilitated the analysis process. The coded data were introduced afterwards to the SPSS Statistics 22 software to analyse their frequency, percentage and mean. They were also analysed qualitatively in the light of the research objectives underlined; i.e., ,promoting awareness about listening metacognitive strategies..

## **Conclusion**

This chapter presented the methodology adopted in this study. Thus, section 4.1 was devoted to explain the purpose for mixed type method and the link existing between research questions and the research methods. The chapter also put forward a number of justifications elucidating the research design (see 4.2) in terms of the setting of the research (see 4.2.1), the subjects participating in the investigation (see 4.2.2), the research tools implemented (see 4.2.3) and the procedures of study adopted (see 4.2.4). The chapter ends with the presentation of the method of data analysis (see 4.3).

As it has been mentioned previously, this investigation had adopted a mixed type method involving both quantitative and qualitative methods to analyse data with the intention to achieve a fuller understanding of the target phenomenon and verify one set of findings against the other; likewise, the researcher made this choice purposefully out of an internal belief that the use of a variety of data sources and research methods would not only enrich the study but would also help in corroborating the interpretations (see 4.1.1). The investigation, therefore, was a case study focusing on first and second years Algerian LMD learners studying at the English department of the University of Algiers 2. With the perspective to ensure validity of the findings, the researcher made use in this research of multiple techniques (see 4.2.3) to gather the quantitative and the qualitative data necessary to answer the research enquiries. Thus, in this survey, two written tests (a pre-test and a post test); retrospective interviews, Think-aloud protocols, a questionnaire (comprising two parts: a background questionnaire and a Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire) in addition to learners' diaries were employed. The data collected were analysed quantitatively and qualitatively to facilitate interpretation. As concerns the quantitative and qualitative results retrieved from the survey, they will be dealt with in the following chapter.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **DATA ANALYSIS**

#### **Introduction**

This chapter is concerned with the analysis of the data results retrieved from the present study. In this context, it is necessary to remind that the data collected in this investigation were collected from 100 participants via the implementation of diverse research tools (see 4.2.3) to ensure validity. The latter include two written tests (a pre-test and a post test); retrospective interviews; Think-aloud protocols; a questionnaire (comprising two parts: a background questionnaire and a Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire) in addition to learners' diaries. The numerical data collected were analysed quantitatively whereas the non-numerical ones were analysed both quantitatively and qualitatively. The non-numerical data, collected from interviews, think-aloud protocols and diaries, were analysed quantitatively by examining the number of times the metacognitive strategies, namely problem solving, planning and evaluation, mental translation, personal knowledge and direct attention, were used. The number of redundancy was then incorporated in the SPSS Statistics 22 software which took in charge the calculation process of means and percentages.

The quantitative and the qualitative analysis of the collected data are presented as follows. First, an analysis of pre and post tests scores is set out (see 5.1). Second, an analysis of the interviews and Think- aloud protocols is exhibited (see 5.2). Third, the MALQ questionnaire results before and after intervention are put forward (see 5.3). Finally, EFL students' diaries are analysed followed by explanation and interpretation (see 5.4).

## **5.1- Tests Scores Analysis**

As mentioned earlier, this research made use of multiple techniques to gather the data necessary to answer the enquiries related to Algerian EFL students' listening comprehension level as well as their awareness about listening metacognitive strategies. Accordingly, a pre and post tests were assigned to the subjects of the survey (see 4.2.3). The results retrieved from experimental and control subjects' listening test scores, realised before and after instruction, are compared and analysed.

### ***5.1.1- Pre-instructional Phase***

With the purpose to identify the participants' level of listening comprehension and the extent to which they are conscious about metacognitive strategies, a written test was administered to the experimental group and the control subjects belonging to diverse levels; i.e. first and second years LMD. In the following, the detailed data collected from this test are analysed.

In fact, as it has been previously mentioned (see 4.2.3), the first year LMD participants belonging to the experimental and the control groups, were assigned a task adapted from London and Richards' *Expanding Tactics for Listening* (2004). The written tests, comprising two activities, were handed the students to assess their ability to comprehend listening texts and identify learners' awareness and use of listening metacognitive strategies namely problem solving, planning and evaluation, mental translation, personal knowledge and direct attention. Thus, the informants were asked to answer the two parts of the test in addition to a third one, added by the researcher, which focused on gap filling with key words. In this respect, it is worth mentioning that the additional activity was implemented by the researcher on purpose in case the

two former activities would not provide informative evidence about students' metacognitive strategy use under study.

Accordingly, a marking system was adopted to evaluate the students' listening comprehension performance which would reflect the use of metacognitive strategies the object of this research. In fact with reference to the literature review (see 3.4) addressing listening metacognitive strategy instruction, the investigations led by Vandergrift (1996, 2003b and 2006) besides Goh and Hu (2013) revealed the existence of a strong evidence of a positive relationship between strategy use and listening test scores.

Bearing in mind that the written tests comprised two parts in addition to a third part added by the researcher, the whole test included 20 items. Each one was allotted one point so that the maximum score would be 20. Such grading enabled us to distinguish the subjects' level. In other terms, based on the assumption that there exists a link between learners' listening performance and strategy use, the informants scoring 10/20 and beyond would exhibit awareness in this matter. However, those scoring below 10/20 would need instruction in metacognitive strategies. After checking the correct answers, the 100 students' scores were collected. After that, the listening pre-test scores of experimental and control subjects realised before instructional phase were analysed quantitatively and compared. Accordingly, table 04 forthcoming was set out.

From the information presented in table 4 (next page), it appears that 1LMD experimental group realised scores higher than those scored by 1LMD control subjects. This implies that the experimental subjects were able to comprehend the listening text contrary to the control group who seems facing comprehension difficulties.

**Table 04:** Experimental and Control Subjects' Pre-Test Marks

<b>Subjects</b>	<b>1LMD Experimental Group</b>	<b>1LMD Control Group</b>
<b>S1</b>	5.00	9.50
<b>S2</b>	11.00	11.50
<b>S3</b>	12.00	12.50
<b>S4</b>	14.00	14.50
<b>S5</b>	14.00	18.50
<b>S6</b>	7.00	4.50
<b>S7</b>	10.00	16.50
<b>S8</b>	10.00	6.50
<b>S9</b>	6.00	10.50
<b>S10</b>	11.00	8.50
<b>S11</b>	14.00	15.50
<b>S12</b>	13.00	10.50
<b>S13</b>	13.00	9.50
<b>S14</b>	12.00	13.50
<b>S15</b>	12.50	8.00
<b>S16</b>	13.00	6.50
<b>S17</b>	14.00	10.50
<b>S18</b>	14.00	3.50
<b>S19</b>	14.00	10.50
<b>S20</b>	12.00	11.50
<b>S21</b>	10.00	6.50
<b>S22</b>	10.00	9.50
<b>S23</b>	6.50	9.50
<b>S24</b>	15.00	11.50
<b>S25</b>	15.00	12.50
<b>Mean</b>	11.52	10.56
<b>SD</b>	2.81	3.47
<b>Overall</b>	M=11.04	SD=3.14

Note: M= Mean      SD=Standard Deviation

Besides, based on the scores realised by both groups and with reference to what has been stated before that listening pre-test was intended to uncover the five (05) metacognitive strategies used in the comprehension process, the only

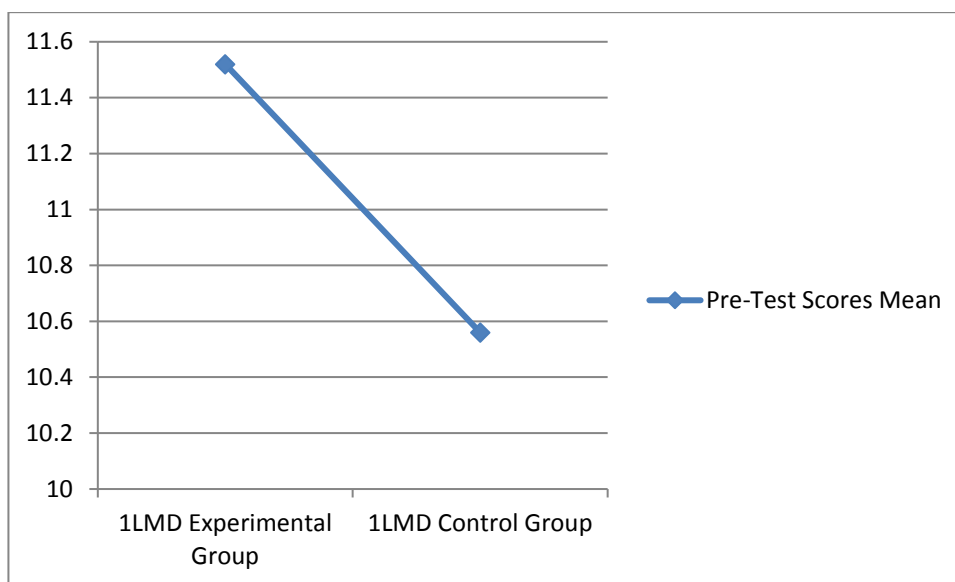
explanation that can be provided is linked to metacognitive strategy use. In fact, the high performance of the experimental subjects reflects their use of metacognitive strategies in the process of comprehending the listening text. This implies the experimental participants' awareness of listening strategies to overcome difficulties. On the other hand, the control informants' low performance reveals their difficulty in comprehending the oral text and managing listening difficulties. This implies that the control subjects did not make use of the metacognitive strategies or are not aware of their existence.

Furthermore, based on the calculations realised with the SPSS 22 software, the overall mean score of this listening comprehension test is 11.04, which reflects the average status of 100 students' performance. Thus, when comparing the overall mean score with the mean score of 1LMD experimental group ( $M= 11.52$ ), we find that the experimental subjects' scores trespassed the overall mean score, which implies their good performance. Yet, when comparing the mean score of 1LMD control group ( $M=10.56$ ) with the overall mean score ( $M= 11.04$ ), it appears that the students belonging to this group are far beyond the overall average. This bad performance indicates that the control subjects either ignore the existence of metacognitive strategies to help them in solving listening comprehension problems or they are aware of the listening metacognitive strategies but misuse them which led to these low scores.

Therefore, from the information presented in table 4, it is evident that 1LMD experimental participants' scores reflect the informants' ability to comprehend the listening text and handle listening difficulties via the use of metacognitive strategies, the object of the present study. However, there is a great discrepancy with 1LMD control subjects who appear far below 1LMD experimental informants' level. In fact, though they pertain to the same pedagogical level as the experimental ones, there exists a gap between both groups. That is, 1LMD control informants' scores reveal their difficulty in comprehending the oral text and managing listening difficulties.

With reference to table 4 above and on the basis of the explanation presented, a statistical representation of the numerical data is presented in the form of a graph. The latter appears in the figure forthcoming.

**Figure 12:** Statistical Representation of the Students' Marks Prior Instruction



According to this figure, if we compare the performance of the experimental group ( $M=11.52$ ) with that of 1LMD control group, it will be obvious that though they both belong to the same level and received the same listening task, there exists a gap between the two groups; i.e. the control subjects' performance is far below. Consequently, it is evident from the results exhibited in figure 12 above that 1LMD control participants need more instruction not only in terms of metacognitive strategy awareness-raising but also in terms of strategy use since their level is far from being satisfactory. Therefore, it is necessary for learners to pay more attention to metacognitive strategies to enhance their listening comprehension abilities, not only to succeed in the test but also to perform well in real life communication with English native speakers.

To sum up briefly, the data exhibited in Table 04 and figure 12 give us a clear picture about the experimental group performance in the pre-test as well as the overall scores of all the 100 students. In fact, the scores realised prior

treatment as far as listening metacognitive strategies are concerned demonstrate a great difference in the experimental informants' scores and the control ones though they pertain to the same pedagogical level. Yet the control informants' level is below either because of their ignorance of the existence of metacognitive strategies that help solving listening comprehension problems or their misuse of these devices. Thus, it can be concluded that raising low level students' awareness about listening metacognitive strategies is necessary since their level is far from being satisfactory. The following section will look at the 100 informants' performance after receiving listening instruction.

### ***5.1.2- Post-Instructional Phase***

In order to identify the extent to which the informants of the present research have evolved as far as their listening comprehension level and use of metacognitive strategies are concerned, a post-test was assigned to the experimental group and the control subjects belonging to second year English LMD. In the following, the detailed data collected from this test are analysed quantitatively.

In fact, as it has been previously mentioned (see 4.2.3), second year LMD participants belonging to the experimental and the control groups, were assigned a task adapted from London and Richards' *Expanding Tactics for Listening* (2004). The written tests, comprising two activities, were handed the students to assess their ability to comprehend listening texts and identify learners' awareness development and use of listening metacognitive strategies namely problem solving, planning and evaluation, mental translation, personal knowledge and direct attention. Thus, the informants were asked to answer the two parts of the test in addition to a third one, added by the researcher, which focused on gap filling with key words. In this respect, it is worth mentioning that the additional activity was implemented by the researcher on purpose in case the

two former activities would not provide informative evidence about students' metacognitive strategy use under study.

Accordingly, a marking system was adopted to evaluate the students' listening comprehension performance which would reflect the use of metacognitive strategies the object of this research. In fact with reference to the literature review (see 3.4) addressing listening metacognitive strategy instruction, it is worth reminding that the investigations led by Vandergrift (1996, 2003b and 2006) besides Goh and Hu (2013) revealed the existence of a strong evidence of a positive relationship between strategy use and listening test scores.

Bearing in mind that the written tests comprised two parts in addition to a third part added by the researcher, the whole test included 20 items. Each one was allotted one point so that the maximum score would be 20. Such grading enabled us to distinguish the subjects' level. In other terms, based on the assumption that there exists a link between learners' listening performance and strategy use, the informants scoring 10/20 and beyond would exhibit awareness in this matter. However, those scoring below 10/20 would need instruction in metacognitive strategies. After checking the correct answers, the 100 students' scores were collected. After that, the listening pre-test scores of experimental and control subjects realised before instructional phase were analysed quantitatively and compared. Accordingly, table 05 forthcoming was set out.

Indeed, with the objective to raise students' awareness about listening metacognitive strategies, the subjects of the experimental group received an instruction different from that of the control ones. In this regard, it is worth mentioning that 1LMD experimental group is the same group that was followed in second year. Concerning the control participants, they were assigned listening lessons, conducted at the language laboratory, devoted to enable EFL learners to comprehend aural texts to which they are exposed. Regarding, the experimental group students, they were introduced to a multitude of audio tasks aiming at

developing the experimental subjects' overall language learning besides raising their awareness about metacognitive listening processes via instructing them a repertoire of listening strategies. This was achieved by following closely the pedagogical framework previously adopted by Vandergrift (2004), Vandergrift and Tafaghodtary (2010) as well as Vandergrift and Goh (2012).

**Table 05:** Experimental and Control Subjects' Post-Test Marks

<b>Subjects</b>	<b>2LMD Experimental Group</b>	<b>2LMD Control Group</b>
<b>S1</b>	15.50	13.00
<b>S2</b>	19.00	17.00
<b>S3</b>	15.50	17.00
<b>S4</b>	13.50	16.00
<b>S5</b>	20.00	13.00
<b>S6</b>	13.50	13.00
<b>S7</b>	14.00	11.00
<b>S8</b>	11.00	16.00
<b>S9</b>	15.50	14.00
<b>S10</b>	19.00	10.00
<b>S11</b>	20.00	18.00
<b>S12</b>	16.00	12.00
<b>S13</b>	15.00	18.00
<b>S14</b>	14.50	16.00
<b>S15</b>	14.00	12.00
<b>S16</b>	10.00	18.00
<b>S17</b>	15.00	14.00
<b>S18</b>	15.00	13.00
<b>S19</b>	13.00	15.00
<b>S20</b>	15.50	14.00
<b>S21</b>	12.50	14.50
<b>S22</b>	12.00	12.00
<b>S23</b>	17.00	13.00
<b>S24</b>	12.00	16.00
<b>S25</b>	20.00	14.00
<b>Mean</b>	15.12	14.38
<b>SD</b>	2.74	2.21
<b>Overall</b>	M=14.75	SD=2.47

Note: M= Mean      SD=Standard Deviation

After checking the correct answers, the 100 students' scores were collected. After that, the post-test scores of experimental and control subjects achieved after instructional phase were compared and analysed. Accordingly, table 05 was established. On the basis of the information exhibited in it, an amazing raise concerning listening test marks is witnessed at the level of the experimental subjects participating in the research. The control subjects' scores witnessed a raise too, but the scores were not as high as their peers'.

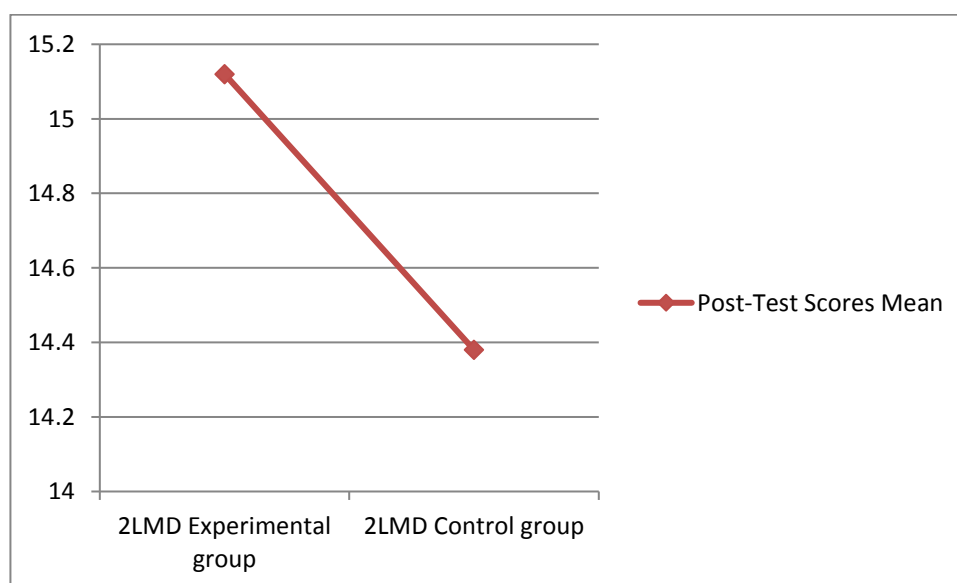
In fact, based on the scores calculation realised by the SPSS 22 software, the overall mean score of the listening comprehension post-test ( $M=14.75$ ) appears far beyond the overall mean already scored at the pre-test ( $M= 11.04$ ). Therefore, the post-test overall mean reflecting the average status of 100 students' performance implies that the listening level of the participants belonging to experimental and control groups has evolved positively. Furthermore, all the participants seem to have benefitted from the treatment received which was reflected in the improvement of their listening test scores.

Besides, based on the scores realised by both groups and with reference to what has been stated before that listening post-test was intended to uncover the five (05) metacognitive strategies used in the comprehension process, the only explanation that can be provided is linked to metacognitive strategy use. In fact, the high performance of the experimental subjects reflects their improvement in metacognitive strategies use in the process of comprehending the listening text. This implies that the instruction received in that matter raised the experimental participants' awareness of listening strategies to overcome comprehension difficulties. On the other hand, the control informants' low performance reveals their difficulty in comprehending the oral text and managing listening difficulties. This implies that the control subjects, who were not assigned a treatment on strategy use, did not make use of the metacognitive strategies or were not aware of their existence.

In addition to what has been mentioned before, from the information presented in table 05, it appears that 2LMD experimental participants' scores mean (M=15.12) reflects the improvement of their ability to comprehend the listening texts and handle listening difficulties. However, there is a great discrepancy with 2LMD control subjects whose scores mean (M= 14.38) appears far below their peers. In fact, their scores reveal their persistent difficulty in comprehending the oral text and managing listening difficulties (see 1.6). Thus, the gap uncovered at the beginning of the experiment is still waiting to be remedied. This explanation is reflected statistically in the form of means in the figure 13 forthcoming.

Moreover, with reference to the data represented in table 05 above, if we compare the performance of the 2LMD experimental group with that of 2LMD control group, it will be obvious that 2LMD experimental subjects' results (15.12) are quite positive as they over performed 2LMD control informants' scores (14.38). Besides, though the 100 informants pertain to the same academic level and have received the same listening task, the gap that existed in the pre-test still exists. Yet, this time, the gap between the two groups is much deeper.

**Figure 13:** Statistical Representation of the Students' Marks After Instruction



Looking at the mean score realised by each group individually reveals the development in listening scores of 2LMD experimental and control groups. According to this figure, the experimental informants' kept their scores at a high level comparing with the control subjects who scored very low performance; i.e., though the control participants demonstrated a positive development in their listening performances, their level is still behind. This can be explained by the type of instruction that each group received.

It is worth reminding that the experimental group received a treatment different from that assigned to the control group. Unlike the experimental group, the control groups received an ordinary treatment which did not aim at raising learners' awareness about metacognitive strategies, the object of this study. In other terms, the control participants were not offered the chance to plan, monitor, evaluate and identify problems hindering their task completion. Regarding the experimental subjects, they were involved in listening tasks aiming at raising their awareness about metacognitive listening processes via instructing them a repertoire of listening strategies such as problem solving, planning and evaluation, mental translation, personal knowledge and direct attention. This was achieved by following closely Vandergrift's (2010) five cycle pedagogical framework (see 3.6).

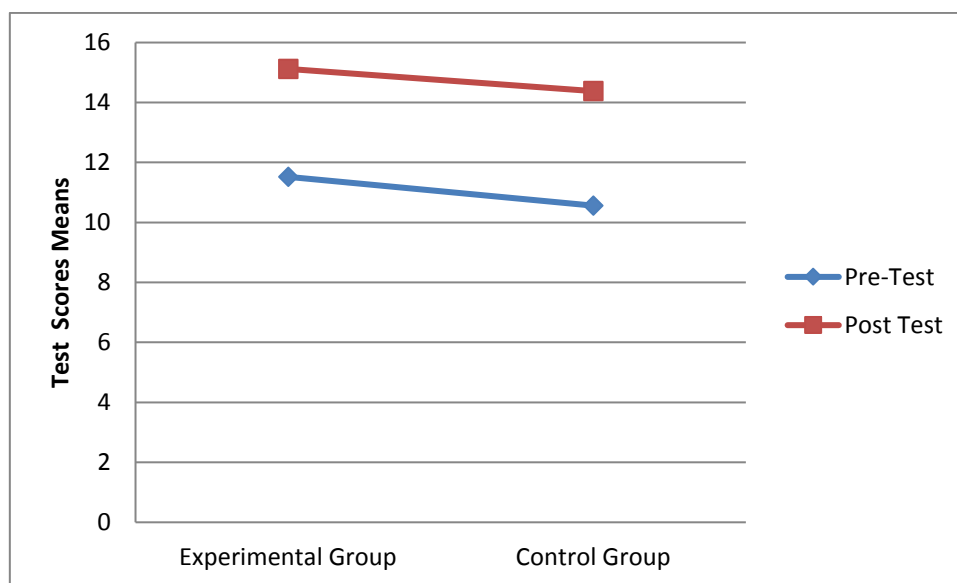
Besides, by making a comparison between the pre-test means and the post-test means scored by all the groups participating in the survey, we can notice the positive change that occurred to the elements belonging to the experimental group (see table 06 forthcoming).

**Table 06:** Comparative Analysis between Pre and Post Tests Means

<b>Mean</b>	<b>Experimental Group</b>	<b>Control Group</b>
<b>Pre-Test</b>	11.52	10.56
<b>Post Test</b>	15.12	14.38

From the table 06 above, we notice that after listening metacognitive strategy awareness-raising instruction, 2LMD experimental group participants over performed 2LMD control group. This implies that the experimental subjects have learnt a lot from the treatment received which should be implemented in other level classes; moreover, these results unveil that there is a close link between participants listening performance and metacognitive strategy use. Consequently, with reference to the information presented and the explanation provided as far as pre and post listening test scores means are concerned, a statistical representation of the results is presented in the following figure.

**Figure 14:** Statistical Representation of Pre and Post Test Scores Means



To sum up, in order to have a clear picture about the informants' listening performance and metacognitive strategy use, the scores of the tests realised by the diverse groups participating in the research were compared. Indeed, the scores realised before the instructional phase as far as listening metacognitive strategies are concerned demonstrated a great difference in the means scored by the experimental group and the control one. 1LMD experimental group was

ahead of the control one, whose level was below. Thus, it was concluded that 1LMD control participants needed more instruction as far as listening metacognitive strategies are concerned since their level was far from being satisfactory.

After instructional phase, the gap was still apparent between both groups; besides, the experimental subjects' listening performance witnessed positive evolution. The control subjects' scores also evolved positively but did not reach the experimental informants' level. This reflects that the special treatment in metacognitive strategies was of great help in enhancing experimental informants' listening performance. Therefore, the control subjects require treatment in this matter to reach their peers' level.

## **5.2- Interviews and Think-Aloud Protocols Analysis**

With the intention to collect information about the study participants' consciousness in relation to aural strategy use while engaging in listening tasks, we made use of two research instruments. The first one concerns pre and post interviews and the second one is related to think-aloud protocol. In fact, as it has been stated previously (see 4.2.3), ten (10) subjects of the study belonging to experimental group were asked questions having connection with the strategies used to comprehend the listening passage prior and after treatment (see appendices N° 10 and 11). The purpose behind this measure is to gather information about the kind of problems that EFL students may face in the language classroom, make students reflect on the process they go through in order to accomplish the listening task and get insight into learners' listening skill evolution as far as metacognitive strategies are concerned.

Regarding the second oral test (see 4.2.3), this was achieved via assigning a listening task to the students who were asked to perform it by saying loud what

comes to their mind. The reason lying behind this procedure is to access the learners' mind in terms of obtaining comprehensible data about listening processing. In this respect, this section will be divided into two parts analysing each tool respectively. Consequently, the first sub-section will tackle the data collected through interviews while the second sub-section analyses the data collected via think-aloud procedure.

### ***5.2.1- Interviews Analysis***

The retrospective interviews carried out in this study required the experimental subjects of the survey to reflect verbally on the listening task they had already listened to by answering few questions in relation to it. In this respect, it is necessary to underline that the participants had to respond to the interview prior and after treatment phases respectively. Furthermore, the interviews were restricted to 10 members of the experimental group only as the transcription, coding and analysis are time consuming. Once the data were collected, a comparative analysis was established between the results of pre-treatment phase and those of post-treatment one.

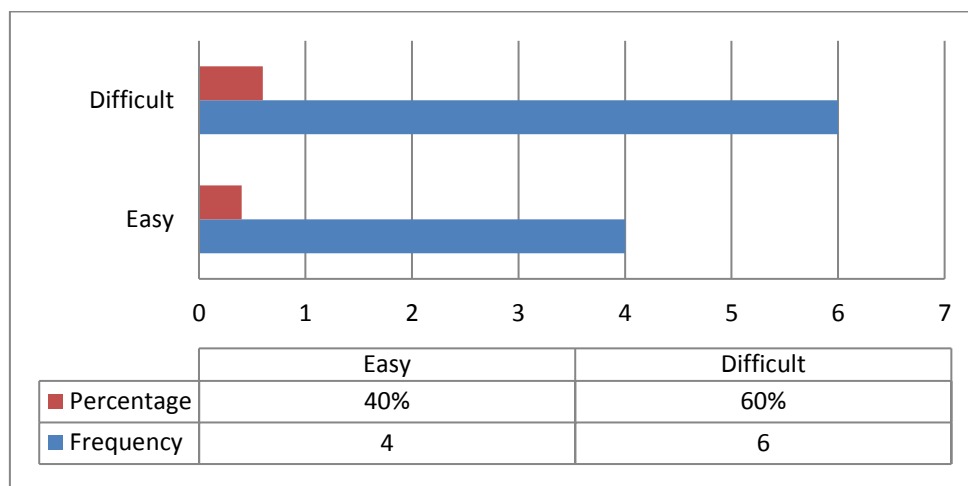
#### ***5.2.1.1- Pre-Instructional Phase***

As previously mentioned, the interviews carried out in this investigation took the form of semistandardized interviews. That is, in the interview preceding instruction, the 10 participants of the study belonging to experimental group were asked questions having connection with the strategies used to comprehend the listening passage (see appendix N°10). The purpose behind it was to gather information about the kind of problems that EFL students might face in the language classroom as well as make students reflect on the process they went

through in order to accomplish the listening task. The results retrieved from the analysis of the corpora are set out in figures 15, 16, 17 and 18 forthcoming.

Regarding the level of the task difficulty, four students out of ten found it easy while the six remaining ones found it difficult. In other terms, four participants out of ten (4/10) could handle the task easily whereas the six out of ten (6/10) of them considered it difficult and could not manage to solve it easily. Accordingly, figure 15 bellow is presented.

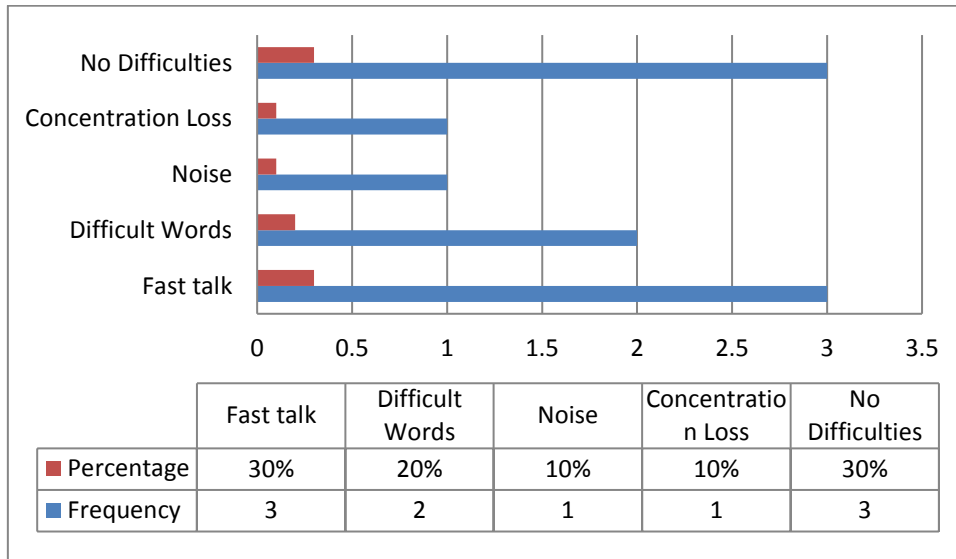
**Figure 15:** Impression about the Listening Task Prior Treatment Phase



In addition to that, participants were asked to express the diverse difficulties encountered when achieving the task. Therefore, a list of difficulties was set out according to which results were retrieved and presented in figure 16 forthcoming.

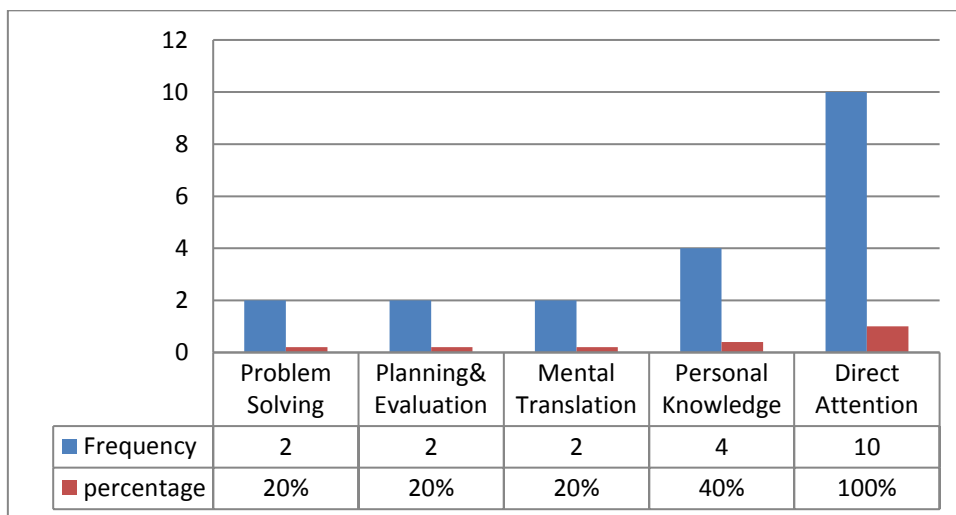
In fact, with reference to the information set out in the figure below, it appears that the difficulties encountered by the students vary from one student to another. For instance, three subjects out of ten (3/10) said fast talk hindered their comprehension; two out of ten (2/10) them mentioned that unknown words impeded them from understanding the listening task; besides, two informants out of ten (2/10) mentioned another type of difficulty such as noise and loss of concentration whereas three interviewee out of ten (3/10) stated no difficulties.

**Figure 16: Listening Difficulties Expressed Before Intervention**



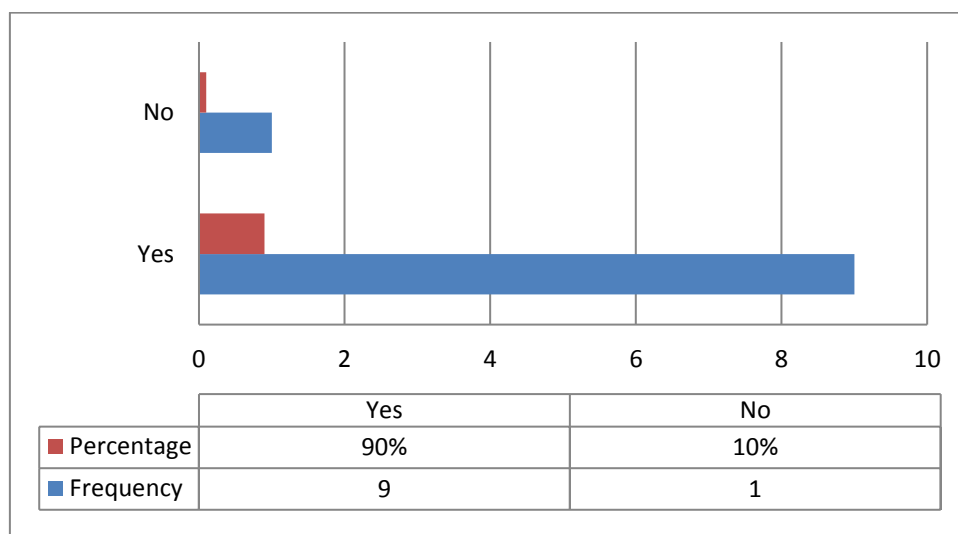
As far as the strategies implemented to the accomplishment of the pre-test, they are exhibited in figure 17. Indeed, the interview revealed that though diverse metacognitive strategies were implemented, 100% of the experimental group subjects replied that they focused mainly on the general idea and on the key words to comprehend the whole audio text. In other terms, ten informants out of ten (10/10) rely on direct attention while the remaining strategies were used at a very low frequency as exhibited in the figure forthcoming:

**Figure 17: Strategies Used Prior Instruction**



As regards the level of satisfaction from strategy use and listening performance (see figure 18), nine students expressed their satisfaction whereas one student was unsatisfied from the test results and mentioned his intention to look forward for a new plan to handle future listening tasks. Thus, the results related to the informants' satisfaction about their performance are presented in the following figure.

**Figure 18:** Informants' Performance Satisfaction before Treatment



According to the figure above, the majority of the participants (90%) were satisfied from their listening performance and the strategies employed to handle the task. Besides, 10% of them expressed difficulty in comprehending the listening task and failure of the strategies employed. Therefore, the latter requires instruction as far as metacognitive strategies are concerned.

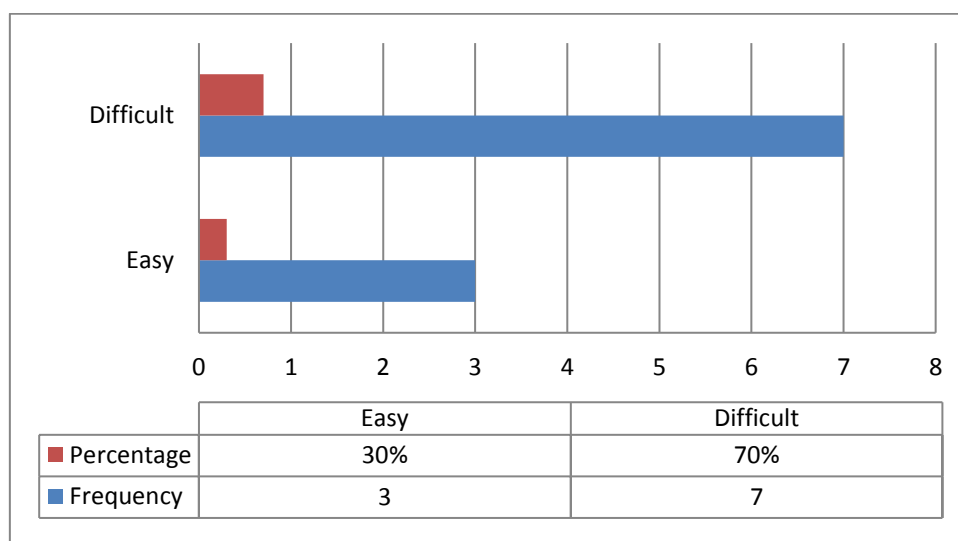
### 5.2.1.2- Post-Instructional Phase

As stated previously, in the interview following instruction, the ten (10) participants of the study belonging to the experimental group were asked questions having connection with the five (05) major metacognitive strategies

strategies, under study, used to comprehend the listening passage (see appendix N° 11). The purpose behind it was to gather information about the kind of problems that EFL students may face in the language classroom as well as make students reflect on the strategies they made use of in the process accomplishing the listening task. The results retrieved from the analysis of the corpora are set out in figures 10, 11, 12 and 13 forthcoming.

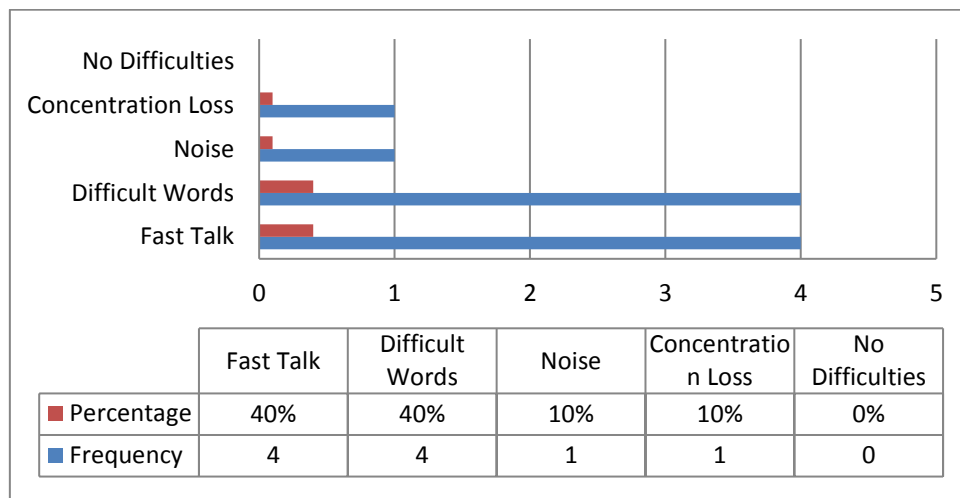
Regarding the level of task difficulty, three students out of ten found it easy while the seven remaining ones found it difficult; i.e. 30% of the participants could handle the task easily whereas the 70% of them considered it difficult and could not manage to solve it with ease. Accordingly, figure 19 below is established.

**Figure 19:** Impression about the Listening Task Following Treatment Phase



In addition to that, participants were asked to express the diverse difficulties encountered when achieving the task. The factors standing against the informants' success in listening comprehension encompass concentration loss, noise, difficult words and fast talk. This list is presented in figure 20 forthcoming.

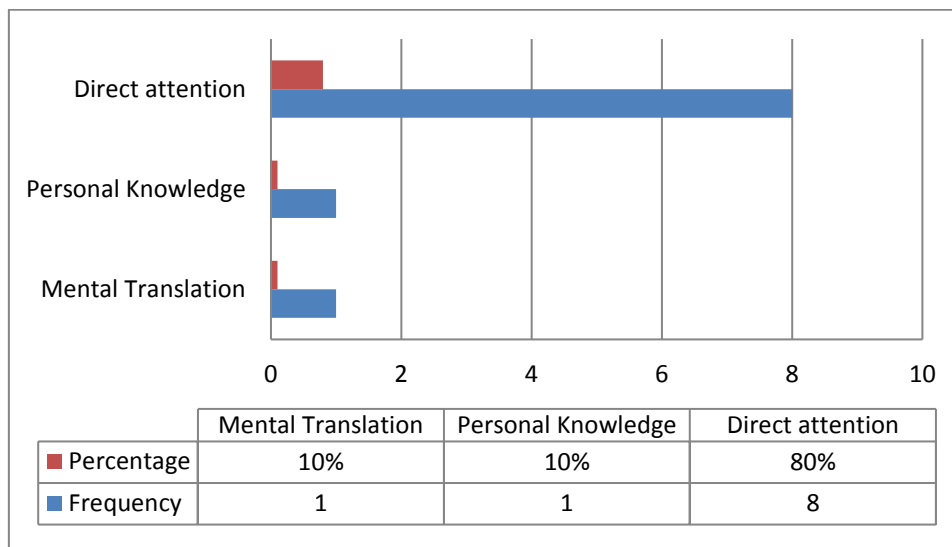
**Figure 20:** Listening Difficulties Expressed after Intervention



In fact, with reference to the information set out in figure 20 above, it appears that the difficulties encountered by the students vary from one student to another. For instance, 40% of the subjects said fast talk hindered their comprehension; 40% of them mentioned that unknown words impeded them from understanding the listening task; besides, 20% of the students mentioned another type of difficulty such as noise and loss of concentration whereas no learner stated the absence of difficulties. Indeed, the fact that no informant mentioned the absence of the latter implies that the processing of the listening task is still difficult to handle by EFL learners. Accordingly, the latter requires more practice as far as metacognitive strategies is concerned.

As far as the strategies implemented to the accomplishment of the post-test, eight students out of ten (8/10) replied that they focused mainly on the general idea and on the key words to comprehend the whole audio text. Moreover, one student out of ten (1/10) mentioned the implementation of mental translation while another one (1/10) made use of personal knowledge to understand the task at hands. Accordingly, Figure 21 forward coming is set out.

**Figure 21: Strategies Used After Instruction**

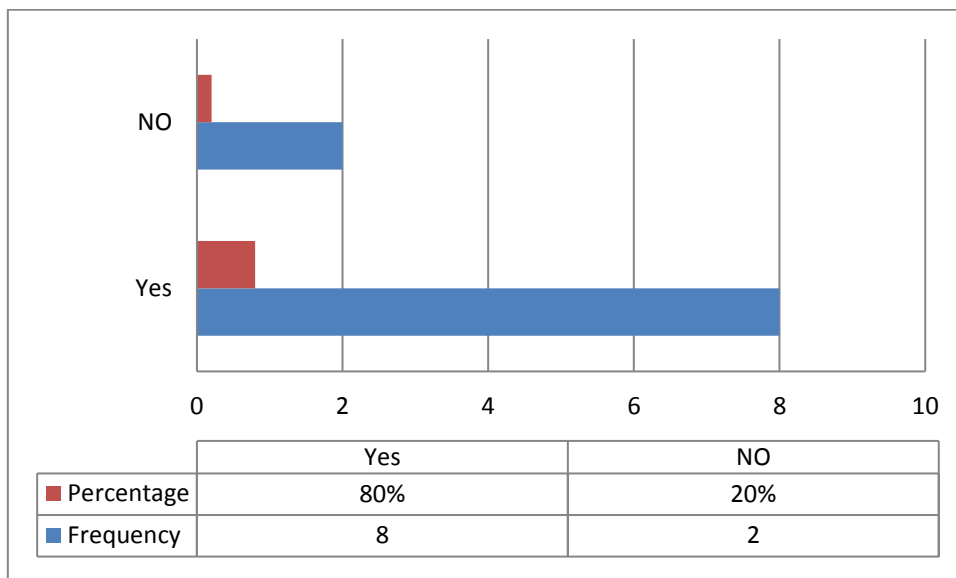


With reference to the results exhibited in figure 21 above, 80% of the informants rely on direct attention to handle listening tasks while 20% use mental translation and personal Knowledge respectively.

As regards the level of satisfaction of strategy use and listening performance (see figure 22), eight students out of ten (8/10) expressed their satisfaction whereas two others (2/10) were unsatisfied with the written post- test results. Thus, the results related to the informants’ satisfaction with their performance are presented in the following figure.

According to the figure below, the majority of the participants (80%) were satisfied with their listening performance and the strategies employed to handle the task. Besides, 20% of them expressed difficulty in comprehending the listening task and failure of the strategies employed. Therefore, the latter require more practice as far as metacognitive strategies instruction is concerned.

**Figure 22:** Informants’ Performance Satisfaction after Treatment Reception



To sum up, with the perspective to obtain information about Algerian EFL learners’ consciousness in relation to aural strategy use while engaging in listening tasks, the subjects of study had to reflect verbally on the listening task already listened to by answering a set of questions about it (see 4.2.3).

In fact, the results retrieved from the analysis of the corpora prior instruction revealed that 60% of the participants found the task hard to achieve. They attributed this difficulty to diverse reasons namely fast talk, difficult words, noise and loss of concentration. The latter vary from one student to another. As far as the strategies employed to the accomplishment of the pre-test, the students made use of diverse strategies and focused mainly on direct attention. Besides, the majority of the students expressed their satisfaction of their implementation in the task processing.

After the treatment phase, the results of the retrospective interview revealed that the difficulty expressed before treatment about metacognitive strategies is still persisting. Indeed, though a high number of students expressed

their satisfaction with their performance, the prior difficulties already mentioned still exist. Moreover, the fact that no student mentioned the absence of difficulties implies that the processing of the listening task by EFL learners remains hard to be accomplished. Therefore, instruction as far as metacognitive strategies are concerned is highly recommended.

### ***5.2.2-Think-Aloud Protocol Analysis***

As mentioned previously, accessing the processes through which learners complete a listening task is very difficult (see 4.2.3). Besides, it is hard to get a comprehensible data about listening processing unless it is delivered by the listener himself. Therefore, in this study, only 10 of the experimental subjects were assigned simple instruction which is to perform the task at hand and say loud what comes to their mind. Accordingly, the students were allowed to listen to the extract as many times as they wanted and pause it wherever they felt necessity. Yet, at each pause point or repetition, the subjects were asked to verbalise what she or he was thinking.

Once the session recorded via microphone onto the laptop ended, the protocols were transcribed following Cancode transcription coding (see appendix N°14). The next step was to code the data by realising a coding scheme to help the analysis of the latter. In other terms, each metacognitive process was allotted a code (see appendix N°14). Moreover, it is necessary to mention that while the informants were achieving the task at hands, the researcher was observing them and taking notes to help in the analysis phase.

Indeed, the results collected from the 10 experimental informants revealed that they made use of diverse metacognitive strategies variably. The most used ones are those related to problem solving, planning and evaluation besides direct

attention. Regarding mental translation and personal knowledge use, they were disregarded.

Furthermore, with reference to the answers reflected in the think-aloud diary that was adapted from Vandergrift and Goh (2012: 149) (see appendix N° 07), a number of strategies were implemented to reach the comprehension of the input. In fact, in order to solve their listening problems, the informants made use of guessing, repeating the extract to focus more and adjusted their interpretation to the correct one. As concerns planning and evaluation strategies, the first thing that the students realised was reading the instruction before starting to listen. As regards direct attention strategy use, the learners kept focusing on the input at the same time taking notes to track the information. Accordingly, table 07 summarising the strategies adopted is set out.

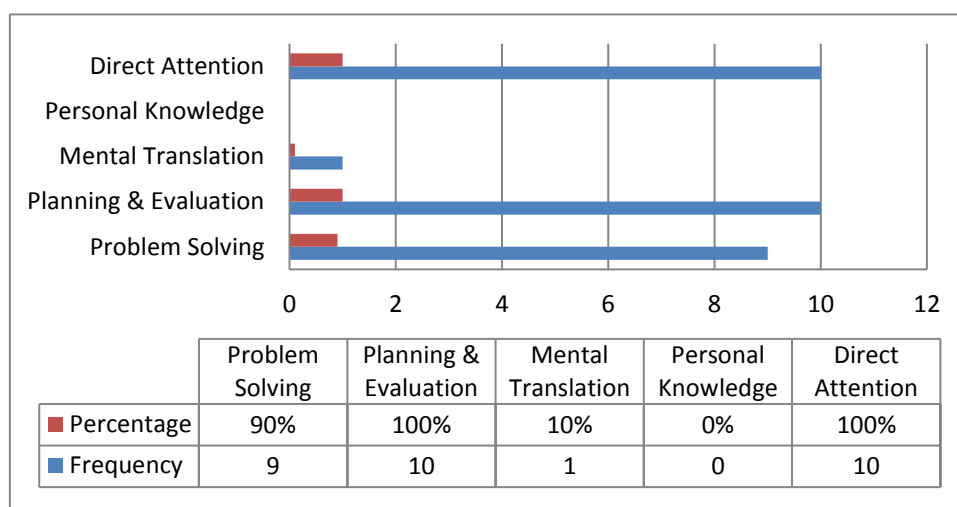
**Table 07:** Summary of the Strategies Implemented during Think-Aloud Procedure

<b>Metacognitive Strategies</b>		<b>S1</b>	<b>S2</b>	<b>S3</b>	<b>S4</b>	<b>S5</b>	<b>S6</b>	<b>S7</b>	<b>S8</b>	<b>S9</b>	<b>S10</b>
<b>Problem Solving</b>	<b>Items</b>										
	Guessing	X					X				
	Repeating to confirm		X			X		X	X	X	
	Adjusting interpretation			X	X						
<b>Planning &amp; Evaluation</b>	Reading the instructions	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
<b>Mental Translation</b>	From English to French						X				
<b>Personal Knowledge</b>											
<b>Direct Attention</b>	Concentrating	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	Taking notes		X		X	X	X		X		

As it appears from the table above, problem solving strategies as well as planning and evaluation besides direct attention are used at a very high level by all the informants, with the exception of one student (S10) who did not to rely on problem solving but listened to the excerpt just once and achieved the task at hands. Presumably, the task assigned to the informant was easy to handle as from the beginning he showed his readiness to focus on the listening task and began reading the instructions before starting the audio text, i.e, the steps this student followed are a reflection of his way of thinking about how to process the listening information. He already had a plan how to proceed and how to focus on the audio recording. This can be explained in two ways: either the special instruction about metacognitive strategies assigned to the experimental students had been taken in by this subject, or the latter had already this strategies in his potential.

Concerning personal knowledge and mental translation, they were neglected by all the informants, except for the case of one student (S6) who required referring to the French language to infer the meaning of the word “insurance”. Consequently, a statistical analysis of the metacognitive strategies used is set out and presented in figure 23 forthcoming.

**Figure 23:** Statistical Representation of the Think-Aloud



According to this figure, it is evident that the highest percentage (100%) attributed to planning and evaluation as well as direct attention reflects the reliance of the students on these strategies more than the others. Additionally, to overcome their listening difficulties, they make use of problem solving strategies (90%). Regarding the other strategies, their use is not frequent or nonexistent.

All in all, the think-aloud protocol analysis allowed us to access the processes through which learners went to complete the listening task at hand. It exhibited the diverse metacognitive strategies adopted by the participants to accomplish the listening task at different rates and allowed us to have a picture about Algerian EFL learners' metacognitive knowledge.

### **5.3-Questionnaire Analysis**

A questionnaire was conducted twice in this study: before instructional phase and after treatment as it has been explained in section 4.2.3. With regard to this questionnaire, it comprises two parts: a background questionnaire and a Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ) adapted from Vandergrift et al (2006) (see appendix N°09). The latter had two fold objectives: the first one aimed at gathering information about the subjects participating in the investigation; i.e. their number, gender, age, occupation and level. The second objective is related to the processes EFL students went through in order to comprehend the aural message presented and accomplish the listening task.

The analysis of the questionnaire was developed quantitatively (see 4.3.3). Therefore, this section interprets the data of the questionnaire in two sub-parts. The first sub-part is a comparative analysis of metacognitive strategy use among 100 participants before and after instruction. The second sub-part analyses the relationship between the students' metacognitive strategy use and their performance in the listening comprehension test.

### ***5.3.1- Comparative Analysis of Students' Use of Metacognitive Strategies Before and After Instruction***

As stated previously, with the purpose to gather information about the subjects participating in the investigation as well as the processes the participants go through in order to comprehend the aural message presented and accomplish the listening task, the MALQ questionnaire was implemented in the study. Thus, the data collected prior and after instruction are analysed and compared on the basis of the numerical representations collected

#### ***5.3.1.1- Pre- Instructional Phase***

The MALQ employed in this research consists of 21 randomly ordered items organised in a scale corresponding to five factors related to metacognitive strategies. In other terms, questions 5, 7, 9, 13, 17 and 19 correspond to “Problem solving” factor; questions 1, 10, 14, 20 and 21 refer to “Planning and Evaluation” factor; questions 4, 11 and 18 identify “Mental translation” factor; questions 3, 8 and 15 refer to “Person Knowledge” and questions 2, 6, 12 and 16 relating to “Directed Attention” factor. The answer scale was a Likert-type six-point scale to discover the strength of feeling or attitude towards a given statement or series of statements. Once the data answering the issues considered significantly informative about the use of listening metacognitive strategies by EFL students were collected, an analysis of the results illustrated in table 08 forthcoming (see page 193) was carried out.

From the data collected and presented in the table forthcoming, it is suggested that there exists a variation in the use of metacognitive strategies among 1LMD informants belonging to experimental and control groups. This variation reflects the level of the learners' awareness about listening metacognitive strategies. In fact, 1LMD experimental subject demonstrate

higher level of awareness when compared with 1LMD control group. This is indicated through the overall mean scored by both groups where the experimental subjects scored a mean equal to 4.19 and the control ones scored a mean equivalent to 4.05

**Table 08:** Descriptive statistics analysis of the MALQ Prior Instruction

<b>Metacognitive Strategies</b>		<b>1LMD Experimental Group</b>	<b>1LMD Control Group</b>
<b>Items</b>		<b>Mean</b>	<b>Mean</b>
<b>Overall Mean</b>		<b>4.19</b>	<b>4.05</b>
<b>Problem Solving</b>	<b>5-7-9-13-17-19</b>	4.82	4.97
	<b>5</b>	4.48	5.20
	<b>7</b>	4.52	4.64
	<b>9</b>	5.44	5.40
	<b>13</b>	4.48	4.92
	<b>17</b>	5.12	4.84
	<b>19</b>	4.88	4.84
<b>Planning and Evaluation</b>	<b>1-10-14-20-21</b>	4.14	4.38
	<b>1</b>	4.16	3.68
	<b>10</b>	2.88	2.76
	<b>14</b>	4.36	5.00
	<b>20</b>	4.64	5.16
	<b>21</b>	4.64	5.32
<b>Mental Translation</b>	<b>4-11-18</b>	3.57	2.96
	<b>4</b>	4.16	3.32
	<b>11</b>	3.96	3.08
	<b>18</b>	2.60	2.16
<b>Personal Knowledge</b>	<b>3-8-15</b>	4.07	4.08
	<b>3</b>	3.40	3.88
	<b>8</b>	4.28	4.28
	<b>15</b>	4.52	4.08
<b>Direct Attention</b>	<b>2-6-12-16</b>	4.37	3.89
	<b>2</b>	5.28	4.92
	<b>6</b>	4.40	4.04
	<b>12</b>	5.04	5.00
	<b>16</b>	2.76	1.62

Starting with problem solving strategies, it is clear from the results apparent in table 08 that the level of use of the latter differs from one group to another. For instance, 1LMD control group makes use of problem solving strategies ( $M= 4.97$ ) more frequently than 1LMD experimental group ( $M=4.82$ ).

Concerning the second factor related to metacognitive strategies, the participants differ in Planning and evaluation strategy use. Indeed, 1LMD experimental group members use these strategies less frequently than 1LMD control group. This is obvious from their mean scores of strategy use which puts 1LMD control group ( $M=4.38$ ) at the highest level followed by 1LMD experimental group ( $M=4.14$ ).

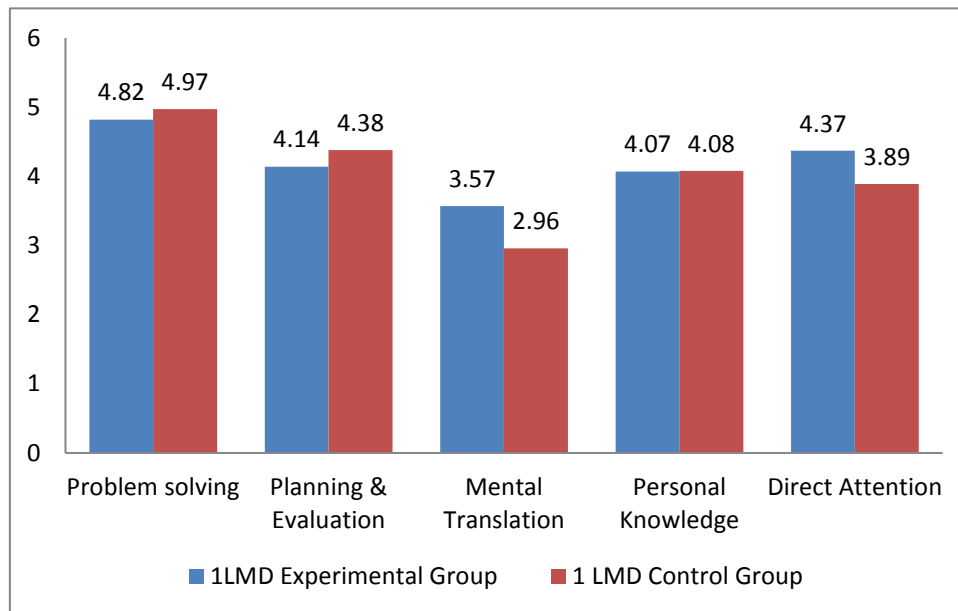
Regarding the third metacognitive strategy in connection with mental translation, the data collected from the MALQ questionnaire revealed a high level of use by the 1LMD experimental participants contrary to 1LMD control group. According to the data analysis, it is evident that first year experimental subjects ( $M=3.57$ ) make use of this strategy more frequently than first year control group subjects who make use of it at a very low level; i.e. they make use of it at a mean score of 2.96.

As far as personal knowledge is concerned representing the fourth metacognitive strategy, both experimental and control participants appear to use this strategy at approximately the same rate, which is 4.07 and 4.08 respectively. As regards the last metacognitive strategy related to direct attention, the means scored by the diverse participants unveil that the experimental group makes use of this strategy at a higher level ( $M=4.37$ ) than the control group who scored 3.89.

In addition to the information presented above, the descriptive statistics analysis of the MALQ prior instruction will give us an overview of the metacognitive strategies highly used by each group separately. In fact, on the

basis of the MALQ results collected from 100 participants, figure 24 and table 9 forthcoming are set out.

**Figure 24:** Statistical Representation of MALQ Prior Treatment



It is evident from this figure that the informants make use of metacognitive strategies when processing the listening task; however, their strategy use varies depending on students. For instance, 1LMD experimental group seems to prefer the use of problem solving and direct attention strategies while planning and evaluation strategies and personal knowledge are used at a low level. Regarding the control group, it appears that its participants prefer relying on problem solving and planning and evaluation strategies while the rate of use of personal knowledge and direct attention strategies is very low. Concerning mental translation strategy, it is clear that it is the least used by the 100 informants.

Table 09 also gives more evidence about the variation in the use of the five (05) metacognitive strategies under study.

**Table 09:** Participants' Use of Metacognitive Strategies Prior Treatment

<b>Metacognitive Strategies</b>	<b>1LMD Experimental Group</b>		<b>1LMD Control Group</b>	
	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Rank</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Rank</b>
<b>Problem Solving</b>	4.82	1	4.97	1
<b>Planning and Evaluation</b>	4.14	3	4.38	2
<b>Mental Translation</b>	3.57	5	2.96	5
<b>Personal Knowledge</b>	4.07	4	4.08	3
<b>Direct Attention</b>	4.37	2	3.89	4

With reference to the table above, it is indicated that both experimental and control groups seem to be aware of listening metacognitive strategies; however, a variation in the use of the latter is noticed among the participants. In fact, 1LMD experimental group shows more awareness about metacognitive strategies than 1LMD control group. Moreover, the results of MALQ prior instruction unveil that the 100 subjects participating in the study share problem solving strategy implementation at a very high level to comprehend the listening task at hand while they hardly make use of mental translation strategy. The other remaining strategies are used at a limited rate.

### ***5.3.1.2- Post- Instructional Phase***

As stated before, 100 participants responses realised on the basis of the MALQ questionnaire were collected and analysed. The latter were carried out with Algerian EFL learners in educational settings, after receiving instruction about five (05) metacognitive strategies.

In this context, it is essential to mention that with the objective to raise students' awareness about listening metacognitive strategies, the subjects of the

experimental group received instruction that was different from the one assigned to the control group. In this regard, it is necessary to underline that the latter received listening lessons, conducted at the language laboratory, devoted to metacognitive strategy instruction to enable EFL learners to comprehend aural texts to which they are exposed.

Regarding, the experimental group students, they were introduced to a multitude of audio tasks aiming at developing the experimental subjects' overall language learning besides raising their awareness about metacognitive listening processes via instructing them a repertoire of listening strategies. This was achieved by following closely the pedagogical framework previously used by several researchers such as Vandergrift (2004), Vandergrift and Tafaghodtary (2010) as well as Vandergrift and Goh (2012).

Furthermore, with the perspective to address whether participants' listening performance improved and whether their use of metacognitive strategies developed, the numerical data collected after treatment were analysed quantitatively and presented in table 10 beneath (see page 198) to get a clear picture of how experimental and control groups performed.

From the data collected and presented in table 10 forthcoming, it is suggested that there exists a variation in the use of metacognitive strategies among 2LMD informants belonging to experimental and control groups. This variation reflects the level of the learners' awareness about listening metacognitive strategies. In fact, 2LMD experimental subject demonstrate higher level of awareness when compared with 2LMD control group. This is indicated through the overall mean scored by both groups where the experimental subjects scored a mean equal to 4.24 and the control ones scored a mean equivalent to 4.04

**Table 10** : Descriptive statistics analysis of the MALQ After Instruction

<b>Metacognitive Strategies</b>		<b>2LMD Experimental Group</b>	<b>2LMD Control Group</b>
<b>Items</b>		<b>Mean</b>	<b>Mean</b>
<b>Overall Mean</b>		<b>4.24</b>	<b>4.04</b>
<b>Problem Solving</b>	<b>5-7-9-13-17-19</b>	4.98	4.86
	<b>5</b>	5.20	4.84
	<b>7</b>	4.72	4.60
	<b>9</b>	5.12	5.24
	<b>13</b>	4.64	4.76
	<b>17</b>	5.08	5.00
	<b>19</b>	5.16	4.72
<b>Planning and Evaluation</b>	<b>1-10-14-20-21</b>	4.37	4.44
	<b>1</b>	4.44	4.12
	<b>10</b>	3.24	3.40
	<b>14</b>	4.68	5.16
	<b>20</b>	4.64	5.04
	<b>21</b>	4.88	5.48
<b>Mental Translation</b>	<b>4-11-18</b>	3.67	2.57
	<b>4</b>	3.84	3.00
	<b>11</b>	4.20	2.80
	<b>18</b>	2.96	1.92
<b>Personal Knowledge</b>	<b>3-8-15</b>	3,98	4,24
	<b>3</b>	3.08	3.52
	<b>8</b>	3.84	4.92
	<b>15</b>	5.04	4.28
<b>Direct Attention</b>	<b>2-6-12-16</b>	4.21	4.08
	<b>2</b>	5.28	5.16
	<b>6</b>	4.64	4.48
	<b>12</b>	5.28	5.04
	<b>16</b>	1.68	1.64

With reference to the results apparent in table 10 above, the rate of metacognitive strategy use varies from one group to another. The table also suggests that 2LMD experimental participants (M=4.24) are ahead of 2LMD control subjects (M=4.04) as far as metacognitive strategy use is concerned. Starting with problem solving strategies, it is clear from the above results that there exists a variation in the use of the strategies under study. For instance, 2LMD experimental group (M=4.98) makes use of problem solving strategies more frequently than 2LMD control group (M=4.86).

Concerning the second metacognitive strategy related to planning and evaluation, the participants differ in the use of this strategy. Indeed, 2LMD experimental participants use these strategies less frequently than 2LMD control subjects. This is obvious from their scores which reflect the use of this strategy at a mean of 4.37 and 4.44 respectively.

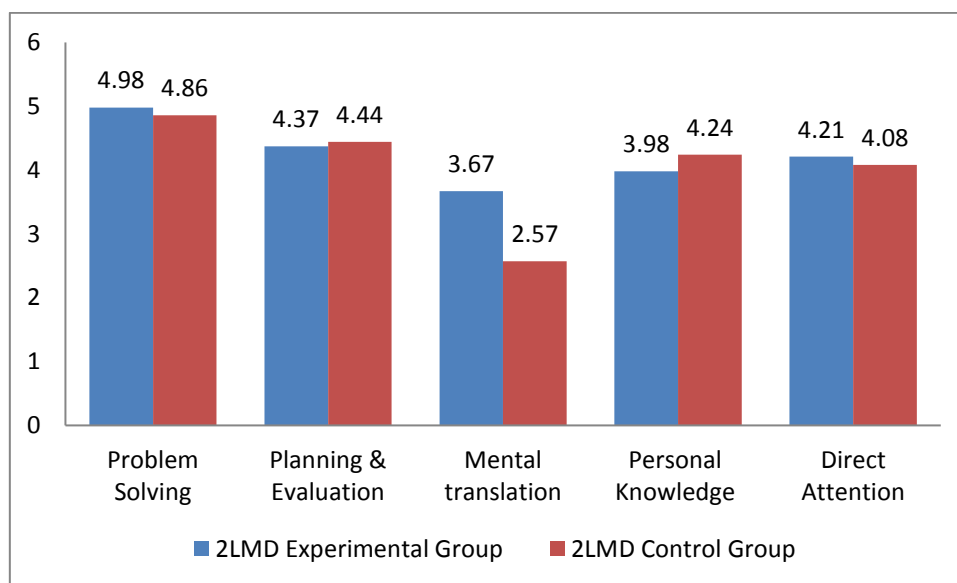
Regarding the third strategy in connection with mental translation, the results of the MALQ reveal a very low level of use among the informants when compared with the level of use of the other strategies under study. Additionally, the mean scored by the experimental subjects (M= 3.67) suggests that they use this strategy more frequently than the control participants (M= 2.57).

As far as personal knowledge is concerned representing the fourth metacognitive strategy, second year experimental informants seem to use this strategy at a level lower than the control subjects'. According to the MALQ results, the experimental group scored a mean equal to 3.98 which is behind the mean scored by the control group (M=4.24).

Furthermore, as regards the last metacognitive strategy factor related to direct attention, the means scored by the diverse participants suggests that 2LMD experimental group (M= 4.21) makes use of this strategy more frequently than 2LMD control group scoring 4.08.

In addition to the information presented above, the descriptive statistics analysis of the MALQ following awareness- raising instruction gives us an overview of the five (05) listening metacognitive strategies highly used by each group separately. In fact, on the basis of the MALQ results collected from 100 participants, figure 25 and table 11 forthcoming are established.

**Figure 25:** Statistical Representation of MALQ After Treatment



It is obvious from this figure that the informants make use of metacognitive strategies when processing the listening task. That is, the statistical representation of the MALQ results following treatment demonstrates learners' awareness of metacognitive strategies. However, their strategy use varies from one group to another. For instance, 2LMD experimental and control informants seem to share preference for the use of problem solving and planning and evaluation strategies. The other remaining strategies, such as personal knowledge and direct attention, they are employed at a low level. As regards the mental translation strategy, it is evident that it is the least used by the 100 informants.

Table 11 also gives more evidence about the variation in the use of the five (05) metacognitive strategies under study.

**Table 11:** Participants' Use of Metacognitive Strategies

Metacognitive Strategies	2LMD Experimental Group		2LMD Control Group	
	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank
<b>Problem Solving</b>	4.98	1	4.86	1
<b>Planning and Evaluation</b>	4.37	2	4.44	2
<b>Mental Translation</b>	3.67	5	2.57	5
<b>Personal Knowledge</b>	3,98	4	4,24	3
<b>Direct Attention</b>	4.21	3	4.08	4

With reference to the post instruction statistical representation of the MALQ data exhibited in the above table, variation in metacognitive strategy use is suggested. It is indicated that the 100 participants share the use of some strategies and disregard others. For instance, problem solving and planning and evaluation strategies are the preferred ones whereas mental translation is disregarded by both groups.

Furthermore, a comparative analysis of metacognitive strategy use before and after treatment, displayed in table 12 forthcoming, shows the evolution in the use of metacognitive strategies by EFL students in listening tasks. This evolution reflects the development of the informants' awareness as far as metacognitive strategies are concerned.

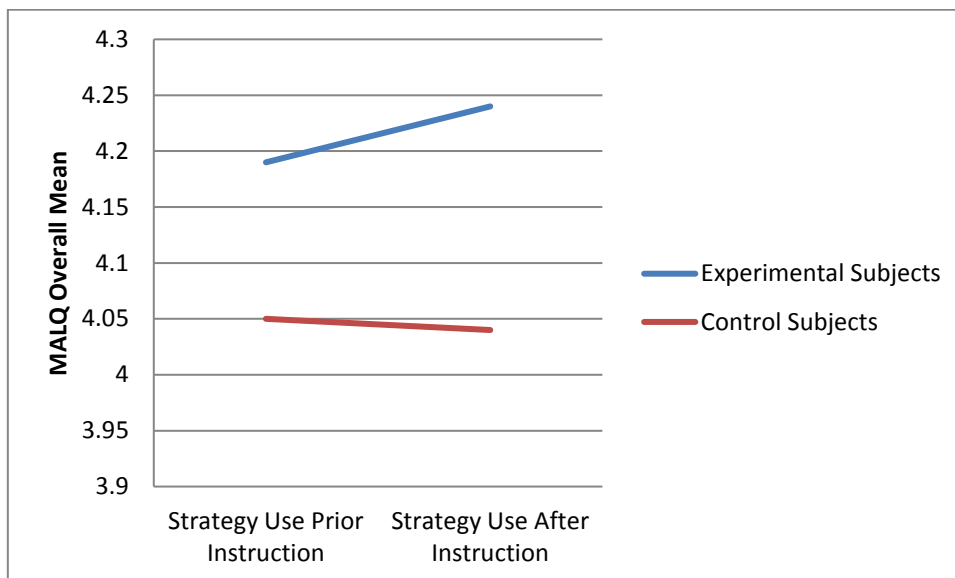
**Table 12:** Comparison of Metacognitive Strategy Use Before and After Treatment

Metacognitive Strategies	Strategy Use Prior Instruction	Strategy Use After Instruction
<b>Experimental Subjects' Overall Mean</b>	4.19	4.24
<b>Control Subjects' Overall Mean</b>	4.05	4.04

In fact, according to the information displayed in table 12 previously stated, the experimental subjects' awareness about metacognitive strategies prior treatment is higher than that of the control subjects. The overall mean scored by the experimental group witnessed a positive raise regarding the use of metacognitive strategies unlike the control group which noticed no change. The experimental informants' overall mean increased from 4.19 to reach 4.24; whereas the control participants' overall mean remained almost stable. This can be explained by the different type of instruction allotted to each group as explained previously (see 4.2.3). Thus, the raise in the experimental group overall mean scores is a reflection of the raise of the participants' awareness in terms of metacognitive strategy use.

Therefore, it is apparent from the results retrieved from the MALQ questionnaire, after listening metacognitive strategies awareness-raising instruction was implemented in the language classroom, that both experimental and control groups made use of metacognitive strategies at diverse levels. Indeed, a variety in the use of the latter is noticed among the 100 participants. Accordingly, 2LMD experimental group showed more awareness about metacognitive strategies than 2LMD control group; likewise, a wide gap is noticed between the experimental group and the control one. Furthermore, the results of MALQ following instruction unveiled that the 100 subjects participating in the study share the implementation of problem solving strategy as well as planning and evaluation at a very high level in their listening tasks. This reflects their awareness about the importance of those facilitative measures; however, they hardly make use of mental translation strategy. The other remaining strategies are used at a limited level. Additionally, the comparative analysis of strategy awareness prior and after instruction explained above can also be further elucidated statistically in the figure 26 forthcoming.

**Figure 26:** Comparative Representation of MALQ Prior and After Treatment



The statistical representation of the results, issued from the comparative analysis of MALQ data collected before and after awareness-raising instruction about metacognitive strategies, exhibits plainly the change in strategy use among the diverse groups. It also shows how the experimental group developed positively as compared to the control group. Consequently, it can be said that the treatment the experimental subjects received aiming at raising learners' consciousness about listening metacognitive strategies attained the objective assigned to it. This implies that instruction in that matter should be assigned to the control group if we want them to achieve better results.

To sum up, with the aim to have a suggestive picture on how Algerian EFL learners make use of listening metacognitive strategies and whether their listening performance has improved after receiving instruction in this matter, a comparison was established between the experimental subjects and the control ones during pre and post instructional periods on the basis of the MALQ questionnaire.

Indeed, as mentioned earlier, the comparison realised with the 100 subjects uncovered a lot of facts. As regards the experimental group, it

demonstrated higher level of awareness about metacognitive strategies than the control group. An improvement in the experimental participants' performance is witnessed after treatment phase. This can be explained by the type of instruction received which aimed at developing the experimental subjects' overall language learning besides raising their awareness about metacognitive listening processes via instructing them a repertoire of listening metacognitive strategies. The tasks achieved during the treatment period enabled them to become more conscious about those facilitative devices and enhanced their ability to make use of them. For instance, the overall mean of metacognitive awareness prior instructional period jumped from 4.19 to reach 4.24 after treatment.

Regarding the control group, their overall mean scored prior instruction was below that of the experimental group. Their level of strategy awareness did not witness any change after treatment phase. Contrary to the experimental group, the control one did not realise any improvement in metacognitive strategies use. For example, the overall mean remained almost stable as it moved from 4.05 to 4.04 after instruction. This can be returned back to the type of instruction implemented to the control subjects which differed from that of the experimental group. Indeed, they were assigned listening lessons, conducted at the language laboratory, devoted to enable EFL learners to comprehend aural texts to which they were exposed without any reference to the metacognitive strategies under study.

All in all, the results of MALQ questionnaire analysis during pre-and post instructional phases indicated that certain awareness about metacognitive strategies is established among the subjects of the experimental group while the necessity to underline those devices to the control subjects is required. In other terms, awareness about metacognitive strategies is reflected in the raise of the experimental informants' use of the strategies to accomplish the listening task at hands contrary to the control subjects.

### ***5.3.2- Relationships between Metacognitive Strategy Use and Listening Comprehension Performance***

With the perspective to answer the enquiries related to EFL students' awareness about metacognitive strategies when involved in listening tasks and in order to get a suggestive picture about whether there is a link between participants' listening tests score performance and the use of the metacognitive strategies under study, a comparative research is established before and after instruction phases between the experimental group, followed for four semesters, and the control group.

#### ***5.3.2.1- Pre- Instructional Phase***

As previously stated, a comparison was made between the experimental subjects and the control elements as far as the link between metacognitive strategy use and listening performance is concerned. This was represented in table 13 forthcoming (see page 206).

It is judicious to remind that as it had been mentioned previously (see 4.2.3), two written tests were presented to the experimental and control subjects prior and after instruction. The subjects of the experimental group and the control one, belonging to first year LMD, were assigned a task adapted from London and Richards' *Expanding Tactics for Listening* (2004). The written tests, comprising two activities, were handed the students to assess their ability to comprehend listening texts and identify learners' awareness about listening metacognitive strategies namely problem solving, planning and evaluation, mental translation, personal knowledge and direct attention. Thus, the informants were asked to answer the two parts of the test in addition to a third one, added by the researcher, which focused on gap filling with key words. In this respect, it is worth mentioning that the additional activity was implemented

by the researcher on purpose in case the two former activities would not provide informative evidence about students' metacognitive strategy use under study.

Accordingly, a marking system was adopted to evaluate the students' listening comprehension performance which would reflect the use of metacognitive strategies the object of this research. In fact with reference to the literature review (see 3.4) addressing listening metacognitive strategy instruction, the investigations led by Vandergrift (1996, 2003b and 2006) besides Goh and Hu (2013) revealed the existence of a strong evidence of a positive relationship between strategy use and listening test scores. Bearing in mind that the written tests comprised two parts in addition to a third part added by the researcher, the whole test included 20 items. Each one was allotted one point so that the maximum score would be 20. Such grading enabled us to distinguish the subjects' level. In other terms, based on the assumption that there exists a link between learners' listening performance and strategy use, the informants scoring 10/20 and beyond would exhibit awareness in this matter. However, those scoring below 10/20 would need instruction in metacognitive strategies.

With the intention to identify the relationship existing between the experimental and control subjects' listening test scores and their metacognitive strategy use prior instruction, a statistical analysis of the data gathered in this respect via test scores and MALQ questionnaire is displayed in table 13 forthcoming.

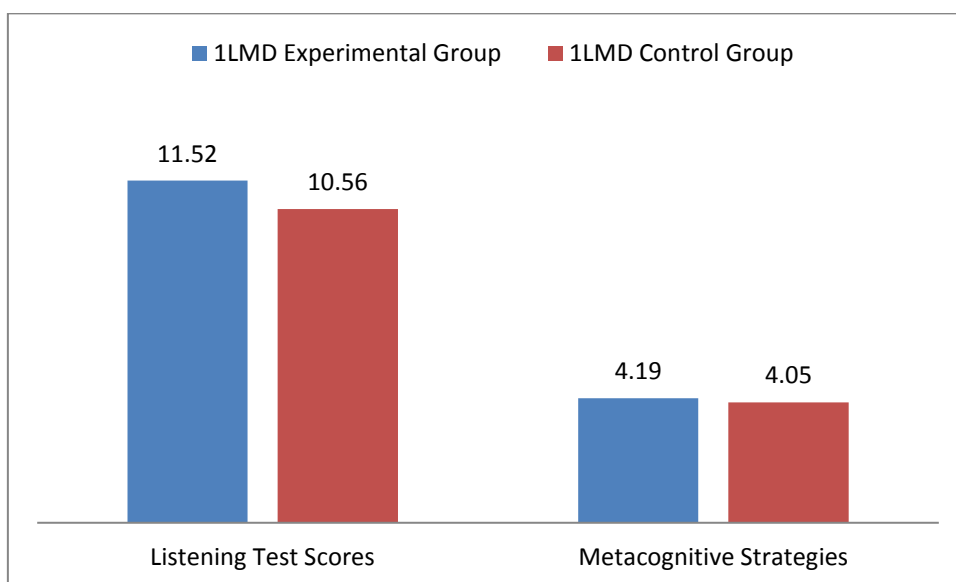
**Table 13:** Metacognitive Awareness and Listening Comprehension Performance Relationship Prior Instruction

<b>Overall Mean</b>	<b>Listening Test Scores</b>	<b>Metacognitive Strategies</b>
<b>1LMD Experimental Group</b>	11.52	4.19
<b>1LMD Control Group</b>	10.56	4.05

According to the information exhibited in the table above, it is indicated that the experimental group is ahead of the control one. Indeed, table 13 reveals that the participants performed significantly differently in the English listening test, i.e, those with high level of metacognitive awareness scored higher in the test. In contrast, learners showing low level of metacognitive awareness scored lower in the English test. For instance, the experimental subjects who expressed high use of metacognitive strategies (M= 4.19) realised higher scores (M= 11.52) than the control subjects who demonstrated very low overall mean in terms of metacognitive strategies use (M= 4.05) and listening test score (M= 10.56).

Accordingly, the statistical representation reflected in the figure 27 forthcoming elucidates the relationship existing between listening test scores and metacognitive strategy use.

**Figure 27:** Statistical Representation of Listening Test Scores and Metacognitive Strategies Relationship Prior Treatment



Based on the analysis of the 100 participants' overall mean test scores and the overall mean of metacognitive strategy use, we can clearly see from figure 27

that on the whole the groups with higher scores use metacognitive strategies more frequently than those with lower scores. This implies that there is a positive relationship between students' metacognitive strategy use and their performance in the listening comprehension test.

### ***5.3.2.2- Post- Instructional Phase***

As previously mentioned, a comparison was set out between the experimental group subjects and the control group as far as the link between metacognitive strategy use and listening performance is concerned. This was represented in table 14 forthcoming.

In this respect, it is necessary to remind that the 100 participants received different listening treatment. Unlike the experimental group, the control group received an ordinary treatment which did not aim at raising learners' awareness about metacognitive strategies, the object of this study. In other terms, the students were not offered the chance to plan, monitor, evaluate and identify problems hindering their task completion. Regarding the experimental subjects, they were involved in listening tasks aiming at raising their awareness about metacognitive listening processes via instructing them a repertoire of listening strategies such as problem solving, planning and evaluation, mental translation, personal knowledge and direct attention. This was achieved by following closely Vandergrift's (2010) five cycle pedagogical framework (see 3.6).

After the instructional period, both groups were administered a test in which they were asked to answer the two parts of the latter in addition to a third one, added by the researcher, which focused on gap filling with key words. Therefore, the test included 20 items to which one point was allotted to each one so that the maximum score would be 20. In addition to that, the subjects of study were required to respond to the MALQ questionnaire.

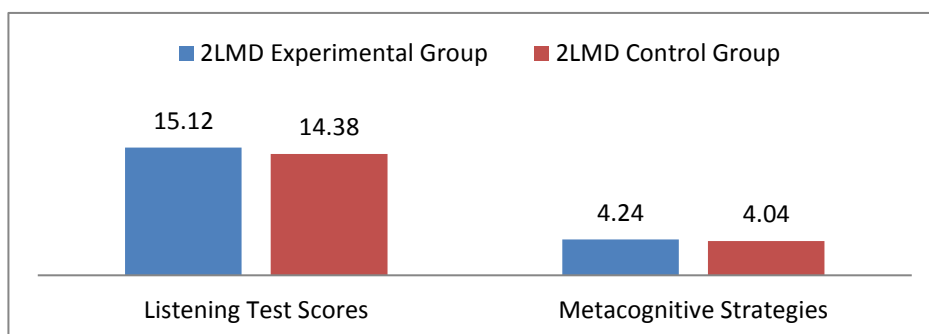
**Table 14:** Metacognitive Awareness and Listening Comprehension Performance Relationship After Instruction

Overall Mean	Listening Test Scores	Metacognitive Strategies
<b>2LMD Experimental Group</b>	15.12	4.24
<b>2LMD Control Group</b>	14.38	4.04

According to the information exhibited in the table above, a variety is noticed among the participants as far as listening performance and metacognitive strategy awareness are concerned. It is indicated in this table that 2LMD experimental subject realised higher scores (M= 15.12) in the listening post test than 2LMD control subjects (M= 14.38). It is also suggested that the experimental group scored an overall mean in the MALQ higher than that scored by the control informants. That is, the participants possessing high level of metacognitive awareness scored higher in the listening post-test. In contrast, those with low level of metacognitive awareness scored lower in the listening post-test.

According to what has been mentioned before, the statistical representation reflected in the figure 28 forthcoming elucidates the relationship existing between listening test scores and metacognitive strategy use after treatment.

**Figure 28:** Statistical Representation of Listening Test Scores and Metacognitive Strategies Relationship After Treatment



With reference to the statistical analysis of the 100 participants' overall mean post test scores and the overall mean of metacognitive strategy use, we can clearly see from figure 28 that the groups with higher scores use metacognitive strategies more frequently than those with lower scores. This implies that there is a positive relationship between students' metacognitive strategy use and their performance in the listening comprehension test.

Furthermore, the comparative analysis of the relationship linking metacognitive strategy use and listening test scores before and after treatment, exhibited in table 15 forthcoming, indicates the impact that metacognitive awareness raising instruction had on the participants' listening performance.

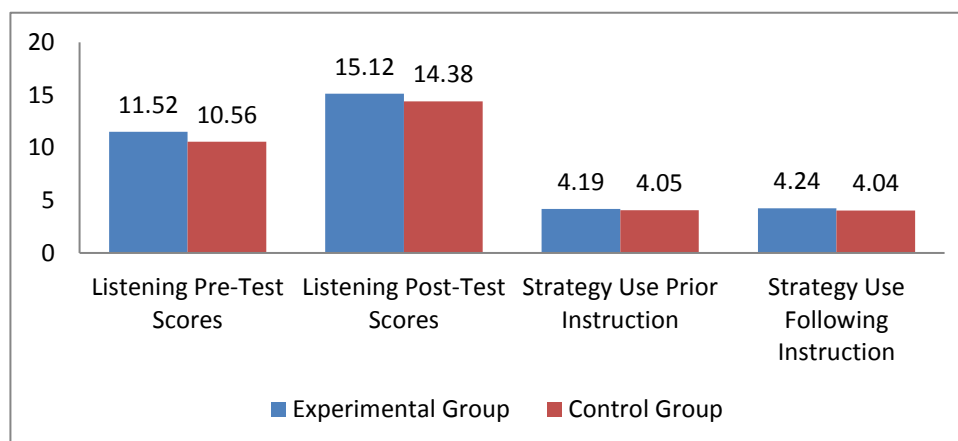
**Table 15:** Statistical Analysis of Listening test Scores and MALQ relationship Prior and After Treatment

	<b>Listening Pre-Test Scores</b>	<b>Listening Post-Test Scores</b>	<b>Strategy Use Prior Instruction</b>	<b>Strategy Use Following Instruction</b>
<b>Experimental Group</b>	11.52	15.12	4.19	4.24
<b>Control Group</b>	10.56	14.38	4.05	4.04

With reference to table 15 above, the experimental and the control informants' listening test scores witnessed a positive improvement after the instruction received. In parallel, the same positive improvement is indicated with the experimental group MALQ scores which registered a raise after treatment with metacognitive strategies. Yet, the control group MALQ scores did not show any change. Thus, it can be said that the improvement in the experimental group subjects' listening performance is a reflection of the metacognitive awareness-raising which resulted from the instruction received. This parallel development can also be considered as a reflection of the existence of a tight link between listening test scores and Metacognitive strategy awareness.

Furthermore, though the control group showed an improvement in the listening post test scores, the MALQ results did not indicate any correlation with test scores. This can be returned back to the type of instruction assigned to the control subjects which aimed at familiarizing learners with the target language without any treatment as far as metacognitive strategies are concerned. This implies that the control group requires instruction in this matter to know how to process the listening information strategically. Accordingly, statistical representation elucidating the relationship existing between listening test scores and metacognitive strategy use prior and after treatment is presented in the figure 29 forthcoming

**Figure 29:** Statistical Representation of Listening test Scores and MALQ relationship Prior and After Treatment



To sum up, relying on the results retrieved from the comparison between the 100 participants's test scores and those of the five(05) metacognitive strategy use namely problem solving, planning and evaluation, mental translation, personal knowledge and direct attention, it is obvious on the whole that a tight link exists between the latter and listening comprehension performance. Indeed, the groups with higher scores use metacognitive strategy more frequently than those with lower scores. Additionally, it is judicious to mention that the improvement marked by the experimental elements as far as listening performance is concerned is a reflection of the metacognitive awareness- raise

resulting from the instruction received. Furthermore, regarding the control group, better results can be accomplished via the implementation of treatment focusing on metacognitive strategies.

#### **5.4- EFL Learners' Diaries Analysis**

In order to promote awareness about metacognitive listening strategies and develop its use among Algerian EFL students, listening diaries were employed as both treatment and exploratory instrument (see appendices N° 5 and 6). In fact, the experimental subjects were asked to report their responses in a focused manner before and after treatment implementation (see 4.2.3). Furthermore, participants were informed that the purpose of keeping these listening diaries was not related to assessment but was to help them reflect on their listening process in order to encourage them to report honestly and without reservations on their learning progress.

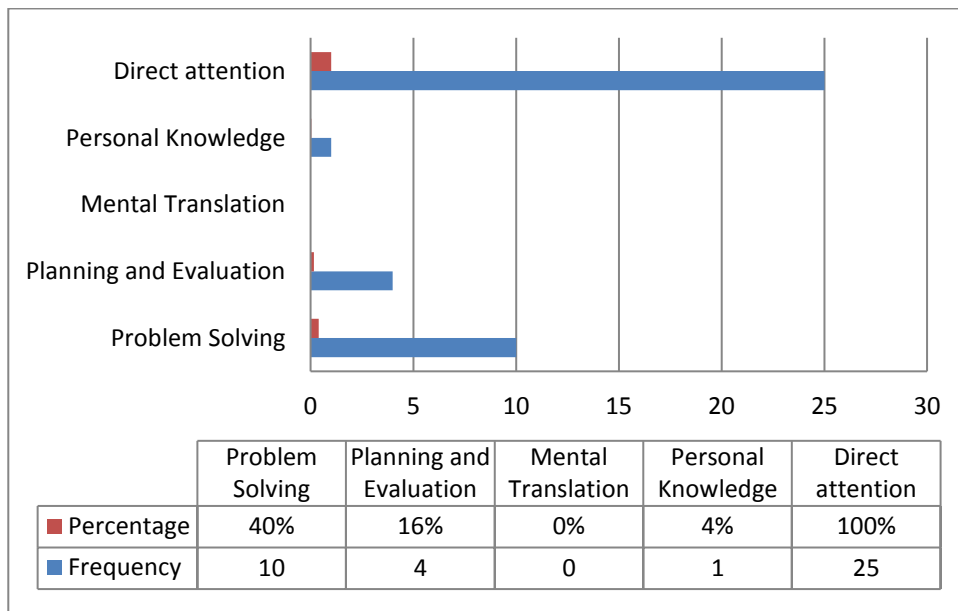
In this context, it is necessary to mention that the analysis was focused mainly on the study of self-evaluation of the skills learnt from listening lessons diaries (see appendix n°06) while the two others were just means to involve the participants in deep reflection on the processes undertaken to handle the listening task as well as make them evaluate their achievement. Accordingly, the results retrieved prior and after instruction were compared.

##### ***5.4.1- Pre-instructional Phase***

In order to measure the perceived use of the five (05) metacognitive strategies underlined by Vandergrift (1997) and Goh (2002a) involving problem solving, planning and evaluation, mental translation, personal knowledge and direct attention, the collected data from 25 participants before treatment were

analysed statistically. Indeed, as it has already been mentioned before (see section 4.3), the non-numerical data were analysed quantitatively by examining the number of times the metacognitive strategies, aforementioned, were used. The number of redundancy was then incorporated in the SPSS Statistics 22 software which took in charge the calculation process of their frequency, means and percentages. The results of data analysis were then presented statistically as it is set out in figure 30 forthcoming.

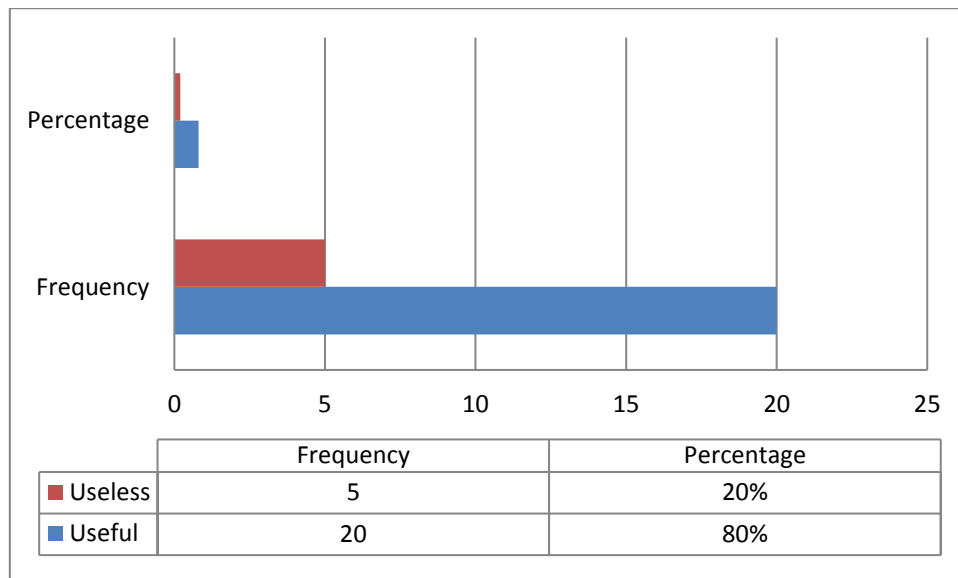
**Figure 30: Strategy Use Frequencies Prior Instruction**



According to the information exhibited in figure 30 aforementioned, it is indicated that the experimental group participants make use of metacognitive strategies when handling listening tasks. However, the frequency of use differs from one strategy to another. For instance a high level of use is noticed with direct attention (100%) and problem solving (40%); a limited use is marked with planning and evaluation strategies (16%) as well as personal knowledge (04%) while there was no implementation of mental translation (00%).

Regarding the students' opinion as far as the usefulness of metacognitive strategy instruction is concerned, figure 31 below indicates the results of the responses collected from the diary analysis.

**Figure 31:** Strategy Usefulness Evaluation Prior Instruction



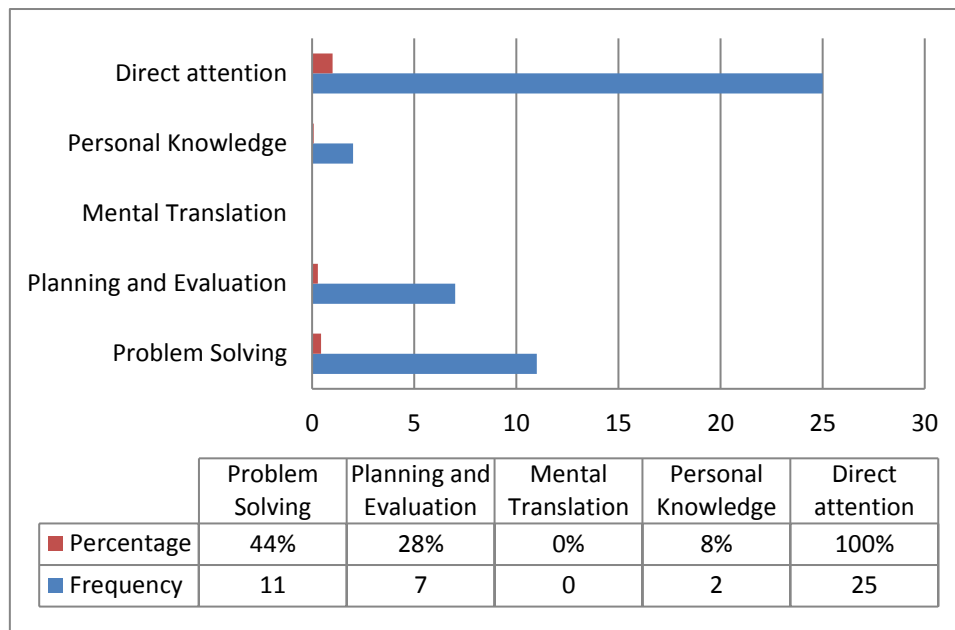
Indeed, as indicated in the figure above, among the 25 informants replied that they have benefitted from the instruction received whereas the five (05) remaining ones found it useless. In other terms, the majority of the experimental subjects (80%) were satisfied with the treatment received while the minority (20%) expressed their dissatisfaction. Therefore, this high percentage implies that listening metacognitive strategies helped the students to overcome their listening difficulties already expressed in the interview bearing in mind that they have not yet received any treatment on that matter.

#### **5.4.2- Post-instructional Phase**

As mentioned before, listening diaries were employed as both treatment and exploratory instrument (see appendices N° 5, 6 and 7). They were

administered to Algerian EFL students to promote awareness about metacognitive listening strategies and develop their use among Algerian EFL students. Thus, the collected data from the 25 participants after treatment were analysed; besides, the results were set out in figure 32 forthcoming.

**Figure 32:** Strategy Use Frequencies following Instruction

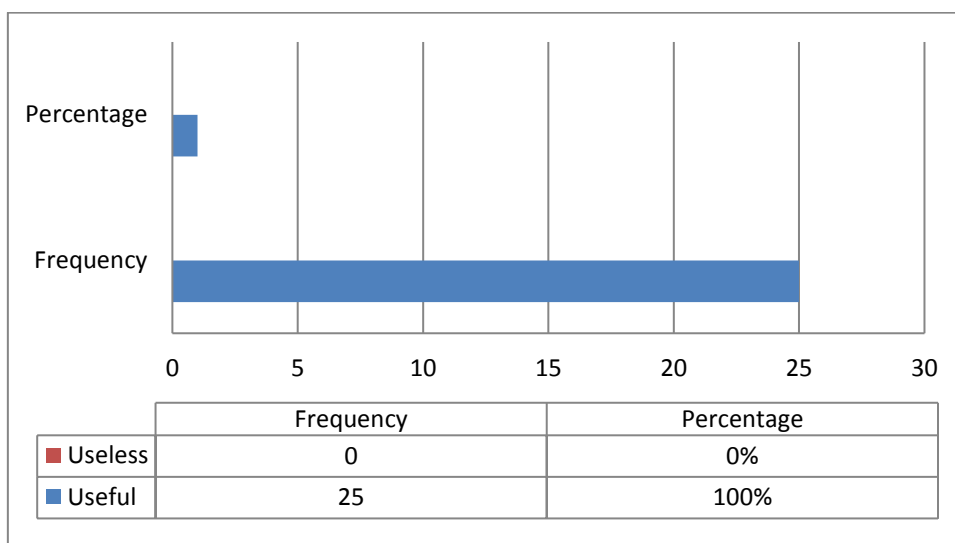


According to the information exhibited in the table above, it is indicated that the experimental group participants make use of metacognitive strategies when handling listening tasks. However, the frequency of use varies from one strategy to another. For instance a high level of use is noticed with direct attention (100%) and problem solving (44%); a limited use is marked with planning and evaluation strategies (28%) as well as personal knowledge (08%) while there was no implementation of mental translation (00%).

Concerning the students’ opinion as far as the usefulness of metacognitive strategy instruction is concerned, figure 33 indicates the results of the responses collected from diaries analysis. In fact, as shown in the figure below, the results

of the diary analysis indicate a high satisfaction among the 25 informants. The whole of them (100%) were positive about the treatment received. Therefore, this high percentage implies that listening metacognitive strategies helped the students to overcome their listening difficulties expressed in the interview. In other terms, the purpose already settled to promote awareness and use of listening metacognitive strategies is achieved.

**Figure 33: Strategy Usefulness Evaluation after Instruction**



All in all, it is obvious from the diaries analysis realised before and after instruction that certain awareness about metacognitive strategy use is established among the experimental group subjects. An increase in strategy use is noticed among the participants which reflects the raise of awareness as far as listening processing is concerned. Furthermore, students' satisfaction from the treatment received witnessed an increase too since the percentage of positive answers jumped from 80% to 100% after instruction, which translates their ability to handle the listening task easily and confidently. This improvement can be returned back to the special instruction assigned to the experimental subject aiming at raising their awareness about listening metacognitive strategies.

## **5.5- Summary of the Results**

With the perspective to find answers to the enquiries previously raised in the survey, multiple techniques were employed to gather the data serving this research. Accordingly, two written tests (a pre-test and a post test), retrospective interviews, think-aloud protocols, the MALQ questionnaire besides learners' diaries were thoroughly analysed.

Indeed, the analysis of the two written tests unveiled the progress achieved by the experimental informants after receiving treatment in listening metacognitive strategies. Indeed, the scores realised before the instructional phase as far as listening metacognitive strategies are concerned demonstrated a great difference in the means scored by the experimental group and the control one. 1LMD experimental group was ahead of the control one, whose level was below. Thus, it was concluded that 1LMD control participants needed more instruction as far as listening metacognitive strategies are concerned since their level was far from being satisfactory. After instructional phase, the gap was still apparent between both groups; besides, the experimental subjects' listening performance witnessed positive evolution. The control subjects' scores also evolved positively but did not reach the experimental informants' level. This reflects that the special treatment in metacognitive strategies was of great help in enhancing experimental informants' listening performance. Therefore, the control subjects require treatment in this matter to reach their peers' level

Regarding the interviews analysis, the results collected from the subjects of study highlighted the difficulties encountered and the diverse strategies adopted by the learners in order to process the listening task at hand. In fact, though a high number of students expressed their satisfaction about their performance after treatment, the prior difficulties namely fast talk, difficult words, noise and loss of concentration were still persisting. Therefore, insisting on the importance of listening metacognitive strategy instruction in developing

aural skills is highly recommended to equip learners with tools enabling them to overcome listening obstacles.

As regards Think-aloud protocol analysis, the results of the latter allowed us to access the processes through which learners went in order to complete the listening task at hand. It also allowed us to have a clear picture about the rate of use of the diverse metacognitive strategies to accomplish the listening task. For instance, metacognitive strategies such as direct attention, problem solving besides planning and evaluation strategies were revealed to be implemented at a higher frequency than personal knowledge and mental translation strategies

Concerning the questionnaire analysis, the results of the investigation enabled us to observe the evolution of metacognitive strategy use among EFL students before and after instruction in that matter. Likewise, it helped us to draw a link between the students' metacognitive strategy use and their performance in the listening comprehension test. The results of the MALQ questionnaire analysis during pre and post instruction indicated that certain awareness about metacognitive strategies was established among the subjects of the experimental group. Moreover, the existence of a tight link between the MALQ scores and listening comprehension performance was revealed. Indeed, the groups with higher scores used metacognitive strategy more frequently than those with lower scores. Additionally, it is judicious to mention that the improvement marked by the experimental elements as far as listening performance is concerned is a reflection of the metacognitive awareness-raise resulting from the instruction received. Furthermore, regarding the control group, better results can be accomplished via the implementation of treatment focusing on metacognitive strategies.

As regards EFL learners' diaries analysis used in this study as both treatment and exploratory instrument, they indicated that the instruction implemented before and after treatment phases had its fruits. An increase in

strategy use was noticed among the participants which reflected the raise of the informants' awareness as far as listening processing is concerned. Furthermore, students satisfaction from the treatment received witnessed an increase too since the percentage of positive answers jumped from 80% to 100% after instruction, which translated their ability to handle the listening task easily and confidently.

## **Conclusion**

In this chapter, we have analysed the results of the data collected via various streams tests, interviews, MALQ questionnaire, diaries and think- aloud protocols. In this context, the data collected by the research tools aforementioned are analysed and presented as follows. First, an analysis of pre and post tests scores is set out (see 5.1). Second, an analysis of interviews and think-aloud protocols established before and after treatment is exhibited (see 5.2). Third, the MALQ questionnaire results before and after intervention are put forward (see 5.3). Finally, EFL students' diaries were analysed followed by explanation and interpretation (see 5.4).

In fact, the results retrieved from the data analysis collected via various research tools (see 4.2.3) have provided us with insights into Algerian EFL learners' listening skill evolution. For instance, the scores realised by the experimental group witnessed a positive evolution. Moreover, the interviews and think-aloud protocols analysis allowed us to uncover the factors standing against learners' success in listening comprehension and gave us the opportunity to access the processes which learners went through to complete the listening task at hand. The MALQ questionnaire analysis also provided us with knowledge about the metacognitive strategies employed and informed us about the tight link existing between learners' achievements and strategy use. Finally, learners' diaries analysis used in this study as both treatment and exploratory instruments

revealed that the instruction implemented before and after treatment phases helped in increasing learners' awareness about listening strategies. All in all, it can be said that treatment assigned to the students had a positive effect on the learners' listening skill and was of great help in enhancing experimental informants' listening performance. As concerns the discussion of the results retrieved from the investigation, it will be elaborated in the following chapter.

## CHAPTER SIX

### DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

#### Introduction

With the perspective to answer the major research question of the present study related to the effect of metacognitive strategy instruction on EFL learners' listening skill, three issues (see 4.1.2) require to be answered. Therefore, this chapter seeks to answer them by considering the research findings, retrieved from the previous chapter, in the light of existing research studies "to show the relationship between the results of the study and the results of similar studies and related arguments in the published literature" (Paltridge and Starfield, 2007: 145). Putting it differently, this chapter seeks to answer three research questions. The first one regards students' awareness about metacognitive strategies (see 6.1.1), the second one is related to the relationship linking strategy awareness to listening performance (see 6.1.2) and the third and last question concerns the effect of metacognitive strategy instruction on the listening skill (see 6.1.3). Moreover, this chapter states the implications and possible recommendations for further research.

#### 6.1- Discussion

In order to discuss the research findings, we have organised and presented data analysis following the research questions. That is, we have tackled each research question raised at the beginning of the investigation and tried to answer it on the basis of the data obtained via various research tools such as tests, interviews, MALQ questionnaire, diaries and think-aloud protocols. This method

of organising and analysing the collected data is according to Cohen et al (2007:468)

“a very useful way of organising data, as it draws together all the relevant data for the exact issue of concern to the researcher, and preserves the coherence of the material. It returns the reader to the driving concerns of the research, thereby ‘closing the loop’ on the research questions that typically were raised in the early part of an inquiry”.

Thus, the discussion of the findings should be structured in a way that helps the researcher answer the research enquiries that were raised at the beginning of the investigation. Thus, in the present study, the researcher relied on the results obtained from the collected data analysis.

### ***6.1.1- On Students’ Awareness about Listening Metacognitive Strategies***

With regard to the first issue in relation with the extent to which Algerian EFL learners are aware of the processes underlying their listening and the type of strategies they make use of, a pre-test was administered to the experimental group and the control subjects belonging to diverse levels; i.e. first and second years LMD. The quantitative analysis of the scores realised by 100 participants revealed that the scores realised before the instructional phase as far as listening metacognitive strategies are concerned demonstrated a great difference in the means scored by the experimental group and the control one. 1LMD experimental group was ahead of the control one, whose level was below. Thus, it was concluded that 1LMD control participants needed more instruction as far as listening metacognitive strategies are concerned since their level was far from being satisfactory. After instructional phase, the gap was still apparent between both groups; besides, the experimental subjects’ listening performance witnessed positive evolution. The control subjects’ scores also evolved positively but did not reach the experimental informants’ level. This reflects that the special

treatment in metacognitive strategies was of great help in enhancing experimental informants' listening performance. Therefore, the control subjects require treatment in this matter to reach their peers' level.

Therefore, the only explanation that can be attributed to the results achieved by the control subjects is that their knowledge as English students is not well developed as far as strategy use is concerned. Moreover, though their scores seem to be positive, they did not reflect a comprehensive awareness of the strategies implemented to reach those results. In fact, they might have adopted some strategies to handle the task, yet they made use of them in an haphazard way. This can be returned back to the complexity of the listening skill which makes it "a hard job" (Brown, 2006, 01) for EFL learners to have a comprehensive explanation to it. Accordingly, O'Malley and Chamot (1985: 561), describe those students as "learners without directions or opportunity to review their progress, accomplishments and future directions".

Consequently, EFL learners should be equipped with effective listening strategies by making them "aware of the mental processes that are involved in listening" (Abdulmalik and al, 2013: 57). Learners need also to pay more attention to the message transmitted to them in the target language. This measure can enhance students' listening comprehension abilities, not only to succeed in the test but also to perform well in real life communication with English native speakers.

Remaining with the same perspective of detecting awareness about listening metacognitive strategy use among Algerian EFL learners, MALQ questionnaire was administered to the participants. The latter were required to complete a retrospective self-report questionnaire constructed in a way to answer the issues considered to be significantly informative about the use of metacognitive listening strategies by EFL students and designed to measure metacognitive awareness prior treatment. The results obtained from the MALQ

responses revealed that Algerian EFL students made use of the five metacognitive strategies (namely problem solving, planning and evaluation, mental translation, personal knowledge and direct attention) in a correlated way. They seem also to “orchestrate” between the diverse strategies underlying those processes. In fact, they correlate between inferencing and monitoring strategies with those used to “prepare and... evaluate the results of the listening efforts” besides the ones implemented to assess task difficulty as well as “concentrate and stay on it” (Vandergrift and al, 2006, 451) in addition to translating.

Furthermore, the results of the descriptive statistics analysis of the MALQ unveiled a great gap between the control subjects and the experimental ones as far as listening strategy awareness is concerned. In fact, the results of the MALQ questionnaire analysis during post instructional phase indicated that certain awareness about metacognitive strategies was established among the subjects of the experimental group while the necessity to underline those devices to the control subjects was required. In other terms, awareness about metacognitive strategies was reflected in the raise of the experimental informants’ use of the strategies to accomplish the listening task at hands contrary to the control subjects who did not demonstrate any change. Therefore, a need to raise students’ awareness about those strategies is necessary to help them control their listening process, improve their performance and make them become autonomous learners. This is due to the fact that “metacognitive strategies help learners to focus, plan, and evaluate their progress as they move toward communicative competence, by assessing how they are learning and by planning for future learning task” (Oxford, 1990: 16)

Moreover, from the comparison realised between the experimental and control groups, it was indicated that both experimental and control subjects made use of listening metacognitive strategies; however, a variety in the use of the latter was noticed among the participants. In fact, experimental group showed more awareness about metacognitive strategies than the control group. This may

be returned back to the special instruction received aiming at raising students' awareness about metacognitive strategies. This treatment enabled learners to "concentrate on the incoming information while regulating the other metacognitive processes and persisting in spite of difficulties" (Rost, 2002: 15).

Besides, the results of MALQ indicated that the 100 participants shared the use of some strategies and disregarded others. For instance, problem solving and planning and evaluation strategies were the preferred ones whereas mental translation was hardly used by both groups. The latter represents "strategies that listeners must learn to avoid if they are to become skilled listeners" (Vandergrift and al, 2006, 450).

Keeping on the same track of collecting information about Algerian EFL learners' consciousness in relation to aural strategy use while engaging in listening tasks, retrospective interviews were carried out prior intervention which required the 10 experimental subjects of the survey to reflect verbally on the listening task they had already listened to by answering few questions in relation to it. The results retrieved from the interviews gave us an insight about the task difficulty, the diverse problems encountered, the strategies adopted to overcome the difficulties in addition to the students' impression about their performance.

In fact, the majority of the participants interviewed found the listening pre-test difficult and could not manage to solve it easily. Many of them attributed their problems to their low listening ability and to other factors hindering their listening such as fast talk, difficult words, noise and loss of concentration. Such attributions indicate a sense of language weakness and ignorance of the right way to remedy this deficiency "which could easily result in their becoming demotivated, resigned to being less effective listeners" (Graham, 2006:178). Thus, developing strategies to overcome those difficulties is highly required to avoid motivation loss from the students' part. In this framework, some instances collected from the students express those hurdles:

(S1) Listening is difficult for me when the speaker speaks quickly or when he uses difficult words. When I can't understand I become nervous.

(S2) Listening is difficult to me when there is noise or I feel tired I can't focus. Contrary when the speakers speak good and spell the words correctly and the sound is well.

(S3) For me listening is difficult when I lose concentration, and this problem takes me to lose an idea about the text.

(Students' corpus before instruction)

From the above instances, it appears that the diverse barriers expressed by the informants in the interviews had already been tackled by Underwood (1989). For example, regarding the speed by which the message is conveyed, the latter states "many English language learners believe that the greatest difficulty with listening comprehension is that the listener cannot control how quickly a speaker speaks" (p16). Besides, students' limited vocabulary knowledge is an area claimed to affect EFL listening comprehension. In this context, Underwood (1989: 17) mentions that "an unknown word can be like a suddenly dropped barrier carrying (listeners) them to stop and think about the meaning of the word, and thus making them miss the next part of the speech".

Furthermore, loss of concentration and anxiety constitute a stressful area impeding EFL learners from comprehending the listening texts. Accordingly, Scovel (1978:134) associates anxiety with "feelings of uneasiness, frustration, self-doubt, apprehension, or worry". Moreover, Spielberger (1983: 01) defined anxiety as "the subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worry associated with an automatic nervous system". Indeed, several studies (Brown 2007, Oxford 1999, Scovel 1978) have suggested that anxiety can be both "detrimental and beneficial". For instance, Scovel (1978) distinguished between "debilitative and facilitative anxiety". Besides, Oxford (1999) made a distinction between "harmful and helpful anxiety". In addition, Brown (2007: 164) pointed out that several sources of anxiety may be present in

a language learning situation: “a quest for perfection, fear of negative evaluation and identity conflict, among others”.

As far as the strategies implemented to the accomplishment of the pre-test, the interviews revealed that though diverse metacognitive strategies were implemented, 100% of the experimental group subjects replied that they focused mainly on the general idea and on the key words to comprehend the whole audio text. In other terms, all of the informants rely on direct attention while the remaining strategies were used at a very low frequency. This can be witnessed from the informants’ responses delivered in the interview preceding treatment. For example:

(S1) Before I listen to the task, I make sure that I am totally concentrated and there is nothing to make me feel nervous”

(S2) When I listen, I focus on the words; I check the difficult word in my mind, but if I have not the word, it’s not a problem, I continue listening.

(S3) Before listening, I personally prepare my mind to receive new information which I am not going to see but just listen to, so it is little harder than reading. So I need to concentrate and focus and jot down the maximum of ideas even by words which might lead me to the perfect understanding.

(Students’ corpus before instruction)

Consequently, it is evident from the above corpus that the interviewees’ responses support the MALQ answers; likewise, it is clear that the students mixed between the strategies to reach comprehension. They kept trying with uncertainty all possible means to help them understand the oral input; they continued testing diverse strategies randomly in a very short period of time simultaneously while listening. For instance, (S1) mixed between planning and direct attention; (S2) intercorrelated between “strategies used to prepare for

listening and evaluate the results” and “strategies that listeners use to inference..., concentrate and stay on task” (Vandergrift et al, 2006: 450-451). The third respondent (S3) orchestrated between planning strategy and “listeners’ perceptions concerning the difficulty presented by L2 listening” (Vandergrift et al, 2006: 451) as well as directed attention.

As regards the level of satisfaction from strategy use and listening performance, nine students expressed their satisfaction whereas one student was unsatisfied from the test performance and mentioned his intention to look forward for a new plan to handle future listening tasks. Indeed, as it has been stated previously, nervousness and anxiety hinder listening comprehension. In this framework, Goh (2006: 222) underlined that “listening can be a stressful activity for beginning and intermediate language learners, who are often unable to process information quickly enough to make sense of what is said”. Therefore, being able to overcome it depends on the learner’s character and will to find a way out. In our case, (S1) determination to go beyond this hurdle reveals a positive anxiety leading him to improve his performance. Other instances retrieved from students’ corpora illustrate what has been mentioned.

(S1) I am not pleased with the results because when I can’t understand something I will be nervous and can’t concentrate on the rest of the conversation. But I will try to concentrate more and be more patient and I will try to focus on the main important ideas.

(S2) Today, I feel so satisfied and happy and I think my listening will be more easy.

(Students’ corpus before instruction)

Remaining with the collection of data in relation to Algerian EFL learners’ consciousness about aural strategy use while engaging in listening tasks, listening diaries were employed as both treatment and exploratory instruments (see appendix N°06) in order to promote awareness about metacognitive listening

strategies and develop its use among Algerian EFL students. Therefore, participants were informed that the purpose from keeping these listening diaries was not related to assessment but was to help them reflect on their listening process in order to encourage them to report honestly and without reservations on their learning progress. Accordingly, the results retrieved prior instruction were analysed.

Indeed, the results related to the strategies implemented to the accomplishment of the pre-test indicated that though the experimental group participants make use of metacognitive strategies when handling listening tasks, the frequency of use differed from one strategy to another. In the present research, for instance, a high level of use was noticed with direct attention and problem solving; a limited use was marked with planning and evaluation strategies as well as personal knowledge while there was no implementation of mental translation. This can be witnessed from the informants' diaries preceding treatment. For Instance:

(S1) I try to listen to the speaker very well to get the right idea and to get the words that can help me to understand well.

(S2) I tried to focus on the idea in general but the conversation was fastly and because of that I lose concentration.

(S3) I am focusing more on the general idea and then I try to guess the difficult words to understand each clause, and each paragraph's meaning.

(Students' corpus before instruction)

As a consequence, it is plain from the above corpus that the informants' diaries support the MALQ answers as well as the interviews results; likewise, it is clear that the students orchestrated between the strategies to reach comprehension. For example, the first listener (S1) relied on direct attention; i.e. he adopted "strategies that listeners use to concentrate and stay on the task" (Vandergrift et al, 2006: 451). The second listener (S2) intercorrelated between

direct attention and evaluation of the listening efforts results. The third respondent (S3) mixed direct attention strategy with problem solving; i.e. “a group of strategies used by listeners to inference and monitor these inferences” (ibid, p 450). On the whole, it is evident that direct attention is the major strategy implemented by the informants.

As regards strategy usefulness evaluation prior instruction, the majority of the experimental subjects were satisfied with their efforts results while the minority expressed their dissatisfaction. Therefore, this high percentage implies that listening metacognitive strategy implementation helped the students to overcome their listening difficulties already expressed in the interview though they had not yet received any treatment in that matter.

Accordingly, some instances retrieved from students’ corpora were quoted to illustrate what has been mentioned.

- (1) I could not understand the conversation because it was very quick.
- (2) Next time, I will try to focus on both of ideas and speaking because when I focus in speaking a lot of information about ideas is lost.
- (3) I learnt how to understand a conversation by the first listening instead of two or three, but I am still losing some words. I think it’s not the absence of concentration and focus but just cause of the difficult word or cause of “the way of talk” the pronunciation.

(Students’ corpus before instruction)

From the above corpora, it is evident that though there is a certain satisfaction with the listening performance, the informants still denounced some difficulties which they attributed to diverse barriers already underlined in the interview and explained thoroughly in the first chapter (section 1.6). The latter have to do with the message speed delivery, lack of vocabulary, lack of

concentration and anxiety. Consequently, treatment as far as listening metacognitive strategy instruction is concerned is highly recommended. In other terms, teachers are required to be aware of the factors impeding listening success and investigate them with the students in order to find a way out to overcome these obstacles.

To wrap up all what has been mentioned previously and with the perspective to answer the first issue regarding the extent to which Algerian EFL learners are aware of the processes underlying their listening and the type of strategies they make use of, the students were proved to be unaware of metacognitive strategies. Particularly, the pre-test data analysis results as well as the results of the descriptive statistics analysis of the MALQ revealed that both the experimental and control participants made use of metacognitive strategies, yet their use was haphazard. It was only after treatment that the experimental group subject's use of metacognitive strategies increased which led to the improvement of the informants' listening test scores. Regarding the control group, the informants' use of meatcognitive strategies did not witness any change because the instruction received was not focused on strategy use. This explains the low results achieved by the control subjects in the listening post test. Therefore, it was concluded that students should be equipped with effective listening strategies to achieve satisfactory results. Besides, it is necessary for Algerian EFL students to pay more attention to aural messages and think of an appropriate way to process them. This method of thinking about one's own way of thinking will enhance learners' listening comprehension abilities, not only to succeed in the test but also to perform well in real life communication with English native speakers.

Moreover, the MALQ data results as well as the interviews and the diaries unveiled that the experimental subjects showed more awareness about metacognitive strategies than the control ones after instruction. This may be returned back to the instruction each group received. Likewise, the results

revealed that the experimental subjects made random use of the five metacognitive strategies in a correlated way and seem to “orchestrate” between the diverse strategies underlying those processes. In fact, they intercorrelated between problem solving, planning and evaluation, mental translation, personal knowledge and direct attention.

In addition to that, the results retrieved from the interviews and diaries prior treatment gave us an insight into the task difficulty and the diverse problems encountered. In fact, the majority of the participants found the listening pre-test difficult and could not manage to solve it easily because of their low listening ability and other factors hindering their listening such as fast talk, difficult words, noise and loss of concentration. Thus, developing strategies to overcome those difficulties is highly required to avoid motivation loss from the students’ part.

#### ***6.1.2- On the Relationship between Metacognitive Strategy Awareness and Students’ Listening Performance***

With the perspective to answer the enquiries related to EFL students’ awareness about metacognitive strategies when involved in listening tasks and in order to get a suggestive picture about whether there is a link between participants’ listening tests score performance and the use of metacognitive strategies, a comparative study was established before and after instruction phases between the experimental informants and the control subjects.

In this respect, it is judicious to remind that the 100 participants were administered a test prior instruction and another one after treatment. In addition to that, the subjects of study were required to complete a retrospective self-report questionnaire (MALQ) designed to measure metacognitive-awareness before and after treatment.

According to the information retrieved from the data analysis, a variety was noticed among the participants as far as listening performance and metacognitive strategy awareness are concerned. Indeed, the analysis of the listening test scores and the MALQ questionnaire collected prior and after treatment unveiled that the students with different metacognitive levels performed significantly differently in the English listening test. More precisely, those with high level of metacognitive awareness scored higher in the test. In contrast, those with low level of metacognitive awareness realised lower scores in the listening test. Consequently, considering these results, it is evident that there exists a positive relationship between MALQ scores and test scores. Likewise, these results strengthen the observation elaborated by Goh and Hu (2013: 15) stating "variance in listening proficiency can be explained in good measure by metacognitive awareness". Therefore, this statement is valid to explain the high results reached by the experimental group as compared to the control one. In fact, the experimental subjects showed some degree of awareness about metacognitive strategies as the use of problem solving and direct attention besides planning and evaluation which are important to improve listening performance via managing the steps to undertake and remedying the deficiencies. This strategy awareness correlated with their test scores.

Furthermore, the results reached are consistent with the findings of earlier studies (Vandergrift et al, 2006 and Goh and Hu, 2013). Indeed, the development and validation of a listening questionnaire by Vandergrift et al (2006: 431), designed to assess second language (L2) listeners' metacognitive awareness and perceived use of strategies while listening to oral texts, "gave evidence for a statistically significant relationship between student response on the instrument and L2 listening comprehension success". Besides, Goh and Hu's investigation (2013: 15) on the relationship between metacognitive awareness and listening performance with questionnaire data proved that "there was strong evidence of a

positive relationship between scores in the MALQ and scores in the test of listening performance".

Regarding the use of metacognitive strategies under study prior instruction, out of the five MALQ subscales, the experimental group demonstrated a high level of use of problem solving and directed attention while a limited use is identified in the use of planning, evaluation strategies and personal knowledge. As far as strategy use is concerned after treatment, the experimental group showed a raise of metacognitive strategy awareness by implementing three out of five MALQ subscales; i.e. problem solving, planning and evaluation besides direct attention. Concerning mental translation and personal knowledge, they are both hardly employed by the subjects of the study. It is also necessary to mention that a variety in the use metacognitive strategies was noticed among the informants participating in the study and even among the individual informants singling out each group. This can be returned back to the learner's personality, the activity to be achieved as well as learner's style (see 2.3). In this context, Bacon (1992: 161) as cited in Griffiths (2008: 211) emphasised the individual nature of strategy use in target language listening: "individuals will apply different strategies depending on their personality, cognitive style and the task in hand". In the present study, the focus was on strategy use by each group as a whole.

Concerning problem-solving as the most positive factor used to enhance listening, it is necessary to note that the experimental subjects limited their use of strategies to only two items of the MALQ (i.e.; items 17 and 19/ see appendix N° 09) related to inferencing the meaning of a word. Their lower scores for the subscale of problem solving suggested that they neglected the other ways for inferencing presented in the MALQ namely items 5, 7, 9, and 13. In other terms, problem-solving factor includes six items representing a group of strategies cited by Vandergrift et al (2006:450) with reference to Kintsch (1998:189). The latter includes:

“using known words to deduce the meaning of unknown words, using the general idea of a text to deduce unknown words, using one’s experience and general knowledge in interpreting the text, adjusting one’s interpretation upon realizing that it is not correct, monitoring the accuracy of one’s inferences, and comparing the developing interpretation with one’s knowledge of the topic”

Therefore, the results realised by the experimental group prior instruction corroborate with Goh’s (2008) and Goh and Hu’s (2013: 12) findings in which it is stated that “low proficiency learners limit their use to a smaller range of strategies”.

However, after treatment received, problem-solving factor as the highly used subscale was confirmed. The high mean achieved in this study reflects that the experimental group extended their metacognitive strategy use. Indeed, the experimental informants expanded their strategy use to the whole MALQ items except items 7 and 13 (see appendix N° 09). This extension was put into concrete form by the students’ raise of their post scores test.

As regards directed attention considered as the second item used by the experimental informants to accomplish the listening task, the experimental subject showed certain awareness about the importance to keep concentration and attention on the aural input in the process of comprehension. For instance, the informants made use of three items out of four MALQ items. They neglected item 16 corresponding to “giving up when one experiences difficulties understanding” (Vandergrift et al, 2006: 451) and focused on items 2, 6 and 12 related to “getting back on track when losing concentration, focusing harder when having difficulty understanding, and recovering concentration when one’s mind wanders” (ibid). Thus, the high mean achieved in the present study (4.37) corroborates with Goh and Hu’s (2013: 13) MALQ result (4.54) which also “happens to be the highest mean among all the five MALQ subscales”. Additionally, it is necessary to underline that though the direct attention mean

decreased a little after treatment as compared to its previous state, the experimental group informants made use of it maintaining the employment of three items 2, 6 and 12 and kept neglecting item 16 already mentioned. The informants insisted on “focusing harder on the text when facing troubles; recovering concentration when one’s mind wanders; and trying to get back when loosing concentration” (Vandergrift et al 2006:462).

As far as planning and evaluation strategies are concerned, the experimental subjects did not assign them, prior treatment, much attention as the two previous strategies though they are very important ones. In fact these strategies “represent the purposeful nature of the comprehension process (Richards, 1990) and the online appraisal of whether comprehension goals were/are being realized” (Vandergrift et al, 2006: 450). The mean score of 4.14 indicates that the learners reported a moderate use of planning and evaluation which is low as compared to the other control groups or to the previous strategies already tackled. Planning strategies are supposed to “prepare learners for listening and to evaluate the results of their listening efforts” (Vandergrift et al, 2006: 450). Yet, the informants of this study seem to be unfamiliar with these strategies as they did not make use of them a lot. Besides, they did not think about similar texts as a guide for listening but carried out evaluation (see item 20 of MALQ). The benefit of evaluating comprehension is that “the result could lead to learners’ more active and appropriate planning for the next time they listen through a cycle of planning-evaluation-planning in their process of learning to listen” (Vandergrift, 2004 as cited in Goh and Hu, 2013:16). Consequently, the results reached are as low as Goh and Hu’s (2013: 15) investigation (i.e.; 3, 68) suggesting that “the participants regardless of listening ability had not exploited the full potential of these useful strategies to enhance their listening”. However, after treatment phase, the instruction brought its fruits which was reflected in the raise of awareness about planning and evaluation strategies as well as the raise of the post test scores. As a matter of fact, the mean

of this subscale raised to reach 4.37 as well as the number of items involved in listening. In other terms, in addition to item 20 of MALQ, items 1, 14 and 21 (see appendix N°09) were used, while item 10 referring to “thinking about similar texts as a guide for listening” (Vandergrift et al, 2006: 450) was put aside.

As concerns personal knowledge, in both pre-treatment and post-treatment phases, the experimental group elements demonstrated a limited use of this strategy as compared to the previous strategies. The mean score realised before instruction (4.07) and the one achieved after instruction (3.98) is low as compared to the other control groups’s higher mean score 4.33 and 4.42 realised respectively prior and after treatment. This reflects that listeners in our study expressed lower confidence (4.28 and 3.84) and higher anxiety (4.52 and 5.04) when doing the task. In fact, the diverse MALQ items (3, 8 and 15), “assessing the perceived difficulty of listening, learners’ linguistic confidence in L2 listening and the level of anxiety experienced in L2 listening” (Vandergrift et al 2006: 451), suggest that the experimental informants associated the listening task with a high degree of anxiety which lead to low test score achievements. Therefore, these results correspond with Vandergrift’s (2011: 461) statement that “high level of anxiety may reduce learners’ level of confidence as well as their self-efficacy because L2 listeners attribute L2 listening success to factors outside their control”. Besides, These results support Goh and Hu’s (2013: 11) observations that “less successful learners tend to show a lack of confidence and greater concern for their performance which they find are beyond their control”. Accordingly, with the intention to enhance motivation to attempt future tasks, L2 learners can be taught to “regulate their comprehension processes, self-efficacy beliefs regarding listening” (Vandergrift, 2011: 461) via listening strategy instruction.

With regard to mental translation, representing “an inefficient approach to listening comprehension that beginning-level listeners often feel compelled to use” (Vandergrift et al, 2006: 450), the latter is used by the 100 informants with a

low degree when compared with the aforementioned strategies. In fact, the descriptive statistics analysis of the MALQ realised prior and after treatment unveiled that this strategy is the least used by the experimental informants. This type of strategy should be avoided if learners “are to become skilled learners” (Vandergrift et al, 2006: 450). In fact, Goh and Hu (2013: 13) explained the fact that many lower proficiency L2 listeners resort to translating what they hear either word for word or as chunks and phrases (see items 4, 11 and 18) because of “their lack of vocabulary knowledge as well as their inability to recognise the sounds of words that they may know in print”. Nevertheless, in our study, the mean score achieved by the experimental group shows that this strategy was hardly employed by the subjects of the study who did not find themselves resort frequently to mental translation. Consequently, raising students’ awareness about the necessity to avoid mental translation strategy is highly recommended as it helps learners to avoid the trap of losing all listening sequence strings.

All in all, with reference to data analysis and discussion in connection with the relationship between metacognitive strategy awareness and students’ performance in listening, the results reveal the existence of a tight link between those two elements. In other terms, students who scored high in MALQ performed better in the listening test, whereas those who scored lower in the questionnaire achieved lower scores. This implies that metacognitive strategy training improved Algerian EFL students’ listening performance. Accordingly, these findings appear to corroborate with previous studies undertaken in this field emphasising the positive impact of instruction on facilitating L2 listening; i.e., studies like the ones conducted by O’Malley and Chamot (1990); Thompson and Rubin (1996); Vandergrift (1997); Vandergrift (2003 and 1996); Anderson (2002); Vandergrift et al (2006); Goh, (2008), Coşkun (2010); and Goh and Hu’s (2013).

### ***6.1.3- On the Effect of Metacognitive Strategy Instruction on Lernasers' Listening Skill***

Harking back to the last research issue seeking to answer the question related to the effect listening metacognitive strategy training on EFL learners' listening performance, one should first fetch an answer to the effect of instruction on raising learners' metacognitive awareness and whether the treatment received in this context enhanced Algerian EFL learners' listening comprehension level. In other terms, one should first have a glance at the experimental group performance before and after awareness-raising training and compare it to that of the control group. Therefore, the reply to this issue can only be reached via scrutinising the informants' score tests, interviews, MALQ questionnaire; think aloud protocols besides diaries achieved prior instruction and comparing the data with those collected after treatment. Accordingly, in this survey, we begin discussing the changes occurring at the level of the Algerian EFL learners' awareness about metacognitive strategies resulting from the treatment received through a quantitative analysis of the corpora collected via diverse research tools. After that, we are to discuss the results qualitatively to complete what quantitative analysis could not reach.

Consequently, in order to obtain more evidence about the effect of strategy instruction on the students' listening performance, the data collected via tests scores, MALQ questionnaire and diaries were analysed quantitatively. The quantitative analysis of the tests scores achieved by the diverse groups participating in the survey prior and after treatment in listening metacognitive strategies helped us to get some useful insights about the Algerian EFL learners' listening performance and the evolution state of the metacognitive strategy use.

Indeed, the scores realised before instructional phase as far as listening metacognitive strategies are concerned demonstrated that the experimental group's scores were higher than those of the the control group. It was concluded,

therefore, that since control subjects' level was far from being satisfactory, the informants were lacking metacognitive knowledge to handle listening difficulties and needed more instruction to improve their level. In this regard, research on differences in listening strategy use underlined that successful L2 listeners orchestrate between metacognitive and cognitive strategies to handle listening processes. In fact, skilled listeners "report using twice as many metacognitive strategies as their less-skilled counterparts, as well as greater use of comprehension monitoring and questioning elaboration" (Vandergrift, 2011: 459). Consequently, a suggestion to conduct an "integrated instruction of a sequential repertoire of strategies" (Vandergrift and Tafaghodtari, 2010: 490), to examine its effect on the learners' achievements and on their growth in listening metacognitive awareness, was set out.

After treating the experimental group with metacognitive strategies, their scores raised and the gap with the control group remained. As a matter of fact, the experimental group scores were higher than those achieved by the control one. Thus, it was concluded that treatment in this matter was of great help in enhancing experimental informants' listening performance. This implies that a certain change occurred to the informants not only on their way of approaching the task at hand but also on their way of perceiving learning. In this respect Goh (2008: 196) acknowledges that "learners who have appropriate task knowledge about listening may plan, monitor and evaluate what they do, compared with those who approach listening in a random or incidental manner". Additionally, emphasis on the importance of metacognitive knowledge in the success of listening comprehension processing was underlined by Vandergrift (2011) and Goh (2008). The latter, underline that "the success with which listeners are able to regulate these processes to achieve comprehension depends on their awareness of their metaognitive knowledge about listening" (Goh, 2008 as cited in Vandergrift 2011: 485). In the same stretch of line, Flavell (1979: 908) insists on the importance of metacognition and its impact on learning in general. He argues:

“I believe that metacognitive knowledge can have a number of concrete and important effects on the cognitive enterprises of children and adults. It can lead you to select, evaluate, revise, and abandon cognitive tasks, goals, and strategies in the light of their relationships with one another and with your own abilities and interests with respect to that enterprise.”

Moreover, the positive effect of metacognitive instruction reflected in the raise of the informants' scores correspond with the findings reached by previous investigations (Graham and Macaro 2008; Vandergrift and Tafaghodtari 2010; Coşkun 2010; Bozorgian and Alamdari 2013; Goh and Hu 2013; Zeng 2014). This induces us to recommend the review of recent practices undertaken in this field with the intention to introduce some changes in the teaching of listening applied in the Algerian context if we want to promote English language learning. That is, Algerian teachers should think of a way to alter their traditional practices of testing listening with teaching strategic listening by putting metacognitive strategies into practice. In this framework, Mendelson (2001: 35) calls for a “shift from focus on product to a focus on process”. This can be achieved by implementing “strategy based approach” in the language classroom which teaches students strategies helping them to overcome their listening difficulties. Besides, this kind of practice will not only “develop richer metacognitive knowledge about their listening but could also help learners achieve greater learner autonomy in the long term” (Zeng, 2014: 153).

In addition to score tests analysis, with the perspective to investigate the effect of metacognitive strategy instruction on Algerian EFL learners' metacognitive awareness raising, the results obtained from the quantitative analysis of the questionnaire were used to discuss the evolution of metacognitive strategy awareness among EFL students before and after instruction in that matter. In this respect, it is judicious to remind that the subjects of the study were required to complete a retrospective self-report questionnaire (MALQ) (see 4.2.3) designed to “assess the extent to which language learners are aware of

and can regulate the process of L2 listening comprehension” (Vandergrift et al, 2006:432).

On the basis of the information retrieved from the data analysis, a variety was noticed among the participants as far as metacognitive strategy awareness is concerned. Indeed, the analysis of the MALQ questionnaire collected prior and after treatment unveiled that the students had different metacognitive levels in strategy use. In fact though the experimental group subjects showed prior treatment some degree of awareness about metacognitive strategies as the use of problem solving and direct attention, they did not rely on planning and evaluation which are important (Vandergrift et al, 2006: 450) to improve listening performance via managing the steps to undertake and remedying the deficiencies. In fact, these strategies representing “the purposeful nature of the comprehension process” (Richards, 1990 as cited in *ibid*) were not allotted the required value by the experimental informants. It was only after receiving instruction in this matter that their awareness raised and made use of planning and evaluation strategies, in addition to the previous ones, to grasp the meaning of the acoustic discourse to which they were exposed. This can be witnessed in the rise in metacognitive strategy awareness after treatment by the experimental group who implemented three out of five MALQ subscales; i.e. problem solving, planning and evaluation besides direct attention. Concerning mental translation and personal knowledge, they were both hardly employed by the subjects of the study.

Concerning problem-solving as the most positive factor used to enhance listening, it is necessary to note that at the beginning, the experimental subjects restricted their use of strategies to inferencing the meaning of words only and neglected the other ways for inferencing presented in the MALQ; however after treatment received, problem-solving factor as the highly used subscale was confirmed. The higher mean achieved in this study reflected that the experimental group extended their metacognitive strategy use.

As regards directed attention considered as the second item used by the experimental informants “to concentrate and stay on task” (Vandergrift et al, 2006:451), it is worthy to mention that the experimental subject showed a certain awareness about the importance to keep concentration and attention on the aural input in the process of comprehension both prior treatment and after it

As concerns personal knowledge, in both pre-treatment and post-treatment phases, the experimental group elements demonstrated a limited use of this strategy as compared to the previous strategies. This suggests that listeners in our study expressed lower confidence and higher anxiety when doing the task. In this respect, Brown (2007: 161) stated that the term anxiety is “not easy to define in a simple sentence”. He pointed out that several sources of anxiety may be present in a language learning situation such as “a quest for perfection, fear of negative evaluation and identity conflict, among others” (Brown 2007: 164).

In this context, Scovel (1978:134) associates anxiety with “feelings of uneasiness, frustration, self-doubt, apprehension, or worry”. Moreover, Spielberger (1983: 01) defined anxiety as “the subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worry associated with an automatic nervous system”.

Thus, according to our survey, the students made use of those linguistic elements because of anxiety which we consider positive, since it did not impede them from overcoming their limitations in speaking by compensating them with linguistic clues such as discourse markers. Accordingly, Bailey (1983), in her study of “competitiveness and anxiety in adult second language learning”, asserts that one of the major elements for success and development of learners’ language is “facilitative anxiety”. The latter has been distinguished from debilitating anxiety.

Indeed, several studies (Bailey 1983, Oxford 1999, Scovel 1978) have suggested that anxiety can be both “detrimental and beneficial”. For instance,

Scovel (1978) distinguished between “debilitative and facilitative anxiety”. Besides, Oxford (1999) made a distinction between “harmful and helpful anxiety”. Moreover, Goh (2006: 226) suggests a process- based listening as an ideal approach to lower listeners’ anxiety: “besides helping learners explore new ways of learning, metacognitive instruction also reduces language anxiety and builds confidence when approaching listening tasks”.

With regard to mental translation, claimed by Vandergrift to be inefficient (Vandergrift et al, 2006: 450), the latter as the least used by the informants when compared with the aforementioned strategies. This is positive in our case since it avoids learners to fall in the trap of missing what remains of the aural sequence.

All in all, with reference to data analysis and discussion in connection with Algerian students’ metacognitive awareness, the results unveiled that certain awareness was prevailing among the learners; however, a raise in strategy use was registered after treatment phase. Thus, it can be concluded that listening metacognitive instruction had a positive effect on the Algerian EFL learners’ metacognitive knowledge.

The MALQ results reached corroborated with the ones exhibited with the test scores and supported the idea that there existed a relationship between metacognitive strategy awareness and students’ performance in listening; i.e., the quantitative results revealed a tight link between those two elements as it has been already explained (see section 6.1.2). In other terms, students who scored high in MALQ performed better in the listening test, whereas those who scored lower in the questionnaire achieved lower scores. In this respect, Vandergrift et al (2006: 449) indicated that “13% of the variance in listening performance could be explained by metacognition”. Other studies, such as Vandergrift (2002, 2003b, 2010) have found that listening performance is related to L2 listeners’ degree of metacognitive awareness.

Additionally, the test scores realised prior instruction in metacognitive strategies witnessed a raise after treatment. This implies that metacognitive strategy training improved Algerian EFL students' listening performance. Accordingly, these findings appear to correspond with previous studies undertaken in this field emphasising the positive impact of instruction on facilitating L2 listening (O'Malley and Chamot 1990; Thompson and Rubin 1996; Vandergrift 1997; Vandergrift 2003; 1996; Anderson, 2002; Vandergrift et al 2006; Goh, 2008, Coşkun 2010; and Goh and Hu's 2013 and Zeng 2014 ).

Furthermore, the quantitative results obtained from the think-aloud protocol analysis allowed us to access the processes through which learners went through in order to complete the listening task at hand. They also allowed us to have a clear picture about the rate of use of the diverse metacognitive strategies to accomplish the listening task. As a matter of fact, the results collected from the 10 experimental informants followed the same stream as that of the MALQ and the test scores stressing the positive effect of metacognitive strategy instruction on raising learners' metacognitive knowledge. They revealed that the Algerian EFL learners made use of diverse metacognitive strategies variably. The most used ones are those related to problem solving, planning and evaluation besides direct attention.

Regarding mental translation and personal knowledge use, they were disregarded. In other terms, the results obtained from the think-aloud analysis are consistent with the findings reached by Vandergrift and Tafaghodtari (2010), Graham and Macaro (2008), Goh and Taib (2006), and Vandergrift (2002, 2003a). Besides, when learners know how to plan, monitor and evaluate their achievements in a listening task, they can have control on their listening performance and "oversee and manage their own learning" (Wenden, 1991: 25).

The results of the MALQ questionnaire analysis during pre and post instruction indicated that certain awareness about metacognitive strategies was established among the subjects of the experimental group as their test scores improved. Besides, the necessity to underline those devices to the control elements is required.

Furthermore, relying on the results retrieved from the comparison between the 100 participants' test scores and their metacognitive strategy use, it is obvious on the whole that a tight link exists between the latter and listening comprehension performance. Indeed, the groups with higher scores used metacognitive strategy more frequently than those with lower scores. Additionally, it is judicious to mention that the improvement marked by the experimental elements as far as listening performance is concerned is a reflection of the metacognitive awareness-raise resulting from the instruction received.

To sum up what has been discussed above, it can be said that the quantitative analysis of the data collected via pre and post tests, MALQ questionnaire and think-aloud protocol allowed us to get insight into learners' listening skill evolution. In fact, the data analysis yielded positive results not only in terms of awareness-raising about metacognitive strategies use but also in terms of performance improvement reflected in the post test scores.

Having analysed and discussed the results quantitatively, the next step is to study the research findings qualitatively with reference to the literature review established in this concern. It is necessary in this respect to remind that the purpose for using mixed type method (see 4.1.1) is to corroborate the quantitative and qualitative interpretations and to achieve a fuller understanding of the effect of awareness-raising instruction about metacognitive strategies on Algerian EFL learners' listening skill. Therefore, on the ground of what has been interpreted quantitatively, revealing that the special treatment the students received as far as metacognitive strategies in listening are concerned has yielded positive results, the researcher has made use of the qualitative interpretations to

support the quantitative ones and verify whether there is a correlation between the results.

Indeed, the qualitative analysis of the experimental group's diaries sustains the positive effect of metacognitive instruction on learners' metacognitive awareness. Concerning EFL learners' diaries analysis used in this study as both treatment and exploratory instrument, they revealed that the instruction implemented before and after treatment phases had its fruits. Certain awareness about metacognitive strategy use was established among the experimental group subjects. Indeed, an increase in strategy use is noticed among the participants which reflects the raise of awareness as far as listening processing is concerned. Furthermore, students satisfaction from the treatment received witnessed an increase too since the percentage of positive answers jumped from 80% to 100% after instruction, which translates their ability to handle the listening task easily and confidently.

In fact, students' feelings reflected in their diaries bring insights into their perception of strategy use in listening comprehension. The instances chosen are real illustrations of the informants' satisfaction about strategy implementation in their learning to listen.

(S1) The first time I entered the class and I had to listen to the track, I was shocked and disappointed because I felt confused; I didn't understand anything; I didn't catch any word and I was shy so I could not talk and express my point of view. But now...I improved my listening and speaking, I can now understand the conversation from the first listening and I can talk without shyness.

(S2) When I started listening the first time, I didn't even know how to listen to the vocal cord. But now, I can understand the listening; not the whole of it, but I can say 80% from it, and I am so satisfied, so I'll try to go on this way.

(S3) I learnt from these skills a lot because they change many bad, wrong things in my mind. I realise my fault and terrible mistakes. I become a good student who can ask and answer in English language without fearing anything. So listening and speaking gave me a chance to produce myself, feelings and point of view as I like.

(Students' corpora)

With reference to what has been mentioned before, students' corpora collected from the diaries are a clear reflection of the positive effect of metacognitive strategy training on improving learners' listening comprehension. Indeed, the treatment implemented in this context, did not only help students to uncover their listening deficiencies but also equipped them with the tools necessary to remedy them. That is, metacognitive strategy instruction raised learners' awareness about their cognitive processes, helped them to overcome their fears and anxiety and provided them with confidence, skill and will to regulate their learning processes in general and listening processes in particular. In this framework, O'Malley and Chamot (1985: 561) have commented that "Students without metacognitive approaches are essentially learners without direction or opportunity to review their progress, accomplishments, and future learning directions."

Moreover, having a glance at the retrospective interviews collected randomly from ten (10) experimental informants before and after metacognitive strategy instruction, the latter provided us with significant insights into the learners' listening difficulties as well as their level of satisfaction from their way of approaching those hurdles. Indeed, the data collected from the interviews revealed that the informants were facing some listening obstacles that impeded them from comprehending the spoken input transmitted. These difficulties existed at the beginning and persisted after the treatment with the metacognitive strategies. In this context, various researchers (Underwood 1989; Rubin 1994, Goh 2000, Hamouda 2013 and Walker 2014) tackled this issue and mentioned

some potential problems encountered by students (see 1.6). The latter are generally linked to the message to be listened to, the speaker, the listener, and the physical setting. Examples illustrating what has been stated can be found in the corpora collected in which students reflected their difficulties in terms of what they were unable to understand. In fact, the instances beneath illustrate one common problem that most of the students encountered. The first one concerns fast talk which prevented them from getting the transmitted message.

(S1) Listening is difficult a little because when the speakers talk, they talk quickly and speedy, so I can't understand.

Indeed, the message speed of delivery may constitute an obstacle impeding the learner from regulating the comprehension process. The latter, which is perceived as being complicated and difficult (Graham 2006 and Vandergrift 2011) is limited by time constraints. It requires the listener to construct meaning in an active process in a short period of time. Besides, the listener is expected to "...attend to and process aural and relevant visual input, automatically in real time, in order to understand what is unequivocally stated and to make all necessary inferences implied in the input" (Buck, 2001 as cited in Vandergrift 2011: 456).

Another difficulty raised by the learners occurs at the level of vocabulary knowledge as it is illustrated by the informant (S2). According to the latter, a spoken text including many unfamiliar words constitutes an obstacle in front of the listener. Likewise, with reference to Underwood (1989: 17), meeting unknown lexis can be like "a dropped barrier causing them to stop and think about the meaning of a word and thus making them miss the next part of the speech". Besides the fact of not knowing the meaning of words, students have a tendency to try to comprehend every single word in the listening sequence. In this respect, Vandergrift (2011: 455) underlines that it is "necessary for students to tolerate vagueness and incompleteness of understanding".

(S2) “There are many words which are difficult and I can’t Understand or concentrate”.

Furthermore, the existence of noise inside the language classroom or outside it or the bad quality of the extract recorded affects the learner’s listening ability and distracts him.

(S3) “What made it difficult to me when there is a noise or I feel tired I can’t focus, Contrary when the speakers speak good and spell the words correctly and the sound is well.

Additionally, the state of fatigue or tiredness may impede the listener from concentrating on the input. In this context, Hasan (2000: 143) states that “the length of time students listen may cause memory problems or even fatigue and this would distract listeners’ attention from grasping the meaning of the text, and learners may miss the rest of the text when there is a lapse in concentration”.

Moreover, the interviews realised after treatment unveiled that the students reiterated their complaints about the same listening comprehension difficulties linked with fast talk, difficult words, noise and loss of concentration. Nevertheless, they expressed their satisfaction of the test results achieved and their happiness for being able to regulate their comprehension process. Instances illustrating what has been said can be found in the corpora elaborated out of the post interviews.

Indeed, in the example below, the student (S1) seems to have uncovered his listening deficiencies and tries to remedy it via the extensive listening which generally takes place outside the classroom such as in the student’s home, bus or car. This type of listening is, according to Harmer (2001: 228), motivating as it enables learners to “make their own choices about what they are going to listen”.

(S1) “I think I’ve improved a lot since the first time, cause uh...I was listening lately to lot of English channels on TV like CNN and BBC and lot of movies also. So, I improved a lot”

Another instance illustrates the students satisfaction from the treatment received. The latter, according to their sayings, has enabled them to achieve certain improvement in processing the spoken sequences and overcome their anxiety and fear about listening by getting accustomed to listen to native speakers' speech without needing to see them.

(S2) "...it was worthy and useful. Because we practised on our listening techniques, because honestly not everyone is able to listen and understand at the same time..."

(S3) "each time I listen to a conversation I learn and progress, because I get the habit to hear people talking without seeing them..."

Therefore, it can be concluded that metacognitive instruction heightened Algerian EFL learners' awareness of their listening and learning processes and developed "learners' ability to use appropriate strategies" (Goh, 2008: 195). Furthermore, the training implemented reduced the students' high level of anxiety by making them more confident and motivated to face any listening difficulty confronting them.

In addition to the interviews, the qualitative analysis of the think-aloud procedure gave us the opportunity to access the processes through which learners went in order to complete the listening task at hand. Indeed, the results collected from the 10 experimental informants revealed that they made use of diverse metacognitive strategies variably. The most used ones are those related to problem solving, planning and evaluation besides direct attention. Regarding mental translation and personal knowledge use, they were disregarded. Therefore, by considering some instances from the corpora collected, evidence of strategy use to solve listening problems emerge.

(S1) Je lis les instructions d'abord, ensuite j'écoute pour que ça soit plus facile pour moi.

In this instance, the student makes use of the French language to express herself. Indeed, it is necessary to mention that the students were not limited in their loud reflection on the use of the target language but had the complete freedom to reflect loudly on the processes they went through to understand the input via the use of any language they felt appropriate to express their instantaneous ideas. In fact, the student appears in this example to have a plan how to proceed in processing the message transmitted. She starts by reading first the instructions to know the elements upon which she will focus her attention.

(S1) “She gives information...um, it was too fast...I’ll make another listening”.

It appears from this instance, that the same student encountered difficulty in understanding the aural input and in catching the required elements. It seems that it was too fast for her. Therefore, she decided to solve this problem by playing again the message to be able to depict the missing elements.

(S1) Ok, she gave her name, the name of the caller, ...uh the one she calls, she gave informations, and ...um I understand everything but there is a word I didn’t understand. I didn’t know this word, so I will make another listening, ...I try to guess the word.

According to this corpus, the same student seems to have solved the previous problem. After verification, she confirmed having understood everything. Still, another hurdle needed to be overcome; i.e., there was a word that she did not know its meaning. Thus, she adopted a guessing strategy to infer the meaning of the word from the context.

With reference to the corpora collected from the students’ think-aloud protocol, it appears that the informants made use of guessing, repeating the extract to focus more and adjusted their interpretation to the correct one. As concerns planning and evaluation strategies, the first thing that the students

achieved was reading the instruction before starting to listen. As regards direct attention strategy use, the learners kept focusing on the input at the same time taking notes to track the information.

To wrap up the discussion aforementioned, the qualitative analysis of the data collected via interviews and think-aloud procedure have helped us to get a clear idea about the difficulties that Algerian EFL students encountered when exposed to a listening task. It has also provided us with significant insights into the learners' listening level of satisfaction from their way of approaching those hurdles.

Summarising what has been discussed above, the quantitative and qualitative analysis of the data collected in this study undertaken in the Algerian context and applied on Algerian EFL learners brought evidence that listening metacognitive strategy instruction had a positive effect on the students' aural outcome. In fact, the awareness-raising proved by the post MALQ questionnaire, the reduced level of anxiety expressed by the informants as well as the raise in post- test scores show the improvement in the learners' listening performance. Therefore, it can be said that in the light of the results of this investigation, metacognitive strategy instruction should be targeted in the language classroom. Besides, teachers are invited to have a look at previous researches undertaken in this field and think of a way to foster awareness among the students via metacognitive strategy instruction.

## **6.2- Implications and Suggestions**

The present study has attempted to answer some issues in connection with the effect of consciousness-raising tasks about metacognitive strategies on improving EFL student's listening comprehension outcome. Furthermore, it tried to find a way to foster Algerian EFL learners' aural competence via involving

them in metacognitive strategy instruction. Therefore some considerations must be taken into account to put into concrete form this goal.

### ***6.2.1- Implications for Teachers***

Indeed, findings reached by the present study provide us with implications for second language listening pedagogy which are worthy to be considered. The first one regards the crucial role that metacognitive instruction plays in promoting language development, and the other one is linked to the application of Vandergrift and Goh (2012) metacognitive pedagogical sequence.

As concerns metacognitive instruction as the key element to improve listening comprehension, the outcomes of the present research undertaken in the Algerian context revealed the important role that metacognitive strategies play in assisting students to self-regulate their learning and raising students' awareness about learning processes in which they are involved. The results come to emphasize the importance of implementing metacognitive strategy instruction within the language classroom. They are also compatible with the ones reached by many studies undertaken by many scholars such as Rubin (1988) ; O'Malley et al (1989) ; Bacon (1991) ; Thompson and Rubin (1996) ; Vandergrift (1996) ; Goh (1997) ; Goh (2002a) ; Vandergrift (2003b) ; Goh and Taib (2006) ; Graham and Macaro (2008) ; Vandergrift and Tafaghodtari (2010); Coşkun (2010), Bozorgian and Alamdari (2013), and Goh and Hu (2014).

Therefore, language teachers concerned with the instruction of the listening skill are invited to integrate metacognitive strategies in their courses with the purpose to help the less skilled learners to gain confidence and be efficient in their listening outcome. This can be achieved via setting out a thorough lesson plan focused on metacognitive strategy instruction. This lesson plan is of great help for the instructor as it will not only serve as a map to guide

the teacher in the lesson development but also it will provide him/her with a clear picture of how much has been achieved and how much remains to be fulfilled. Furthermore, the lesson plan will give the opportunity to the teacher to look back at his/her achievements and think of appropriate solutions to fix any issues faced while applying metacognitive strategies.

Regarding the metacognitive framework to L2 instruction as proposed by Vandergrift and Goh (2012), the model offers principles that foster learners' self-regulation of listening. In fact, when applying this model in the language classroom, teachers can help learners discover new ways of learning languages effectively and easily via modelling the new strategy, thus making training explicit. Another implication for teaching is that when approaching the listening task metacognitively, the learners will be involved in a series of processes encompassing reflection, prediction, monitoring and evaluation. Consequently, by adopting such approach in listening instruction, the teacher will not only develop learners' knowledge about their own thinking but also will encourage them to adopt strategies that promote their self-regulation and autonomy.

Furthermore, other implications deserve to be taken into account. Bearing in mind that during the process of L2 listening comprehension, learners make use of two types of processes to extract meaning from an aural input: "bottom up and top down processing", it is necessary to underline that the interaction between knowledge of the language system (i.e. phonology, grammar and vocabulary) and prior knowledge and experience is crucial for speech comprehension. Therefore, to help learners compensate for their deficiency in understanding the input, teachers are conveyed to initiate them to make use of listening strategies and metacognition. In this context, Mendelson (1995,1998 as cited in Celce-Murcia and Olshtain 2000:103) outlines the procedure to teach strategy-based L2 listening:

- 1-"Raise learner awareness of the power and value of using strategies;

- 2-Use pre-listening activities to activate learners' background knowledge;
- 3-Make clear to learners what they are going to listen and why;
- 4-Provide guided listening activities designed to provide a lot of practice in using a particular strategy (e.g., listening for names or dates) using simplified data initially, if needed;
- 5-Practice the strategy uses on content and meaning;
- 6-Allow for self-evaluation so that learners can assess how accurate and complete their listening has been."

As concerns the grammatical aspect of spoken language, teachers are invited to raise students' awareness about the difference existing between the language of written texts and spoken language. The latter is generally full of repetitions, pauses, discourse markers, false starts, restructuring and incomplete sentences. Thus, by encouraging learners to observe and analyse language for themselves through the implementation of audio-video talks supported by transcripts in their courses, teachers will allow learners time to notice features of spoken language that cannot be found in textbooks.

In fact, introducing authentic language in the language classroom provides an opportunity to the students to explore language as interaction rather than as grammatical units. Consequently, the Algerian EFL learners' tendency to make sense of language and systematize it will be reinforced. This can be achieved by initiating students in tasks aiming at making comparisons between the spoken and the written forms of English by looking at transcripts of natural language, such as the samples presented in the appendices.

Regarding the vocabulary included in the aural speech, one way to address the problem of language difficulty is to pre-teach students vocabulary which is included in the listening text. Another way to face this obstacle is to expose learners to intensive and extensive listening programs. These procedures

according to Harmer (2001: 204) “will make students more positive about listening; improve their overall comprehension skills, and give them a wider vocabulary”.

As far as dictation is concerned, the latter helps learners’ comprehension by paying more attention to content words that convey meaning especially for lower proficiency learners. The current practice of listening out for key words seems to be justified by Field’s study (2008: 428) as cited in Kurita (2012: 39). In fact, he provided the following implications:

“In the early stages of listening development, learners should be asked to build a general and sometimes approximate meaning representation on the basis of the more prominent content words in the text; however, as listening competence improves, instructors might move on from meanings to forms that can be applied to teaching listening.”

Reducing listening anxiety by building confidence in listening to English is another point deserving to be taken into account. According to Hedge ( 2000), “confidence is the most vital element in learning to listen effectively in a second or a foreign language” (p 255). This confidence can be raised by practice. Besides, Krashen (1982: 33) underlined the crucial role that the affective filter plays in second language acquisition. According to him, two conditions are necessary to achieve learning: “The first is comprehensible (or even better, comprehended) input containing  $i + 1$ , structures a bit beyond the acquirer's current level, and the second is a low or weak affective filter to allow the input "in".

Therefore, the teachers concerned with EFL listening comprehension instruction are required to provide as much practice as possible by adopting diverse measures such as talking to learners in the target language, exposing

them to authentic material and encouraging them to use all available listening resources. Likewise, teachers are required to offer an adequate environment where low affective variables are available to allow learning to take place.

Keeping on the same track with Krashen's affective variables, attracting the learners' interest and motivating them is of great importance to achieve success in listening. Accordingly, it is necessary for teachers to consider this aspect of learning when picking up topics or preparing listening materials. In fact, when a topic is interesting, it creates enjoyment that contributes to motivation. Whereas, when the choice of topic is inappropriate, it generates boredom that hinders comprehension.

### ***6.2.2- Implications for Learners***

The results of the present investigation yielded positive results as far as metacognitive strategy awareness- raising instruction is concerned. Using listening strategies has been proved to be efficient as it helped increasing awareness among the students in terms of promoting their motivation, self-confidence and autonomy. Thus, this study holds several implications not only for the teacher but also for learners. In order to promote awareness about metacognitive listening strategies and develop its use among Algerian EFL students, listening diaries can be employed as both treatment and exploratory instrument. In fact, by reporting their learning progress on the diaries, learners will have the opportunity to evaluate their achievements. Besides, they will be involved in deep reflection to regulate those processes for more effective learning and better control over the listening task.

Additionally, group discussion activities led after each stage of listening allows learners to compare their comprehension in terms of what they have caught and what remains to be understood. Likewise, this discussion helps them

to overcome their fears of making mistakes and losing face in front of their peers. Moreover, this is an opportunity for them to make use of what they have learnt by conducting discussions in the target language rather than using their mother tongue.

Another implication for learners includes the use of authentic material. Nowadays, learners can easily access L2 environments through the diverse communication means such as CNN and BBC television and radio channels, Internet, DVDs and other multimedia. As a consequence, EFL learners are expected to make use of these resources to improve their ability to understand native speakers' speech. This implies that they have no more to restrict their learning to the teaching received in the language classroom but can extend it to the outer side of the instructional context such as in the student's home, bus or car. Thus, the learning taking place via extensive listening enables the learners to remedy their comprehension deficiencies. Likewise, this type of learning includes more motivation as it enables learners to establish their own choices of the material and content they are going to listen.

## **Conclusion**

This chapter has discussed the research findings by tackling each research question raised at the beginning of the survey and has answered them on the basis of the data collected via various streams. Concerning the first issue regarding students' awareness about metacognitive strategies (see 6.1.1), the study has revealed that learners orchestrate between the diverse strategies and that learners require training in that matter to improve their listening skill. The second question related to the relationship linking strategy awareness to listening performance (see 6.1.2), it has been discovered that students' listening performance and listening metacognitive strategies are tightly linked and require to be reinforced. The third and final question concerning the effect of

metacognitive strategy instruction on the listening skill (see 6.1.3), it has been uncovered that the treatment assigned to the members of study proved to have a positive effect on the learners' listening skill.

Moreover, this chapter has stated the implications and possible recommendations for further research, in addition to some restrictions which limited the flow of the survey. Therefore, it can be said that in the light of the results of this investigation, metacognitive strategy instruction is not just a mere means of intervention, but it is more than that. It is rather a powerful tool guiding students in their learning process, helping them to be more autonomous and encouraging them to be self confident

## GENERAL CONCLUSION

Using language for communication involves two major processes from the part of both the addresser and the addressee: transmitting ideas, beliefs, emotions and attitudes to one another and interpreting the message produced. Thus, the listener enters in a series of complicated processes with the attempt to comprehend the message received. Bearing in mind that the major part of the time we spend on listening is greater than the one devoted to speaking and reading, it is evident that this skill is of great importance for language acquisition and language performance.

In the case of English language learning, listening to a language that one is not familiar with constitutes a hard work. In fact, though listening represents a crucial skill for learning any language, its complex nature makes it a challenging affair for both the learners and the teachers. It requires the learners to be guided and assisted in their efforts to reach success. In other terms, the teachers are expected to furnish the appropriate measures to achieve the teaching goals. However, when doing so, they find themselves testing the students' listening capacities instead of supplying them with the strategies that may facilitate their learning. This makes of learners passive recipients of instruction as the learning is centred on the teacher.

Consequently, it is with the perspective to teach students how to listen rather than making them listen to learn that this piece of work is realised. Particularly, bringing students to reflect on the process of listening without being afraid of evaluation is probably the missing ingredient in the teaching practices. Therefore, by focussing on the process of listening, the responsibility of learning will shift from the teacher to the learners. The latter will be more involved in making use of useful tools that enable them to complete their listening tasks successfully.

Indeed, by encouraging the implementation of strategy instruction in general and metacognitive strategy instruction in particular in the language classroom, the listening skill will be no more a challenging task for the learners as it has been emphasised by many researchers (Mendelson 1998, 2001; Chamot 1995; Field 1998; Buck 1995; Goh 1997, 2002a; Vandergrift 1998, 1999, 2003, 2004; and Vandergrift and Goh 2012). Besides, metacognitive strategies will provide learners not only with knowledge and control over listening but also with motivation to achieve the task at hands.

Accordingly, when reflecting on metacognitive strategy instruction of Algerian EFL learners' listening skill, the researcher had to deal with diverse issues before reaching the major one constituting the core of this survey. In fact, the investigator had to identify the nature of listening first, then move to address the learning strategy concept by focusing on metacognitive strategies, the object of this study, as a means assisting less effective students in their learning process. Finally, the type of instructional approach that could be adopted to implement strategy training in the language classroom was addressed.

With this regard, the present research focused on some aspects of learning techniques namely metacognitive strategies (such as problem solving, planning and evaluation, mental translation, personal knowledge and direct attention) and attempted to answer the major issue relating to the effect of awareness– raising instruction about metacognitive strategies on developing the listening skill of Algerian EFL learners.

In this regard, a longitudinal study was carried out. It lasted approximately eighteen (18) months during which a mixed methods case study was adopted and Vandergrift's instructional framework was implemented. The research involved one hundred (100) informants belonging respectively to first and second years English LMD. Likewise, the researcher made use of a combination of multiple research instruments namely two written tests (a pre-test and a post test); retrospective interviews, think-aloud protocols, a questionnaire (comprising two

parts: a background questionnaire and a Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire) as well as learners' diaries. The reason lying behind using diverse research tools is to overcome the limitations of each one of them and to enhance validity (Goh, 2000; Hamman et al 2000; Chamot et al 1992; Chamot 1993; White 1995; White 1999; Vandergrift 2006; Vandergrift and Tafaghodtari 2010). Regarding the data collected from diverse research tools, they were analysed quantitatively and qualitatively.

Concerning the first hypothesis fixed at the beginning of the research linked to the first issue regarding the extent to which Algerian EFL learners are aware of the processes underlying their listening and the type of strategies they make use of, this hypothesis was rejected. Indeed, the students were proved to make use of metacognitive strategies randomly; i.e, the pre-test data analysis results as well as the results of the descriptive statistics analysis of the MALQ revealed that both the experimental and control participants made use of metacognitive strategies, yet their use was random. It was only after treatment that the experimental group subject's use of metacognitive strategies increased which led to the improvement of the informants' listening test scores. Regarding the control group, the informants' use of meatcognitive strategies did not witness any change because the instruction received was not focused on strategy use. This explains the low results achieved by the control subjects in the listening post test.

Therefore, it was concluded that students should be equipped with effective listening strategies to achieve satisfactory results. Besides, it is necessary for Algerian EFL students to pay more attention to aural messages and think of an appropriate way to process them. This method of thinking about one's own way of thinking will enhance learners' listening comprehension abilities, not only to succeed in the test but also to perform well in real life communication with English native speakers.

Moreover, the MALQ data results as well as the interviews and the diaries unveiled that the experimental group showed more awareness about metacognitive strategies than control group after treatment. This may be returned back to the special treatment with metacognitive strategies that the experimental subjects received. Likewise, the results revealed that Algerian EFL students made random use of the five metacognitive strategies in a correlated way and seemed to “orchestrate” between the diverse strategies underlying those processes. In fact, they intercorrelated between problem solving, planning and evaluation, mental translation, personal knowledge and direct attention.

In addition to that, the results retrieved from the interviews and diaries prior treatment gave us an insight into the task difficulty and the diverse problems encountered. In fact, the majority of the participants found the listening pre-test difficult and could not manage to solve it easily because of their low listening ability and other factors hindering their listening such as fast talk, difficult words, noise and loss of concentration. Thus, developing strategies to overcome those difficulties is highly required to avoid motivation loss from the students’ part.

Regarding the second issue in connection with the relationship between learners’ metacognitive strategy awareness and their performance in listening, the hypothesis related to it was confirmed. In fact, the results of the survey revealed the existence of a tight link between those two elements. In other terms, students who scored high in MALQ performed better in the listening test, whereas those who scored lower in the questionnaire achieved lower scores. This implies that metacognitive strategy training improved Algerian EFL students’ listening performance. Accordingly, these findings appear to corroborate with previous studies undertaken in this field emphasising the positive impact of instruction on facilitating L2 listening (O’Malley and Chamot 1990; Thompson and Rubin 1996; Vandergrift 1997; Vandergrift 2003; 1996; Anderson, 2002; Vandergrift et al 2006; Goh, 2008, Coşkun 2010; and Goh and Hu’s 2013 ).

As concerns the third issue in relation to the effect of listening metacognitive strategy training on EFL learners' listening performance, the hypothesis set out in this respect was confirmed too. The quantitative and qualitative analysis of the data collected in this study undertaken in the Algerian context and applied on Algerian EFL learners brought evidence that listening metacognitive strategy instruction had a positive effect on the students' aural outcome. In fact, the raise of awareness among the experimental participants reflected by the post MALQ questionnaire, the reduced level of anxiety expressed by the informants as well as the raise in post- test scores showed the improvement in the learners' listening performance. In other terms, the treatment implemented in this context, did not only help students to uncover their listening deficiencies but also equipped them with the tools necessary to remedy them. The instruction raised learners' awareness about their cognitive processes, helped them to overcome their fears and anxiety and provided them with confidence, skill and will to regulate their learning processes in general and listening processes in particular.

Therefore, it can be said that in the light of the results of this investigation, metacognitive strategy instruction is not just a mere means of intervention, but it is more than that. It is rather a powerful tool guiding students in their learning process, helping them to be more autonomous and encouraging them to be self confident. Additionally, it can be said in this context that it is high time for teachers to review their traditional approaches of teaching listening and that it is time to target the process of listening in the language classroom rather than the product one. That is, teachers are invited to have a look at previous researches undertaken in this field and think of a way to foster metacognitive awareness among learners.

Though the present investigation yielded new insights as far as the teaching of listening metacognitive strategies in the Algerian context is concerned, some limitations were encountered during the evolution process.

The latter are clearly linked to several constraints which prevented us from gaining more desired results. First of all, the population of study was restricted to a limited number of subjects; i.e., one hundred (100) Algerian participants belonging to first and second years English LMD. Presumably, in order to make wider and more general remarks on the effect of instruction about those facilitative strategies on the students' listening skill, a larger group of listeners would be needed. However, we believe that the findings obtained are valid to a certain extent to be considered as a starting point for further research since, to our knowledge, no previous research such as the one hereby presented had been conducted in the Algerian context.

Additionally, the period of time allotted to this longitudinal research, which lasted almost eighteen (18) months, witnessed lot of constraints which prevented us from conducting the study and collecting the necessary data in the planned time. In fact, the troubles caused by the students' strike compelled us to stop the research for a moment then launch it again. Besides, we consider the time devoted to the teaching of an important skill as listening, which is in our case 90 minutes a week, insufficient as it limits the teacher to provide the best of him in terms of content and in terms of finding solutions to the students' aural comprehension deficiencies.

The other constraint faced is related to the fact that the whole study focused on strategy use and more precisely on metacognitive strategy use. In fact, because of time limitations, the researcher put aside the study of other aspects of strategy instruction namely cognitive and socio-affective strategies referred to by researchers. This does not weaken the results reached till now, but it is hoped that future investigations would tackle these remaining aspects.

Furthermore, this research did not tackle gender use of metacognitive strategies but was limited to the use of those facilitative devices by both male and female participants. Besides, the survey did not look at the age factor and its role in the learning process nor did it deal with the factors hindering EFL listening

comprehension. Furthermore, the researcher did not have time to explore teachers' opinion about listening metacognitive strategy training as well as its pedagogical consequences in the Algerian language classrooms.

Keeping reflection on what has been stated previously regarding awareness-raising instruction about listening metacognitive strategies, some recommendations deserve to be expressed in order to bring forward the teaching of the listening skill. The first one deals with inviting teachers to develop a dual objective in the language classroom. In other terms, in addition to the teaching of the language content, they are also required to develop students' learning processes that will provide learners with self confidence and autonomy to learn both inside the language classroom and outside the teaching context.

Besides, people who are involved in the language teaching field are recommended to bridge the gap between empirical studies and application in the field. That is, the results yielded by previous investigations in addition to the present study undertaken in this context should not stand as ink on paper but should rather be considered carefully in the sake of a possibility of classroom implementation. Thus, bringing new ideas and new approaches will serve the instruction greatly by refreshing the procedures adopted and making both the teaching and the learning processes lively.

Additionally, listening difficulties that may hinder learners' comprehension need to be further explored so that to provide teachers with a clear picture of how to diagnose learners' listening obstacles and how to remedy them. Likewise, it will supply learners with efficient ways to transcend their learning hurdles and will empower them with strategies to face these hurdles with great self-confidence.

Furthermore, the whole study focused on five major metacognitive strategies (namely problem solving, planning and evaluation, mental translation, personal knowledge and direct attention) and put aside the cognitive and socio-affective strategies referred to by researchers. Therefore, investigations

dealing with the link between these strategies and listening comprehension will add to the growing body of research and will enrich the existing approaches to teach this major skill with new ideas to develop the instructional practices applied in the language classroom.

Moreover, this research did not extend the strategy training study to reach gender use of metacognitive strategies, it rather tackled the use of those facilitative devices by both male and female participants. Therefore, future studies focussing on the relationship between gender, comprehension and processing strategies in listening will supply teachers with insightful information that will enhance language achievements.

In addition to what has been stated, bearing in mind that learning is dependent on diverse factors, not only in terms of age and level but also in terms of the individuals' cultural and educational background, the survey did not look at the age factor and its role in the learning process nor did it deal with the other factors. Accordingly, future investigations led in that sense will increase teachers and researchers' understanding about the importance of those factors in listening.

Likewise, as it has been mentioned previously, the study focused mainly on investigating the effect of metacognitive strategy instruction on Algerian EFL students' listening performance as well as their metacognitive awareness in listening. However, it neglected exploring teachers' opinion about listening metacognitive strategy training as well as its pedagogical consequences in the Algerian language classrooms. Consequently, future research can be focalised on instructors' views on teaching listening in the Algerian contexts, and the issues they face during teaching this basic skill which contributes to the development of other skills in foreign language learning.

Although the present study focused on developing the listening skill of Algerian EFL learners via metacognitive awareness strategies, it did not deal with other skills such as reading, writing and speaking. Thus, the remaining skills

could be further investigated in terms of strategy training as well as in terms the difficulties hindering strategy acquisition process.

Finally, replication of this study with other EFL populations to confirm or deny the results reached by this survey is worth to be achieved. In fact, since this study was undertaken at the University of Algiers<sup>2</sup> and was limited to a sample of population upon which the training was applied, future investigations, therefore, can conduct research at the same University or at other settings in Algeria to fetch to what extent the results reached can be applied on learners.

At last, it can be said that this piece of work adds to the growing body of research investigating the effect of strategy instruction on EFL and ESL students' listening comprehension in general. Likewise, it can be considered as a reference to other researchers to start other investigations dealing with the ideas previously mentioned that this survey could not accomplish. This study also provides empirical evidence that EFL learners facing listening comprehension difficulties may benefit from metacognitive strategy use if they receive an appropriate treatment in that sense. They may even extend their strategy use to reach not only listening as a skill but other skills which are crucial to language learning such as reading, writing as well as speaking.

To end up, it can be said that this study supplies EFL program professionals with a better understanding of how EFL students process listening input. Likewise, this survey offers suggestions to language teachers who are concerned with developing EFL learners' listening skill to review their method of teaching by involving students in consciousness-raising tasks helping them to overcome their listening obstacles as well as empowering learners with strategies helping them to learn both inside and outside the academic contexts. Finally, I believe that if teachers are equipped with knowledge and understanding of how to implement listening approaches to the language classroom, they will be of great help in supporting EFL learners in their efforts to achieve success in the target language.

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## Appendix N° 01

### Data Sheet on Metacognitive Listening Strategies

- Please read the following extracts adapted from Vandergrift (2003: 494) and make yourself familiarised with what are defined as Metacognitive Listening Strategies in the survey.

<b>Metacognitive strategies</b>	<b>Definitions</b>
<b>1. Planning</b>	Developing an awareness of what needs to be done to accomplish a listening task, developing an appropriate action plan and/or appropriate contingency plans to overcome difficulties that may interfere with successful completion of the task
1a. Advance organization	Clarifying the objectives of an anticipated listening task and/or proposing strategies for handling it.
1b. Directed attention	Deciding in advance to attend <i>in general</i> to the listening task and to ignore irrelevant distracters; maintaining attention while listening.
1c. Selective attention	Deciding to attend to specific aspects of language input or situational details that assist in understanding and/or task completion.
1d. Self-management	Understanding the conditions that help one successfully accomplish listening tasks and arranging for the presence of those conditions.
<b>2. Monitoring</b>	Checking, verifying or correcting one's comprehension or performance in the course of a listening task.
2a. Comprehension monitoring	Checking, verifying or correcting one's understanding at the local level.
2b. Double-check monitoring	Checking, verifying or correcting one's understanding across the task or during the second time through the oral text.
<b>3. Evaluation</b>	Checking the outcomes of one's listening comprehension against an internal measure of completeness and accuracy.
<b>4. Problem identification</b>	Explicitly identifying the central point needing resolution in a task or identifying an aspect of the task that hinders its successful completion.

# Appendix N° 02

## Pre-Test

Unit 17 Test

Name: \_\_\_\_\_

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

Total Score: \_\_\_\_\_

### 1. Let's Listen

Emily is describing what happened to her last weekend. In what order did these events happen? Listen and number the sentences.

- a. She realized her wallet was missing. \_\_\_\_
- b. They ordered more food. \_\_\_\_
- c. Her friend asked to borrow some money. \_\_\_\_
- d. They paid the bill. \_\_\_\_
- e. She called her mother. \_\_\_\_

### 2. Let's Listen

People are talking about things that happened to them. How did each person feel? Listen and check (✓) the correct answer.

	Surprised	Disappointed	Amused
1.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

### 3/ Complete the following script (10 pts)

I had to \_\_\_\_\_ late \_\_\_\_\_ night. When I \_\_\_\_\_ the \_\_\_\_\_ to go home, I \_\_\_\_\_ the \_\_\_\_\_ and the doors \_\_\_\_\_ But the \_\_\_\_\_ didn't move! I \_\_\_\_\_ all the buttons, but nothing happened. I was \_\_\_\_\_.

# Appendix N°03

## Post-Test

Unit 18

Post-Test

Name: \_\_\_\_\_

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

Total Score  10

### 1. Let's Listen

Mr. and Mrs. Washington are talking about their vacation plans. Will they visit these places? Listen and check (✓) the correct answer.

	Yes	No
1. Tokyo	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Kyoto	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Hiroshima	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Osaka	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Kobe	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

3

### 2. Let's Listen

People are talking about vacations they want to take. What does each person want to do? Listen and circle the correct answer.

- see the ballet
  - go to the opera
  - go dancing
- eat French food
  - go to the opera
  - visit art museums
- lie to the sun
  - listen to music
  - go swimming
- go camping
  - get a suntan
  - go white-water rafting
- see where Elvis lived
  - go to clubs
  - go to restaurants

5

### 3/ Complete the following script (10 pts)

I \_\_\_\_\_ love \_\_\_\_\_, and one of the best \_\_\_\_\_ in the  
\_\_\_\_\_ is in \_\_\_\_\_, Russia. Of course, Russia also  
has \_\_\_\_\_ and \_\_\_\_\_, but what I really  
\_\_\_\_\_ to see is the \_\_\_\_\_.

## Appendix N° 04

### Think-Aloud Test

Unit 13 Test

Name: \_\_\_\_\_

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

total score

#### 1. Let's Listen

Hannah is listening to messages on her voicemail. Why is each person calling? Listen and circle the correct answer.

1. a. to remind her about a dental appointment  
b. to cancel a dental appointment  
c. to remind her about a business meeting
2. a. to tell her about a restaurant  
b. to invite her to a movie  
c. to cancel a date
3. a. to tell her the book has not arrived  
b. to tell her the book has arrived  
c. to tell her the book can't be ordered
4. a. to copy her homework  
b. to chat with her about friends  
c. to ask for help with her homework
5. a. to say she won't be in class tomorrow  
b. to change the date they'll play tennis  
c. to tell her that the car is fixed

#### 2. Let's Listen

Listen to the message. Complete the information.

Message for: \_\_\_\_\_  
Name of caller: \_\_\_\_\_  
Telephone number: \_\_\_\_\_  
Best time to call: *between* \_\_\_\_\_ *and* \_\_\_\_\_

**Appendix N° 05**

**Listening Diary**

**(Reflection on a selected listening event)**

NAME :

DATE :

(This sample of listening diary is adopted from Vandergrift and Goh (2012: 149))

1/ What was the listening event?

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2/ Did you understand what you heard?

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3/ What did you do to help your understanding?

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-----  
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4/ Are you pleased with the results?

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-----  
-----

5/ Would you do things differently next time?

-----  
-----  
-----

THANK YOU IN ADVANCE FOR YOUR COOPERATION.

LISTENING DIARY

(Reflection on a selected listening event)

NAME :

DATE : 27/10/2011

1/ What was the listening event?

It was about two friends one of them is addicted to work so he want to help to help the other rather than standing useless but the other told him to relax and enjoy his time because in couple of days

2/ Did you understand what you heard?

he will work too much, not really, because I didn't heard well and they were speaking too fast let's just say I'm beginner so I'll get use to it.

3/ What did you do to help your understanding?

by concentrating more and repeating and trying to remember what I heard.

4/ Are you pleased with the results?

no, I'm not, because I didn't catch the listening from the beginning.

5/ Would you do things differently next time?

yes, I would, by being careful at listening.

THANK YOU IN ADVANCE FOR YOUR COOPERATION.

## Appendix N° 06

### Listening Diary

#### (Self-evaluation of skills learnt from listening lessons)

NAME :

DATE :

(This sample of listening diary is adopted from Vandergrift and Goh (2012: 149))

1/ List the listening skills you have been developing during the last week. (e.g; listening for details in description, inferring speaker attitude from tone...)

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2/ How well do you think you have learnt from each of these skills?

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THANK YOU IN ADVANCE FOR YOUR COOPERATION.

Appendix 06/bis

LISTENING DIARY

(Self-evaluation of skills learnt from listening lessons)

NAME: *[Redacted]*

DATE: 26.05.14

1/ List the listening skills you have been developing during the last week: (e.g. listening for details in description, inferring speaker attitude from tone...)

During the year, I've been developping my listening skills and trying to make them better than before. For example when I used to listen to a conversation or a task I didn't know what to focus on, but now I do. I try all the time to concentrate more on the main ideas and developpe them with my self to get what was it about. Also I try to infer speaker attitude to have the theme and then I try to confirm my answers while correction.

Direct attention

Evaluation

2/ How well do you think you have learnt from each of these skills?

The listening skills that we have learnt all the year developed my listening and speaking a lot, the conversations were too fast at first, but then it became a lot understood because I get used to it, so they became a lot easier than before, also my teacher helped me a lot, every time she explains everything in details so that we understand. to conclude it's been a good year, we have developped a lot in our listening skills.

THANK YOU IN ADVANCE FOR YOUR COOPERATION.

**Appendix N° 07**

**Listening Diary**

**(Think-aloud immediately after a lesson)**

NAME :

DATE :

(This sample of listening diary is adopted from Vandergrift and Goh (2012: 149))

1/ What strategies did you use during the listening tasks?

-----  
-----  
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2/ What made listening difficult or easy for you?

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-----  
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3/ How do you feel about the class today?

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-----  
-----

4/ Why do you feel this way?

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-----  
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THANK YOU IN ADVANCE FOR YOUR COOPERATION.

LISTENING DIARY

(Think-aloud immediately after a lesson)

NAME: \_\_\_\_\_

DATE: 19/05/2014

1/ What strategies did you use during the listening tasks?

I used three strategies: listening first to have an idea about the conversation, then ~~to~~ re-listen to it, to fill the blank, then listen again to confirm the information.

2/ What made listening difficult or easy for you?

The first listening is always somehow difficult, but what really makes it difficult is speaking fast and the language of native speaker. There is also, words I don't know, and it's sometimes an obstacle.

3/ How do you feel about the class today?

The class today was pleasant, I really liked it, because I got an opportunity to explain what I think about the conversation while in other days I can't say loudly what I think in the presence of my classmates.

4/ Why do you feel this way?

because there is a difference between being influenced by other's opinion and have my own one.  
Between bracket, I prefer the private listening.

---

THANK YOU IN ADVANCE FOR YOUR COOPERATION.

## **Appendix N° 08**

### **Guide for Listening**

NAME :

DATE :

(This sample of a Metacognitive Pedagogical Sequence is adopted from Vandergrift and Goh (2012: 113))

A/ Write down 5 main ideas that you think will be mentioned in the text:

- 1-
- 2-
- 3-
- 4-
- 5-

B/ Discuss your predictions with a partner and then write down at least two more ideas that your partner included in his/her list of predictions and that you consider logical possibilities:

- 6-
- 7-

C/ Listen to the text. Place a check mark beside the ideas that you (A) and your partner (B) predicted and that were in fact mentioned in the text, and write down any other ideas that you had not predicted but were mentioned:

- 8-
- 9-
- 10-

D/ After verifying your predictions and discussing your listening results with your partner, listen to the text again to check your results and to resolve any discrepancies in comprehension between you and your partner. Add any further points and important details that you may not have understood during the first listening:

- 1-
- 2-
- 3-
- 4-
- 5-

E/ Listen to the text a third time to verify comprehension after a class discussion of the content of the text or a reading of the text transcript.

## Reflection and goal setting

1/ I was successful in anticipating ideas:

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2/ What surprised me:

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What I will do next time:

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## Appendix N° 09 Questionnaire

### Part A: Student Background

1. Student ID: \_\_\_\_\_ 4. Year of Birth: \_\_\_\_\_  
 2. Group: \_\_\_\_\_ 5. Purpose for Learning English: \_\_\_\_\_  
 3. Level: \_\_\_\_\_ 6. How Long Have You Been Learning English: \_\_\_\_\_

### Part B: Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ)

(Adopted from Vandergrift et al, 2006: 462)

The statements below describe some strategies for listening comprehension and how you feel about listening in the language you are learning. Do you agree with them? This is not a test, so there are no “right” or “wrong” answers. By responding to these statements, you can help yourself and your teacher understand your progress in learning to listen. Please, indicate your opinion after each statement. Circle the number which best shows your level of agreement with the statement.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Partly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Before I start to listen, I have a plan in my head for how I am going to listen.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. I focus harder on the text when I have trouble understanding.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. I find that listening is more difficult than reading, speaking or writing in English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. I translate in my head as I listen.	1		3	4	5	6
5. I use the words I understand to guess the meaning of the words I don't understand.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. When my mind wanders, I recover my concentration right away.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. As I listen, I compare what I understand with what I know about the topic.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. I feel that listening comprehension in English is a challenge for me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. I use my experience and knowledge to help me understand.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. Before listening, I think of similar texts that I may have listened to.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. I translate key words as I listen.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. I try to get back on track when I lose concentration.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. As I listen, I quickly adjust my interpretation if I realize that it is not correct.		2	3	4	5	6
14. After listening, I think back to how I listened, and about what I might do differently next time.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. I don't feel nervous when I listen to English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. When I have difficulty understanding what I hear, I give up and stop listening.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. I use the general idea of the text to help me guess the meaning of the words that I don't understand.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. I translate word by word, as I listen.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. When I guess the meaning of a word, I think back to everything else that I have heard, to see if my guess makes sense	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. As I listen, I periodically ask myself if I am satisfied with my level of comprehension.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21. I have a goal in mind as I listen.	1		3	4	5	6

**Appendix N° 10**  
**A Sample Interview**  
**(Before Instruction Phase)**

**T: Did you understand the whole listening extract?**

**S:** Yes, but not everything.

**T: What made listening difficult or easy for you?**

**S:** There are some words which I can't understand it and the speakers spoke very quickly.

**T: What strategies did you make use of?**

**S:** I tried to understand the main idea of the conversation and focus on the key words.

**T: And are you pleased with the results?**

**S:** No, I am not because when I can't understand something I will be nervous and can't concentrate on the rest of the conversation. So next time I will try to concentrate more, and I will be more patient and I will try to focus on the main important ideas.

## **Appendix N° 11**

### **A Sample Interview**

#### **(After Instruction Phase)**

**T: Was the listening extract easy or difficult for you?**

**S:** Yes, but I don't understand everything, just the meaning, um the general idea, because it's not clear and quickly.

**T: What strategies did you make use of? And did they help you understand the whole extract?**

**S:** Focus on the key words to get on the main idea; listening carefully; translate in my mind; figure out difficult words by the context.

**T: Do you think that your listening level developed with metacognitive strategy training received in the class?**

**S:** Ah... definitely, definitely yes because I'm getting the sense of the conversation easier and easier ...from one session to another, I'm improving my listening skill. I'm getting um... particularly in this conversation it was good.

**Appendix N° 12**

**Listening Instruction Stages and Related  
Metacognitive Strategies**

(This pedagogical cycle is adapted from Vandergrift and Tafaghodtary, 2010: 475)

<b>Pedagogical Stages</b>	<b>Metacognitive Processes</b>
<p><b>Pre listening: Planning/Predicting Stage</b></p> <p>1. After students have been informed of the topic and text type, they predict the types of information and possible words they may hear.</p>	<p>1. Planning and directed attention.</p>
<p><b>First Listening: First verifications stage</b></p> <p>2. Students verify their initial hypothesis, correct as required, and note additional information understood.</p> <p>3. Students compare what they have understood/written with peers, modify as required, establish what still needs resolution, and decide on the important details that still require special attention.</p>	<p>2. Selective attention, monitoring and evaluation.</p> <p>3. Monitoring, evaluation, planning, and selective attention.</p>
<p><b>Second listening: Second verification stage</b></p> <p>4. Students verify points of earlier disagreement, make corrections, and write down additional details they have understood.</p> <p>5. Class discussion, in which all class members contribute to the reconstruction of the text's main points and most pertinent details, is interspersed with reflections on how students arrive at the meaning of certain words or parts of the texts.</p>	<p>4. Selective attention, monitoring, evaluating, and problem solving.</p> <p>5. Monitoring, evaluating, and problem-solving.</p>
<p><b>Third listening: final verification stage</b></p> <p>6. Students listen specifically to the information revealed in the class discussion which they were not able to decipher earlier.</p>	<p>6. Selective attention, monitoring, and Problem-solving.</p>
<p><b>Reflection stage</b></p> <p>7. Based on the earlier discussion of strategies used to compensate for what was not understood, students write goals for the next listening activity.</p>	<p>7. Evaluation, planning.</p>

## Appendix N° 13

### Comparison of Texts

- Please read the following conversations by native speakers of English. The discourse markers have been highlighted in the original texts (Script A) whereas all the discourse markers are taken out in the deleted text (Script B). Try to compare the effects discourse markers have on the spoken exchange when they are present and when they are omitted.

(Here is an extract (taken from WILLIS, 2003,186) of a discussion between two people talking about their fear of heights).

Script A- Original text	Script B- Deleted text
<p>1. CB: I don't particularly like heights. <b>Erm</b>. Heights, <b>er</b>, at the top of a mountain, <b>or</b> a hill, where it's possible to fall. <b>Erm</b>, the top <b>of something like</b> a lighthouse <b>or something</b> I don't mind, <b>because</b> there's a barrier around you. <b>But</b> heights where you think you may be able to fall.</p> <p>2. BB: <b>Yeah</b>. <b>I was okay</b> until I had a rather nasty experience about <b>er</b>, height. Until then I was <b>okay</b>. I could go anywhere. But <b>er</b>, I was <b>er</b>, on a lighthouse <b>actually</b>. We were being taken round it. We went up all the stairs and to the light, <b>er</b>, room. <b>And</b> then the chap says 'Oh, come on. <b>Right</b>, we'll go out here.' I went through the door. <b>And</b> I was on this <b>very very</b> narrow little parapet ...</p> <p>3. CB: <b>Yeah</b>.</p> <p>4. BB: ... with a rail about – perhaps eighteen inches high ...</p> <p>5. CB: <b>Mm</b>.</p> <p>6. BB: ... <b>and</b> then a sheer drop of <b>about a hundred feet or something</b>. I was absolutely petrified. I've never been as scared like that before or since.</p> <p>7. CB: That's very frightening.</p> <p>8. BB: <b>And, you know</b>, I <b>sort of</b> edged round. I couldn't go back through the same door. I edged round and managed to find the other door. <b>And</b> that's it. Ever since then if I go up a ladder I'm scared stiff now. It really is, it's <b>er</b>, changed my whole life, <b>you know</b>. Absolutely frightening, that.</p>	<p>1. CB: I don't particularly like heights.. Heights, at the top of a mountain, a hill, where it's possible to fall. the top of a lighthouse I don't mind, there's a barrier around you. Heights where you think you may be able to fall.</p> <p>2. BB:. Until I had a rather nasty experience about height. I could go anywhere. But, I was on a lighthouse. We were being taken round it. We went up all the stairs and to the light, room. Then the chap says ' come on. We'll go out here.' I went through the door. I was on this very narrow little parapet ...</p> <p>4. BB: ... with a rail about – perhaps eighteen inches high ...</p> <p>6. BB: ... then a sheer drop. I was absolutely petrified. I've never been as scared like that before or since.</p> <p>7. CB: That's very frightening.</p> <p>8. BB: I edged round. I couldn't go back through the same door. I edged round and managed to find the other door. That's it. Ever since then if I go up a ladder I'm scared stiff now. It really is, it's changed my whole life. Absolutely frightening, that.</p>

(Here is a short extract (taken from WILLIS, 2003, 194) where two people are exchanging addresses).

Script A- Original text	Script B- Deleted text
<p><b>1</b> DF: <i>Okay</i>. Can you give me your address? <i>And</i> your phone number? <i>And</i> I'll get it down here.</p> <p><b>2</b> BG: Fifty-three ...</p> <p><b>3</b> DF: <i>Yeah</i>.</p> <p><b>4</b> BG: Cleveland Square.</p> <p><b>5</b> DF: <i>Cleveland Square</i>.</p> <p><b>6</b> BG: London west two.</p> <p><b>7</b> DF: Is that the postcode, or —?</p> <p><b>8</b> BG: <i>Yeah</i>.</p> <p><b>9</b> DF: Just west two?</p> <p><b>10</b> BG: <i>Yeah</i>.</p> <p><b>11</b> DF: <i>All right</i>. Have you got a phone number?</p> <p><b>12</b> BG: <i>Yes</i>, it's two six two</p> <p><b>13</b> DF: <i>Two six two</i>—</p> <p><b>14</b> BG: o six one nine.</p> <p><b>15</b> DF: <i>o six one nine</i>. <i>So</i> it's <i>er</i>, Bridget Green, fifty-three Cleveland Square, London, west two, two s- and the phone number two six two, o six one nine.</p> <p><b>16</b> BG: <i>That's right</i>.</p>	<p><b>1</b> DF: Can you give me your address? Your phone number? I'll get it down here.</p> <p><b>2</b> BG: Fifty-three ...</p> <p><b>4</b> BG: Cleveland Square.</p> <p><b>6</b> BG: London west two.</p> <p><b>7</b> DF: Is that the postcode, or —?</p> <p><b>9</b> DF: Just west two?</p> <p><b>11</b> DF: Have you got a phone number?</p> <p><b>12</b> BG: It's two six two</p> <p><b>14</b> BG: o six one nine.</p> <p><b>15</b> DF: It's Bridget Green, fifty-three Cleveland Square, London, west two, two s- and the phone number two six two, o six one nine.</p>

**Appendix N° 14**  
**Transcription Conventions**

<b>Transcription for Student Corpus and Interview</b>	<b>Explanation</b>
<b>Punctuation</b>	. a full stop indicates a complete intonation unit. , a comma indicates a continuing intonation unit. ? a question mark indicates a question.
<b>Speaker code</b>	<b>(S1), (S2), (S3), etc.</b>
<b>Unfinished word/single letter</b>	= B=tr=indiv=
<b>Unfinished sentence/repetition or false start</b>	=... Eg: = I don't =I didn't have time to do the work.
<b>Non-verbal feature</b>	(laughter) shows description of non verbal feature such as laughter.
<b>Code switching</b>	"....."

<b>CANCODE Transcription conventions</b>	<b>Explanations</b>
<b>Punctuation</b>	. a full stop indicates a complete intonation unit. , a comma indicates a continuing intonation unit. ? a question mark indicates a question.
<b>Speaker code</b>	<b>(1), (2), (3), etc.</b> (M) Indicates that the speaker's identity is unclear, but it is likely to be a male. (F) Indicates that the speaker's identity is unclear, but it is likely to be a female.
<b>Interrupted utterance</b>	+ marks an interrupted utterance Eg, (1) I would like + (2)right (1)+ to teach
<b>Unfinished word/single letter</b>	= B=tr=indiv=
<b>Unfinished sentence/repetition or false start</b>	<b>Eg. = do you = do you like this?</b>
<b>Guess</b>	<b>(H)...(H)</b> e.g (3) I think Poole (H) didn't that come in with (H) Bournemouth?
<b>Unintelligible</b>	<b>(G?)</b>
<b>Transcriber's comment</b>	<b>(E)...(E)</b> e.g. (E) Laughs (E)

## Appendix N° 15

### Listening Comprehension Strategy Inventory

Code	Strategy	Examples	
Pro. Solv	Problem Solving	Diary	“There are words I couldn’t understand, so I guessed the meaning from the context”.
		Protocol	“it was the word “Insurance”, I don’t know this word, but um, I try to guess it”
Pl	Planning	Diary	“Next time I’m going to focus more and more, and to listen to every single word carefully...”
		Protocol	“I read the instructions first, then I listen so that it will be easy for me”
Eva	Evaluation	Diary	“I am not pleased, I will try to find another way to understand more and to facilitate listening”.
		Protocol	“It’s ok. Now I got all the telephone number...I complete the task, umm I don’t need another listening”.
M. Tr	Mental translation	Diary	“...when I listen my mind translates the information word by word ...”
		Protocol	“ from Mary to Bill... Marie appelle Bill”
Prs. Knowlg	Personal Knowledge	Diary	“...With my knowledge and my experience I guess the meaning of these words...”
		Protocol	“I’m thinking about the message, because there is a time to call and you leave a message to someone and you leave your name and your phone number...”
Dir. Attn	Directed attention	Diary	“...I just tried to focus on what I heard and concentrate”.
		Protocol	“complete the information,..we have information to complete...”
Select. Attn	Selective Attention	Diary	“...I tried to concentrate on the most important key words which can lead me to the perfect understanding”.
		Protocol	“I’ve to focus on...message for, name of the caller, telephone number and best time to call...”
Self. Manage	Self management	Diary	“Before listening, I personally prepare my mind to receive new information which I’m not going to see...so it’s a little harder than reading”
		Protocol	“I need to concentrate and focus and jot down the maximum of ideas even key words which might lead me to the perfect understanding and therefore make my listening class useful”
Self. Monit	Self Monitoring	Diary	“ I verified the answers, I’m sure they’re ok”
		Protocol	“now that I confirmed the phone number, I’m going to write it on the answer sheet ...”
Comp. Monitor	Comprehension Monitoring	Diary	“I haven’t understood the conversation. I just heard some words”.
		Protocol	“She gives information...um, it was too fast...I’ll make another listening”.

## Appendix N° 16

### Sample of a Student's Think-aloud

- Researcher's comment:** The informant reads the instructions.
- The informant:** "Listen to the message, complete the information". So, I am going to listen and then, complete.
- Researcher's comment:** She continues reading the instruction of the task.
- The informant:** "- the message for:.....
- The name of the caller:.....
- The telephone number:.....
- The best time to call:....."
- "These are probably the information that she is going to give in the track. So, I am going to listen".
- Researcher's comment:** First listening. The informant listened to the whole track without stopping it.
- The informant:** "I missed half the information, so I am"
- Researcher's comment:** What did you miss?
- The informant:** "Her name and why she is calling him".
- Researcher's comment:** What are you going to do?
- The informant:** "I'm going to catch up by focusing more on what I missed".
- Researcher's comment:** The informant listens to the track as whole a second time.
- The informant:** "Umm, I got all the information I need. So, I'm gonna, I don't know, check, one more time, just to confirm".
- Researcher's comment:** The informant listens to the track as whole a third time.
- The informant:** "I got the whole of them".
- Researcher's comment:** She starts completing the task
- The informant:** -" Message sent to: *Bill*
- Her name is: *Mary*.
- From the insurance company. It does not matter because they asked for the name.
- The telephone number: *6549309*
- The best time to call: *5 and 6 in the evening*".
- The informant:** "Umm, I think it's Ok".
- Researcher's comment:** Thank you.

## Appendix N° 17

### Pre-Test Transcript

3.  
 A: Do you have time to join me for lunch after the meeting?  
 B: Sure. Where do you want to go?  
 A: How about that new pizza place?  
 B: Sorry, but I can't eat pizza. I'm on a diet. But I know a great salad bar—why don't we go there?
4.  
 A: Hey, that's a great bicycle.  
 B: Thanks. I ride it all the time.  
 A: Really? I bicycle all the time, too. It's really a cheap and convenient way to get around.  
 B: Yes, it is, and it's a great way to exercise, too.
5.  
 A: I'm thinking about getting a puppy. What do you think?  
 B: A dog? I don't know. You have to take them out for walks a lot. I'd rather have a cat.
- 2. Let's Listen**
1.  
 A: So how was your interview at Burger City?  
 B: Well, they wanted to hire me, but I decided I don't want to work in a fast food restaurant. The pay is too low.
2.  
 A: Nice place, Rita.  
 B: Thanks, but I miss my old place.  
 A: Why? This one is so much bigger and it's in a cool neighborhood.  
 B: Yeah, but the rent is much higher.
3.  
 A: Hi, Jim. I've never seen you here before.  
 B: Well, I usually go jogging, but I hurt my back. So now I can only swim.
4.  
 A: Hey, Peter. Is that new?  
 B: Yeah, isn't it great? It's got four-wheel drive, leather seats—and look at this, a video screen in the back seat.  
 A: It looks really fun to drive, too.
5.  
 A: Have you been to Smith's recently?  
 B: No. The new cashiers aren't very nice. And they stopped selling the kind of apples I like.

Tapescript

#### Unit 16 Test

##### 1. Let's Listen

1.  
 B: This is Sally. You know that book I borrowed from you last week? Well, my dog chewed it up. I'm really sorry. In fact, I'm at the bookstore right now buying you another one.
2.  
 Hi, this is Tim calling. Guess what! I'm a father! We just had a baby girl! Her name is Elizabeth Isadora, and she and Lesley are doing just fine.

3.  
 This is John Blackmore from City College. We are pleased to inform you that you have been accepted into the graduate program. Congratulations!

4.  
 Hi, this is Kathy. I know you have plans this evening, but my car broke down on the highway and I need a ride. Could you call me on my cell phone when you get in? Thanks. I'm so, so, sorry to ruin your plans.

5.  
 It's Frank. I'm at the movie theater. Where are you? I've been waiting for you at the ticket booth for 45 minutes. If you don't show up soon, I'm going home!

##### 2. Let's Listen

1.  
 A: Hello, Fresh Foods, may I help you?  
 B: Yes, may I speak to Bess Carter, please?  
 A: I'm sorry, she's at lunch now. May I take a message?  
 B: Yes, this is Susan calling from Healthy Planet.  
 A: That's Susan, S-U-S-A-N?  
 B: That's right. Could you tell her that her order has arrived?  
 A: Okay. And may I have your phone number?  
 B: Sure. It's 439-2541.  
 A: 439-2541. Okay. I'll give Bess the message.  
 B: Thanks.
2.  
 A: Good evening, Bluebird Restaurant. May I help you?  
 B: Yes, may I speak to the chef, please?  
 A: I'm sorry, Chef Michael is cooking right now. Could I take a message?

B: Yes, this is Mrs. Smith from Smith Bank. I ate at the restaurant last night and—

A: Slow down, slow down. That's Mrs. Smith, S-M-I-T-H? From Smith Bank, S-M-I-T-H?

B: Yes, S-M-I-T-H. Now as I was saying, I ate at the restaurant last night, and I've been sick all day. Could you please have the chef call me back immediately?

A: Okay, what's your number?

B: 498-3947. Did you get that? It's 498-3947.

A: Yes, I got it. I'll give the chef your message.

#### Unit 17 Test

##### 1. Let's Listen

Last weekend, my friend and I ate dinner at this great new Italian restaurant downtown. The problem was, when the bill came, my friend didn't have enough money to pay for her meal. She asked me if she could borrow some money. That's when I realized that my wallet was missing! I guess I left it at home. So I called my mother on my cell phone and asked her to bring my wallet to the restaurant. While we were waiting for my mother, the waiter asked us to pay the bill. I didn't want him to know we didn't have enough money, so I ordered more food. Finally, my mother arrived with my wallet and we paid the bill. After all that food, the bill was really high!

##### 2. Let's Listen

1.  
 I had to work late last night. When I got in the elevator to go home, I pressed the button and the doors closed, but the elevator didn't move! I pushed all the buttons, but nothing happened. I was trapped!

2.  
 I exercise at the gym every morning before work. One day, I was so tired that I forgot to change clothes before I went to the office. So I was still wearing my shorts and T-shirt from the gym! Everyone was laughing at me.

Tapescript

## Appendix N° 18 Post-Test Transcript

1. I had been practicing for months in Boston Marathon, this year. Not on the night before the race. I fell while I was taking out the garbage and hurt my ankle. It was really painful, so I wasn't able to run in the race.

4. This beautiful woman asked me to have dinner with her last Friday. I was so excited! The problem was, I forgot the name of the restaurant. When I finally found the right place, I was about an hour late. I felt so stupid!

5. I had really been looking forward to spending a quiet weekend in the country, but at the last minute, my boss asked me to work on an important project. I had to stay in the office and work the whole weekend.

### Unit 18 Test

#### 1. Let's Listen

- A: This year, we're going to Japan on our vacation.  
 B: Yes, we're going to see the major cities on the big island of Honshu.  
 A: Our plane flies into Tokyo and  
 B: We'll stay there for five days.  
 A: Then we take the bullet train to Kyoto, the ancient capital of Japan. We'll be there four days.  
 B: After that, we get on the bullet train again and go down to Hiroshima. We won't go to Osaka this time.  
 A: And we won't get to see Kobe either. It's too bad. That's where all that fantastic Kobe beef comes from.

#### 2. Let's Listen

1. I just love ballet, and one of the best ballets in the world is in St. Petersburg, Russia. Of course, Russia also has terrific theater and opera, but what I really want to see is the ballet.  
 2. I go to Paris every year—for the food. Of course, there are also a million art museums and a great opera house there, but I just go there to eat.

I love Latin music, especially Brazilian music. So this year I'm going to Brazil. Everyone thinks I'm just going to be in the sun, but I plan to spend all my time going to clubs and listening to music.

4. I'm going to the Grand Canyon this summer because I've always wanted to go white-water rafting. There are other things to do there, like hiking and camping, but all I'm interested in is rafting.

5. I'm really into Elvis Presley, that famous American singer. I'm going to visit Graceland, his home in Memphis, Tennessee. There are great clubs and restaurants in Memphis, but I don't care about that. I just want to see where Elvis lived.

### Unit 19 Test

#### 1. Let's Listen

1. Today "Old" Bob Myers raced against 300 younger bicycle racers, winning the New Jersey bicycle marathon for his third time. This man is 78 years old. He really is an amazing athlete.  
 2. Martha Tudor, the richest woman in the world, was caught this morning stealing a banana from her local supermarket. She told reporters that it's not true. She said she was only borrowing it.  
 3. Hi, I'm Will Potter, your weatherman. Today will be cloudy and rainy. Tomorrow's weather will be cloudier and more rainy. And the day after tomorrow, the weather will be the cloudiest and the most rainy!  
 4. Abu Dadi was elected president of the tiny nation of Bula Bula last night. While he was celebrating, he broke his foot. His private doctor said he won't be able to walk for six weeks. Luckily, his foot will get better.  
 5. The popular singer Mandy Spears played her new song called "I Love Money" at last night's performance at Meadowlands Stadium. Over 50,000 fans attended the concert.

Hello, everyone, and welcome to *Sugar Hollywood*, where we tell you everything about the love lives of the stars.

Lazy Freddy, the lead singer of Frog Express, said that he is not dating the actress Naomi Cox. He says he's just too busy to date anyone right now. Lazy Freddy posted several romantic messages about Naomi on his band's website after he met her at a concert in Seattle. He says, "She's really cool and I love her movies. Maybe I'll date her in the future, but not right now." Naomi says she thinks Lazy Freddy is cute, and she's waiting for him to call!

### Unit 20 Test

#### 1. Let's Listen

1.  
 A: I think kids have too much homework. In fact, I think students shouldn't have any homework at all.  
 B: None at all?  
 A: Yes, then they can do more interesting things after school.  
 2.  
 A: Did you hear about the garden that the junior high students are working on?  
 B: No, what are they growing?  
 A: They're planting vegetables. I think it's important for all kids to plant vegetable gardens at school.  
 B: Why is that?  
 A: Because they should learn where their food comes from.  
 3.  
 A: Kids have so many tests these days. There are entrance examinations for college, high school, even junior high school. It's too much.  
 B: Yeah. And those tests can be really unfair, too.  
 A: I agree. Some people are naturally good at taking tests, and others aren't.  
 4.  
 A: So many high school kids have part-time jobs after school. I think that's a real problem.  
 B: Oh, I don't know. I think part-time jobs are good. They teach students about the real world.

Tapescript

## Appendix N° 19

### Think-Aloud Test Transcript

Even the other really small tight spaces really troubled me.

#### Unit 18 Test

##### 1. Let's Listen

1. Hi, Hannah. This is Sandra at Dr. Kelly's office. We're calling to remind you about your dental appointment on Wednesday at 3:45. Please call us back at 883-5493 before 5:00 to let us know if you can still make the appointment.
2. Hi, Hannah. It's Jeff calling. There's a new science fiction movie playing at Cimplex 18 this weekend. I was wondering if you'd like to go with me. We could go out for dinner afterwards. Give me a call back at 572-3986.
3. Hello. I'm calling for Hannah. This is Computer Bookstore. The book you ordered has arrived. Please call me back at 441-9924.
4. Hey, Hannah. This is Kate calling. I need some help with the English homework. I can't think of anything to write. Can you call me back tonight? I really need your help. I'm sure you know my number, but, just in case, it's 385-2118.
5. Hi, Hannah. It's Cheri. Too bad I missed you in class today. I can't play tennis with you tomorrow because my car is being fixed and it won't be ready for another three days. Call me at 729-3579 so we can set another date. Next week is good for me. Bye.

##### 2. Let's Listen

Hello. This is Mary from Country Farm Insurance, leaving a message for Bill. I have the price for your car insurance. Give me a call at 654-9389 between 5:00 and 6:00 this evening. Again, that's 654-9389.

#### Unit 19 Test

##### 1. Let's Listen

Today's bus tour will take us all over this great city. First, we'll go to the art museum, which has an impressive collection of modern paintings. Before we leave, you'll have a chance to buy some postcards and art books at the gift shop. Then we'll take an elevator

to the top of the city's tallest building. You'll have an amazing view of the entire city. Be sure to bring your cameras. Afterwards, we'll have a light lunch at a restaurant near the river. The tour will end at the city mall, which is full of wonderful stores and little cafes. I highly recommend buying pottery and jewelry there. It is some of the finest in the world.

##### 2. Let's Listen

- A: What did you do today?  
B: We took a wonderful tour of the city this morning. We visited a lot of different places—the city zoo, the waterfront, and a small history museum. I'm really tired now, but I'm glad I went. All the places we visited were interesting.  
A: Wow. That's quite a tour! Was it expensive?  
B: No, it wasn't.  
A: Did you eat on the trip?  
B: Yes, we did. Actually, the food was the only thing I really didn't like. I wanted to go to a restaurant to try local food, but they took us to a fast-food restaurant.  
A: That's too bad. Was the tour guide helpful?  
B: Yes, very. She told us about some great places to buy souvenirs and gave us really interesting historical information about all the places we visited.

#### Unit 20 Test

##### 1. Let's Listen

1. Excuse me, do you know where I can buy some magazines?
2. Can you tell me where I can pick up my suitcases?
3. Excuse me. Where can I meet someone who is arriving on flight 66?
4. I need some help. Can you tell me where I can change some money?
5. I'm in the wrong terminal. How do I get to the International Terminal?

##### 2. Let's Listen

Our new airport just opened and it's really wonderful. It's very close to town, which is great. It's about a 15-minute taxi ride. Or, if you're staying

in a hotel, you can take a taxi to the bus. The building is very modern, with lots of glass everywhere. It is very exciting just to stand inside the huge building and watch airplanes take off and touch down all around you. And they have lots of cafes and restaurants and bookstores. And restrooms, too. You never have to wait in line to use the restroom. Check-in still takes a while. I guess it does everywhere. You do have to stand in line and wait for them to check your bags and look at your boarding pass. There are never enough people working at the check-in counters. And parking is still a problem. There aren't enough spaces, and it's very expensive. It's better to just take a taxi or a bus to the airport and leave your car at home.

#### Unit 21 Test

##### 1. Let's Listen

1. A: Hi, my name is Sue Thompson. I'd like to check in.  
B: Thompson... Yes, here's your reservation. You paid for the room in advance, right?  
A: Yes, I paid for it last week when I made the reservation. Do you need to see my credit card?  
B: No, that's fine. Could you just fill out this registration form for me?  
A: Sure.
2. A: Hi, my name is Phil Mason. I'd like to check in.  
B: Just a minute, please. Ah, yes, you're with the computer conference, aren't you?  
A: Yes, I am.  
B: Could you show me your company ID, please?  
A: Sure. Here it is.
3. A: Hi, I'd like a room, please.  
B: Do you have a reservation?  
A: No, I don't. Is that a problem?  
B: No, not at all. Can I have your name, please?  
A: Yes, it's Mark McLean.  
B: Can you spell your last name for me?  
A: It's capital M-C capital L-E-A-N.  
B: Okay. Wait a moment while I find a room for you.

Tapescript

## ملخص

تعنى هذه الدراسة بفحص مدى تأثير المعالجة بإستراتيجيات ما وراء الإدراك على نتائج الطلبة في مهارة الإصغاء من خلال التركيز على تلقينهم خمس (5) استراتيجيات لاسيما حلّ المشكلة، التخطيط و التقويم، الترجمة، الاعتماد على المعلومات الشخصيّة والتركيز. في هذا الصّدد، أجريت دراسة حالة مطوّلة تبنت منظومة مزدوجة. وقد شمل البحث مائة (100) من المخبرين ينتمون على التوالي إلى المستويات الأولى والثانية LMD يتخصّصون في تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية بقسم اللغة الإنجليزية التابع لجامعة الجزائر 2. دامت هذه الدراسة التي أنجزت خلال العامين الدراسيين 2012-2013 و 2013-2014 حوالي ثمانية عشر (18) شهرا تم خلالهما تطبيق اثنين و عشرين (22) حصة معالجة إستخدم فيها نموذج التعليم الخاص بفاندرغريفت Vandergrift. مع العلم أن الوقت المخصص لكل حصة هو تسعون (90) دقيقة. إلى جانب ذلك، قامت الباحثة باستخدام العديد من التقنيات لرصد المعلومات تتمثل في إختبارين كتابيين (إختبار أولي وإختبار ما بعد المعالجة) والمقابلات بأثر رجعي وبروتوكولات التفكير بصوت عال وإستبيان (يضمّ قسمين: خلفية الإستبيان وكذلك إستبيان الوعي الفكري عند الإصغاء) بالإضافة إلى يوميات المتعلّمين. ولقد أسفرت هذه الدراسة إلى تحقيق نتائج إيجابية فيما يتعلق بزيادة الوعي بشأن إستراتيجية ما وراء الإدراك. إذ ثبت أنّ الاستخدام الفعّال لهذه الإستراتيجيات من شأنه المساعدة على زيادة الوعي لدى الطّلاب من حيث تعزيز الدّوافع والثقة بالنّفس والاستقلالية.

**الكلمات المفتاحية:** ما وراء الإدراك، إستراتيجيات ما وراء الإدراك، المعالجة بإستراتيجيات ما وراء الإدراك، مهارة الإصغاء.