Improving Receptive Skills of English through Cognitive and Meta-Cognitive Methods:

A Case Study of Students Universities at Three Universities and College at Khartoum State, Sudan (2017)

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Date: 8/ 2018
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Date of Examination 17/8/2018
Dedication

To members of my family

particularly my parents

and everybody who has helped to make this thesis see the light
Acknowledgments

First of all I would like to express my thanks and gratitude to my supervisors, Dr. Alsadig Yahiya and Dr. Abdulgadir who provided me with good advice and fruitful assistance as well maximum help. Their contribution and guidance have played an essential role in this study. My thanks are also due to those who have given me a lot of help and encouragement that have enabled me to complete this study. I also extend my thanks and gratitude to my colleague Abu Baker Bello who made the statistical analysis. Above all, I express my infinite thanks to Allah and to everybody who advises and helps.
Improving Receptive Skills of English through Cognitive and Meta-Cognitive Methods:

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Elhadi Mohamed IsehagAbdurRahman

Abstract

The receptive skills that is to say Listening and reading are of great importance in this age which is rightly described as the information age. These two receptive skills are necessary for communication between people. This study aim at identifies the importance of cognitive and meta-cognitive strategy in developing the receptive skills, identifies the effectiveness of learning strategy in improve performance of students’ skills, identifies the essential influence of cognitive and meta-cognitive theory in raising the standard of the students concerning listening and reading, help teachers of the English language to choose the effective method of teaching listening and reading, allow teachers of English to follow the modern techniques of teaching receptive skills, identifies self-regulation and self-instruction in teaching skills, develop students’ cognitive and meta-cognitive skills throughout a strategy training program. The study adopted the descriptive analytic method. The data for the study were collected by means of test which was distributed to (100) in Universities at Elneelin, Sudan for Science and Technology, Omdurman Islamic students. The collected data were analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences(SPSS). As result of the analysis: The government should and encourage researchers to do more studies into the field of receptive skills so as to tackle the problems encounter teachers and students, students encounter many problems in reading and listening and this is due to the lack and shortage of trained teachers. Receptive skills should be taught by sophisticated teachers. Based on the results obtained, the study recommends: To improve receptive skills students should adopt cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies, receptive skills should be taught by trained teachers, modern learning strategies play an essential role in developing students receptive skills, Teachers should concentrate on self-instructional program while teaching receptive skills, strategy learning program should be adopted because it helps teachers to trained and qualify themselves so they can improve their standard of teaching by using modern strategies of teaching, students should follow self-regulation and self-instruction for developing their cognitive learning strategies, self-instructional should be conducted by sophisticated teachers, students should listen to English podcast on a topic that’s interesting to them but not on a topic of learning English.
تحسين مهارات القراءة والاستماع باستخدام نظرية المنهج المعرفي:
دراسة حالم طلاب جامعات النيلين، السودان للعلوم والتكنولوجيا، ام درمان الإسلامية، ولاية الخرطوم، السودان(2017)
الهادي محمد اسحاق عبدالرحمن

ملخص الدراسة

تعتبر مهارات السمع والقراءة من أهم المهارات لكل الأعمار وتوصف هذه المهارات المعلومات
لجميع الأشخاص تبرز أهمية مهارات السمع والقراءة في التواصل بين مختلف الأشخاص وربطهم مع
بعضهم البعض. تهدف هذه الدراسة الى اهمية استراتيجيات المنهج المعرفي في تطوير
المهارات، التعرف على تأثير فاعلية تعلم استراتيجيات تحسين اداء مهارات طلاب اللغة الإنجليزية، وضع
أساسيات تأثير نظريات الأدراك والمنهج المعرفي لوضع معايير فعاله تتعلق بطلاء اللغة الإنجليزية في
مهارتي السمع والقراءة، ولان معلم اللغة الإنجليزية بقي عليه أن يتجاوز طريق التدريس
الحديث في تدريس مهارات الاستماع والقراءة لدي طلاب اللغة الإنجليزية، وكل معلم اللغة الإنجليزية يجب عليهم أن يتجاوز طريق التدريس
الحديث في تدريس مهارات الاستماع والقراءة لدى طلاب اللغة الإنجليزية، ولان معلم اللغة الإنجليزية
ابداع التكنولوجيا النفسية والإرشاد النفسي في تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية، يجب تطوير طلاء اللغة الإنجليزية في
مهارتي الأدراك والأدراك المعرفي من خلال وضع استراتيجيات وبرامج تدريب الطلاب على تلك
المهارات. اتبعت الدراسة المنهج التحليلي الوصفي. وتم جمع البيانات بواسطة اختبار و bagi (100) طالبا
من طلام اللغة الإنجليزية في جامعات النيلين والسودان للعلوم والتكنولوجيا، جامعه ام درمان الإسلامية. وتم
تحليل البيانات بواسطة برنامج الحزم الإحصائي للعلوم الاجتماعية (SPSS)، وتواصل التحليل الى العديد من
النتائج منها: انه يجب على الحكومة تشجيع الباحثين لعمل كثير من الدراسات التي تخص حقول مهارات
الاستماع والقراءة ومعالجة المشاكل التي تواجه المعلمين وطلاب اللغة الإنجليزية، ولان طلام اللغة
الإنجليزية يواجهون العديد من مشاكل القراءة والاستماع بسبب افتقار وقله تاهيل وتدريب المعلمين، ولان
يجب تعليم مهارات اللغة الإنجليزية من خلال تطوير مهارات اللغة الإنجليزية. بجانب هذه النتائج توصي
الدراسة بالآتي: ان تحسين مهارات القراءة والاستماع من خلال اختيار استراتيجيات الاسترداد والمجه
المعرفى، تعليم مهارتي اللغة الإنجليزية من خلال راهيل وتدريب المعلم الذي تشتمل الدراسة على التركيب
النفسي والإرشاد النفسي من خلال تدريسهم للمهارات، يجب تبني برنامج استراتيجيات التعليم لأنه يساعد على
تدريب المعلمين ووضع معايير للتدريس من خلال استخدام استراتيجيات الحديثة، ولان يجب على طلام
اللغة الإنجليزية اتباع الترتكب النفسية والإرشاد النفسي لتطوير منهجهم في ادراكهم المعرفي.
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CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

1.0 Background

The receptive skills that is to say Listening and reading are of great importance in this age which is rightly described as the information age. These two receptive skills are necessary for communication between people. As the great explosion and expansion of knowledge in all fields characterize this age, the need for understanding the meaning of the spoken and written words, analyzing them, guessing the meaning of unknown words, predicting outcomes, and making inferences, has been greatly emphasized by many writers and researchers in the field of education for the purpose of developing comprehension skills. Thus, students acquisition of these receptive skills will enable them to communicate easily.

Communication between people cannot take place without understanding the oral and written words presented to the listener or the reader. McDonough (1995) comments on problems that hinder comprehension of oral or written content of text saying that they could be due to linguistic and phonological more than any other factors. He suggest that one of the most effective strategies that students should adopt is cognitive and meta-cognitive strategy to overcome these problems.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

The main purpose of this study is to investigate the strategy-training program on developing governmental university students’ skills in using the cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies. The effectiveness of a self–instructional program emphasizing the use of cognitive and meta-cognitive learning strategies on developing students ‘listening and reading comprehension skills.

Receptive skills (i.e. Listening and reading) are very important for students to maintain. The majority of nowadays students do not know how to master reading and listening skills. To solve this problem, students must follow cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies. Cognitive learning strategies deal with target language directly. These strategies help learners to listen and read the input material directly in order to the general and specific idea of the passage. Strategies help learners to predict, make inferences and summarize. Students trained on the procedures of these
cognitive learning comprehends the listening and reading materials. To enhance and understand learning listening and reading materials, students should adopt cognitive and meta-cognitive method.

1.2 Objective of the Study

This study:

a. Identifies the importance of cognitive and meta-cognitive strategy in developing the receptive skills.

b. Identifies the effectiveness of learning strategy in improve performance of students’ skills.

c. Identifies the essential influence of cognitive and meta-cognitive theory in raising the standard of the students concerning listening and reading.

d. Help teachers of the English language to choose the effective method of teaching listening and reading.

e. Allow teachers of English to follow the modern techniques of teaching receptive skills.

f. Identifies self-regulation and self-instruction in teaching skills.

g. Develop students’ cognitive and meta-cognitive skills throughout a strategy training program.

1.3 Questions of the Study

To achieve the objectives of this study, the research has raised the following questions through which I try to find a solution to the problem.

a. How far would a strategy-learning program be effective in developing students ‘cognitive learning strategy’?

b. How far would a strategy-learning program be effective in developing students ‘meta-cognitive learning strategy’?

c. How far would a self-instructional program emphasizing the cognitive learning strategies be effective in developing students’ listening comprehension skills?

d. How far would a self-instructional program emphasizing the cognitive learning strategies be effective in developing students’ reading comprehension skills?

e. Is there any relationship between listening and reading?
1.4 Hypotheses of the Study

a. Students who receives a strategy –learning program would demonstrate greater gains in cognitive learning strategies than students who do not receive such training.

b. Students who receives a strategy –learning program would demonstrate greater gains in meta-cognitive learning strategies than students who do not receive such training.

c. Students who receive a self-instructional program based on the cognitive and meta-cognitive learning strategies for developing their listening skill, would demonstrate greater gains than students who do not receive such instructions.

d. Students who receive a self-instructional program based on the cognitive and meta-cognitive learning strategies for developing their reading skill, would demonstrate greater gains than students who do not receive such instructions.

e. A students who perform well in listening, perform well in reading.

1.5 Significance of the Study

The significance of the study lies in the fact that it develops students’ cognitive and meta-cognitive skills throughout a strategy training program. It develops students ‘skill in learning independently using the learning strategies appropriate for comprehending the listening and reading materials. Thus, it develops two of the basic foreign language skills, i.e., listening and reading comprehension skills.

The significance of this study also lies in the fact that it trains and develops students’ bottom-up as well as top-down strategies appropriate for developing listening and reading comprehension skills. It also develops students’ cognitive learning skills as of getting idea quickly, using resources such as guessing the meaning of the unknown words, making inferences, predicting next incidents, highlighting, taking notes and summarizing. It develops students ‘meta-cognitive skills like planning and self-evaluation.

Significance of the present study also extends to the benefits of the informed and trained on their new role; as the facilitators, helpers guides and consultants. These new roles help learners to take more responsibility of their learning and it helps them to learn independently. Textbook authors could design their text-books using the procedures of self-instruction together with materials and the different learning activities.
1.6 Methodology of the Study

The researcher is going to follow the quantitative and qualitative method. For gathering data the researcher will distribute a questionnaire to eighty English teachers from four governmental universities, make structural interview with eighty students from four governmental universities. In this study the method which is going to be followed is the descriptive one because it is the most suitable for this study, for analyzing the data (SPSS)Statistically package of social science will be followed.

1.7 Limitations of the Study

It is not possible for this study to target the entire university students in Sudan or even in Khartoum so that there was limited to the following:

1. A sample of twenty teachers male and female from each of the following governmental university; University of Khartoum, Omdurman Islamic University, Alnilein University and Bahri University. A questionnaire will be distributed randomly among teachers. An interview with twenty students from each of the above mentioned universities will be conducted.

2. A number of listening and reading comprehension skills that university students need to acquire to improve their skills reading comprehension are: skimming, scanning, guessing the meaning of the unfamiliar words, predicting next incidents, making inferences and summarizing.

3. The cognitive learning strategies is appropriate for developing the listening and reading comprehension skills; repeating, getting the ideas quickly or skimming and scanning, guessing the meaning of unfamiliar words, making inferences, predicting, highlighting and taking notes.

1.8 Definition of Terms

1. **Learning Strategies:** According to Oxford (1990) learning strategies are the steps that students use in their learning. They are the steps that help them to understand and enhance learning ;the listening and reading materials.
2. **Skills:** Students ability of performing specific tasks that should be accomplished in quick accurate and successful way.

3. **Cognitive Learning Strategies:** According to Oxford (1990). Cognitive learning strategies deal with the target language directly. Strategies that help learners to listen and read the input material directly in order to get the general and specific idea of the passage. Strategies help learners to predict, make inferences and summarizing. Students trained on the procedures of this cognitive learning comprehension the listening and reading materials. The word cognition is defined as (the act of knowing)cognitive skills therefore refer to those skills that make it possible for us to know. It should noticed that there is nothing that any human being knows, or can do, that has not learned. This of course excludes natural body functions, such as breathing, as well as reflexes for example the involuntary closing of human beings’ eyes when an object approaches it. But apart from that knows nothing, or cannot go anything that he has not learned therefore, all cognitive skills must be taught, of which the following cognitive skills are the most important:
   i. Concentration.
   ii. Perception.
   iii. Memory.
   iv. Logical thinking.
   v. Auditory is the effective for variety of learning difficulties.

4. **Meta-cognitive Learning Strategy:** Meta-cognitive literally means “big thinking”. You are thinking about thinking. During this process teachers work to guide students to become more strategic thinkers by helping them understand the way they are processing information questioning, visualizing and synthesizing are all ways that reader can examine their thinking process. Through scaffolding and reciprocal teaching, students are able to practice the skills that lead to these over acts becoming automatic. (2000, Pinnel and Fountas –Learn About Best Practice in Meta-cognitive Strategies)

   By practicing and applying meta-cognitive strategies, students will become good readers, capable of handling any text across curriculum. Because meta-cognitive strategies appear obvious, some teachers might believe that students in intermediate grades being in the school year cognizant of these strategies and experienced in process. Yet only using them. The truth is most students are aware of the meta-cognitive through” thinking about thinking “and using meta-
cognitive strategies do students truly learn. With that in mind, consider the following three main reason to teach meta-cognitive strategies:

1. To develop in student a deeper understanding of text.
2. To take student thinking to a higher level.
3. To steer student into adulthood (Fogarty 1004)
4. Receptive Skills: Learning and reading comprehension skills, Harmer (1990), mentioned that they are the skills that learners ‘employ when receiving the input; spoken or written materials. The reading comprehension skills are skimming, scanning, predicting next incidents, making inferences guessing the meaning of unfamiliar words and summarizing. The listening comprehension skills are getting the general and specific idea while listening, predicting next incidents and making inferences.
5. **Self-instruction**: Defining the field of learner learning of foreign language is much difficult by a lack of agreement between authors in terminology. Hence they follow a thumbnail guide to key terms within the field self-instruction as applied to foreign language learning has two different definitions, which may be called “broad and narrow” respectively. In the board sense (Dickinson, 1087.5), it describes alone, is working without the direct “situation in which a learner, with other or alone, is working without a direct control of a teacher “In the narrow sense (Jones, 1998, Cf Benson, 2001:131), It is “a deliberate long-term learning project instigated, planned and carried out by the learners alone, without teacher intervention”; unlike the board definition, this excludes autonomous activities or sessions within a taught course. To avoid potential confusion, an alternative term, has been suggested for narrow self-instruction. Self-study describes a mode of self-instruction when the learner relies on specialist language learning materials produced by others. These materials may take the form of:
   a. Teach-yourself-packages (also known as home study courses, etc.) sets of all-round materials, usually published, and typically containing a course book, tapes and CDs etc. (Jones 1993; Robers, 1995).
   b. Broadest course (Ryhak, 1993, Umino, 1998), which are presented via TV and radio, with course book as backup.
   c. Self-instructed learners, even in the narrow autodidactic sense, rarely wholly on their own. Part or all of their learning may be involved:
d. Using guidance from a language learning advisory counselor /helper.

e. Studying or practicing language with other learners (“Study buddies”Dickson,1987-102-103).

f. With of the foreign language (e.g. Carson and Longhini,2002).In tandem learning ,two native speakers of different languages help each other’s language (Lews.Et al 1996).

g. Also we have learner autonomy ,open learning and self-access learning as well as distance learning which are all considered as self- instruction.

6. **Self- regulation**: The ability of self-regulation has been viewed as a desirable quantity throughout history because of its positive effects on believer and the acquisition of skillg.9Reid,1993).The appeal of self-regulation as its positive effects on believer and educational outcomes has promoted much researchers in this area “Self-regulation refers to the self-directive process through which learner transform their abilities into task related skills”(Zimmerman 2001).This is the method or procedures that learners used to manage and organize their thoughts and convert them into continuously monitoring progress skills used for learning .Self- regulation is the process of towards goal, checking outcomes and redirecting unsuccessful efforts (Berk, 2003).In order for students to be self-regulated they need to be aware of n thought process ,and be motivated to actively participate in their own learning process(Zimmerman, 2001).

Self-regulation is desirable because of the effects that it has in educational and behavioral outcomes. The use of self –regulation techniques are away to actively engage otherwise passive students in their academic instruction. Students used to view learning as an activity that they do for themselves in a proactive manner, rather than viewing learning as a covert event that happens to them as a result of instruction(Zimmerman,2001). Allowing students to take more active role in their education puts students in the driver’s seat and in charge. Self-regulation techniques are widely used. Successful people and learners use self-regulation to effectively and efficiently accomplish a task. They regulate different strategies and monitor the effectiveness of that strategy while evaluating and determining the next course of action. Generally ,successful learners already utilize various forms of self- regulation. Instruction in the use of self-regulation is typically directed towards students who are not currently using such techniques ,and consequently are not successful in educational setting. Through the use of strategies and self-
regulation, performance can be greatly improved. The use self-techniques assists in performing tasks more effectively and independently.

For example, successful learners will constantly check their comprehension. When successful learners read a passage, and realize that they do not understand what they have read, they go back and read, and question or summarize what is that they need to understand. On the other hand, when student with learning disabilities reads a passage, and realize that they do not understand what they read, they tend to shut down, or just continue read because they do not recognize the goal of reading the passage.

Students with learning abilities rend to be passive learners, often failing to evaluate and monitor their own learning, in order to compensate they allow others to regulate their learning or rely on the assistance of others to successfully complete the task they lack these essential executive control which and necessary academic task independently.
CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

It is commonly accepted that schools, especially universities where the learner has to play a more active role taking responsibility for his own learning, must prepare independent, responsible citizens. The traditional aim of education, mere transmission of knowledge, is not adequate in the new millennium with its rapidly changing social and economic conditions.

Schools are no longer able to predict and then equip learners with the skills they will need throughout the rest of their professional lives. Instead, they need to provide students with a large repertoire of strategies to enable them know what to use when and for what learning task. What they need to do is acquisition and use of the most important of skills; learning how to learn skills.

In recent years, there has been a shift in focus from the teacher to the learner, from a focus on the improvement of teaching to a growing concern for how learners learn a second or foreign language. Chamot et. al (1999:175) reported that:

"another critical shift was from teaching strategies as a separate entity to integrating strategies into the language curriculum. Teachers also struggled with determining an appropriate scope and sequence of strategies to teach at various levels. This shift in focus is accompanied with a shift in both teacher and learner roles".

Oxford emphasizes that “teachers traditionally expect to be viewed as authority figures, identified with roles like parent, instructor, director, manager, judge, leader, evaluator, controller, and even doctor who must cure the ignorance of the students. New functions are facilitator, helper, guide, consultant, advisor, coordinator, idea person, diagnostician of students' problems, and communicator. New teaching capacities also include The effect of training in metacognitive language learning strategies identifying students
learning strategies, conducting training in learning strategies and helping learners become more independent”. Cited in Oxford (1990: 10).

This idea of learner autonomy is asserted by Widdowson (1996: 67) who asserts that the idea that has been prompted in English language teaching over recent years is that learners should be as autonomous as possible, and be allowed to make the language their own. This idea of autonomy gives primacy to the process of learn. Lofty (1995: 58) emphasizes that "supporting thinking habits enhances self-regulation and makes the learner more aware and more sensitive to feedback and evaluation of his/her performance”.

Dirkes (1981: 38) stresses that "individuals should understand their thinking habits and use them more effectively". Tama (1986: 32) states that the emphasis on promoting thinking skills in the classroom has taken three directions. Teachers, therefore, can benefit from an understanding of what makes learners successful or unsuccessful, and establish in the classroom a milieu for the realization of successful strategies (Brown, 2000: 94-95).

Many researchers emphasize the need for learning to learn skills and language learning strategies. Oxford and Crookall (1989: 415) think that the most constructive attitude resides in those researchers who really care about learners, who wish to understand and enhance the learning process, and who help to promote learning to learn skills. Oxford (1990: 201) asserts that learners need to learn how to learn, and teachers need to learn how to facilitate the process. Conscio us skill in self-directed learning and in strategy use must be sharpened through training. Strategy training is especially necessary in the area of second and foreign languages. Research shows that learners who receive strategy training generally learn better than those who do not. Unlike most other characteristics of the learner, learning strategies are readily teachable (Oxford and Nyikos, 1989: 291).

Oxford and Crookall (1989: 114) believe that "it is possible and generally advisable to teach learning strategies through completely informed training in which learners are taught how and why to use, transfer, and evaluate strategies".
Oxfordin the effect of training in metacognitive language learning strategies (1990: 202) thinks that awareness training is very important because it is often the individual’s introduction to the concept of learning strategies. Awareness of thought processes while learning is essential as suggested by research: the teaching of thinking, teaching for thinking, and teaching about thinking. In the first, thinking is regarded as a process of developing a set amount of skills. The second fosters thinking skills in the specific context of school curricula. In the third, students are encouraged to become more conscious of their own mental processes as they study or solve problems. Students learn how to predict the outcome of their performance, to plan ahead, to apportion time and cognitive resources, and to monitor and edit more efficiently their efforts to learn. This process is known as metacognition. The concept of metacognition is well-grounded in theory and research. Parisand Winograd (1990: 15) state that the metacognitive theory focuses in general on

(a) the role of awareness and executive management of one's thinking;
(b) individual differences in self-management of cognitive development and learning;
(c) knowledge and executive abilities that develop through experience; and
(d) constructive and strategic thinking.

Hacker (2002: 11) concludes that the promise of metacognitive theory is that it focuses precisely on those characteristics of thinking that can contribute to students' awareness and understanding of being self-regulatory. The effect of training in metacognitive language learning strategies organisms, that is, of being agents of their own thinking. Hacker (2002: 5)

"emphasizes the importance of metacognitive research as a way to gain greater understanding of humans not only as thinking organisms but also as self-regulatory organisms who are capable of assessing themselves as agents of their own thinking".

Our thinking is not happening just like a reflex, it is caused by the thinking person, it can be monitored and regulated, deliberately; i.e. it is under the control of the thinking person. Metacognitive strategies are useful in developing all the language skills (Oxford;
Many researchers highlighted the importance of metacognitive strategies and investigated the effect of training in metacognitive strategies on developing reading and listening comprehension. (Brown, et.al 1986). Abdelraheem (1993: 35) states that "metacognition plays a vital role in reading, for example, successful readers plan strategies, adjust efforts appropriately, and evaluate the success of their ongoing efforts to understand". Carrell (1989: 123) found that the students who think that they use the most productive strategies (i.e. perceived strategy use) actually read through context better and understand more than do those who do not think they use such strategies. She mentioned, in another context, some facilitating effects on ESL reading metacognitive strategy training (Carrell, 1992: 3). Vandergrift (2004: 3-4) explains that

"knowing the purpose for listening also greatly reduces the burden of comprehension since listeners know that they need to listen for something very specific, instead of trying to the effect of training in metacognitive language learning strategies understand every word. He shows that skilled listeners use more metacognitive strategies than their less-skilled counterparts"

The need for training in metacognitive language learning strategies has been asserted by many researchers such as Kendall and Mason et.al (1983); Kendall and Mason (1983: 41) identify approaches which teachers can use to improve children's metacognitive strategies as

1. providing instructions to predict outcomes that requires a reader's active involvement and constructive thinking;  
2. encouraging children to integrate their prior knowledge with story content; and  
3. training students to monitor their understanding by asking themselves questions as they read.

Kirby (1984: 98) revealed that poor readers were less aware of effective strategies and of the counterproductive effects of poor strategies, and were less effective in their monitoring activities during reading. Palincsar (1985: 29) suggests that "an effective reading instruction program requires the identification of complementary strategies that are modeled by an expert and acquired by the learner in a context reinforcing the usefulness of such strategies". Rinehart's view (1985: 340) suggests that adult and college readers who show evidence of
metacognitive deficiencies may be the most aware and capable of monitoring their mental processes while reading. Cohen (1986: 32) considers unskilled reading comprehension is one aspect to show the importance and need for training Unskilled readers can.

The effect of training in metacognitive language learning strategies become skilled readers and learners of whole text if they are given instruction in effective strategies and taught to monitor and check their comprehension while reading. With respect to this point, Al Melhi (2000: 2465A) found that some differences did exist between skilled and less skilled readers in terms of their actual and reported reading strategies; their use of global and reading strategies, their metacognitive awareness, their perception of a good reader, and their self-confidence as readers. Oxford (1990: 137-138) highlights the need to learn much more about the essential metacognitive strategies. She states that though metacognitive strategies are extremely important, research shows that learners use these strategies sporadically and without much sense of their importance in several studies of second and foreign language learning, students used metacognitive strategies less often with planning strategies most frequently employed and with little self-evaluation or self-monitoring, likewise, university foreign language students in other studies reported using certain metacognitive strategies such as being prepared, and using time well, but they fail to employ other crucial metacognitive strategies, such as accurately evaluating their progress or seeking practice opportunities. Obviously learners need to learn much more about the essential metacognitive strategies. Being aware of metacognitive strategies is not enough. Awareness, as suggested by Narang (1991:30), "should be accompanied by use. He states that successful learners are not only aware of their metacognitive strategies but also use them to control and monitor their learning".

Anwar (1992: 66 - 67) investigated the effect of training English majors of the faculty of education in effective reading strategies on their acquisition. The effect of training in metacognitive language learning strategies and use of these strategies and on English language proficiency. She states that students' language skills should not be considered completed by the end of secondary schools, but more teaching and training is needed to develop such skills at the university level. She recommends that students enrolled in the first year English department should be trained in effective reading strategies through a comprehensive
preserved training program. The relationship between metacognitive strategies and comprehension is established by Yuill (1992) and Abdelraheem (1993). Yuill (1992, p.35) states that "poor comprehendors have three main areas of weaknesses: in making inferences from text, in using working memory to integrate information in a coherent model, and in reflecting on their own comprehension". Abdelraheem (1993:121) recommends that reading instruction, especially for academic programs of prospective teachers of English, should benefit from the inclusion of explicit comprehension, fostering metacognitive strategy training. This is duly important given that systematic reading or listening instruction has no place in EFL preserved teacher education programs as asserted by Zidan (1994a: 79).

Goh (1998:1) "investigated L2 listeners' comprehension strategies and metacognitive knowledge about learning to listen, and compared the same in learners with different listening abilities. The results of the study reveal that high-ability listeners used more strategies more than low-ability listeners and they often varied tactics within the same strategic approach according to comprehension goals".

Serag (2000: 63 - 64) investigated the effects of training in indirect language learning strategies and its effectiveness in enhancing reading. The effect of training in metacognitive language learning strategies comprehension skills and strategy awareness. She found that self-evaluation, as the metacognitive strategy used in the study was not frequently used by the students. Moreover, the students' awareness degree of these strategies was notably low. She implied that other research studies that employ different types of learning strategies, to the four language skills, with different groups of students are needed and required. Kiernan (2001: 65) investigated the effectiveness of metacognitive strategies implemented in training performance support systems. Results of the study showed a significant difference in test scores between the control and the experimental groups regarding how they felt about the metacognitive strategies. Responses of the experimental group were overwhelmingly positive. A related area of difficulty as investigated by Yarrow (2001: 262) is limited metacognitive knowledge and control. He proposes that children may lack exercising of appropriate strategies, or have difficulty exercising control over implementing and monitoring them. Anderson (2002b: 1) emphasizes that
"learners who are metacognitively aware know what to do when they don't know what to do; that is, they have strategies finding out or figuring out what they need to do. He asserts that the use of metacognitive strategies ignites one's thinking and can lead to more profound learning and improved performance, especially among learners who are struggling".

Darabie (2001: 2647A) suggests that metacognitive awareness strategies can assist students develop their own judgments and reflections on the topic while reading. Dolak (2000:519-20) revealed that professors did not seize the opportunity to explicitly use their metacognitive activities. Finally, Moore (2001: 74A) states that

"although existing research indicates that metacognition is an integral part of the effect of training in metacognitive language learning strategies a learner's performance, a framework in instructional design for embedding metacognitive cues in learning programs does not exist. In light of this background, it can be concluded that if learning is to be facilitated, language learning strategies have to be introduced and taught explicitly".

Zidan's study, which examined the effects of using a directinstruction model on EFL majors' achievement in three selected reading skills, namely, determining significant details, determining word meanings in context, and locating specific passage information, revealed that directinstruction contributed consistently and significantly to enhancing the subjects' achievement in reading comprehension compared with the traditional "read-and-answer-the-questions" method. (Zidan, 1994: 80)Students should not only know what the metacognitive strategies are, but should use them as well. In spite of the importance attached to metacognitive language learning strategies in enhancing language proficiency, no systematic instruction in these strategies is provided. Such conclusions led the researcher to think of training EFL students at the faculty of education in some metacognitive language learning strategies to measure the effect of this training on developing students' listening comprehension and reading comprehension as well as their language proficiency.

2.1 Efficient Reading Strategies

1. **Skimming:** Sometimes you need to get the general idea or gist of a text. The way to do this is not by reading every word. Few text books were written with your specific course in mind. So you need to adapt the material to your particular purposes, given the course and the task at hand. Skimming is the sort of reading which would be appropriate if your
tutor asked you to read several books and articles for the next tutorial. She would not expect you to be able to recite it word for word, but she will want you to be able to discuss the issues raised. You might try reading quickly through the table of contents, the preface and the index, then selecting from the chapter headings. You can then read the first and last paragraphs, and perhaps the first sentence of each of the other paragraphs. Don't forget to check any diagrams and figures. You should get about 50% of the meaning from all this and you are then in a good position to see if you need to employ scanning or detailed reading.

2. **Scanning:** You skim read material to get the general picture. To find out precise information you will need to practice the technique of scanning. You may need to find out specific details of a topic for an assignment or a task that your lecturer has set. There is little point in skimming a whole book for this purpose. You should identify a few key expressions which will alert you to the fact that your subject is being covered. You can then run your eyes down the page looking for these expressions - in chapter headings or sub-headings, or in the text itself.

3. **Detailed Reading:** Some subjects such as law subjects and literature, for example, require a very detailed understanding from the student. This kind of reading is always more time consuming, but can be combined with skimming and scanning for greater efficiency. If it is a photocopy or your own book, take full advantage by underlining or highlighting and using the margins for your own comments or questions.

4. **Revision Reading:** This involves reading rapidly through material with which you are already familiar, in order to confirm knowledge and understanding. Maybe summarise main points on to small system cards (these can be bought at any newsagent's and then be carried around).

5. **Stages in Reading a Text:** In order to read more effectively, it is vital to become a more self-conscious reader. You need to understand what you are doing when you use different reading techniques for different purposes and texts, and to practise these particular reading skills. You must always read for a clearly defined purpose and adapt your reading strategies to that purpose. It is important to break down the reading process into the following stages: before reading, during reading and after reading. Before reading you need to survey the text so that you can get an overview of the book, article or section.
i. understand the title
ii. examine the organization of the information in the table of contents
iii. read headings and subheadings
iv. look at graphs, diagrams, tables
v. read any questions or summaries at the end of the chapter
vi. read the introduction and conclusion
vii. read the first sentence in each paragraph

Now you are ready to read in detail the section/s which are relevant to your purpose. As you read you must closely follow the development of the ideas in the text. Avoid the temptation to read every word - read actively - write in the margins, highlight phrases, write summaries, take note of major and minor points - read critically - Ask yourself questions; for example, is the argument logical? is it biased? is there enough evidence to support the author's conclusions? is the information dated?

After you read you must think over what you have read. Make a brief summary of the main ideas and concepts in the text. You will probably be aware that you are already skilled in using different reading strategies for different purposes in your daily life. You may feel less confident about doing this in your academic studies: maybe you read everything too thoroughly. Or perhaps you have become too confident and have discovered from the feedback from your tutor or supervisor that you do not read key texts thoroughly enough. It is important to match your reading strategy to the reading purpose. Consider whether you ever read for these purposes and what reading strategy you tend to use:

Reading Purpose  Example From Daily Life example From Academic Work

1. look for specific information when you know how to locate it by following a procedure

   look up the meaning of a word in a dictionary

   look for a particular reference in a reference list of an article

2. search for specific information that may be somewhere a text

   check particular details of an incident reported in a newspaper article
check what research methods the authors of a research report article used

3. look quickly through a text to see what it is about before deciding to read it
   see whether a magazine article will be worth reading

see whether an academic article is going to be relevant for your task

4. read quickly through a text to gain an overview of its content
   read a front-line text which is relevant
   read through a new recipe but not central to your task

5. read through an easy text where it is not important to remember all that you’ve read
   read a novel.
   read a textbook chapter to revise a subject that you know well

6. read a text thoroughly to understand and remember what you’ve read
   read the instructions for booking and paying for a journey on-line
   read a front-line text whose content is central to your task.

You may find it useful to think in terms of three main reading strategies:

1. scanning: looking through a text to find keywords and phrases that are likely to indicate the specific information that you are seeking, then reading just this piece of the text (situations 1 and 2 above)

2. skimming: reading just those parts of a text that are most likely to indicate what the authors are talking about at different points in order to gain an overview of the content (situations 3 and 4)

3. intensive reading: reading through every word of a text from beginning to end (situations 5 and 6)
For many reading purposes in academic work you may have noticed that you use more than one strategy in sequence. For a particular text that turns out to be centrally important for your reading purpose, the sequence might be:

scan the title and abstract to see whether the text is likely to be at all relevant

scan through parts of the content to see whether particular details in the text confirm that it will be relevant

skim the text to gain an overview of its content and confirm how centrally relevant it is

intensively read the whole text since it clearly is centrally relevant, so as to understand and evaluate its content in depth

A secret of efficient reading, that will soon become automatic if you consciously do it for every text, is to check how well the reading strategy you are going to use next fits your reading purpose.

Check your reading purpose and then use scanning, skimming or intensive reading - either on their own or in sequence - as required to achieve this purpose.

There are many textbooks and websites that offer general guidance on reading strategies. Some include practical exercises to help you improve your skills. If search with your website browser using keywords such as ‘skim read’ or ‘scan skim’ will lead you to plenty of sites.

2.2 What is Cognition and Meta-cognition?

Meta-cognition literally means big thinking. You are thinking about thinking. During this process you are examining your brains processing. Teachers work to guide students to become more strategic thinkers by helping them understand the way they are processing information. Questioning visualizing and synthesizing information are all ways that readers can examine their thinking process. Through scaffolding and reciprocal teaching, students are able to practice the skills that lead to these overt acts becoming automatic.
2.2.1 Cognitive Strategy Instruction

Although most individuals of normal intelligence engage in metacognitive regulation when confronted with an effortful cognitive task, some are more metacognitive than others. Those with greater metacognitive abilities tend to be more successful in their cognitive endeavors. The good news is that individuals can learn how to better regulate their cognitive activities. Most often, metacognitive instruction occurs within cognitive strategy instruction programs.

Cognitive Strategy Instruction (CSI) is an instructional approach which emphasizes the development of thinking skills and processes as a means to enhance learning. The objective of CSI is to enable all students to become more strategic, self-reliant, flexible, and productive in their learning endeavors (Scheid, 1993). CSI is based on the assumption that there are identifiable cognitive strategies, previously believed to be utilized by only the best and the brightest students, which can be taught to most students (Halpern, 1996). Use of these strategies have been associated with successful learning (Borkowski, et.al, 1987; Garner, 1990).

Metacognition enables students to benefit from instruction (Carr, et.al, 1989; Tamsen, 1996) and influences the use and maintenance of cognitive strategies. While there are several approaches to metacognitive instruction, the most effective involve providing the learner with both knowledge of cognitive processes and strategies (to be used as metacognitive knowledge), and experience or practice in using both cognitive and metacognitive strategies and evaluating the outcomes of their efforts (develops metacognitive regulation). Simply providing knowledge without experience or vice versa does not seem to be sufficient for the development of metacognitive control (Livingston, 1996).

The study of metacognition has provided educational psychologists with insight about the cognitive processes involved in learning and what differentiates successful students from their less successful peers. It also holds several implications for instructional interventions, such as teaching students how to be more aware of their learning processes and products as well as how to regulate those processes for more effective learning.
2.2.2 Strategies in Learning and Using a Second Language

To understand second language, students should the strategy of learning and using a second language. Cohen (1998) comments on the term strategy by saying that the term strategies, in the second language learning sense has come to be applied to the conscious moves made by second language speakers intended to be useful in their learning or using the second language. Strategies can be very different in nature, ranging from planning the way of the one’s learning (a meta-cognitive learning strategy) through using mnemonic organization devices to learn vocabulary (cognitive learning strategy) and rehearsing what one expects to say (a performance strategy) to bolstering one’s self-confidence for language talk by means of strategy effect “self-talk”. Ellis (1994: 558) writes, “the study of learning strategies holds considerable promise, both for language pedagogy and for explaining individual differences in second language learning. It is probably true to say, however, that it is still in its infancy. For this reason, perhaps, discussions for leaning strategies typically conclude with the problem that have surfaced and that need to be addressed before progress can be made”.

2.3 What is Meta-cognition?

Metacognition refers to awareness of one’s own knowledge—what one does and doesn’t know—and one’s ability to understand, control, and manipulate one’s cognitive processes (Meichenbaum, 1985). It includes knowing when and where to use particular strategies for learning and problem solving as well as how and why to use specific strategies. Metacognition is the ability to use prior knowledge to plan a strategy for approaching a learning task, take necessary steps to problem solve, reflect on and evaluate results, and modify one’s approach as needed. Flavell (1976:232), who first used the term, offers the following example: I am engaging in Metacognition if I notice that I am having more trouble learning A than B; if it strikes me that I should double check C before accepting it as fact.

Cognitive strategies are the basic mental abilities we use to think, study, and learn (e.g., recalling information from memory, analyzing sounds and images, making associations between or comparing/contrasting different pieces of information, and making inferences or interpreting text). They help an individual achieve a particular goal, such as comprehending text or solving a math problem, and they can be individually identified and measured. In contrast, metacognitive
strategies are used to ensure that an overarching learning goal is being or has been reached. Examples of metacognitive activities include planning how to approach a learning task, using appropriate skills and strategies to solve a problem, monitoring one’s own comprehension of text, self-assessing and self-correcting in response to self-assessment, evaluating progress towards the completion of a task, and becoming aware of distracting stimuli.

2.4 Why Teach Meta-cognitive Skills?

Research shows that metacognitive skills can be taught to students to improve their learning (Nietfeld et al., 2003). Constructing understanding requires both cognitive and metacognitive elements. Learners “construct knowledge” using cognitive strategies, and they guide, regulate, and evaluate their learning using metacognitive strategies. It is through this “thinking about thinking,” this use of metacognitive strategies, that real learning occurs. As students become more skilled at using metacognitive strategies, they gain confidence and become more independent as learners.

Individuals with well-developed metacognitive skills can think through a problem or approach a learning task, select appropriate strategies, and make decisions about a course of action to resolve the problem or successfully perform the task. They often think about their own thinking processes, taking time to think about and learn from mistakes or inaccuracies (North Central Regional Educational Laboratory, 1995). Some instructional programs encourage students to engage in “metacognitive conversations” with themselves so that they can “talk” with themselves about their learning, the challenges they encounter, and the ways in which they can self-correct and continue learning. Moreover, individuals who demonstrate a wide variety of metacognitive skills perform better on exams and complete work more efficiently—they use the right tool for the job, and they modify learning strategies as needed, identifying blocks to learning and changing tools or strategies to ensure goal attainment. Because Metacognition plays a critical role in successful learning, it is imperative that instructors help learners develop metacognitively. Metacognitive strategies can be taught (Halpern, 1996), they are associated with successful learning (Borkowski, et al. 1987). Successful learners have a repertoire of strategies to select from and can transfer them to new settings (Pressley, et al. 1987).
Instructors need to set tasks at an appropriate level of difficulty (i.e., challenging enough so that students need to apply metacognitive strategies to monitor success but not so challenging that students become overwhelmed or frustrated), and instructors need to prompt learners to think about what they are doing as they complete these tasks (Biemiller and Meichenbaum, 1992). Instructors should take care not to do the thinking for learners or tell them what to do because this runs the risk of making students experts at seeking help rather than experts at thinking about and directing their own learning. Instead, effective instructors continually prompt learners, asking “What should you do next?” McKeachie (1988) found that few college instructors explicitly teach strategies for monitoring learning. They assume that students have already learned these strategies in high school. But many have not and are unaware of the metacognitive process and its importance to learning.

Rote memorization is the usual—and often the only—learning strategy employed by high school students when they enter college Nist, (1993). Simpson and Nist (2000), in a review of the literature on strategic learning, emphasize that instructors need to provide explicit instruction on the use of study strategies. The implication for ABE programs is that it is likely that ABE learners need explicit instruction in both cognitive and metacognitive strategies. They need to know that they have choices about the strategies they can employ in different contexts, and they need to monitor their use of and success with these strategies.

### 2.5 The Significance of Metacognition

Metacognitive abilities, by definition, help students be more consciously aware of what they learn, situations where that knowledge may be used and the procedures for using it. These skills are critical to efficient reading (Wixson and Peters, 1987).

When readers begin a literacy task, they bring to it an existing framework of knowledge to which the new information may be assimilated (Carpenter and Just, 1986). A metacognitive analysis of the task puts the reader in control of the situation; it encourages flexible and adaptive thinking, and if necessary, modification of the reading process to fit the known purpose for reading (Otto et.al, 1985). Because the three subsystems of reading (the visual processes used in decoding, the identification and recognition of words, and the understanding of word and text meaning) must be coordinated to be successfully implemented, students with inadequate
metacognitive ability may be unable to read, though they are able to master the sub skills (Posner et.al, 1972). Two crucial components of metacognitive control are comprehension monitoring, or the ability to notice when comprehension failure occurs; and corrective strategy use, or the ability to take action to correct a comprehension failure once it has been noticed (Anderson, et.al, 1985). In order to monitor comprehension, however, students must develop a basic understanding of their own characteristics as learners, the characteristics of different forms of text, and the strategies that are available to them for corrective action (Brown, 1985). This knowledge is usually late-developing, and significant differences are seen between beginning and mature readers, and good and poor readers at all stages.

Beginning readers usually possess metalinguistic awareness, rather than full-fledged metacognitive ability. For them, an awareness of words seems to come first and easily, but phonemic awareness may be more slowly acquired (Adams, 1990a). Pre-readers and early readers spend much of their time learning about print. They learn that print is different from other types of visual patterns, that print remains constant across a variety of media, and that print may be produced by anyone. This awareness of print is a leading indicator of reading readiness (Adams, 1990a). In fact, Spoelders and Van Danune (1989) found a correlation (.51-.60) between reading scores and total language awareness scores for a sample of Dutch kindergarmers; and in a study of first graders, Johns (1980) found that above average readers know much more about print, and can more readily use the vocabulary of reading instruction, than below average readers.

Age plays a role in metacognitive development, Wfdich of course, limits younger children in their use of these skills. Yaden, Smolkin, and Conlin (1989) found that during reading words, pre- readers will ask the most questions about pictures, story meaning, and word meaning. However, they will rarely ask questions about word form, a finding which may indicate a lack of metalinguistic awareness. Kreutzer et.al 1992) found that younger children are usually more able to remember information at a verbatim level, while older children will more likely remember the essence of text. Younger children also tend to focus more on the decoding aspects of reading rather than the cognitive processes involved (Myers and Paris, 1978). They are also less able to distinguish "study" reading from "fun" reading (Forrest and Waller, 1980), and are
especially susceptible to a false sense of understanding (Baker and Brown, 1980). Brown et al. (1986) explain that

"beginning readers may have trouble reading intelligently because they don't have a full understanding of what reading is. They discuss four variables that may influence a young reader's awareness: text (the vocabulary, syntax, style, clarity, structure and topic of the written material); task (entertainment, information-gathering, or other purpose); strategies that are available to the reader; and learning characteristics of the reader."

Early metalinguistic awareness is important to the achievement of high literacy levels in the later elementary years (McAllister, 1989). But teachers and students may not have much influence over its development. In a study of 118 children from the beginning of first grade to the end of second grade, Tunmer, Herriman and Nesdale (1988) found that metalinguistic awareness may depend on a child's level of operatively or cognitive development. This finding supports the previously-mentioned ideas from Brown (1985) and Costa (1991) that metacognition is closely related to formal thought and is a late-developing skill. Kamberelis (1990) found in a study of transitional knowledge during literacy development that two "out-of-sync" combinations with written language may occur, high reading-low writing and low reading-high writing. These discrepancies may suggest that there is a time in development when a greater than average amount of cognitive reorganization occurs that ultimately will integrate the production and comprehension of written language, and facilitate conventional literacy. However, Otto (1985) reminds educators that beginning learners, regardless of age, are always less able to manage their attempts to learn and their actual performance of a learning task. For most learners, experience provides the increased ability to monitor and control the learning situation.

But not all learners achieve this ability. Significant differences also remain between good and poor readers at all levels. For successful readers, metacognitive development seems to parallel their cognitive development in reading, where poor readers' metacognitive development falls behind their cognitive development (Otto, 1985). This difference in development is evident in the types of errors that are made. Garner (1992) finds that less skilled readers will most often detect lexical errors in text before they will find inconsistencies in meaning. They are more often unaware of poor reading practices such as allowing the mind to wander or the distraction of

Good readers are much more in control of their reading. They match their reading to the structure of the text, and are consequently, able to recall significantly more than those that do not use this strategy (Pearson and Camperell, 1985). Good readers have been shown to acknowledge different purposes for reading, to assess their own knowledge as related to the task, to monitor their own comprehension and to implement corrective strategies when needed (Anderson et al. 1985) Again, maturity and reading experience play a role in the development of good readers. Myers and Paris (1978) asked second and sixth graders questions about their ability to read. They found that sixth graders knew more about reading as a cognitive process and were more able to discuss various aspects of the process than were the second graders.

Brown and Smiley (1977) also found that experienced readers are more likely to identify important segments of text, and that this ability develops slowly and late. Failures in meta-comprehension may occur at the word, sentence or paragraph level (Robeck and Wallace, 1990). Baker and Brown (1980) have identified three main reasons for comprehension failure:

1) the learner does not have enough information about the topic to understand the text;
2) the learner has the prior knowledge, but the text does not provide enough clues to activate the knowledge; and
3) the learner understands the text consistently, but what is understood is not the author's intended message.

Collins and Smith (1982) say misunderstanding may occur when readers ignore the words that are the source of difficulty, and keep reading in the hope that the misunderstanding will be clarified later in the passage. Poor readers may be helped in their development of metacognitive abilities and strategy use.

Many times, good and poor readers are aware of the same strategies, but good readers use them more frequently and effectively (Hare and Smith, 1982; Olshavsky, 1976:77). Unfortunately, poor readers may attribute any success to "luck," and any failure to a lack of ability. They need to learn that effort and ingenuity can influence their success (Palinscar, 1986).
Hansen and Hubbard (1984) also found that poor readers want to learn strategies that they can apply on their own, and that they can, with practice, learn to transfer these strategies from their small group work to other reading situations. Me loth (1990), in a study of twenty third grade teachers and their low group readers, found that poor readers who began with a minimal knowledge of cognition increased by 60% their declarative knowledge (their ability to discuss what they knew about reading): by 67% their procedural knowledge (their ability to use strategies effectively); and by 156% their conditional knowledge (their ability to know when and why a strategy will help). He found that this increased knowledge of cognition appears to contribute to a variety of comprehension abilities. From poor readers, then, "metareaders"those who plan for a reading task, use strategies for reading, monitor their understanding, and evaluate their learning—may be born (Spring, 1985). Obviously, the teacher will play an important role in this development.

2.6 Metacognitive Regulation

Metacognitive experiences involve the use of metacognitive strategies or metacognitive regulation (Brown, 1987). Metacognitive strategies are sequential processes that one uses to control cognitive activities, and to ensure that a cognitive goal (e.g., understanding a text) has been met. These processes help to regulate and oversee learning, and consist of planning and monitoring cognitive activities, as well as checking the outcomes of those activities. For example, after reading a paragraph in a text a learner may question herself about the concepts discussed in the paragraph. Her cognitive goal is to understand the text. Self-questioning is a common metacognitive comprehension monitoring strategy. If she finds that she cannot answer her own questions, or that she does not understand the material discussed, she must then determine what needs to be done to ensure that she meets the cognitive goal of understanding the text. She may decide to go back and re-read the paragraph with the goal of being able to answer the questions she had generated. If, after re-reading through the text she can now answer the questions, she may determine that she understands the material. Thus, the metacognitive strategy of self-questioning is used to ensure that the cognitive goal of comprehension is met.

Metacognition, or the ability to control one's cognitive processes (self-regulation) has been linked to intelligence (Borkowski et al., 1987). Sternberg refers to these executive processes
as "meta-components" in his triarchic theory of intelligence (Sternberg, 1984, 1986a, 1986b). Meta-components are executive processes that control other cognitive components as well as receive feedback from these components. Sternberg, (1986b: 24). According to Sternberg, "meta-components are responsible for "figuring out how to do a particular task or set of tasks, and then making sure that the task or set of tasks are done correctly". These executive processes involve planning, evaluating and monitoring problem-solving activities. Sternberg maintains that the ability to appropriately allocate cognitive resources, such as deciding how and when a given task should be accomplished, is central to intelligence.

2.7 Strategy

Richards, Platt, and Platt (1992: 355) define a strategy as procedures used in learning, thinking, etc. which serve as a way of reaching a goal. In language learning, learning strategies are those conscious or unconscious processes which language learners make use of in learning and using a language. Strategies are the thoughts and behaviors that learners use to help them comprehend, learn, or retain information (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990). Pressley et al (1985:4) link strategies to cognitive processes. They define strategies as "composed of cognitive operations over and above the processes that are a natural consequence of carrying out [a] task. Strategies are used to achieve cognitive purposes (e.g., memorizing) and are potentially conscious and controllable activities". This definition points out that the active learner consciously chooses to use strategies in order to enhance performance of a task.

2.8 Recommended Instructional Strategies

Instructors can encourage ABE learners to become more strategic thinkers by helping them focus on the ways they process information. Self-questioning, reflective journal writing, and discussing their thought processes with other learners are among the ways that teachers can encourage learners to examine and develop their metacognitive processes. Fogarty (1994) suggests that Metacognition is a process that spans three distinct phases, and that, to be successful thinkers, students must do the following:
1. Develop a plan before approaching a learning task, such as reading for comprehension or solving a math problem.
2. Monitor their understanding; use “fix-up” strategies when meaning breaks down.
3. Evaluate their thinking after completing the task.

Instructors can model the application of questions, and they can prompt learners to ask themselves questions during each phase. They can incorporate into lesson plans opportunities for learners to practice using these questions during learning tasks, as illustrated in the following examples:

a. During the planning phase, learners can ask, What am I supposed to learn? What prior knowledge will help me with this task? What should I do first? What should I look for in this reading? How much time do I have to complete this? In what direction do I want my thinking to take me?
b. During the monitoring phase, learners can ask, How am I doing? Am I on the right track? How should I proceed? What information is important to remember? Should I move in a different direction? Should I adjust the pace because of the difficulty? What can I do if I do not understand?
c. During the evaluation phase, learners can ask, How well did I do? What did I learn? Did I get the results I expected? What could I have done differently? Can I apply this way of thinking to other problems or situations? Is there anything I don’t understand—any gaps in my knowledge? Do I need to go back through the task to fill in any gaps in understanding? How might I apply this line of thinking to other problems?

Rather than viewing reading, writing, science, social studies, and math only as subjects or content to be taught, instructors can see them as opportunities for learners to reflect on their learning processes. Examples follow for each content area:

1. Reading: Teach learners how to ask questions during reading and model “think-aloud.” Ask learners questions during read-aloud and teach them to monitor their reading by constantly asking themselves if they understand what the text is about. Teach
them to take notes or highlight important details, asking themselves, “Why is this a key phrase to highlight?” and “Why am I not highlighting this?”

2. Writing: Model prewriting strategies for organizing thoughts, such as brainstorming ideas using a word web, or using a graphic organizer to put ideas into paragraphs, with the main idea at the top and the supporting details below it.

3. Social Studies and Science: Teach learners the importance of using organizers such as KWL charts, Venn diagrams, concept maps, and anticipation/reaction charts to sort information and help them learn and understand content. Learners can use organizers prior to a task to focus their attention on what they already know and identify what they want to learn. They can use a Venn diagram to identify similarities and differences between two related concepts.

4. Math: Teach learners to use mnemonics to recall steps in a process, such as the order of mathematical operations. Model your thought processes in solving problems-for example, “This is a lot of information; here should I start? Now that I know-, is there something else I know?”

The goal of teaching metacognitive strategies is to help learners become comfortable with these strategies so that they employ them automatically to learning tasks, focusing their attention, deriving meaning, and making adjustments if something goes wrong. They do not think about these skills while performing them but, if asked what they are doing, they can usually accurately describe their metacognitive processes. Language learning strategies have long been associated with effective language learning (O'Malley et. al, 1987). Chamot (2005) identified the importance of strategies considering two reasons: First, strategies, when used by learners, help teachers get insights into the metacognitive, cognitive, social, and affective processes involved in language learning. Second, strategies help teachers understand the knowledge base of learners toward helping the less successful in learning new strategies. In a recent paper on the important assumptions that teachers need to take into account in teaching language learning strategies, Swan (2008:265) has suggested that teachers need to involve problem- oriented strategies in their classrooms which require conscious attention, and which are not employed automatically with all learners without teaching.
2.9 Classification of Language Learning Strategies

Language learning strategies have been classified by many linguists. Cohen and Dörnyei (2002: 171-190) made three general distinctions which they thought to be helpful in understanding the nature of strategies: language learning strategies refer to the conscious and semi-conscious thoughts and behaviors used by learners with the explicit goal of proving their knowledge and understanding of a target language. Second, language-use strategies refer to using the language that has been learned, which involves the following subcategories:

a. Retrieval: to call up language material from storage.
b. Rehearsal: to practice target language structures.
c. Communication: to extend the students' communicative means beyond the constraints of target-language proficiency.
d. Cover: to create an appearance of language ability so as not to look unprepared. The third category of strategies in the general distinction made by Cohen and Dörnyei is self-motivating strategies, "which learners can use to increase or protect their existing motivation".

One of the most comprehensive and detailed classifications is that of O'Malley and Chamot (1987: 241-242). O'Malley and Chamot have made a three-way categorization:

i. Metacognitive Strategies: These involve executive processes in planning for learning, monitoring one's comprehension and production, and evaluating how well one has achieved a learning objective.

ii. Cognitive Strategies: The learner interacts with the material to be learned manipulating it mentally (as in making mental images or relating new information previously acquired concepts or skills) or physically (as in grouping items to be learned in meaningful categories or taking notes on or making summaries of important information to be remembered).

iii. Social-affective Strategies: The learner either interacts with another person in order to assist learning, as in cooperation or asking questions for clarification, or uses some kind of affective control to assist learning.
Another categorization is that of Oxford (1990) that was primarily based on the model proposed by O'Malley and Chamot (1987). The difference was that Oxford introduced and added certain other strategies to her model, namely, memory and compensation strategies. Oxford and Burry-Stock (1995:5) introduced these components as the following:

1. Memory strategies, such as grouping, imagery, rhyming, and structured reviewing.
2. Cognitive strategies, such as reasoning, analyzing, summarizing (all reflective of deep processing), as well as general practicing
3. Compensation strategies (to compensate for limited knowledge), such as guessing meanings from the context in reading, and listening and using synonyms and gestures to convey meaning when the precise expression is not known.
4. Metacognitive strategies, such as paying attention, consciously searching for practice opportunities, planning for language tasks, self-evaluating one's progress, and monitoring error.
5. Affective (emotional, motivation-related) strategies, such as anxiety reduction, self-encouragement, and self-reward.
6. Social strategies, such as asking questions, cooperating with native speakers of the language, and becoming culturally aware. Age and Stages of Learning or Schooling

Researches on strategies have focused on two broad areas: learning strategies and communication strategies. In learning strategies the learner makes attempts to establish competence in the target language, whereas in a communication strategy the difficulty of the moment is to be solved. Looking at learning strategies from the linguistic perspective, a contradiction can be identified. The universal hypothesis claims that second language acquisition happens naturally, without mental effort on the learner's part. Consequently, learning strategies reflect what happens in cases of instructed SLA, or, in Krashen's (1985) terminology, while learning (not acquiring subconsciously) the target language. On the other hand, research on communication strategies does not take acquisition into consideration, but aims to find out how learners manage to solve their problems in certain situations.

Development of learning strategies in children has not been widely researched, as this is a relatively new area of inquiry. But in studies conducted so far, researchers have examined the
use of strategies by young or adult learners and reached different conclusions regarding whether younger learners adopt different sets of strategies in comparison to older learners. (Chamot et.al, 1999). Gu, et.al (2005) investigated the use of strategies by primary school learners, and pointed to the difficulties associated with this research (such as learners' difficulties in verbalizing their mental processes while performing a language task) and thus leading to the existence of only a few empirical studies.

In my experience, the younger the learners, the less learning strategies they use, as they tend to rely on naturalistic processes of acquisition. As schooling progresses, children develop their learning skills, and the use of learning strategies increases. Some of the strategies are borrowed from other subject areas, and they cannot be regarded as specific language learning strategies. Other strategies are closely related to FLL, and can be identified as language learning strategies.

2.10 Cognitive vs. Metacognitive Strategies

Most definitions of metacognition include both knowledge and strategy components; however, there are a number of problems associated with using such definitions. One major issue involves separating what is cognitive from what is metacognitive. What is the difference between a cognitive and a metacognitive strategy?

Can declarative knowledge be metacognitive in nature? For example, is the knowledge that you have difficulty understanding principles from bio-chemistry cognitive or metacognitive knowledge? Flavell himself acknowledges that metacognitive knowledge may not be different from cognitive knowledge (Flavell, 1979). The distinction lies in how the information is used. Recall that metacognition is referred to as "thinking about thinking" and involves overseeing whether a cognitive goal has been met. This should be the defining criterion for determining what is metacognitive. Cognitive strategies are used to help an individual achieve a particular goal (e.g., understanding a text) while metacognitive strategies are used to ensure that the goal has been reached (e.g., quizzing oneself to evaluate one's understanding of that text). Metacognitive experiences usually precede or follow a cognitive activity. They often occur when cognitions fail, such as the recognition that one did not understand what one just read. Such an
impasse is believed to activate metacognitive processes as the learner attempts to rectify the situation (Roberts and Erdos, 1993).

Metacognitive and cognitive strategies may overlap in that the same strategy, such as questioning, could be regarded as either a cognitive or a metacognitive strategy depending on what the purpose for using that strategy may be. For example, you may use a self-questioning strategy while reading as a means of obtaining knowledge (cognitive), or as a way of monitoring what you have read (metacognitive). Because cognitive and metacognitive strategies are closely intertwined and dependent upon each other, any attempt to examine one without acknowledging the other would not provide an adequate picture.

Knowledge is considered to be metacognitive if it is actively used in a strategic manner to ensure that a goal is met. For example, a student may use knowledge in planning how to approach a math exam: "I know that I (person variable) have difficulty with word problems (task variable), so I will answer the computational problems first and save the word problems for last (strategy variable)." Simply possessing knowledge about one's cognitive strengths or weaknesses and the nature of the task without actively utilizing this information to oversee learning is not metacognitive.

2.11 Metacognition and Cognitive Strategy Instruction

Although most individuals of normal intelligence engage in metacognitive regulation when confronted with an effortful cognitive task, some are more metacognitive than others. Those with greater metacognitive abilities tend to be more successful in their cognitive endeavors. The good news is that individuals can learn how to better regulate their cognitive activities. Most often, metacognitive instruction occurs within Cognitive Strategy Instruction programs.

Cognitive Strategy Instruction (CSI) is an instructional approach which emphasizes the development of thinking skills and processes as a means to enhance learning. The objective of CSI is to enable all students to become more strategic, self-reliant, flexible, and productive in their learning endeavors (Scheid, 1993). CSI is based on the assumption that there are identifiable cognitive strategies, previously believed to be utilized by only the best and the
brightest students, which can be taught to most students (Halpern, 1996). Use of these strategies have been associated with successful learning (Borkowski, et.al, 1987).

Metacognition enables students to benefit from instruction (Carr et.al, 1989) and influences the use and maintenance of cognitive strategies. While there are several approaches to metacognitive instruction, the most effective involve providing the learner with both knowledge of cognitive processes and strategies (to be used as metacognitive knowledge), and experience or practice in using both cognitive and metacognitive strategies and evaluating the outcomes of their efforts (develops metacognitive regulation). Simply providing knowledge without experience or vice versa does not seem to be sufficient for the development of metacognitive control (Livingston, 1996).

2.12 Subject Domain

It has been suggested that subject domain also contributes to the FLL process and that learners' use of strategies is affected by it. The real difficulty results from the difference between learners' needs and purposes at the time of learning the language and their future task needs in relation to the subject they study. One of the most influential studies in relation to career and strategy use is that of Politzer and McGroarty (1985): They found that learners of specialization (engineering/science vs. social science/humanities) outperformed in the use of strategies.

Another study demonstrating the effect of career has come from Peacock and Ho (2003). Among the learners of eight disciplines (building and construction, business, computer studies, engineering, English, math, primary education, science), learners of English demonstrated the highest frequency of strategy use, especially cognitive, metacognitive, and social strategies.
2.13 Teaching Listening

2.13.1 The Importance of Listening

1. Listening is the most common communicative activity in daily life: "we can expect to listen twice as much as we speak, four times more than we read, and five times more than we write." (Morley, 1991: 82)

2. Listening is also important for obtaining comprehensible input that is necessary for language development.

What is involved in listening comprehensionspeech perception (e.g., sound discrimination, recognize stress patterns, intonation, pauses, etc.). Word recognition (e.g., recognize the sound pattern as a word, locate the word in the lexicon, retrieve lexical, grammatical and semantic information about the word, etc.)sentence processing (parsing; e.g., detect sentence constituents, building a structure frame, etc.)construct the literal meaning of the sentence (select the relevant meaning in case of ambiguous word)hold the information in short-term memory recognize cohesive devices in discourse infer the implied meaning and intention (speech act)

a) Predict what is to be said
b) Decide how to respond
c) Bottom-up
d) Top-down

Conclusion, listening is not a passive process. It involves both bottom-up and top-down processes and requires the use of non-linguistic as well as linguistic knowledge.

2.13.2 Principles of Teaching Listening

i. Listening should receive primary attention in the early stage of ESL instruction.

ii. Maximize the use of material that is relevant to students' real life.

iii. Maximize the use of authentic language.

iv. Vary the materials in terms of speakers' gender, age, dialect, accent, topic, speed, notice level, genre,
v. Always ask students to listen with a purpose and allow them to show their comprehension in a task.

vi. Language material intended to be used for training listening comprehension should never be presented visually first.

2.13.3 Ideas and Activities for Teaching Listening


2.13.4 Listening and Performing Actions and Operations

a. drawing a picture, figure, or design.
b. locating routes of specific points on a map.
c. selecting or identifying a picture of a person, place, or thing from description.
d. performing hand or body movements as in songs and games such as "Simon Says" or "Hokey Pokey".
e. operating a piece of equipment, such as a camera, a recorder, a microwave oven, a pencil sharpener.
f. carrying out steps in a process, such as steps solving a math problems, a science experiment, a cooking sequence.

2.13.5 Listening, Evaluation, and Manipulating Information

a. writing information received and reviewing it in order to answer questions or to solve a problem.
b. evaluating information in order to make a decision or construct a plan of action
c. evaluating arguments in order to develop a position for or against.
d. evaluating cause-and-effect information.
e. projecting from information received and making predictions.
f. summarizing or "gistizing" information received.
g. evaluating and combining information.
h. evaluating and condensing information.
i. evaluating and elaborating or extending information
j. organizing unordered information received into a pattern of orderly relationship—
chronological sequencing, spatial relationships, cause-and-effect, problem-solution.

2.13.6 Listening and Transferring Information

1. listening and taking a telephone or in-person message by either transcribing the entire
message word-for-word or by writing down notes on the important items.
2. listening and filling in blanks in a gapped story game (in order to complete the story).
3. listening and completing a form or chart.
4. listening and summarizing the gist of a short story, report, or talk.
5. listening to a "how to" talk and writing an outline of the steps in a sequence (e.g., how to
cook something, how to run a piece of equipment, how to play a game).
6. listening to a talk or lecture and taking notes

2.13.7 Interactive Listening and Negotiating Meaning through
Questioning/Answering Routines

Question Types:

4. Repetition: Could you repeat the part about ...?
5. Paraphrase: Could you say that again? I don't understand what you mean by...
6. Verification: Did I understand you to say that.? In other words you mean. Do you mean ...?
7. Clarification: Could you tell me what you mean by ...? Could you explain...? Could you
give us an example of ...?
8. Elaboration: What about ...? How is this related to...?
9. Challenge: What did you base ... on? How did you reach...? Why did you...?

2.13.8 Listening and Solving Problems

1. word games in which the answers must be derived from verbal clues.
2. number games and oral story arithmetic problems.
3. asking questions in order to identify something, as in Twenty Questions.
4. classroom versions of password, jeopardy, twenty questions in which careful listening is
critical to questions and answers or answers and questions.
5. "minute mysteries" in which a paragraph-length mystery story is given by the teacher (or
a tape), followed by small group work in which students formulate solutions.
6. a jigsaw mystery in which each group listens to a tape with some of the clues, then shares
information in order to solve the mystery.

7. riddles, logic puzzles, intellectual problem-solving.

2.13.9 Listening for Enjoyment, Pleasure, and Sociability

listening to songs, stories, plays, poems, jokes, anecdotes, teacher chat.

2.14 Listening Strategy Instruction

Bently and Bacon (1996) suggest that listeners create meaning from oral input because
listening, as an active process, is a critical part of language learning generally and
particularly for the L2 learning process. A listening comprehension-processing model proposed
by Nagle and Sanders (1986), demonstrates that both automatic and controlled processes
assist listeners to constitute meaning from oral input.

Likewise, evidence from different contexts and input sources in Vandergrift's Interactive-
Constructivist model (1999) shows that listeners can deduce meaning actively from oral input.
Similarly, Vandergrift (1997), drawing on O'Malley and Chamot's (1990) model of
metacognitive, cognitive and socio-affective strategies, provides a very useful and thorough
chart of these listening strategies and their definitions. Vandergrift (1992) states that
listeners use different listening strategies in response to the nature and demands of the
auditory input. The encoding and decoding process, that is, a set of techniques employed by
listeners to cope better with the listening tasks, leads to comprehension. These techniques
are clustered into strategies that can assist understanding of the instructional processes,
and tools that enhance the performance of the learners and help promote learner autonomy
(Chamot, 1995; Macaro, 2001). Numerous studies (e.g. Carrier et.al, 2003) focus on the kinds
of learning strategies foreign/second language learners use during listening. The
significance of learning strategy instruction can be traced back to Rubin's (1975) and Stern's
(1975) work. These authors argued that 'good' language learner strategies should be employed to
assist students struggling to learn a new language. In a similar vein, Hassan et al. (2005)
conducted a large-scale review of ESL/EFL studies that focused on learning strategies
from many languages. The majority of studies in the review made a reference to learning
strategies such as: metacognitive - learning awareness; cognitive – mental learning process; and socio affective - individual and social interaction behavior.

Hassan et al. (2005) defined learning strategy as any strategy learners regularly use to improve their learning proficiency through carrying out a task. In line with visual supports in improving foreign language listening skills, Chang and Read (2007) investigated the impact of different types of listening support on low-level proficiency learners in EFL learning in Taiwan. Four groups participated in the study. Two groups received listening supports, either a set of pictures or a written background text. A third group received listening input repetition as a listening support. The fourth group was a control group and received no listening support. Students took the listening proficiency test, completed a short questionnaire and were interviewed. The study found that input repetition was the most effective listening support, followed by visuals and text aids as supports.

Two recent studies conducted by Graham and Macaro (2008), and Cross (2009) demonstrated that explicit instruction in listening strategies may facilitate listening comprehension. Graham and Macaro compared the impact of learning strategy instruction on both listening performance and self-efficacy of 68 lower intermediate French learners in England, against a comparison group. A self-efficacy questionnaire was used to measure how confident students were in different areas of listening. They found that learning strategy instruction in listening improved listening proficiency and learners' confidence in listening. In addition, Cross (2009) investigated the impact of listening strategies on EFL advance-level Japanese learners' comprehension in Australia through the use of BBC news videotexts. While three listening strategies including presentation (listening to an oral segment), practice (peer checking/group working), and review (providing students with a news transcript to evaluate listening comprehension) were explicitly taught to the experimental group, the control group was given regular classroom materials without any of the above listening strategies. The study's result demonstrated a significant effect in favor of the experimental group, though the comparison group made significant gains, too. The author maintained that practicing the BBC news broadcast and multimedia technology in the classroom provided assistance in second and foreign language learning.
However, Cross maintained that listeners would benefit from explicit listening strategy instruction if the following learning limitations were mitigated:

(i) inadequate amount of learning strategy exposure;
(ii) complexity of learning task content; and
(iii) traditional learning strategy use bias. Similarly, Carrier (2003) conducted an explicit listening strategy study with a group of the American high school ESL students that involved academic listening tasks instruction for six weeks.

The teacher modelled the listening strategies and provided opportunities for the students to practice strategies such as selective attention, and note-taking. The study demonstrated a significant improvement in listening comprehension from pre and post listening comprehension test. Having reviewed the related research literature, it appears that further study of listening proficiency improvement through explicit listening strategy instruction may be useful. Hence, this current study seeks to document the impact of using L1 listening strategy instruction on the development of L2 listening proficiency.

### 2.15 How to Improve your English Listening Comprehension

The best way to improve your English listening is to listen. A lot. There's no way around it; you have to spend hours and hours listening to people speaking English. Listen to things that interest you. If you don't enjoy something, it's going to be hard for you to continue. You'll get bored and stop.

### 2.15.1 Other Listening Tips

1. Interacting is better than passive listening. In other words, it's better to talk with someone than just to listen to a TV show, radio program, or podcast. Being in a conversation forces you to listen more carefully.
2. The next thing to watch out for is to make sure that you listen to a variety of different kinds of speech. I know some people who listen to radio news shows every day but don't feel like they're improving. That's because news English is one specialized form of speaking. Only news broadcasters speak that way. So you can't expect to understand everyday conversation if you only listen to the news.
3. Captions can help if they're in English. If you watch a movie, video, or TV show with English subtitles, it can help you match the written words to their spoken pronunciation. But subtitles in your native language are dangerous. They do help you to understand what's going on, but they also keep your brain locked into "native language mode". Try to use native-language subtitles as little as possible.

2.16 The 10 Best Ways to Improve your English Listening Skill

So here's my list of the 10 best ways to improve your English listening skill. These are listed in order. The very best advice is 1, the second-best advice is 2, and so on. Take a look:

1. Live and work in a completely English-speaking environment.
2. Do some kind of sports, hobbies, or other activities with a group of English speakers.
3. Talk one-on-one with an English-speaking tutor a few times a week.
4. Do a language exchange with an English speaker, in person or over Skype.
5. Watch lots of hours of movies, TV shows, and videos in English, with English captions.
6. Watch movies, TV, and videos with no subtitles.
7. Watch movies, TV, and videos with subtitles in your own language.
8. Listen to English podcasts on a topic that's interesting to you (but not on the topic of learning English).
9. Listen to English radio shows.
10. Listen to audio English lessons.

2.17 Improving Listening Skills and Motivation

"Memory is extremely important to educators, not only for them personally as they age and worry about failing memory, but most important, for the role that memory plays in the teaching/learning process. Memory, as a concept, often is relegated to a minimal role" Banikowski, (1999:1). As teachers, we need to help children attain their highest level of thinking. A way to do this is by using different strategies to enhance their dominant area of understanding. Brain-based learning, Multiple Intelligence Theory, and authentic assessment are techniques that can be utilized to reach more students. "Learning can, of course, take place in the classroom, but
most of it doesn't. Today's learning has suddenly become everybody's business. In fact, learning 'how to learn' may now be your most critical survival skill" (Jensen, 1995: 310).

According to Henning, Jacques, Kissel, and Sullivan (1997) more oxygen goes to key brain areas; the eyes can relax a moment, which prevents eye strain; and the body gets a break from musculoskeletal tensions" (Jensen, 2000: 34). Oxygen is a vital component for human life. Through the use of movement and music, oxygen levels in the brain increase, therefore enhancing the brain's capacity to increase learning. According to Weinberger (1998), learning and performing music actually exercise the brain - not only by developing music skills, but also by strengthening the connections between brain cells. Music has the ability to facilitate language acquisition, reading readiness, and general intellectual development to foster positive attitudes and to lower truancy" (Weinberger, 1998: 36). "Play and music are important for the development of children's mental capacity and intellect. They also form the basis of language building. Games accompanied by songs in a second language can extend the vocabulary of the child in that language" (Van Der Linde, 1999: 610). Music helps stimulate the areas in our brain that contain mood, social skills, motivational development, cultural awareness and self-discipline (Jenson, 2000).

Children need to acquire the proper tools to be able to reach their highest potential intellectually, socially, emotionally, and physically. Teachers and parents are the y elements to ensure children are provided with the proper tools to accomplish this task. Movement is a critical key to unlock the many challenges children experience in the educational system. Increasing children's motor capabilities allow children to expand their movement abilities, promote problem solving through strategies, and increase self-confidence. How children feel about themselves and peers is connected to the success and joy related to early fundamental movement skills (Leppo, 2000). "Incorporating the fundamentals of movement into children's daily activities can enhance cognitive and affective skills and build a foundation for an active, healthful lifestyle" (Leppo, 2000: 146). Students who participate in physical activities show an improvement in self-confidence, peer interactions, and brain function. "Physical activity is essential in promoting the growth of mental functions. Exercises such as spinning, crawling, rolling, rocking, tumbling, swinging, and jumping strengthen the brain's main areas: the basal ganglia, the cerebellum and the corpus callosum" (Chan and Petrie, 1998: 13).
Listening is a skill; one that can be learned and improved upon no matter one's age, gender, education, or previous skill level. Like any skill, if it is allowed to go unused, it will 'atrophy' Petress, (1999: 12). Communication does not exist without the ability to listen. Acquiring good listening skills allows the listener to accumulate more information and effectively communicate with others. However, if these skills are not continually practiced, it will slowly diminish (Mulvany, 1998). If students exhibit poor listening, they will lack the ability to recall directions, facts, and details of assignments.

Student learning will decrease without the proper level of listening. To improve these skills we need to teach, model, and reinforce appropriate listening skills. "What makes a good listener? We have found eight techniques for effective listening: attending, appropriate silences, supporting statements, questions, rephrasing, sharing your experiences, empathy, and labeling no-verbal conflicts" (Mulvany, 1998: 20). "The knowledge, skills, and attitudes related to personal health management, health promotion, and health education are best achieved in programs that are comprehensive and interdisciplinary. Gardner's Multiple Intelligences (MI) theory (Gardner, 1993) can be thought of as (1) the engine that activates learners to develop the knowledge, competencies, and appreciation associated with healthy active living and (2) the magnet that draws subject matter specialists, community agencies, and social supporters together to promote healthy active living. Just as engines get things moving, MI theory activates students' minds. It also encourages students to think about content beyond the traditional boundaries, and from different perspectives". Anderson and Weber, (1997: 57). When teachers use a variety of teaching skills that support the MI theory the students will have the opportunity to reach higher level thinking skills. "Give positive concrete suggestions. Let children know what to do rather than telling them what not to do. Make sure directions are easy to understand, model good listening skills, share control, make following directions fun, and share books with predictable sequences".

Miller, (2000: 34). "Deeper processing of the information leads to its incorporation into your existing knowledge base. Once this occurs, you are more likely to retain the information for the long term". Elaborative processing increases the number of retrieval cues for any given memory. And since we often don't know when or in what context we will need a given memory, having multiple and diverse retrieval cues is always better than having just one" (Tigner, 1999:.
Teachers have realized that simply covering material does not always mean that students will remember the facts. Students are given the opportunity to use different strategies to recall these facts. Strategies may include graphic organizers, mnemonic devices, stories and songs, study guides developed by students, and colored pens and pencils (Raebeck, 1999). "Has any music student ever forgotten a mnemonic like 'every good boy does fine' as a means for remembering the lines of the musical scale? Having students develop their own forms for memorization can be equally effective" (Raebeck, 1999: 49).

To overcome poor text structure textbooks are now incorporating aids to assist student learning. The aids convey which information is important in outline or graphic form. The graphic organizer helps students to understand the material through a spatially graphic display Robinson, (1998). Through the use of graphic organizers as a teaching strategy, students will have more of an opportunity to learn at their own MI level. Teachers often struggle with the predicament of how to assess students appropriately when all students learn in a variety of ways and at different rates. This dilemma continues when teachers have limited access to alternative assessments (Weber, 1998). "So how can teachers begin to rethink their assessment strategies? Where do they begin? Perhaps by simply highlighting a few distinguishing marks of effective assessment tools for brain-based learning, teachers will also begin to discover and adapt quality alternatives" Weber, (1998: 63). To be effective educators we must understand how a student learns. Myrah, (1999: 34).

"Unfortunately, when most of us were in graduate school few courses focused on brain development and brain-base strategies. Only within the last few years has information opened the doors of discovery related to how the brain learns. Professional educators have a responsibility to understand and utilize this information for the sake of our students"

Teachers need a variety of teaching strategies; they cannot rely solely on brain-based research. Teachers need to expand their knowledge base in order to reach more students. Educators need to combine the findings of the brain-mind field with those of other fields to diversify and strengthen the applications. Neuroscience is not the only source for research; it's an important part of a larger puzzle. When we synthesize findings in neuroscience with those in sociology, chemistry, anthropology, environmental studies, psychiatry, psychology, education, and therapy, we get powerful applications. The brain is what we have; the mind is how we use it
Jensen, (2000: 77). "Each of the following 15 strategies for motivating students is based on the best available information. Involve students in setting objectives, individualize your objectives, set content priorities, show the relevance of what students are learning, help students learn to learn, make first experiences positive ones, use the familiar to introduce the unfamiliar, appeal to students' interests and curiosity, program students for success, reward students for success, reward students for effort, model interest in learning, involve students in instruction, use a variety of teaching strategies, and be a caring friend to your student" Palardy, (1997: 20-22). "Between the ages of 8 and 10 years old, a child's reading level changes from a deliberate sounding-out of words to a recognition of words without conscious effort.

This progress may parallel a change in brain structure, although which would be cause and which effect is unclear" (Miller, 1995: 247). "Although it is difficult to prescribe a 'one size fits all' approach to motivating students, research suggests that some general patterns do appear to hold true for a wide range of students. Students' perceptions of their educational experiences generally influence their motivation more than the actual, objective reality of those experiences" (Anderman, 1998: 1). Student apathy can be reduced if teachers become aware of student attitudes and beliefs about learning. The home environment initially influences a child's attitude towards learning. The classroom climate in which a student is placed in also has an effect upon the students' ability to learn the subject matter. The way material is delivered has the potential to increase or decrease the level of motivation a student has toward learning (Lumsden, 1994). "Everything that we have discovered about the brain in the last 20 years suggests that we need more stimulus, more change, more movement, and more perspectives in the classroom" (Jensen, 1995, p. 104).

2.18 Improving Listening Skills in the Classroom

Listening is a process that involves the active construction of meaning from what is heard. According to Jacobs (as cited in Jalongo, 1995) active listeners must "get involved in what they hear, both intellectually and emotionally." However, most people operate at only a 25% listening efficiency level even though one acquires 80% of knowledge through listening (Hunsaker, 1990: 128). When one examines listening as a skill it may be observed that it involves more than just hearing. Hearing is the first stage of listening when the actual sounds are
recognized. One must next process what is heard in order to understand and remember, (Hunsaker, 1990: 126). In a learning environment a teacher would prefer to have children process what is heard. Therefore, listening needs to be viewed as a teachable skill as opposed to an automatic reflex.

The four essential components of communication are reading, writing, speaking and listening. All four components are of equal importance, so listening must be taught along with the other three areas. Nunan and Miller (1995) explain that listening is a vital part of a classroom. The skill of listening must be developed in sensing, interpreting, cited in evaluating and responding as stated Jalongo, 1991). Interpretation instruction to be developed by De Stefano, Dole and Marzano (as thinking skills that need and evaluation are higher level Educators can promote improved listening in the classroom. According to Funk skills by incorporating many strategies provide a purpose and Funk (1989), teachers should for listening, set the stage for listening, provide for follow-up experiences to listening activities and use methodology that promotes researchers’ purpose is to implement several positive listening habits. The teacher listening strategies in the classroom.

In doing this, students will develop the skills necessary. According to Chambers and Lowry (as cited Active listening implies readiness, listening actively to a spelling list being read by a for active listening in Marlow, 1979): for a special purpose. Children listen teacher, since after they hear a word on the list, they are required to write it on paper. Active listening does not comprise most of the child's listening efforts. Often he does not know how or when to listen actively he can listen in an active way. A good teacher The teacher researchers provide six clues, or their classrooms. The six interventions are He will usually need clues so that will provide these clues. (p.10) interventions, to increase active listening in teacher modeling, listening for a purpose, musical anchors, imagery, prediction and paraphrasing. Teacher modeling reinforces appropriate listening (as cited in Jalongo 1995) "adults can teach skills. According to Malaguzzi children to listen, first and foremost, by being good listeners themselves.” If students listen to others. Students will also observe the feel listened to they may be more apt to body language and verbal response involved when one is listening. This may influence how the children respond when required to be attentive.
Knowing the purpose for listening can also influence one's listening skills. Giving a purpose for listening allows students to know what they will be held accountable for and where they should focus their listening. Funk and Funk (1989) suggests children "need guidance as to what they are expected to learn from each listening activity and this guidance should increase the comprehension and retention." Nichols (as cited in Strother 1987) discovered a person's listening ability is faster than normal conversation. Therefore, much of what is heard can be lost. Providing students with a purpose also gives them the opportunity to weed out any unneeded information that may allow for easier focusing. People naturally associate certain everyday sounds with meaning. For example, a siren may mean trouble, birds singing may mean daybreak and school bells may mean the end of the day.

These experiences elicit thoughts, memories and feelings. This happens all the time in your class. From the place you stand, to the motions you make, students are conditioned to elicit a certain state or give a certain response. You can use this to your advantage (DE Porter, Reardon and Singer-Nourie, 1999: 133). One way to use this to one's advantage is to incorporate music. Music can be used to develop associations between songs and activities. For instance, when students hear a particular song, they process it to mean it is time to clean up. The use of imagery teaches children how to make a mental picture of what they are hearing. When they have the ability of connecting what they hear to something that is already stored in their minds they are more apt to process and "Your brain naturally creates, edits, stores and retrieves internalize the information.

Images. This happens automatically, and is directly influenced by the words you hear. The human brain creates images constantly. This happens either through sensory input that's visual, both" (DE Porter et al., 1999:119). Teaching students to be aware of this helps them to it with their everyday listening. auditory or natural tool. According to Jalongo (1996) higher level listening occurs when one uses imagery to comprehend meaning and react to what has been heard.

Predicting also promotes thinking at a higher level. Both imagery and predicting could be utilized during auditory lessons. Students may use their prior knowledge to connect what is heard with a mental image of what may happen next. Brent and Anderson state (as cited in
Swanson, 1996) that providing instruction in the area of prediction allows students to identify main ideas, draw justifiable inferences, distinguish between fact and fiction and critically analyze information. The skill of predicting automatically lends itself to two of the four areas of listening skills. Prediction involves interpreting visual and auditory messages. Prediction also requires evaluating by combining prior knowledge with what may happen and organizing them into one outcome.

The experiences that directly follow a listening activity are a related extension. Different methods of paraphrasing provide opportunities to check comprehension of what has been learned and allow children to apply new information according to Funk and Funk (1989). Students need to relate subject matter to their lives to make it meaningful. One way to monitor listening skills as related to direction is to have children act out what they are to do next (adapted from Brown cited in Jalongo, 1995). This involves the listeners and allows for paraphrasing to be conducted kinesthetically. note that including the use of the body for young can often keep interest easier than words.

2.19 Enhancing Foreign Language Learning Through Listening Strategies

Language teaching refers to a complex process that allows us to understand spoken language. The current study, conducted in Iran with an experimental design, investigated the effectiveness of teaching listening strategies delivered in L1 (Persian) and its effect on listening comprehension in L2. Five listening strategies: Guessing, making inferences, identifying topics, repetition, and note-taking were taught over 14 weeks during a semester. Sixty lower intermediate female participants came from two EFL classrooms in an English language institute. The experimental class (n = 30) who listened to their classroom activities performed better (t value = 10.083) than the control class using a methodology that led learners through five listening strategies in Persian.

The same teacher taught the students in the control class (n = 30), who listened to the same classroom listening activities without any of the above listening strategies. A pre and post listening test made by a group of experts in the language institute assessed the effect of teaching listening strategies delivered in L1. Results gathered on the post intervention
listening test revealed that listening strategies delivered in L1 led to a statistically significant improvement in their discrete listening scores compared with the control group. Listening is a basic skill in first language acquisition and is crucial in English as Second/Foreign Language (ESL/EFL) learning. This skill, despite its importance, has been allocated inadequate consideration in ESL/EFL teaching. The process of employing listening strategies on the part of learners, and explicitly teaching listening skills on the part of teachers, has been overlooked through a strong emphasis on posthoc assessment of the products of listening. Brown (2008), Field (2008a), Goh (2008), and Vandergrift (2007) described similar instructional issues in major studies of ESL/EFL teaching contexts in Canada, England and Singapore.

In English language institutes in Iran, however, the process of the skill of listening is not emphasized despite a wide access to listening materials with accompanying audiovisual technology in the classroom such as CDs, DVD or video. Students consequently attribute their difficulty in listening comprehension either to their inadequate competence or to the linguistic difficulty of stimulus texts. In a discussion of comparable teaching contexts, Graham (2006) observes that continuing difficulty in developing listening skills may lead to a sense of passivity, lack of motivation and a less effective listener. The point here is that the process of listening skill instruction is not given sufficient attention in the classroom and is undervalued globally and in Iran, in particular. Two prevailing challenges emerge, namely,

(iv) understanding the listening skill process per se, and
(v) choosing the medium to teach listening strategy in the classroom, which may prevent students from improving their listening skills at the lower intermediate level in the Iranian EFL context.

Research focusing on explicit listening strategy instruction seems to be crucial in addressing the choice of language used for teaching listening strategies, because the challenge at the lower intermediate language level of Iranian students is to understand the medium of teaching listening strategies. Despite the centrality of understanding the medium of learning strategy instruction for EFL learners at the beginning and lower intermediate levels (Macaro, 2001), most teachers in language institutes in Iran believe that the first language should not be
used in the class as it may hinder learning. In the last decade commentators have attempted to point out the contribution of listening skills to developing ESL/EFL learning through explicit listening strategy instruction in the classroom (e.g. Chang and Read et.al, 2006). However, very few studies pinpoint the 'niche', that is, the measure of potential impact of L1 listening strategy instruction on L2 language listening. Limitations in the existing literature highlight the need for the study of this topic in lower intermediate level EFL contexts in Iran.

2.20 First Language Impact on L2

Considering the influence of L1 on the use of two particular listening strategies i.e., syntactic cues and prosodic cues, Harley (2000) argues that Chinese and Polish students with various levels of proficiency seem to derive assistance prosodically (i.e. information provided by the intonation and stress patterns of the sentences) from L1. When students encounter confusing sentences or they rely on syntax to reconstruct prosodic cues. Supporting the notion of listening strategy development, Field (2008a) maintains that L1 listening strategy per se enhances L2 listening through some osmotic processes, as the phonology of target language is manipulated by learners. However, some paralinguistic factors slow down understanding of L2 listening for the beginning and lower intermediate language level learners due to their inefficiency in a target language and this inadequate linguistic efficiency continues to quite a high level of language proficiency. Field (2008b) suggests three causes for the slowing:

i. inadequate vocabulary repertoire and schemata limit L2 listeners to recognize known words in connected speech;

ii. insufficient listening experience leads L2 listeners to apply inappropriate lexical segmentation strategies with the available phonemes; and

iii. in comparison with L1 listeners who maintain a greater working memory capacity to support potential gaps in the co-text, L2 listeners are not able to examine their decoding and/or manage their uncertain word recognition during the real time listening process.

Thus, these three factors contribute to the insufficient understanding of what L2 listeners derive from speech signals. Supporting the learning contribution of L1 to L2, Macaro (2009)
proposed a theoretical framework showing that L1 facilitates enhanced learning in L2 from three sources. Heargues that predicting, processing and storing knowledge are dovetailed with the cognitive theory used in L1 and L2 language learning through interaction in both short and long term memory (see also Ellis, 2005). Second, the socio-cultural theory supports L1 assistance in L2 learning and emphasizes that both think aloud and engaging in mental commentaries often take place in L1 and contribute to L2 learning. Finally, the code switching theory supports the fact that L1 facilitates the process of L2 learning via linguistic styles (formal and informal) in the real life environment.

Returning to the significance of using L1 in L2 learning development, the findings of some recent research (e.g. Orland-Barak and Yinon, 2005; Carless, 2008) demonstrated that the running belief among language teachers, who consider L1 as interference (e.g., Kellerman, 1995) in L2 learning development, has been transformed. Experienced teachers, inexperienced teachers and teacher trainers view the use of L1 as a constructive means of scaffolding learning and as an effective means of classroom management (Littlewood and Yu, 2009). This supports the inclusion of L1 into classroom syllabi. As such, the classroom-based research conducted by Brooks-Lewis(2009) challenged the theoretical and practical exclusion of adult learners' L1 in EFL learning on university level students by receiving students' positive feedback on incorporation of L1 (Spanish) in foreign language teaching and learning. The finding of this study showed that students' feedback included how and why they thought the use of L1 enabled them to learn EFL more comfortably and enabled them to recognize the difference between their L1 and English as the target language.

The outcomes of the studies reviewed above show that using L1 facilitates L2 learning and accelerates the process of learning. This learning process strengthens knowledge of listening, which is a basic skill and requires adequate schemata and listening experience. Listening used in language teaching refers to a complex process that allows us to understand spoken language. The current study, conducted in Iran with an experimental design, investigated the effectiveness of teaching listening strategies delivered in L1 (Persian) and its effect on listening comprehension in L2. Five listening strategies: Guessing, making inferences, identifying topics, repetition, and note-taking were taught over 14 weeks during a semester. Sixty lower intermediate female participants came from two EFL classrooms
in an English language institute. The experimental class (n = 30) who listened to their classroom activities performed better (t value = 10.083) than the control class using a methodology that led learners through five listening strategies in Persian. The same teacher taught the students in the control class (n = 30), who listened to the same classroom listening activities without any of the above listening strategies. A pre and post listening test made by a group of experts in the language institute assessed the effect of teaching listening strategies delivered in L1. Results gathered on the post intervention listening test revealed that listening strategies delivered in L1 led to a statistically significant improvement in their discrete listening scores compared with the control group.

2.21 The Solution Strategy

The search for an approach to improve listening skills has turned up several strategies, all similar in nature. The significant difference in these strategies is the perspective the researcher takes. These different perspectives fall into two major categories. The first approaches improving listening skills in terms of the teacher and what he/she can do to improve the listening skills of students. The second approach is in terms of the student and what specifically students can do to improve their listening skills. Each approach will be discussed.

Improving listening skills in terms of what the teacher can do has turned up research where many common traits are found. Those include some of the following strategies that teachers should use: provide a good listening environment, give clear directions and model good listening. Overall, the big picture that this approach acknowledges is the thought that listening skills need to be taught to students because we as educators cannot assume that listening skills will be taught at home. Research suggests that teachers need to provide a good listening environment if effective listening is to be maximized. Thompson and Gradgenett (1999:3) stated "go listening is encouraged by putting the mind in a 'ready to listen mode'. Distractions such as background noises should be removed so that students can focus on listening (Miller, 2000; Jalongo, 1995).

If distractions are present, they can interfere with the ability to hear, which in turn affects the ability to listen (Public Management,1997; Matheson, Moon and Winiecki, 2000). Also, students should be prepared to listen(Engraffia, et.al, 1999). That could mean sitting in a
comfortable position and/or having the necessary tools ready (Thompson and Gradgenett, 1999). Students who are not sitting properly can be distracted by their physical discomfort. This discomfort may cause poor concentration while someone is talking (Public Management, 1997; Brent and Anderson, 1993). If students are in the right environment for listening, they will not be distracted and can approach listening with a clear mind, which is a vital step in the listening process (Messmer, 1998; Funk and Funk, 1989).

While teaching listening skills, teachers need to give clear directions. Miller (2000) suggested that directions be easy to understand. If directions are confusing or complicated, students will tune them out and wait for a simpler explanation (Jalongo, 1995). As a teacher, directions should be well thought out and any confusing parts should be clarified for students. Furthermore, teachers might consider using a visual aid to accompany directions. This strategy can help students gain information by addressing the learning styles of both the visual and auditory learners (Church, 2000). Thompson and Gradgenett (1999:4) stated that this approach is "a realistic start in getting slow learners to focus on what the teacher is saying". Teachers should also repeat or rephrase directions for students (Miller, 2000). Thompson and Gradgenett (1999:3) commented on the strategy of repeating information by saying that "educators severely strain the disadvantaged student's listening abilities when they state, 'listen closely, I will only say this once' because "even the best students may require certain information to be repeated or redefined". To add to this, Jalongo (1995) stated that the process of repeating or rephrasing can also be used by students. Teachers can call on students to repeat or rephrase the directions back to them.

Once teachers have established a good listening environment and given clear directions, another key component for teaching good listening skills is the teacher's modeling of good listening for students. One of the best ways to teach is by example, therefore, it is important that when teachers teach children to listen, that they be good listeners themselves. Jalongo (1995:3) agreed and added "students' attentive, involved-listening depends considerably upon teacher behavior". He noted modeling good listening habits as one of those behaviors. One suggestion for teachers to accomplish this is by spending time listening to what individual students have to say and talking about their thoughts and ideas (Miller, 2000).
This technique makes students feel valued and cared for. Once students feel they are cared for by a teacher, they will care more about what that teacher has to say. Also, class discussions are a great opportunity for teachers to model good listening, and for students to learn, listen and value other's contributions (Engraffia, et.al, 1999). Other strategies include: slow down the message and allow time to process information, encourage the listener to keep an open mind while listening, reward good listening and be aware of potential barriers within students that may get in the way of listening. The strategy of encouraging the listener to keep an open mind while listening supports the existence of the problem stated earlier, that some students time out speaker or stop listening altogether.

Teachers need to teach students how not to over-react to trigger words or phrases because attention can be lost when the focus for the student turns to the negative consequences of the word or phrase. The focus of this-strategy encourages listeners to listen to the complete message before making judgments. A combined approach to improving listening skills would contain both teacher-led as well as student-led strategies. This approach is well rounded in that both the teacher and the student share the responsibilities of improving listening skills. The component that is teacher-led has already been discussed. The student-led component highlights student strategies of: blocking out distractions, asking clarifying questions, practicing paraphrasing and using self-discipline techniques before responding.

The approach that focuses only on student strategies contains three common components. Each of these strategies provides useful benefits to the student. First, students give their undivided attention to the speaker. The first vital step of effective listening is preparing yourself mentally and physically (Mulvany, 1998). Public Management (1997:3) commented that "attentiveness accomplishes two things: it helps you concentrate more fully on what the speaker is saying, and it sends a nonverbal message to the speaker that what he or she has to say is very important to you". Eye contact is a must. In particular, Cousins (2000) stated that eye contact encourages the speaker and makes him/her feel the listener cares. Edwards (1991) added that watching the speaker allows the listener to focus on the verbal message and to observe any nonverbal cues that the speaker may display.
The presence of non-verbal clues that show the listener is attentive would be good body language, lack of fidgeting, appropriate head nods and not interrupting the speaker (Petress, 1999; Mulvany, 1998). It is suggested that the listeners wait three seconds before responding to make sure the speaker is finished. Messmer(1998) stated that the listener should become comfortable with the few seconds of silence that may occur when the speaker pauses mid-thought. If the listener immediately responds at the first pause of the speaker, the speaker may not have the opportunity to complete their thought or make the point they were trying to make. The use of head nods and "uh-huhs" can make the speaker feel more comfortable. Second, effective listening skills involve the listener responding to the speaker.

The following forms of responding have been noted: asking questions, rephrasing what the speaker said, sharing your own personal experience, and offering feedback. Asking questions is a way to elicit more information from the speaker or to clarify the information (Cousins, 2000; Messmer, 1998). These questions should be direct, yet open-ended (Mulvany, 1998). They are especially effective when trying to draw out a shy speaker. Teachers should also make sure that the question is appropriate and relevant.

Rephrasing is a technique that ensures the speaker that you have understood what was said. It also gives the speaker the opportunity to clarify any information the listener may have misunderstood (Public Management, 1997). Mulvaney (1998:2) commented that too often when people listen, "people often hear what they want to hear instead of what is being said". Mother comment he made is a great argument for the use of rephrasing with students. said, "Retention is improved by as much as 25 percent when you repeat what you have heard, you have a better chance of remembering the points being made".

Listeners can respond to a speaker by sharing their own experiences or offering feedback to the speaker. This feedback should be honest, timely, clear, respectful and relevant to what the speaker said (Petress, 1999). Typically remarks should be short to prevent the listener from taking over the conversation (Mulvany, 1998). When responses are in the form of sharing, the listener is showing the speaker empathy. This response works well because in some situations the speaker is not looking for a suggestion or solution. They may just want the listener to listen.
In this case, this response acknowledges that the listener has heard the speaker's message (Mulvany, 1998).

And third, pay close attention to the speaker. The listener should be paying attention to inferences, facts or judgments the speaker is making (Petress, 1999). In addition, the listener should also be looking for non-verbal clues the speaker gives. Good listener should not only be listening to what the speaker is saying, but also how he/she is saying it. An example of this might be a speaker saying "I'm fine" in a listless, melancholy way (Mulvaney, 1998). A good listener can detect tone, vocabulary, sentence structure and voice quality dimensions in a speaker (Petress, 1999)

When the listener detects any changes in these communication behaviors, he/she should seek verification or reasons for the behavior. Cousins (2000:2) specifically said the listener should be listening for the feelings of the speaker. He stated, "An individual's words often do not tell the whole story. The real message can only be understood if the underlying feelings are brought out into the open". At some point during the instruction of listening skills, the teacher should model nonverbal cues. This is important so that students can see how non-verbal cues can vary the meaning of the message being communicated (Leverentz and Garman, 1987). Once students are introduced to how nonverbal clues affect the meaning of a message, they will be more likely to identify them while they are listening. Also effectively identifying these nonverbal clues can lead to more accurate decoding of communicated messages.

2.22 Improving Student Listening Skills through the use of Teaching Strategies

2.22.1 Listening and Communication

Of all communication factors, listening is considered the most important(Willmington, 1993). Listening is the language skill humans use most, and achieving children to listen better is an essential and long overdue task. Achieving this goal demands three things from the adults who work with children: an understanding of the listening process, the implementation of research-based strategies for improving children's listening, and an appreciation for the changes we need to make in ourselves, in our homes, and in our schools (Jalongo, 1991). Listening is more than just intense hearing; listening is, according to Lundsteen,(as cited in Jalongo, 1991: 21) "the
process by which spoken language is converted to meaning in the mind”. When understood in this way, discovered by Stefano, et.al (Jalongo 1991: 10) listening involves:

1. sensing,
2. interpreting,
3. evaluating and
4. responding,

Usually when we say that we want to improve children's listening skills, what we really mean is that we want to improve the three highest levels of listening: interpretation, evaluation, and response. These are the "higher-order" or "critical listening" skills (Jalongo, 1991). This goal could be achieved by using reflective logs at the end of an oral lesson or discussion.

2.22.2 Teacher Clarity

One strategy to help students reach the higher order listening skills is improving teacher clarity. In 1993, Willmington conducted surveys showing how oral communication skills are vital to a teacher's success. Preciseness and clarity in a teacher's presentation, can improve a student's achievement. Focusing student attention and reducing the complexity of the message will improve students' ability to understand. Generally speaking, messages that are long, vague, abstract, use complex sentences and vocabulary, or are distorted in some way are more difficult for listeners to understand. Conversely, messages that are concise and clear, that introduce new vocabulary in context, and that use concrete objects to illustrate or emphasize key points tend to be well understood. It is important for adults to provide young children with unambiguous messages (Jalongo, 1996). In addition, leading the students to key points that maintain students' attentions will aid in future recall (Chilcoat, 1992). Teacher clarity, brevity and the use of concrete objects are especially helpful to students with processing difficulties and students who are not native speakers of English.

2.22.3 Listening Experiences

Students should be given a variety of different listening experiences, such as listening for appreciation (poetry, music), listening for information (announcements, reports), listening for
critical analysis (explain speaker's purpose, determine bias), and listening in creative contexts (choral reading, storytelling) (Funk and Funk, 1989).

2.22.4 Listening Instruction

A student's listening ability can be improved through direct instruction. To improve the teaching of listening it has been suggested that children be trained in three ways:

1. to concentrate on body language and gestures to enhance attention;
2. to practice techniques to overcome negative attitudes toward listening; and
3. to learn to identify important aspects of the speaker's material (Edwards et.al, 1991).

Listening instruction can enhance comprehension of content. In addition, teachers can use a variety of instructional strategies to increase student's listening skills. For example, teachers need to teach children to listen to one another. Also providing a purpose for listening is important. Teachers need to model good listening on a regular basis daily. Teachers also need to design learning experiences that promote active listening, as well as integrating listening activities in to all subjects. Teachers also need to use the power of narratives, and plan follow-up activities (Jalongo, 1991).

2.22.5 Implementation of Listening Strategies

There is evidence that shows how listening affects student's comprehension. Teachers need to take time for intensive listening training to help produce more attentive students. Implementing listening activities will improve listening skills. There are many activities teachers can incorporate into a regular class schedule that allow students to have a variety of listening experiences. Some activities include listening for pleasure and appreciation. In addition students need to listen in order to follow oral directions that are given. Listening Activities Incorporated With Content Lessons There are many activities that can improve students' listening in content areas (Anderson and Brent, 1993). For instance, listening to find the main ideas should be stressed when covering material in social studies, science, and reading. The teacher should have students listen to remember details and also listen to identify the sequence of related factual information (Dorsey, 1969). By doing this, performance academic level will increase (Ansley and Friedman, 199).
2.23 Teaching Reading

Improving Reading Comprehension through Metacognitive Reflection Focused and Engaged in Classroom Activities. Communities are trying to address reading difficulties by developing a variety of initiatives. The Little Red Reading Book describes one state's five-year plan to improve reading scores among its students. It highlights strategies and core abilities that it expects students to develop based on current research in reading. The components of the program contain a wide variety of approaches to improve reading from the teaching of decoding skills, to providing adequate materials, and to teach comprehension strategies. (The Little Red Reading Book, 1997:6)

Educators have addressed reading difficulties in a myriad of ways. Thematic units have provided students with a deeper understanding of concepts because they encourage transfer of learning. "The coherence between areas of study within the unit provides students the opportunity for making connections between concepts and recognizing relationships that they otherwise might not have recognized" (Winograd and Gaskins, 1992:231). Thematic units have strong implications for reading comprehension because they connect the information. "Reading/Writing Workshop, learning strategies taught in content areas and literacy instruction integrated with thematic study are promising directions for literacy development during the middle grades" (Irvin, 1998:235).

Another approach to improving reading comprehension is the direct instruction of cognitive learning strategies. "A learning strategy is any purposeful action that an individual takes in order to increase his or her successful completion of a task" (Winograd and Gaskins, 1992: 229). Winograd and Gaskins highlight several reading strategies that they have taught their students. In our own work, we have found it useful to organize the strategies we teach into ones that students can use before reading (previewing, setting purposes, activating prior knowledge, predicting, etc.); while reading (checking and clarifying comprehension, visualizing, taking notes, etc.); and after reading (reviewing comprehension, responding to and applying different kinds of reading, etc.). Research has proven the effectiveness of teaching students specific strategies. Schraw and Graham (1997) report that a number of studies showed that learning improves when cognitive strategies are included in daily classroom instruction (Schraw and
Graham, 1997: 2). Silven reports that both poor and average sixth grade readers benefited from being taught text-processing strategies (Silven, 200:1).

Once teachers have identified the strategies that they want their students to utilize, they can actively model the thinking processes they use during reading for their students. By modeling for students the types of behaviors good readers are engaged in as they read, we are providing them with the opportunity to become aware of the many strategies and monitoring behaviors that good readers use. With enough modeling and coached-practice, students will be on their way to becoming independent users of strategies. Eventually they will become their own coaches.

Farr and Conner, (2001:1) One way to model thinking skills is through the think-aloud process. "Whim bey and Lochhead (1986) designed the 'think-aloud' problem-solving process so 'you (can) make your thinking visible to other people so that they can observe your attack on a problem" (Fusco and Fountain, 1992: 249). The think-aloud process actively engages readers in the text. By getting students to reflect on the process of thinking aloud as they read, we're encouraging them to recognize the difference between reading the words and comprehending the text. By talking about their own strategy use students gain insights into the complexities of reading, and hence expand their understanding of what it means to be a 'good reader.' (Farr and Conner, 2001:1) Teaching students to be aware of various textual structures and genres and of their purposes also leads to improved comprehension. Collins states a knowledge of textual features influence comprehension and memory. This knowledge enables the student to tailor his or her reading style to the type of text and purpose for reading. It is especially important when reading informational or expository selections (Collins, 1994:1). Taylor (1982) found that students who were aware of text structures showed better comprehension and memory than those who did not (Taylor cited in Irvin, 1998,p.92). Therefore, it is important that teachers take the time to show their students how to most effectively use textual structures within their textbooks. In addition to teaching students cognitive strategies, researchers have demonstrated the effectiveness of teaching metacognitive strategies in improving reading comprehension. Metacognitive reading strategies "... generalize across many tasks, help readers' awareness of whether or not they comprehend what they are reading, and assist readers' decision of what strategies to employ to aid comprehension" (Weisberg cited in Collins et. al., 2001:7).
A number of methods to promote metacognition have been developed. One of these metacognitive strategies is known as journaling. Journaling allows students to connect with the text and reflect on what they have just read. According to Blakey and Spence (1990:2), journaling gives students an opportunity to reflect upon their thinking, and makes them aware of their strengths and weaknesses as readers. Journaling can take many different forms. One way is what Rhoades and McCabe call "wrap-ups" (Rhoades and McCabe, 1992:48). They are a brief activity that follows a lesson and allows students to analyze their use of specific strategies or content material. "Whatever the content of the wrap-up activity internal dialogue is shared and mediation and metacognition occur. The wrap-up can be structured to enhance any level of thinking desired, including recall, analysis, and synthesis of content information". They include specific examples of reflective stems such as: "I can use the information that I learned today because..." and "I felt the greatest strength of the character was..." Other metacognitive strategies involving structured written responses to reading are used to advance reading comprehension. One such cognitive organizer is known as the "Think-Link chart." The Think-Link chart helps students monitor themselves while they are reading and make connections to the material. While reading an assigned selection silently, the teacher writes down various statements on the board, relating to the selection. After reading, the students are encouraged to add their own statements on the board. The students are able to visualize their thought processes and participate in a discussion based on these ideas (Skeans, 2000: 2).

Another cognitive organizer is known as the know-want to know-learn chart (KWL) developed by Ogle (1986). "In the want to know step, students begin to think of questions concerning the topic; this step helps them generate a purpose for their reading and prepares them to monitor their comprehension" (Peregoy and Boyle, 1997:326). Awareness of what they know and do not know is a form of metacognitive awareness. The Plus-Minus-Interesting strategy developed by de Bono (1970), helps students process their thinking. "In this procedure, students look at the affective, cognitive, and metacognitive levels for processing their thinking" (de Bono cited in Bellanca and Fogarty, 1992:12). The PMI strategy allows the students to analyze the information that they have just read and to evaluate its relevance. By paying attention to the affective component of learning, the PMI chart motivates the learner. "Research has provided clear evidence that emotions and affect influence how students think about themselves as
learners. This is significant because students' self-perceptions have an impact on their ability to engage in metacognitive behavior" (Borkowski cited in Winograd and Gaskins, 1992: 227). Keene and Zimmerman (1997) describe a method of active reading wherein readers use a coding system to reflect their thinking as they read a selection. The students write a letter symbol on a sticky note or on the text to represent their thoughts. For example, a question mark indicated that the reader didn't comprehend the passage, or an "S" indicated that the student was surprised at what was read. Keane and Zimmerman, (1997:40)

"The coding system forces students to think constantly while they are reading. It is required that they make a judgment or evaluation after each paragraph. When the students realize they are not comprehending what they are reading, they may then employ a variety of fix-up strategies, such as rereading, to correct the problem".

The teacher researchers have decided to focus on metacognitive reflection inorder to improve reading comprehension in their students. Various strategies will be taught, modeled, and practiced throughout the intervention. The teacher researchers believe that these metacognitive strategies will improve students' reading comprehension thus encouraging the transfer of learning. "The ability to think about your own thinking is essential in a world of continuous change. Through metacognition, we can develop skills that are genuinely transferable... This deep reflective capability is what helps us develop new possibilities" (Lifford, 2000, p.8).

2.24 Strategies for Developing Reading Skills

2.24.1 Using Reading Strategies

Language instructors are often frustrated by the fact that students do not automatically transfer the strategies they use when reading in their native language to reading in a language they are learning. Instead, they seem to think reading means starting at the beginning and going word by word, stopping to look up every unknown vocabulary item, until they reach the end. When they do this, students are relying exclusively on their linguistic knowledge, a bottom-up strategy. One of the most important functions of the language instructor, then, is to help students move past this idea and use top-down strategies as they do in their native language. Effective language instructors show students how they can adjust their reading behavior to deal with a
variety of situations, types of input, and reading purposes. They help students develop a set of reading strategies and match appropriate strategies to each reading situation.

2.24.2 Strategies That can Help Students Read more Quickly and Effectively

Include:

1. Previewing: reviewing titles, section headings, and photo captions to get a sense of the structure and content of a reading selection.
2. Predicting: using knowledge of the subject matter to make predictions about content and vocabulary and check comprehension; using knowledge of the text type and purpose to make predictions about discourse structure; using knowledge about the author to make predictions about writing style, vocabulary, and content.
3. Skimming and scanning: using a quick survey of the text to get the main idea, identify text structure, confirm or question predictions.
4. Guessing from context: using prior knowledge of the subject and the ideas in the text as clues to the meanings of unknown words, instead of stopping to look them
5. Paraphrasing: stopping at the end of a section to check comprehension by restating the information and ideas in the text.
6. Instructors can help students learn when and how to use reading strategies in several ways.
7. By modeling the strategies aloud, talking through the processes of previewing, predicting, skimming and scanning, and paraphrasing. This shows students how the strategies work and how much they can know about a text before they begin to read word by word.
8. By allowing time in class for group and individual previewing and predicting activities as preparation for in-class or out-of-class reading. Allocating class time to these activities indicates their importance and value.
9. By using cloze (fill in the blank) exercises to review vocabulary items. This helps students learn to guess meaning from context.
10. By encouraging students to talk about what strategies they think will help them approach a reading assignment, and then talking after reading about what strategies they actually used. This helps students develop flexibility in their choice of strategies.
When language learners use reading strategies, they find that they can control the reading experience, and they gain confidence in their ability to read the language.

2.25 Reading to Learn

Reading is an essential part of language instruction at every level because it supports learning in multiple ways.

a) Reading to learn the language: Reading material is language input. By giving students a variety of materials to read, instructors provide multiple opportunities for students to absorb vocabulary, grammar, sentence structure, and discourse structure as they occur in authentic contexts. Students thus gain a more complete picture of the ways in which the elements of the language work together to convey meaning.

b) Reading for content information: Students' purpose for reading in their native language is often to obtain information about a subject they are studying, and this purpose can be useful in the language learning classroom as well. Reading for content information in the language classroom gives students both authentic reading material and an authentic purpose for reading.

c) Reading for cultural knowledge and awareness: Reading everyday materials that are designed for native speakers can give students insight into the lifestyles and worldviews of the people whose language they are studying.

When students have access to newspapers, magazines, and Web sites, they are exposed to culture in all its variety, and monolithic cultural stereotypes begin to break down. When reading to learn, students need to follow four basic steps:

a) Figure out the purpose for reading. Activate background knowledge of the topic in order to predict or anticipate content and identify appropriate reading strategies.

b) Attend to the parts of the text that are relevant to the identified purpose and ignore the rest. This selectivity enables students to focus on specific items in the input and reduces the amount of information they have to hold in short-term memory.

c) Select strategies: that are appropriate to the reading task and use them flexibly and interactively. Students' comprehension improves and their confidence increases when they use top-down and bottom-up skills simultaneously to construct meaning.
d) Check comprehension: while reading and when the reading task is completed. Monitoring comprehension helps students detect inconsistencies and comprehension failures, helping them learn to use alternate strategies.

### 2.26 Developing Reading Fluency in EFL

The role of word recognition in fluent reading, RR in L1 settings, and RR and ER in L2/FL settings. A critical role of word recognition skills in fluent reading. Extensive research has been done on eye-movements of monolingual readers of English showing the critical role of automatic word recognition in fluent, skillful reading. For example, readers fixate their eyes on about 80% of the content words but 40% of the function words. When skillful readers do skip, they rarely skip more than one word (e.g., Adams, 1990; Just and Carpenter, 1980, 1987). Readers exhibit extreme sensitivity to letter-level features of text. Rayner and Bertera (1979) masked one letter in fovea vision and found that readers' reading speed was reduced by 50%. Skillful readers seem to execute word recognition tasks automatically and effortlessly, thus allowing them to direct their cognitive resources to comprehending text.

This notion is now widely accepted in both English as L1 learning contexts (e.g., Adams et.al, 1994), and English as L2/FL learning contexts (e.g., Anderson et.al, 1999). It is likely, however, that efficient word recognition is not the sole foundation of good comprehension. Background knowledge and higher-order comprehension skills, such as generating predictions and making inferences also influence readers' comprehension performances (e.g., Anderson and Pearson, 1984; Carrell and Eisterhold,1983). Still, for either L1 or L2/FL readers, building automaticity in word recognition is essential because "it is highly unlikely that excellent reading comprehension will be observed in the face of deficient word recognition skills" (Stanovich, 1992: 4). Good readers should be able to decode words in text through "a kind of automatic identification that requires no conscious cognitive efforts" (Eskey, 1988: 94). These comments are particularly relevant to L2/FL reading teachers: reading in a foreign or second language is usually a slow, laborious process (Anderson,1999; Jensen, 1986; Segalowitz, Poulsen, and Komoda, 1991). This state of affairs may point to motivational problems for learners in L2/FL contexts in regards to utilizing reading as a significant source of linguistic input.
Nuttall (1996: 127) posits a "vicious circle" to describe readers who cannot develop good reading skills. Slow readers do not read much, and if they do not read much, they do not understand. If they do not understand, then they cannot enjoy reading. Day and Bamford (1998) note that it is only through actual reading experience that L2 or FL readers can acquire the complex linguistic, world, and topical knowledge needed to improve their reading skills (Day and Bamford, 1998: 19). Therefore, for theoretical and pedagogical reasons, L2 and FL researchers and educators are focusing their efforts on finding effective methods to help L2 and FL learners to increase their reading rates (Day and Bamford et.al, 1998;).

http://nflrc.hawaii.edu/rfl.

2.27 Repeated Reading (RR) in L1 Settings

RR is one method developed to increase learners' reading rates. RR was devised by Samuels(1979) and consists of re-reading a short passage silently or orally until a reader is able to read it with ease. Learners in an RR program may engage in unassisted RR where no oral reading model of a passage is supplied. Learners may also engage in an assisted RR program in which alive or audio taped model of reading is given (e.g., Chomsky, 1976; National Institute of Child Health and Human Development, 2000). There has been extensive research on the effects of RR in English as L1 settings. Re-reading passages has been found to increase students' oral reading rates and accuracy (Carver and Hoffman et.al, 1981). This in turn leads to better comprehension of passages (Dowhoweret.al, 1987; Herman). In addition, practice effects of re-reading a passage are carried over to new, unpracticed passages in terms of reading rate and accuracy (Carver and Hoffman et.al, 1981) and comprehension (Dowhower et.al, 1987). RR has a positive effect on readers' vocabulary development (Koskinen and Blum, 1984), and seems to enable readers to read in larger and more syntactically and phonologically appropriate phrases (Dowhower, 1987). It has been discovered, however, that unless the degree of overlapping vocabulary between old and new passages is high, transfer of gains to the new passage is minimal in terms of reading rate (Rashotte and Torgesen, 1985).

Repeated reading in L2/FL settings While RR has received considerable attention in English as L1 settings, somewhat less at tention has been paid to research on RR in L2 or FL settings. Blum, Koskinen, Tennant, Parker, Straub, and Curry (1995) investigated whether
home-based RR with an auditory model (audio cassettes) is an effective supplement to an L2 literacy program. They concluded that RR improved the readers' ability to read fluently and accurately books of increasing difficulty. Significantly, readers also reported through a survey that RR enhanced their motivation to read. In a later study, Taguchi (1997) examined the effects of RR on English oral and silent reading rates of 15 Japanese university students. The ten week study stipulated 28 in-class RR sessions. In each session readers read a passage silently seven times; three of those times, readers read while listening to an audio taped model of the passage. Taguchi found that silent reading rates increased significantly even toward the seventh reading; there was no apparent leveling off of reading rate increases.

However, when readers were asked to silently read or read aloud new passages, they did not seem to transfer their increased reading rates to the new passages. There was one exception: the lowest level readers showed a significant improvement in their oral reading rate of new passages. Motivated by Taguchi’s results, Taguchi and Gorsuch (2002) focused on RR transfer effects for silent reading rate and comprehension to new passages. Their results were not conclusive. They found that the ten week RR program facilitated participants’ (nine EFL readers) reading rates from a pre-test reading passage done at the beginning of the program to a post-test reading passage done at the end of the program (a different passage). However, the reading rate gains from the first RR session passage to the 28th (the last) RR session passage approached but did not exceed the p value set for significance. In addition, control (non-RR) and experimental (RR) group readers showed similar and modest transfer gains for reading comprehension from the pre-test to the post-test passage. Taguchi and Gorsuch speculated that the lack of clear transfer effects for reading rate and comprehension of RR group readers was caused by the shortness of the treatment period.
2.28 Extensive Reading (ER) in L2/FL Settings

As discussed above, L2 learners in ER programs self-select materials within their "linguistic Capabilities" from a collection of graded readers (Day and Bamford, 1998: 126). ER has several aims, which include encouraging L2 readers to read for pleasure and information both inside and outside the classroom, to read for meaning, and to engage in sustained silent reading (Day et al, 1998). Research investigating the benefits of ER in L2/FL contexts has shown that ER improves L2 or FL readers' comprehension (Elley et al, 1991), promotes their vocabulary knowledge development (Day et al, 1991), and enhances their writing skills (Elley et al, 1983) and oral proficiency (Cho and Krashen, 1994). ER has also been reported to be effective in facilitating growth of readers' positive attitudes toward reading and increasing their motivation to read (Cho and Krashen, 1994; Mason and Krashen, 1997). With specific reference to reading fluency development, ER has shown to be effective in increasing reading speed and comprehension (Bell et al, 2001).

Considering previous studies on ER and RR programs, both approaches likely increase L2 readers' automatic word recognition. However, RR differs from ER in that simplified texts, chosen by the teacher, are read repeatedly by L2 readers both in and out of class (see Dlugosz, 2000, for her description of home based RR for L2 children learners). By re-reading texts, the effects of repetition on readers' automatic word recognition ability may be intensified. Assisted RR also allows for the systematic use of simultaneous audio recordings, which engage readers in "two channels of perception" and may increase L2 learners' "retention of words and grammatical constructions in long term memory" (Dlugosz, 2000: 288-289).

2.29 The Role of Metacognition in Reading Comprehension

2.29.1 Implications for Instruction

The most obvious goal of reading instruction is comprehension. Truly, "reading" has not occurred until text has been processed and understood. However, many variables may influence a reader's ability to comprehend written text. One of these variables, metacognition, has received recent attention by researchers and teachers alike because of the possibilities for successful
instruction and intervention for readers at all levels. The purpose here is to explore the area of metacognition as it relates specifically to reading comprehension. Six aspects will be addressed:

a. the definitions of metacognition, meta-comprehension and metalinguistic awareness;
b. the significance of metacognition in the cognitive processing of written text by good and poor readers;
c. the teacher's role in developing metacognitive abilities;
d. specific strategies that have successfully increased metacognitive skills;
e. ideas for assessing metacognitive abilities both for research and instructional purposes; and
f. recommendations for future study of the role metacognition plays within the reading process.

Metacognition is often simply defined as "thinking about thinking," or people's awareness of the knowledge they possess (Stewart and Tei, 1983). Researchers have sought to develop more specific definitions of the term, however, in order to more readily focus on particular aspects of the process. Brown (1985: 501) has discussed two facets of metacognition:

1. knowledge about cognition, and
2. the regulation of cognition. She defines the first aspect as "the knowledge readers have about their own cognitive resources and the compatibility between themselves as readers and the demands of a variety of reading situations". She warns that this knowledge is a late-developing skill and may be erroneous; that is, students may possess "knowledge" that is untrue.

The second aspect of metacognition, the regulation of one's thought processes, raises the issue of a reader's control over strategies and actions used to identify and overcome difficulties with text (Brown, Armbruster and Bakel-, 1986). Brown (1985) explains that this regulation is usually unstable and is often dependent not on age, but on the strategies available to readers, their metacognitive levels, and their knowledge of the content that is being read. Two of these factors, the strategies available to the reader and the reader's knowledge of the content, have important implications for teachers because they are aspects of metacognitive control that may be
directly influenced by instruction. Other definitions of metacognition (Fitzgerald, 1983) expand to include four separate perspectives:

1) readers know when they know and when they don't know,
2) readers know what they know,
3) readers know what they need to know, and
4) readers know the usefulness of intervention strategies.

Otto (1985) mentions the "orchestration" of the thought processes, implying the importance of the regulatory functions of metacognition to the successful performance of a reading task. Paris, Lipson and Wixson (1983) define the knowledge of cognition as declarative (readers know that a particular strategy is useful and they are able to talk about it); conditional (readers know when a strategy is needed and why it will help); and procedural (readers know how to use comprehension strategies effectively). Finally, Flavell (1981) differentiates between metacognitive knowledge, experience and strategy use. Metacognitive knowledge and strategy use coincide with the previously mentioned declarative and procedural knowledge. Metacognitive experience, however, refers to an awareness by the learner of cognitive success or failure.

Though metacognition has been defined with different terms, researchers essentially agree on a knowledge of thought processes and the purposeful use of strategies as two necessary components metacognitive ability. But how and why does metacognition differ from other cognitive processes? Metacognition occurs in the neocortex of the brain and is thought by some neurologists to be an uniquely human function. While inner language, which begins around the age of five, is thought to be a prerequisite to metacognition, actual metacognitive ability is a central component of formal thought which is usually achieved by age eleven (Costa, 1991). Robeck and Wallace (1990) discuss the developmental aspects of metacognition in relation to three levels of learning:

Level One association or the ability to understand text literally; Level Two Conceptualization or the ability to generalize, categorize, synthesize and summarize; and Level Three Creative Self-Direction or the blending of motivation and a sense of needing to know
more. Metacognition is necessary to Level Three learning. Metacognition has also been closely tied to the notion of giftedness. Sternberg (1984) has developed a theory of intelligence that includes "meta-components," executive processes used in planning, monitoring and evaluating informational processing. Students may be considered gifted when they are able to cope with novel situations using these meta-components in concert with their performance and knowledge-acquisition abilities (Shore and Dover, 1987).

One form of metacognition that is consistently mentioned in reference to reading comprehension is meta-comprehension, which refers to the ability of readers to adjust their thinking to achieve greater understanding of text (Robeck and Wallace, 1990). Brown (1985) also describes meta-comprehension as a person's awareness of the mental processes used while reading, studying or solving a problem. Standiford (1984) discusses the differences between comprehension and meta-comprehension. She defines four combinations of meta-comprehension and comprehension which may occur during reading.

High Meta-comprehension

a. High Comprehension: Readers know and are aware they know; High Meta-comprehension
b. Low Comprehension: Readers do not know and realize they do not know; Low Meta-comprehension
c. High Comprehension: Readers know but think they don't know; Low Meta-comprehension
d. Low Comprehension: Readers do not know but think they do know.

One last term that appears, particularly in discussions of younger readers, is metalinguistic awareness. Metalinguistic awareness has been defined as the ability to think about language, to talk about it, to produce and manipulate it, and to comprehend it (McAllister, 1989). Children who possess metalinguistic awareness are able to view language as an object, a formal communication system separate from its meaning (Mattingly, 1972; McGee, Charlesworth, Cheek, and Cheek, 1982).

This objectification of language may occur on four levels: phonemic awareness, word awareness, form awareness, and pragmatic awareness (Sulzby and Teale, 1991). Mason (1984)
also examines metalinguistic awareness from the perspectives of the function, form, and conventions of print. Fischer (1980) cautions, however, that an oral ability to follow the rules of language is not the equivalent of the knowledge of the rules, or the metalinguistic awareness, that is necessary for reading. Though the terms differ, one point is certain: metacognitive abilities play a significant part in the comprehension of written text.

2.30 The Role of the Teacher

For all readers, the home environment is the first influence in the development of metacognitive abilities. Parents, as the first teachers, may read frequently to their children to enhance comprehension (Yaden et al., 1989), engage in problem solving activities (Kontos, 1983), and model metacognitive strategies such as predicting consequences, monitoring activities, and testing reality in their own day-to-day living (Moss, 1990). Even saying "I don't know what you mean," a simple act that forces children to address communication failure, helps parents produce children whose understanding of that failure and its causes is advanced (Robinson and Robinson, 1982). Ideally, before formal schooling begins, children should have the opportunity to explore sound-letter relationships (Bradley and Bryant, 1983). They should know what print looks like; how printed material works; that basic meaningful units are specific, speakable words; that words are comprised of letters; that print can inform, entertain, communicate, and record; and what it means to read (Adams, 1990b).

Once schooling begins, however, the teacher plays an important role in the development of metacognitive ability because increased awareness and strategy use may be taught successfully to readers at all levels. In fact, Andre and Anderson (1978-79) found that low and middle ability students actually benefit more from training than high ability students. Is this training common? Schmitt and Baumann (1990) found in their observation of ten elementary teachers, grades 1-6, that most comprehension instruction centered around building and activating prior knowledge, setting purposes for reading and assessing comprehension through questioning. A "meta-teacher" goes beyond those basics by planning for the reading task, setting a purpose, assessing what is known and unknown, using strategies for reading with students, monitoring their understanding and evaluating what has been learned in essence, using meta-cognitive skills in teaching (Spring, 1985).
It may not be enough to show the value of metacognitive strategies by example, however. Otto (1985) suggests that students need to hear an explanation for why and how a particular strategy may be beneficial. Others (Costa, 1991; Anderson et al., 1985) say that instructional strategies that purposely develop children's metacognitive abilities must be integrated into teaching methods, staff development, and supervisory goals, as well as across the language arts and content areas.

Instruction of strategies should be direct, but will ideally include flexible teacher modeling, such as an explanation of the steps and possibilities in thought processes that lead to comprehension (Anderson et al., 1985), and should be presented within the context of real text (Duffy, Roehler and Hermann, 1988). Teachers may also model how they figure out an author's text structure and then allow time for student practice (Pearson and Camperell, 1985). Smith (1991) found that an adequate knowledge of good reading skills was not enough to influence reading behavior, though. In other words, it is not enough to know about reading strategies; rather, fairly extensive time for practice is needed for metacognitive strategies to become part of a student's repertoire (Brown et al., 1986; Otto, 1985; Sanacore, 1984).

The time spent on modeling and practicing strategies appears to pay off, especially for average and poor readers. Brown et al. (1986) report that many students have prior knowledge of a subject, but may not be using it. Through direct instruction in accessing prior knowledge and other strategies, though, poor readers can be brought up to the average of their successful classmates. Kirby and Pedwell (1991) concluded after their study of summarization skills that it was the approach the students chose that made a significant difference in their ability to summarize effectively. Also, Cunningham (1990) found that ten weeks of explicit instruction in the application, value and utility of phonemic awareness resulted in the improvement of reading ability in fifth graders. Paris and Lipson (1982) found that third and fifth graders could make significant gains in comprehension over a control group when they were taught about the goals and obstacles to successful reading and had visual clues, such as signs and bulletin boards, to help them remember; and Adams, Carnine and Gersten (1982) found that training for metacognitive study strategies significantly improved the results of fifth grade students on delayed and short-term recall tests of content area text.
Obviously, instruction is important for the development of metacognitive abilities, but often less-skilled readers receive the wrong type of emphasized instruction (Garner, 1992). Stewart and Tei (1983) suggest that teachers instruct students about reading goals and purposes, text structure, strategies to use when comprehension fails and known obstacles to comprehension, such as unusual style or passage organization, unknown words and lack of prior knowledge. Lipson (1983, in Monahan and Hinson, 1988) suggests teachers ask themselves if their lessons focus on reading for meaning, use real-life purposes and materials, and avoid instruction of isolated skills. Others (Paris, 1985; Paris, Wasik and Turner, 1991; Sanacore, 1984; Heller, 1986) recommend that teachers assist readers with direct explanation, cooperative and scaffold learning, brief modeling and a focus on story and content area text structure. Teachers may also help students with specific combinations of meta-comprehension and comprehension skills. For those with low comprehension but high meta-comprehension, teachers may ask questions and provide feedback to help students apply specific, appropriate strategies. For those with high comprehension but low meta-comprehension, teachers may provide consistent, positive verbal and written reinforcement to build the student's confidence. For students with low comprehension and low meta-comprehension, teachers should ask questions that will bring out the contradictions in what a student thinks is true in order to raise meta-comprehension first (Schallert and Kleiman, 1979).

For beginning readers, Adams (1990a) suggests instruction in phonemic awareness through linguistic games and activities, and an immersion of children in varied, functional and significant print. For all readers, Gamer (1992) warns that strategy instruction must be more than a "bag of tricks;" instead, it must include a component of flexibility and success monitoring, and should be tied to the content areas as well as the language arts. Clearly, direct instruction of strategies will increase metacognition and subsequently, comprehension. But which strategies have been proven effective and efficiently used in the classroom?

2.31 Strategies that Promote Metacognition

As teachers plan for metacognitive training, certain guidelines should be considered. First, strategies for reading have cognitive, metacognitive and affective components, and no matter how innovative they may be, students have to choose to use them (Garner, 1992). Second,
strategies may either "fix-up" failed comprehension or be an aid to studying, and students need to know when and where each type is appropriate (Brown, 1985). Third, students should be taught the procedures of strategies, and also how to flexibly interact and apply the strategies to any learning situation (Garner, 1992; Palinscar, 1986). Palinscar and Ransom (1988) recommend the instruction of strategies that are applicable to a variety of reading situations and that promote interaction between the reader and the text. For all readers, repetition of strategies is essential to their successful use, and teachers should plan for rereading of text and extensive strategy practice (Martinez and Roser, 1985; Morrow, 1988).

In general, certain strategies will enhance metacognitive thinking across a variety of learning situations. These include planning, generating questions, choosing consequences for behaviors, evaluating, taking credit for actions, keeping journals, role-playing, and group processing (Costa, 1991; Shore and Dover, 1987). Some of these bear closer inspection because of their relevance to the reading act.

Storybook reading is a common lesson for emergent and beginning readers. It may be enhanced through social interaction while reading, the construction of meaning, and the use of highly predictable materials and "story language" (Sulzby and Teale, 1991). In fact, Martinez and Roser (1985) found that with repeated readings of familiar stories, children's responses became more meaningful and in-depth. Sulzby and Teale (1991) report that the key factor in storybook reading is how the adult mediates the interaction with the child; most adults raise the level of interaction with each repeated reading, and no two readings are alike due to the increased participation of the child. Teachers of young children may also focus on critical listening, a lack of which may be related to reading difficulty (Ryan, 1980); vocabulary concepts through concrete experiences (Anglin, 1970); and sorting, group naming, and categorizing as a means of enhancing strategic memory (Lange and Pierce, 1992). Reading aloud, learning nursery and other rhymes, using crayons and magnetic letters, and playing letter and word games that promote language acquisition and understanding are all appropriate practices for emergent readers (Adams et al., 1990). Writing stories that conform to typical story grammar (Thorndyke, 1977; Stein and Glenn, 1979), activating and webbing prior knowledge (Lee, 1990), using a multisensory approach to vocabulary and language development (Gaskins, Downer, Anderson,
Cunningham, Gaskins, and Schommer, 1988), and using literature-based instruction (Freppon, 1989) are important strategies to use with beginning readers.

As readers mature, comprehension monitoring becomes increasingly essential to effective reading. In a study of fourth grade students, Payne and Manning (1992) found that the experimental group, after receiving deliberate training of comprehension monitoring strategies, showed significant gains in reading comprehension; had better attitudes toward reading; demonstrated more knowledge of the benefits of evaluating, planning and regulating their own reading; and showed a potential for transfer of these metacognitive abilities to other academic areas. One frequently mentioned comprehension monitoring strategy is self-questioning. Students may be taught to ask themselves questions about the text before reading to activate prior knowledge. Bransford, et.al (1985), predict, and set a purpose for reading. During reading, self-questioning can help students summarize, evaluate and predict, and relate the new information to what is already known.

After reading, self-questioning can lead to better summarization, and evaluation of predictions and purpose (Schmitt and Baumann, 1986; Brown, 1985). Self-questioning also forces students to pause frequently when reading, consider their own understanding or lack of it, and decide whether any corrective action is needed (Sanacore, 1984). When self-questioning is combined with specific direction in prediction, grades 6-8 students demonstrated greater comprehension at all reading levels, but particularly at the lowest level (Nolan, 1991). Self-questioning, in short, makes for more reflective and critical readers.

Summarizing may also be systematically taught. Brown (1985) uses a four-part plan that teaches students to delete trivial material from the text, delete redundant information, substitutes superordinate terms for any lists of actions or objects, and develop or select a topic sentence. Reciprocal teaching capitalizes on the benefits of cooperative lessons by helping students learn metacognition through reflection on their past and present performances. The first step in reciprocal teaching involves teacher modeling of a four-step process used after reading: summarizing, generating questions, clarifying and predicting. A new "teacher" is chosen from among student group members for each portion of text. The teacher and other students provide corrective feedback throughout the process (Palinscar, 1986).
Students who recognize the patterns of text structure typically demonstrate higher comprehension than those who do not (Pearson and Camperell, 1985). One effective way to help students internalize various types of text structure is through the use of graphic organizers. For tenth-grade students who were taught to use graphic organizers instead of traditional outlining, the training demonstrated the benefits of positive attitudes about the strategy, better written recall of text and a suggestion of permanent changes in their study habits (Bean, Singer, Sorter and Frazee, 1986).

Using context to correct faulty word comprehension is another type of strategy. Although students must be taught why context is full, and when it is most appropriately used, Blachowicz and Zabroske (1990) suggest a strategy in which students systematically follow this procedure: Look before, at, and after the word, Reason to connect what they know to the word, Predict a possible meaning and Resolve to accept the meaning or redo the process.

Thinking aloud through the reading process is helpful, as readers may use contextual and semantic clues as if they were reporters searching for meaning (Baumann, Jones and Seifert-Kessell, 1993). Students may also be taught to ask themselves whether answers to comprehension questions are stated directly (textually explicit), indirectly (textually implicit), or whether they are based on prior knowledge (scriptally implicit) (Poindexter and Prescott, 1986). This particular strategy may also be introduced with pictures rather than text, making it ideal for younger children or very poor readers. It is also similar to Raphael's (1982) QAR (Question-Answer-Relationship) strategy where students find information in the text, think and search for textual clues, develop an answer with the author, or arrive at a conclusion on their own. Lastly, imaging may improve comprehension by helping students visualize what is occurring in the text. Certain guidelines are appropriate for imaging activities and are important for teachers to remember:

1. every student's image will be different and based on prior experiences;
2. no image is right or wrong, but reformulation of an image may be necessary to bring it in line with the text;
3. time is necessary to develop an image before a discussion can take place;
4. adequate time (should be reserved for discussion of images; and
5. images may be stimulated through open-ended questions related to the text (Fredericks, 1986). When strategy instruction has been implemented, it is often necessary and desirable to assess the metacognitive levels of students and to evaluate the instructional processes.

2.3.2 Assessment and Evaluation of Metacognitive Skills

While assessment of metacognitive skills is important for both teachers and researchers, the process is not a simple one. Often students' awareness depends greatly on the means used to measure that awareness (Brown, 1985). Also, because metacognition is closely tied to other cognitive abilities and processes, a question of the accessibility to automatic processes exists. Researchers and teachers must also guard against their students' possible memory failure by asking questions immediately after the learning task, and against inadvertent cuing through the use of open-ended questions (Garner, 1992). Those assessing metacognition must also carefully consider what separates an actual learning strategy from other cognitive processes, and whether differences between strategies (deliberate actions) and skills (thought to be strategies that have become automatic) will influence assessment outcomes (Paris et al., 1991).

Many research studies involve students with text that has been rigged with inconsistencies or errors to determine whether students can detect the problems. Garner et al. (1992); Stewart and Tei, (1983). Garner (1992) speculates that errors may not be detected due to the students forgetting the material, changing their thought paradigm to make sense of the text, refusing to admit comprehension failure, or genuinely failing to monitor their comprehension. Other methods of assessment include interviews of students about their state of their understanding of task features that influence their performance (Shore and Dover, knowledge and 1987). Gelman (1979) found that, in preschoolers, though, the verbal measures of performance tend to underestimate a child's true competence, so the measure of strategic awareness maybe a conservative one. Some researchers and teachers also use text structure studies to determine a reader's format (Gray, 1987). familiarity with text Students who demonstrate good metacognitive ability are able to describe their though processes. They may list the steps in their learning process, and process. When problem-solving, they are able to trace the paths indicate where they are in that they took to arrive at a solution, and they demonstrate
greater perseverance than those without metacognitive ability (Costa, 1991). Stewart and Tei (1983) reiterate that the use of strategies and the ability to verbalize that use are both strong indicators of metacognitive ability.

Meta linguistic awareness, in particular, may be examined at three levels: the graphophoniclevel (letters and sounds), word syntactic level, and discourse level (whole passage) (McGee et al., 1982). Testing of this awareness could be performed through rhyming tasks, studying children's developing language patterns and their attempts to participate in reading tasks (Mason, 1984). Bressman, and Taft (1974) also used the "Mow-Motorcycle Test" during which children the phonemic awareness to choose a given word by its appearance or length. Rozin, had to use Assessment of metacognition in relation to reading comprehension, the process of reading itself, and the evaluation of current instructional practices may lead to more questions than answers. The following section addresses some future research considerations.

Certain questions will continue to appear as educators make sense of the role of metacognition in reading: What do readers know about reading? How do readers regulate their thinking? and What instructional interventions help readers? (Paris et al., 1991). Research on the origins of metacognition must also address the influences of the inter-psychological plane (interactions between adult and child) and the intra-psychological plane (how children solve problems on their own) before formal schooling begins (Kontos, 1983).

Metacognition has clearly been related to reading and problem-solving performances, and seems to be very useful for those who demonstrate learning problems (Brown et al., 1986), but its actual distinction from general uptime or intelligence remains unclear. Another important question for researchers to investigate is whether students with low update can be taught metacognitive skills to compensate for their low ability (Swanson, 1990). Also, because strategy training seems to benefit low and average readers more, does that imply an automatic metacognitive ability for good readers? If so, are there other means of helping good readers continue to grow meta-cognitively?. Particularly for studies of strategy training effects, Brown et al. (1986) have set forth the following criteria for judging the success of the strategy:
1. the study should indicate clear and substantial improvement as a result of the strategy;
2. individuals should show evidence of process change as a result of the training;
3. the effect of the training should be reliable and durable;
4. application of the strategy should transfer to other situations; and
5. the training should be instructionally feasible.

In conclusion, metacognitive abilities play an important, even vital, role in the process of reading comprehension. In light of this importance, the following comments by Pearson and Carnperell (1985:39) seem especially pertinent: The point is simple: when we identify a variable...that looks like it might make a difference in comprehension, we ought to adopt a frontal assault strategy when considering its instructional power teach about it systematically and make certain students have a chance to practice it.

2.33 Previous Studies

Hossein Bozorgian ()Meta-cognition Instruction Does Improve Listening Comprehension from Queensland University of Technology, Faculty of Education Centre for Learning Innovation ,QLD4059,Australia.

The study looked into the impact of metacognitive instruction on listeners' comprehension. Twenty-eight adult, Iranian, high-intermediate level EFL listeners participated in a “strategy-based” approach of advance organization, directed attention, selective attention, and self-management in each of four listening lessons focused on improving listeners' comprehension of IELTS listening texts. A comparison of pretest and posttest scores showed that the “less-skilled” listeners improved more than “more-skilled” listeners in the IELTS listening tests. Findings also supported the view that metacognitive instruction assisted listeners in considering the process of listening input and promoting listening comprehension ability. The results of this small-scale study showed that although the more-skilled listeners made progress slightly across the study, their progress was not as much as the less-skilled listeners gained across the study. The EFL listeners in this study were provided with the four listening lessons in a strategy-based approach for the purpose of promoting their listening comprehension. The results showed that six of the seven less-skilled listeners made a considerable amount of progress in the listening comprehension across the study. To find out the reason why one less-skilled listener (Pirooz) did
not make the progress, the researcher and the teacher invited him for an interview to ask for his general comments on listening lessons as well as the significance of listening in English language learning. Pirooz seemed to realize the significance of listening comprehension in language learning but mentioned that it was the first time he was taught the listening lessons. He got distracted and could not apply the strategies during the IELTS listening tests. He was also in short of time to use the strategies instructed in the listening lessons.

Ahmed M.M. Abdulhaffezaan assistant lecturer at the dept. of Curricula and English teaching methods, Faculty of Education, Minia University, Egypt, A PhD candidate at the School of Education, University of Exeter, UK about The Effect of a Suggested Training Program in Some Metacognitive

He stated that there is a need to provide students with a repertoire of strategies to enable them to know what to use when and for what learning task. What they need to do is acquisition and use of the most important of skills; learning how to learn skills. Purpose of the study. The present study aimed at investigating the effects of a suggested training program in some Metacognitive Language Learning Strategies (MLLS) on developing listening and reading comprehension of first year EFL students. Findings. The analysis of data using T-test revealed that the experimental group surpassed the control group in post-measurement of the listening comprehension test, the reading comprehension test and the English Proficiency Examination. It was concluded that training in metacognitive language learning strategies helped develop EFL learners' listening and reading skills and raise their language proficiency levels. Discussion of these findings, recommendations and suggestions for further research were made.

Carrell, Patricia Department of Linguistics Southern IllinoisUniversity,IL62901. It is about Reading Language and Metacognition.

Several first language researchers have advocated metacognitive training, especially meta-comprehension training in reading, with the goal of teaching individuals how to adjust their cognitive activity in order to promote more effective comprehension (Gavelek and Raphael, 1985; Brown, Campioneand Day, 1981). In second language, Bialystok and Ryan have also
advocated "A Metacognitive Framework for Development of First and Second Language Skills" (1985). Brown, Campione and Day (1981), for example, see the main aim of such instruction as getting the students to understand the interactive nature of reading, and the active role played by the reader. conclude with a quote from them: "What we are advocating is an avoidance of blind training techniques and a serious attempt at informed, self-control training, that is, to provide novice learners with the information necessary for them to design effective plans of their own. The essential aim of training is to make the trainee more aware of the active nature of learning and the importance of employing problem-solving, trouble-shooting routines to enhance understanding. If learners can be made aware of (1) basic strategies for reading and remembering, (2) simple rules of text construction, (3) differing demands of a variety of tests to which their information may be put, and (4) the importance of activating any background knowledge which they may have, they cannot help but become more effective learners. Such self-awareness is a prerequisite for self-regulation, the ability to orchestrate, monitor, and check one's own cognitive activities."

Probing EFL Students' Language Skill Development in Tertiary Classrooms
Hong Wang, Faculty of Education, Mount Saint Vincent University, Canada.

The participants selected for this study consisted of 57 sophomores from a Chinese university situated in the large north-western city of Xi'an. These full-time undergraduate non-English-major students are all homogenous Chinese, majoring in computer application in the computer science department. Their age ranged from 19 to 21. As well, they started their tertiary EFL learning in the fall of 2000 and were observed during the fall term of 2001 when they were studying English at Band 3 (the third term). They expected to complete language studies after two years and four bands (Note 2) before taking the nationwide language proficiency test—the College English Test Band 4 (CET-4) to be held in June 2002. The sample was chosen from approximately 3,000 students of the Year 2000 student population. Though simply a convenience sample, the rationale underlying the purposeful selection of such a sample was that the subjects were drawn from a comparatively large class of 57 students. Usually class sizes varied from 30 to 45 students in a "natural class" (Note 3) in the English language courses in this university.
The subjects of the study were 180 undergraduate EFL students from different universities in Hamadan, Iran. These were randomly divided into three proficiency levels, namely, elementary, intermediate, and advanced, according to their performance on the Michigan test. Those obtaining scores 1 SD from the mean were considered to be intermediate; those getting scores +2 SDs or above the mean were considered as advanced, and those with the scores -2 SDs from the mean were regarded as elementary. Finally, the subjects at each proficiency level were randomly divided into two groups, one experimental and the other control 30 students each.

On the basis of the results of this study, it can be claimed that teaching cognitive and metacognitive strategies affect different readers differently regarding their level of language proficiency. What follows presents an attempt to interpret the results. The study shows that the elementary students were not able to benefit from the cognitive and metacognitive strategies they were taught and thus, were not able to improve their comprehension of the reading passages. Such readers are so blinded by words that they fail to differentiate between the relevant and the irrelevant, and they cannot consider the purpose of reading, or use the wider context to interpret what they do not know. By concentrating on words, and on word-by-word reading, they miss the general meaning of reading passages. Anderson also (1984) believes that "constant attention to the surface of language will interfere with the development of a persistent tendency to read deeply." As competent readers, they can recognize the factual details and their significance to get at meaning, and even move beyond the information available in the text. Having passed many stages of reading, advanced students must have become autonomous readers in the foreign language, and thoroughly familiar with the needed strategies through studying various types of materials on different topics. Through an extensive reading of textbooks, and reading materials, such students must have developed a sense of understanding of a text as well as an awareness of how writers organize and convey what they intend to mean. In short, the study reported here has revealed that when it comes to reading comprehension, the degree of linguistic knowledge plays a crucial role in students' ability and capability to take
benefit from an instruction in cognitive and metacognitive skills, and that a mere introduction of such strategies into reading comprehension courses without other relevant factors may prove, if not counterproductive, but ineffective.

2.34 Summary

This chapter shows review of literature as well as the previous study written by some authors taking the same area or field. There are so many writers who wrote researches PhDs, masters and papers but these are selected examples of related studies with their participants and their findings or results. The following chapter is dedicated to the methodology of the study.
CHAPTER THREE
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

The foregoing chapter describes how the study is implemented. It describe the methodology being followed in term of research design, method, and sample of population, instrument, administration of the result validation of the test procedures used for the required data as well as method used for data analysis. The validity and reliability of the tool checked to provide the researcher with the required data.

3.1 The Research Paradigm

The research adopts the quantitative analysis and descriptive methods to analyze the data received from the participants in order to find the correlation between variables being studied.

3.2 The Population and Sampling Method

All of these participants are native speakers of Arabic. They are third year students of faculty of Languages in Sudan University of Science and Technology, third year students of faculty of Arts in Omdurman Islamic University,(English department) third year students of Alnilein University faculty of Arts(English department), Faculty of Arts at Al gazira Technical college (English department).

3.3 Data Collection Instrument

The instrument used for data collection is test. It has been designed to elicit information that obtained from the written responses of the participants. The information obtained are all related language knowledge. Data were collected with the aid of tests and used to measure the improvement of the students receptive skills through cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies. The researcher has randomly chosen twenty five students from each university. The total number of the participants is one hundred. The participants have been given two tests reading comprehension and listening test. The heading of the reading comprehension is the Information highway’, they are asked to read the text and answer forty questions. Also they were asked to
listen three times to a five materials and answer fifty questions while listening. The full mark for each test is fifty.

### 3.4 Logging and Tracing Data

Data collection requires some procedures to log the information as it comes in and track it until it is ready to be analyzed. Computer application were used to facilitate the process. Taking the time to set up on a computer database (SPSS) Provided researchers with up-to-date information throughout the study and save time and effort when they are ready to analyze data and report the findings. Then the immediately following data collection and prior to data entry, the researcher screened all data for accuracy. Data screening in an essential process in ensuring that the data are accurate and complete. The researcher planned to screen the data to make certain that responses are legible, understandable, within acceptable range, complete and all of the necessary information has been included.

### 3.5 Validity

Validity is the ability of an instrument to measure what is intended to measure. Validity of research instrument usually evaluated for face content and constructs validity. The researcher consulted the supervisor for administrating the test before piloting. Some changes and amendments about the items were recommended, some statements were dropped out because of the irrelevance, whereas some were amended and others were added to cover the area of the study by the supervisor.

### 3.6 Reliability

Polit and Hungy (1999=137) define reliability as the degree of consistency with which an instrument measures the attribute it designed to measure. Bery (1989=83) explains that, the use of consistent and systematic line of questions for even unanticipated areas is particularly important for reliability and for possible replication of the study.

### 3.7 Testing Validity and Reliability of the Test

As far as testing the validity and reliability of the instrument of the research were concerned, the researcher chose the person correlation to find out the relation between variables. According to Half method in the formula below, the correlation is which is very by
considering the formula for co-efficient (R) for finding the reliability which is shown by the following table to indicate the testing of the validity and reliability in figures.

\[ r_{xy} = \frac{N(\Sigma XY) - (\Sigma X \Sigma Y)}{\sqrt{[N(\Sigma X^2) - (\Sigma X)^2][N(\Sigma Y^2) - (\Sigma Y)^2]}} \]

Where

\( r \) = correlation

\( R \): Reliability of the test

\( N \): number of all items in the test

\( X \): odd scores

\( Y \): even scores

\( \sum \): Sum

\[ R = \frac{2 \times r}{1 + r} \]

\[ Val = \sqrt{\text{reliability}} \]

Correlation  \( = 0.90 \)

\[ R = \frac{2 \times 0.90}{1 + 0.90} = \frac{1.8}{1.90} = 0.94 \]

Reliability  \( = 0.94 \)

\[ Val = \sqrt{0.94} \]

Validity  \( = 0.97 \)
CHAPTER FOUR
DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the results and data analysis. The data was collected from a test reading and listening comprehension. The students were asked to read and listen to two texts, then answer fifty questions (25) per each. The results of the tests were statistically analyzed.

4.1 Results and Discussion

To obtain the required results, the descriptive analytical methods were followed. The researcher used a statistical passage for social science (SPSS) to analyze results and discuss them.

4.2 The analysis of the Results

As previously stated in chapter three, The students were asked to answer fifty questions, twenty five for reading comprehension and twenty five for listening. According to the analysis, these variables proved to be significant for the study.

Table (1) below indicates the numbers of the statements, and the standard deviation.

Table (4.1) Reading Marks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Degrees</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>78%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very good</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>56%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pass</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fail</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td>22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table (1) shows the ratios and repetitions of Reading Marks in which we find that (22) individuals represent 22%, so that they considered Failed. (16) individuals represent (16%) are passed, (56) individual represent (56%) are good, (4) individual represent (4%) are very good and two individual represent (2%) their degrees are excellent. the following chart shows this. The total percentage of the success is (78%) while the percentage of those who failed is (22) .This indicates that students performance in reading is good .They adopted the a learning strategy in reading so their output is good. There is a significant improvement in their reading skills.

Table (4.2) shows the descriptive statistics of the Reading Marks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Result</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Mode</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reading Marks</td>
<td>29.92</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>7.298</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (2) shows the descriptive statistics (mean and standard deviation, mode, Minimum and Maximum) of the Reading Marks. the average of the grades is 29.92 with 7.298 as standard deviation the Minimum degree is (11) and the Maximum is (45). The mark (30)considered as good. This confirms that the opinions of sample members of the Reading Marks is good and the column called the result shows that. This indicates that there is an improvement in reading skills and this due to the adoption of cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies.
For testing the reading marks, the researcher uses Chi-Square and the result of the test is (94.800) with (4) as a degree of freedom. The level of significance is (0.000) which is less than (0.05) that statistically recommended. This means there is a statistical difference in the reading test. By returning to chart (1) and the descriptive statistics in table (2) along with Chi-Square table (3), we can say that the performance of the students in reading skill is good and there is a significance improvement as a result of following cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies. Column (5) shows that.

Table (4.4) shows the Listening Marks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Degrees</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>70%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very good</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pass</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fail</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The table (4) shows the ratios and repetitions of Listening Marks which we find that (30) individuals failed (30%), (14) individuals passed (14%) , (35) individual are good (35%) , (14) individual (14%) are very good and (7) individual (7%) are excellent, and the following chart shows this. This indicates that the performance of the students in listening good because the total percentage is (70%) .The influence of the learning strategies is very obvious although most of the student avoid listening tests.

Table (4.5) shows the descriptive statistics of the Listening Marks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reading Marks</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Mode</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>29.36</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>10.781</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>Pass</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This table shows the descriptive statistics (mean and standard deviation and mode and Minimum and Maximum) of the listening Marks the computational circles around the numbers (29) for all the statements, and the standard deviations is (10,781), the Mode is (30), Minimum degree is(5) and Maximum degree is (49). The number (29) pass. This confirms that the opinions of sample members of the listening Marks is pass and the column called the result shows this. The students perform good although most of them said that they cannot follow the recorded material because it is very fast and this is the problem of all students. By applying cognitive strategy they can tackle this problem and improve their listening skill.

Table (4.6) Chi-square Test of the Listening Marks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reading Marks</th>
<th>Chi-Square</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Asymp. Sig.</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>28.300</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>Acceptance</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For testing the listening marks ,the researcher use Chi-Square and the result of the test is (94.800) with (4) as a degree of freedom. The level of significance is( 0.000) which is less than (0.05) that statistically recommended. This means there is statistical differences in the listening test .By returning to chart (2) and the descriptive statistics in table (5) along with Chi-Square table (6),we can say that the performance of the students in reading skill is good and there is a
significance improvement as a result of following cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies Column (5) shows that.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table (7) Correlations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading Marks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listening Marks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

This table explains the relationship between listening and reading through using Person Correlation. The value of the correlation is .998(**) and the level of significance is (0.000) which that there is a strong correlation between listening and reading .Students who performed good in listening, performed good in reading .Applying learning strategies as well as continuous intensive listening and reading will definitely improve their receptive skills.
CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSION, FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATION

5.0 Introduction

This chapter represents the results and the findings the study has come up with, it also confirm the hypothesis of the study as well as the questions raised in the study. In addition to the above mentioned, it provides recommendation, conclusion, and suggestion for further studies.

5.1 Conclusion

The main objectives of this study is to show how cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies are important for improving the receptive skills of the English language. The study also investigates the influence of listening skill on reading skill and if there is relation between them.

The study has examined the constituents of the tests that given to students carefully so as to present the required results. In chapter three the methodology and the description were presented. In chapter four the analysis and discussion of the results were shown. In the final part of the study, the researcher manage to acquire some facts from the obtain results. Finally, the researcher summed up the findings and recommendation as well as the further studies on the same field of how to improve receptive skills through cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies.

5.2 Findings

1. Receptive skills should be taught by sophisticated teachers.
2. The majority of students avoid listening tests because they think that the speaker speaks very vast so they can not follow and understand.
3. For correlated group to know the statistical differences in the mistakes committed by students, the study reveals statistical significant differences (0.000).
4. For reading the study shows the percentage of success as 78% and the percentage of the failure as 22%. This indicates that the performance of the students is good.
5. For listening, the study shows the percentage of the success as 70% and the percentage of the failure as 30%. This indicates that the performance of the students is acceptable.
6. Students encounter many problems in reading and listening and this is due to the lack and shortage of trained teachers.

7. The government should and encourage researchers to do more studies into the field of receptive skills so as to tackle the problems encounter teachers and students.

8. There is a strong correlation between listening and reading. The level of correlation appears as (.988) while the level of the significance is (0.000) and this means that students who are good at listening are good at reading.

9. The majority of the students in listening and reading got marks above 30 out of 50 and this indicates that using strategies have influences.

5.3 Recommendations

1. To improve receptive skills students should adopt cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies.

2. Receptive skills should be taught by trained teachers.

3. Modern learning strategies play an essential role in developing students receptive skills.

4. Teachers should concentrate on self-instructional program while teaching receptive skills.

5. Strategy learning program should be adopted because it helps teachers to trained and qualify themselves so they can improve their standard of teaching by using modern strategies of teaching.

6. Students should follow self-regulation and self-instruction for developing their cognitive learning strategies.

7. Self-instructional should be conducted by sophisticated teachers.

8. Students should listen to English podcast on a topic that’s interesting to them but not on a topic of learning English.

9. Students should listen to audio English lessons to improve their listening.

10. Students should watch movies, TV, and videos with no subtitles.

11. Students should watch movies, TV, and videos with subtitles.

12. Students should and work in a completely English-speaking environment.

13. Non-native speakers should do a language exchange with an English speaker, in person or over skype.
14. students should do some kind of sports hobbies, or other activities with a group of English speakers.
15. Students should watch lots of hours of movies, TV shows and videos in English, with English captions.
16. Students should talk one–on-one with an English speaking tutor a few times a week.
17. Students should follow cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies to master reading and listening.
18. Negligence the role of self-instructional program by some teachers will not help students to improve their listening and reading skills so teachers must adopt this program.
19. Cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies should be implemented through strategy learning program.
20. Students should reads lots of comprehension topics so this will improve their reading skills.
21. Reading books, magazines, newspapers, journals continuously have a great role in improving students reading skills.
22. To understand the text easily student reread the more than one time.
23. While reading students should not stop at the difficult words, continue reading then return to see the difficult words.
24. Learning strategies help students predict, make inferences and summarize.
25. The study of learning strategies holds considerable promise, both for language pedagogy and for explaining individual differences in second language learning.
27. Students should figure out the purpose of reading.
28. Students should read with concentration.
29. Students should follow self-question during reading, it will help them summarize evaluate, predict, and relate the new information to what is already known.
30. Home environment is the first influence in the development of cognitive and meta-cognitive abilities.
5.4 Suggestions for Further Researches

In today’s world, there is an explosion in knowledge and information. The world became like a village and within no time you can get the information you want. People can exchange information all over the world through using the modern social media. This age is named the era of globalization and so teachers should use the modern means of teaching receptive skills and to achieve this, they have to qualify themselves reading and attend internal and external conferences that specialized in the strategies of teaching English as a second language.

Also, students should extend maximum efforts to adopt self-instructional as well as self-regulation methods so as to improve their receptive skills.

Government should establish English training centers for teachers and students so as to enable them to increase their knowledge.
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Appendixes

University of Gazira

Postgraduate Studies

Attached is the reading comprehension and listening test that given to the students

The information highway

Telephones, television sets, radios and computers—all of these are communication devices. Because of these machines, people can spread ideas and news quickly all over the world. For example, with seconds, people in many parts of the world can know the results of an election in Canada, Japan or Australia. An international soccer match comes into the homes of sports lovers. An international soccer match comes into the homes of sports lovers everywhere—on their television sets. News of a natural disaster an earthquake or a flood can bring help from distant countries within hours. Even on vacation, a businessperson can participate in a business meeting. A worldwide network of communication systems makes it all possible.

Life on earth changed when people learn to use electricity. Both the invention of the telephone, people in Toronto could talk to people in New York, Boston or Mexico City. Letters and reports are sent over telephone lines. A businessperson in Russia sends letters in minutes to his office in London or Jeddah—he uses a facsimile machine. The common name of this machine is the fax machine. The fax machine is part of “the information highway.” The fax sends massages along the information highway.

On the information highway, communication travels very fast: it is almost instantaneous. Now scientists are combining two or more communication devices to make information travel faster and faster. For example, they use computers and telephone systems. These computers and machines that store large amounts of information. Schools, hospitals and business keep records in computers. By pushing a few keys on a computer keyboard, people can move the information into reports and letters. They have networks of computers that use telephone lines.

By combining a computer and a telephone system (through a modem) a person can send a message to another computer far away. This system is called electronic mail, an email.
technology, the telephone system and computer work together. For example, message typed on a computer in Paris, France, travel over telephone lines to a computer in Tokyo, Japan. The whole message appears in an instant. The receiver (the person who gets the message) can read the message on the computer screen or print it onto paper with a printer.

The massage has travel much faster than any ordinary letter. The whole massage has travel faster than ordinary telephone message too. One reason is the new type of telephone line. These telephone lines are special: they are glass. The technology of using glass is called “fiber optics.” These long strands of glass can carry many messages at the same time. They also receive signals from satellites high above the earth. The satellites transmit, or receive and send again messages from one part of the world to another. These messages travel down the information highway in an instant, at speed near the speed of light.

People often use computers, telephones, and television sets together. For example, a doctor at a large city hospital can help a doctor in small town by communication devices. Picture this situation: a small town doctor examines a patient physically. If the patient’s illness is not easy to identify, the doctor calls another doctor in a big city hospital. There the doctors have more resources: they can use the computerized medical library, for example. The doctor in the big city hospital can see and talk with the small town doctor and the patient by using a combination of telephone and television. They can see one another on TV screens and talk with the patient about his or her medical problems. Therefore, they can use a great deal of medical knowledge, or information in the medical science field, to help the sick person. Sending medical knowledge down the information highway can help a sick person.

Another example of long-distance communication is the ITV classroom in the field of education. ITV means interactive television. A teacher in a classroom in Calgary, Alberta, in Canada, can communicate with students in Singapore, in Asia. They can see one another on their television screens, talk about ideas and share their cultures. In fact, one teacher at one university can have students in many different places. The teacher and the students talk to one another by talking to television cameras, and their faces appear on their television screens. Education goes down the information highway.
There seems to be no limit to the uses of communication equipment. There are computer networks and networks of computer networks. This system can all work together (they interface). This worldwide networking system is Internet. Services like Computer Serve, Prodigy, and American Online are part of the Internet. University, government, and business computer networks are part of the Internet superhighway too. Students use Internet to find all kinds of information. It is like having a very large up-to-date library in the computer.

Because of communication equipment, many people can do their jobs at home now. They do not go to an office to work. They do their work on computers at home, and then they send the work to their office. They use e-mail or fax machines.

Today it is not unusual to see a person walking down the street or driving a car while talking on the telephone. The person is using a cellular phone. It has no wires; the messages travel through the air by radio waves. People can make telephone calls from almost anywhere, even from an airplane. The uses of cellular telephone and all the new electronic communication devices do not seem to be limited. News and ideas travel fast down the information highway.

**Responding to the Articles**

**Working with details: True or False**

Read each of the statements in this exercise. Then decide whether each one is true or false according to the reading. **Circle TRUE or FALSE**. Also write the number of the paragraph with the answer in the article.

1. A flood is a natural disaster. and so is an earthquake. TRUE FALSE

2. The telegraph is a device for communication TRUE FALSE

3. The fax machine gets its name from the word facts TRUE FALSE

4. Computers can send information on telephone lines. TRUE FALSE
5. E-mail is a device to information. TRUE FALSE

6. Medical information is difficult to store on computers. TRUE FALSE

7. One teacher can teach students around the world through interactive television. TRUE FALSE

8. Acellular phone has wire. TRUE FALSE

9. Internet is a computer library for students. TRUE FALSE

10. Electronic devices seem to have no limits. TRUE FALSE

Checking your understanding

Read each question carefully. Perhaps you can answer a question without looking at the article. It is all right to do so. Perhaps you need to look in the reading about the information highway to find the answer. If so, then read quickly—just to find the answer. Key words are in dark, or bold, print the number in parentheses is a paragraph number (where to look for the answer).

1. What are some examples of communications devices? (1)

2. What does modern communication mean to people in a disaster area? (1)

3. How can people store information and find it easily? (3)

4. How does email work? (4)

5. How is education for everyone more nearly possible now? (7)
Expressing Your Opinion

Read the sentences on the next passage. Check “I agree,” “I disagree,” or “I’m not sure.”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N</th>
<th>Some Opinions</th>
<th>I agree</th>
<th>I disagree</th>
<th>I’m not sure.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Rapid communication brings help fast after a disaster and this good.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Sending a massage by fax is better than sending it by e-mail</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>A computer is like a bank. People store money in a bank. And they store information in a computer.</td>
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<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>A computer can store too much information about peoples personal lives.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>People’s lives are better without the noise of telephones.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Slow communication is better than modern communication.</td>
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<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Rapid communication causes change. Many people are afraid of change.</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>People can avoid problems by using technology.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Faster communication is better communication.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Life was easier without technology.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Finding the main ideas

One of the statements best states the main idea or gives the key words of each paragraph. Circle the letter of the item.

1. The main idea of paragraph one
   a. Telephones are important to communication in all places around the world.
   b. Soccer games are exciting all over the world.
   c. Today greater communication is possible because of a worldwide network

2. The main idea of paragraph 2:
   a. The earth is different now because of communication.
   B. Communication is very rapid now.
   C. People can use telephones to send faxes.

3. The main idea of paragraph 3:
   a. Today communication happens in an instant.
   b. Schools keep records on computers.
   c. Some computers can move information.

4. The main idea of paragraph 4:
   a. Modern communication devices can work together.
   B. E-mail is electronic communication.
   c. A printer makes a copy of a letter on a computer screen.

5. The main idea of paragraph 5:
   a. Messages can travel at a speed near the speed of light.
   B. Fiber optics are nothing but glass strings.
   c. There are large satellites high above the earth.

6. The main idea of paragraph 6 includes which words?
   a. together  doctor  patient  sick  library
b. computers         telephones         television       working together

c. help               two doctors            sickness           resources

7. The key phrase in paragraph 7:

a. interactive television

b. Canadian television network

c. teaching class on television

8. The key phrase in paragraph 8:

a. a network of computer network

b. computer device

c. an up-date Library

9. The main idea of paragraph 9:

a. People can do their work any place on earth

b. People can make a telephone call from anywhere, even an airplane

c. People can do their at home

10. The key phrase in paragraph 10:

A. information highway

B. driving a car

c. radio waves

THANKS
Listen carefully, then answer the questions below:

(A)

1- Can I ask you one or two questions?

2- Where do you come from?

3- Why are you here in England?

4- How much English did you know before you come?

5- Which school?

6- Who’s your teacher?

7- What did you do back in Turkey?

8- How many children were in your class?

9- How often do you go back home?

(B)
1-How far did ED walk?

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2-Where did the journey begin?

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3-Where did the journey end?

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4-Which countries did he go through?

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5-How long did the journey take?

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6-Why did he do it?

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(C)

1-Did Leo Tolstoy write War and Peace?

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2-Is Nicole Kidman American?

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3-Was Sherlock Holmes a real person?

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4-Is the population of China more than one billion?

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5-Do some vegetarians eat fish?
6-Is the weather going to be nice next weekend?

7-Are you going to be rich and famous one day?

8-Is your school the best in town?

(D)
1-How long has he lived in the flat?

2-How long did he live in the flat?

3-Where does he work?

4-How long has he worked there?

5-What was his job in London?

6-Which newspaper did he write for?

7-How long has he been married?

8-How long was he married?
1- How many e-mails are sent every year?

2- How many questions are answered by Google every day?

3- When was eBay invented?

4- Who was it invented by?

5- How many items have been Bay since it began?

6- How many films are posted in You Tube every week?

7- When was the Twitter message sent?

8- Who was it sent by?

9- How many languages has Face book been translated into?

10- When was Amazon .com founded?

11- Who was it founded by?