

METACOGNITIVE INSTRUCTION DELIVERED THROUGH A SOCIO
CONSTRUCTIVE METHODOLOGY AND THE DEVELOPMENT OF LISTENING
SKILLS IN A BEGINNER EFL CLASS

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Abstract

Listening instruction in EFL has acquired great interest over the last 40 years. This qualitative study reports an action research intervention with 17 beginner EFL learners with the purpose to determine to what extent the implementation of Vandergrift's (2012) Listening Metacognitive Pedagogical Cycle delivered through Michaelsen's Team-Based Learning Methodology affects the development of understanding Main Ideas, Details and their ability to decode, as well as to what extent it increases their metacognitive awareness. Findings show interesting potential for this approach to listening instruction in the long term. However, in the short term, results are not positive. This is likely due to high cognitive demands that overload beginner EFL students' working memory capacity and individual neurological differences, as well as motivational factors, which represent a limitation of this study. In spite of its qualitative nature, the results are accompanied by quantitative data to strengthen it.

Key words: Metacognition, Team-Based Learning, Listening, EFL,A2

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Dedication

I dedicate this study to Dr. Larry Vandergrift, a kind scholar who guided me on the early stages of this study and who I hope can read it from above.

Rest in peace, dear Larry.

I would also like to dedicate this study to Dr. Brian May, who has been a great inspiration and role model to me for the last 20 years.

De Mohrenschildt said something else, but it was too low for me to catch more than a few words. They might have been 'get it back'. Or 'got you back'; although I didn't think that was common slang in the sixties.

'When did you get it back?' Was that what he said? As in 'when did you get the rifle back?'

I replayed the tape half a dozen times, but at super-slow speed, there was just no way to tell.

Jake Epping, the main character of 11/22/63, a novel written by Stephen King.

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CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

My experience as an English language teacher is highly influenced by my experiences as a language learner. One of the most intriguing aspects of my development as a language learner has always been listening. As unbelievable as it may sound, at the beginning of my English learning process, I found it easier to develop my speaking skills than my listening ones. I could say a lot but understand very little. Naturally, this affected my communication acts. In fact, I remember how difficult and confusing spoken English was for me until I had the opportunity to travel to an English speaking country and interact with native speakers of English for about two months. It was a gradual process in which, I still believe, words and sounds started to make sense to my hearing conduct and to my brain. And voilà, I could speak and listen. After this experience, I became a learner of French and German, in which I had amazing teachers and methods, thus listening in those languages was never confusing or difficult. However, to date, English has been my stronger language, the one I have taught for nine years, and whose learning -specially listening- I began to research with this study. I want to know more about listening.

Languages have played a vital role in the development of humankind and the advancement of civilizations. While the nature of language has been argued throughout history and in multiple discourses, ranging from being a form of human behavior (Sapir, 1927, Kantor, 1929), to being a predisposed human characteristic (Chomsky, 1968), to being a cognitive construe (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980) people have been developing skills in

foreign languages for eons, and under different methodologies, contexts (formal and informal) and in diverse circumstances, even adverse ones.

One of the crucial skills to be a competent user of a language is listening. Field (2008), maintains that listening, though much needed, methodologically has not been given as much thought as other skills in the classroom, which, unlike listening, render higher control and have been better methodologically approached, such as reading and writing.

This lack of attention to listening might be due to the advent of the Communicative Approach in the 1970s, which gave rise to -and excessive focus on- top-down approaches that place a heavy emphasis on the development of strategies and a high relevance to context as the main tool for understanding and making meaning.

Understanding context is thought to be a very useful strategy to understand messages, but it is merely just that: a top-down strategy, not a universal solution or magic formula to understand spoken language. In fact, Rost (2011, p. 157) warns of the dangers of overusing learning strategies: “as most learning strategy specialists advise, the goal of incorporating strategy instruction into language teaching is not to have students employ as many strategies as possible. Rather, the goal is to focus learners’ attention on cognitive plans that they can personally employ to overcome obstacles in language use, and to develop realistic, efficient plans for long-term language learning”. In other words, developing metacognition.

Thus, strategies have been very useful for learners to deal with academic and educational situations, such as test-taking and participation in class, and “for overcoming obstacles” (Rost, 2011, p. 141). Unfortunately, neither classrooms are the only real life scenarios, nor are learners learning English only and exclusively to be successful tests

takers, or to be part of an eternal language course. Therefore, I want to propose a different approach, following authors such as Vandergrift, Goh, and Field.

My proposal is a combination of the bottom-up and top-down approaches, in order to both provide for the necessary opportunities to develop decoding skills (bottom-up) and to enable students to understand phonemes and words, and to deepen such understanding through the knowledge of the context, while raising students' metacognitive awareness to empower them to approach the listening skill from their understanding of their own needs, flaws, weaknesses and strengths, and the factors that have an impact on their listening process.

This proposal is based on the metacognitive pedagogical model for listening of Vandergrift and Goh (2012, p. xiv), which they delivered as a “metacognitive pedagogical sequence, [that] provides a combination of a tried-and-tested sequence of listening lessons and activities that show learners how to activate processes of skilled listeners”. Vandergrift and Goh (2012) hold that the model is supported by recent research findings.

In addition to Larry Vandergrift and Christine Goh, other authors are advocates of the effectiveness of metacognition as a tool to enhance English listening proficiency (Rahimi, M. & Abedi, S., 2015), science informal learning (Hiller, S. & Kitsantas, A. 2015), and cognitive self-regulation (De La Fuente et al. 2015). The focus of this study is on English listening proficiency and cognitive self-regulation, through metacognitive instruction and awareness. Furthermore, I decided to carry out this intervention following the Team-Based Learning methodology, designed by Larry Michaelsen, as a way to deliver the metacognitive instruction that guides this action-research study.

RATIONALE.

This section presents the background of the study and its teaching context, the backdrop the current education system of Colombia, emphasizing on the teaching of English as a Foreign Language in higher education, and the objective of the study.

Background of the study

The reason for developing this research responds to the perception, among coordinators and students of beginning levels of the English Language Program at Instituto de Idiomas at Universidad del Norte, and mine, of poor listening skills development during students' EFL learning process. This seems to have a great deal to do with the lack of appropriate input and instruction on how to learn to listen, and insufficient and inadequate exposure to spoken English, being the latter mostly controlled by the teacher at specific moments in the class.

Teaching Context and Current Education System in Colombia

This study takes place at Instituto de Idiomas at Universidad del Norte, in Barranquilla, Colombia. Universidad del Norte is a private higher education institution that is ranked among the top universities in Colombia offering doctoral studies, according to the Colombian Ministry of Education's new quality measuring standard MIDE, for its name in Spanish that stands for Modelo de Indicadores del Desempeño en la Educación (MEN, 2015).

Universidad del Norte was founded in 1966, and its language institute, Instituto de Idiomas, opened its doors to undergraduate students of the university in 1995. Currently, Instituto de Idiomas offers English courses to both undergraduate students of the university and to extramural students. The English courses for undergraduate students of the university are called ELP, which stands for English Language Program. Importantly, in 2015 Instituto de Idiomas at Universidad del Norte received a ten-year accreditation by CEA, The Commission on English Language Accreditation, being the only language learning institution in Colombia holding such accreditation.

In accordance with the Colombian government's educational regulations and policies, administered through the Ministry of Education, Instituto de Idiomas at Universidad del Norte uses the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) as its English language competence as guidelines (Council of Europe, 2011). This framework of reference divides linguistic competence into six different levels, namely A1; A2; B1; B2; C1; and C2.

This study is carried out with a class of 17 students of the ELP Level 1, which corresponds to the A2 Level of the CEFR, and whose ages range from 16 to 18. Students come from different municipalities of the Colombian Caribbean, both rural and urban areas.

Objective of the study

Consequently, this action research study aims to tackle this identified need through metacognitive instruction, under a socio-constructivist approach to learning, and using a Team-Based Learning methodology (Michaelsen, 2007), which aims to make collaborative learning more efficient by increasing moments of exposure of learners to the listening material, and by setting the context for comparing and debating answers to exercises and

learning activities, with the express purpose of determining whether a Listening Metacognitive Pedagogical Sequence (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012) affects positively beginner EFL learners' development of listening for main ideas, details and decoding.

The objectives of this study are:

- To analyze how Vandergrift's Metacognitive Pedagogical Sequence promotes metacognitive awareness among students
- To analyze how Vandergrift's Metacognitive Pedagogical Sequence fosters understanding of main ideas, details and decoding among beginner students.
- To evaluate the effectiveness of the Team-Based Learning methodology to help promote metacognitive awareness and to foster understanding of main ideas, details and decoding among beginner students.

Organization of the thesis

This thesis is divided into six chapters, which coherently and cohesively help elucidate the importance of this study and its methodological intervention.

Chapter 1 is Introduction. This chapter provides a general overview of the study, its relevance, its background, its teaching context, the educational system in Colombia, the study's objective, and the organization of the thesis.

Chapter 2 is Theoretical Framework. This chapter delimits the theories underpinning this study. It starts by presenting a historical journey through the most widely accepted definitions of listening, then it presents metacognition, its instruction and the factors that constitute its awareness. In addition, it puts forward the elements of neurological and linguistic processings. Next, it presents the Socio-cultural view of

listening, and then it presents the literature review of pertinent studies, namely views of listening, metacognition, and learning, and discusses the main controversies over the development of listening skills and metacognition. Finally, it presents the working definitions of listening, of the subskills that are object of study, and of language and learning, as well as the circumscribed methodology to deliver the metacognitive instruction.

Chapter 3 is Methodology. This chapter discusses the design of this study, its phases, and the implementation of the pedagogical cycles of the intervention, the type of research adopted, and the data-collection instruments. It closes with the ethical considerations and limitations of the study.

Chapter 4 is Results. This chapter presents and analyzes the results obtained during the study. Results are presented in accordance to the study phases.

Chapter 5 is Discussion and Conclusions. This is the closing chapter. This chapter presents the analysis of the results, the discussion on the possible reasons that explain the results obtained, and the conclusions and implications under the theories that frame the study, and it ends by stating areas for further work.

CHAPTER 2 - THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

INTRODUCTION

Throughout the 20th Century, one of the major trends in English language instruction focused on product-oriented objectives (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). Naturally, listening too has been approached from a product conception, which is seen in the type of listening exercises most textbooks provide (true/false and multiple-choice questions), and which according to Field (2009), demand sophisticated *reading* skills. Consequently, Field (2009) maintains that learners have been expected to respond to a series of questions that permit the teachers to see the number of correct and wrong answers, and thus determine the attaining of listening goals and objectives. From my own experience, this has not been very beneficial to help learners to develop listening skills.

In his own words, Field (2009) holds that “the present approach to teaching listening misleads us by drawing close parallels between listening and reading on the grounds that both result in something loosely termed ‘comprehension’” (p. 28). However, such approach has provided very little information about the listening needs of learners, let alone how they can be remediated, or what specific aspects should a learner practice to develop their listening skills (Field, 2009; Rost, 2011; Vandergrift & Goh, 2012). Previous approaches have not helped either, as described below.

Listening in the late sixties was used principally as a means to teach grammar through modeled dialogues (Field, 2009). In the 1970s, with the advent of the Communicative Approach to English Language Teaching (Richards, 2006), listening

started to be regarded as a teachable -and necessary- skill. Consequently, in that decade, Britain saw the emergence of listening courses comprised of cassettes and recorded materials, and the Cambridge First Certificate in English (Hawkey, R. A. and Milanovic, M., 2013), which is a widely renowned high-stakes test that included the testing of listening skills. In addition to this test, other international high-stakes tests of English as a Foreign Language, such as TOEFL, TOEIC, and IELTS among others, have emerged that include a listening component nowadays.

Furthermore, the advent of globalization as an influencing economic and cultural force, and the evolution of communication technologies, such as cable and satellite TV, have created the need to listen and understand English, and hence to develop sharper listening skills in this language. Moreover, the development of new communication technologies, such as social media, text messaging, podcasting and video streaming -in addition to the increasingly lower prices of smartphones, which have connected people and service providers through broadband internet connections, have all contributed to the global and seamless spread of music, film and information rich video and audio in English, as well as facilitated doing business internationally (Lawlor, B., 2007).

Such massification of communication technologies has been accompanied by an avalanche of information in English, and thus it has brought along the consequent necessity for people all over the world to use English to consume such information, and to participate in meaning exchange transactions and interactions, along with the consequent necessity to understand spoken information in English (Wu & Ben-Canaan, 2006; Graddol, 2006; Ananiadou et al., 2011). This current reality makes the case for the use and implementation of an informed methodology on listening in the English language classroom because people

all over the world are facing an increased exposure to information in English, whose understanding can have a positive impact on their careers and so has the potential to improve their quality of life (Mc.Cormick, C., 2013). Such methodology should respond to learners' current and potential information demands and transactional needs (Christison & Murray, 2014), and should not be “designed to produce failure” (Graddol, 2006, p. 83).

In the following pages, I will present different views of listening. First, I will present the evolution of definitions of listening, from its behavioral conception to its cognitive one, under which metacognition is subscribed. I will present the definition of metacognition and the different aspects and elements of metacognitive instruction. Then, I will present the neurological processing that sustains the listening skill within the listener which, as a biological phenomenon, needs to be taken into account when analyzing the phenomena.

Later on, I will discuss the linguistic processing, which pertains to the stimuli that the listener receives and which interacts with the neurological processing (Rost, 2011). Next, I will present the working definitions of listening, language, and learning that guide this study.

Subsequently, I will present a literature review of the most recent and salient studies that pertain and inform this study. Following that, I will present the main controversies surrounding this research area, and then I will present the research question.

LISTENING

Definitions of Listening.

Over time, understanding of listening has evolved and made evident through many definitions that portrayed the spirits of the given times and elucidated the limits of the knowledge in those moments, and of different professional fields. Rost (2011) maintains that people have been defining listening according to their own personal interests, which naturally limits definitions scope. “In my research of listening as both a linguist and an educator, I have become curious about the ways listening is portrayed by the people I encounter in my everyday life and also by professionals from various fields. Not surprisingly, both individuals and specialists tend to define listening in terms of their personal or theoretical interests in the topic” (Rost, 2011, p. 1). Such definitions are necessarily limited to the advances in understanding of the phenomenon, and the technology that permits to “observe it” and analyze it to any degree. The following historical review shows the changes.

The early 1900s saw the emergence of audio recording technologies and they gave rise to acoustic phonetics, which, in words of Rost (2011, p. 1), “was seen as a major breakthrough in communications research”. Thus, “listening was defined in terms of reliably recording acoustic signals in the brain for later use” (Rost, 2011). This definition of listening shows a mechanic view that made listening observable, but not how pedagogical and foreign language learning principles were taken into account. It does not show awareness of the need to organize a listening lesson around recorded materials because such element of the language learning industry was not functioning then. Consequently, neither decoding nor comprehension were discussed under such view of listening. Later on,

during the 1920s and 1930s, the definition of listening benefited from the advances in research into the human psyche (Rost, 2011). Listening started to be considered a cognitive process, which was “largely unconscious and controlled by mysterious cognitive mechanisms” (Rost, 2011, p. 1). With cognition as the framework of the listening process, it was only a matter of time to start analyzing the ways in which listening comprehension occurred and the governing biological principles that it encompasses.

The 1940s brought the spread of telecommunication technologies, such as the telephone, and information processing was of recent science interest. This is when the concepts of successful transmissions and re-creation of messages were introduced. Nichols, in 1947, defined listening and hearing as phases of a process called “aural assimilation”, in which a person hears or apprehends a sound, and then the person gives meaning and comprehension to the aural symbol. This definition clearly moves forward from the previous decade’s conception, in that it includes the term meaning and symbol. Meaning and symbols are the backbones of the two current and prevailing listening approaches, top-down (meaning) - main ideas and details-, and symbols -decoding-.

Rost (2011) states that in the 1950s, advances in computational science began to influence cognitive psychology, and thus it had an impact on how people understood listening. In that decade, listening was conceived in terms of “dissecting and tagging input”, so that it could be stored and retrieved efficiently (Cherry, 1953). This view of listening marks the birth of decoding.

The 1960s gave rise to transpersonal psychology and behaviorism (Rost, 2011). Deutsch and Deutsch (1963) discuss the impact and effects of attention in listening, and its study not only by behaviorist, but also by neurophysiologists. They claim that there is a

limit to the number of things to which people can attend to at any one time, they hold that “we cannot, for instance, listen effectively to the conversation of a friend on the telephone if someone else in the room is simultaneously giving us complex instructions as to what to say to him”. And this difficulty in processing information from two different sources at the same time occurs even if no overt response is required. This phenomenon of selective attention is addressed for the first time in this decade. Such discovery is of uttermost importance for the study of listening as a foreign language skill to develop, in that it sheds light on possible difficulties experienced by listeners in the classroom.

In the 1970s, definitions of listening invoked cultural schemata which had gained acceptance thanks to a growing interest in globalism and anthropology (Rost, 2011), in the light of the growing influence of the two reigning superpowers, which resulted in an increasing bipolarization of the world, accentuating the Cold War. Samuel Huntington (1997) in his seminal work *The Clash of Civilizations* reminds us:

During the Cold War global politics became bipolar and the world was divided into three parts. A group of mostly wealthy and democratic societies, led by the United States, was engaged in a pervasive ideological, political, economic, and, at times, military competition with a group of somewhat poorer communist societies associated with and led by the Soviet Union. (p. 21).

The importance of this period to the instruction of English as a foreign language is seen in the advent of the Communicative Approach, which might have occurred due to a search of increasing relevance and influence of the Western World, the United States in particular, over other countries that might otherwise be influenced and controlled by the Soviet Union. Jack C. Richards (2006) maintains:

Under the influence of CLT theory, grammar-based methodologies such as the P-P-P have given way to functional and skills-based teaching, and accuracy activities such as drill and grammar practice have been replaced by fluency activities based on interactive small-group work. (p. 8).

The Communicative Approach favored the top-down approach and called for contextualization as the most salient element of listening comprehension, thus eliminating the emphasis on decoding of the 1950s, while highlighting the emphasis on attention of the 1960s. Even though the Communicative Approach, or Communicative Language Teaching was brought to light in the 1970s, it still exerts a dominant position in the design of English language programs and curricular in many countries. In fact, Richards (2006) holds that “today CLT continues in its classic form as seen in the huge range of course books and other teaching resources that cite CLT as the source of their methodology” (p. 45).

The 1980s was a decade of increasing interest in business and the development of ‘people skills’ to close deals in the Western World. Companies in the United States, an English speaking country, engaged in business deals with other countries, especially Japan (Peterson Institute for International Economics, 2016) “as the American appetite for foreign goods consistently outstripped demand for American goods in other countries” (US Department of State, 2016). This economic reality brought the notion of active listening, as part of the act of listening as a conscious decision. This conception of listening for the instruction of listening in a foreign language permitted to enrich the listening experiences, which evolved into expansive, intensive and interactive listening (Rost, 2011).

In the 1990s, the advances in computer technology permitted to handle and control vast quantities of data. Under such view, Rost (2011, p. 2) states that listening was defined

as the “processing of input”. This notion of listening involves the awareness of the role of the brain and other physiological and biochemical features, such as the external and inner ear, and the role of neurotransmitters in the successful transmission of the message. It is clear how views of listening have been building from each other, rather than eschewing the previous ones.

The 2000s brought us ubiquitous digital networking, and listening came along. Rost (2011) reports that “listening was seen as the ability to keep multiple events and people in one’s accessibility network to connect with others quickly and efficiently” (p. 2).

The 2010s are giving us powerful computing power in smartphones and digital tablets, which are permanently connected to the Internet, and which can be said to be listening stations, thanks to their improved portability (OECD, 2015). Listeners with a current smartphone or digital tablet can access listening materials anywhere, especially with the rise of podcast production and consumption (Edison Research, 2016), and increasingly lower costs in Internet connection plans offered by carriers. In turn, this has brought the conception of listening as an ongoing process, rather than a product. Nowadays, listening materials are ubiquitous and learners can access them anytime, anywhere, and thus control them, unlike in the aforementioned decades.

From this historical journey, one can safely infer that there will be more definitions of listening in the future, which will depend on the sociocultural realities of the coming times. In fact, Rost agrees. He believes that “our characterizations of listening, and of communication generally, will continue to evolve to reflect our changing worldview and our expectations of what advances in science and technology will enable us to do” (Rost, 2011, p. 2).

In the following section, I present the behaviorist and the cognitive views of listening, and the processes that comprise the sociocultural view. Then, I present the working definitions of listening, metacognition and learning under which this work is framed. I will finalize the chapter by summarizing findings of studies that support the espoused definition of listening and the metacognitive approach to this skill, and by presenting some of the main controversies in the field.

Behaviorist View of Listening.

Here is a recount of a review made by Field (2009):

Once listening made its way to the classroom, it was approached as a sequence of steps that clearly show a top-down structure. At this stage, students were presented the vocabulary that would be employed in the listening recording. Next, they would be exposed to the listening recording. At the Listening stage, students were expected to identify contextual cues, in which they would have to get a general idea of what the recording was about and identify the number of speakers, their genders, and their emotions. Afterwards, teachers led students from this context identification stage, in which they had to respond to detailed comprehension questions through a more detailed account of the listening material in a second and subsequent plays of the recording. At this stage, listeners were expected to identify other more focused and specific pieces of information, such as main ideas and details. These activities were known as extensive and intensive listening respectively. Finally, the last stage, known as Post-listening, aimed to working on the analysis and teaching of new

language. Additionally, the Post-listening stage was also used for drilling purposes.
(p. 14).

The formerly mentioned approach to listening focuses on the outcome. In other words, listening had a goal, which was comprehension, and comprehension was supposedly evidenced in the answers to a previously designed set of questions. This view of listening is known as listening as a product (Field, 2009; Rost, 2011; Vandergrift & Goh, 2012). Such view was coherent to a view of language as a product in vogue at that time responding to a view of learning that needed be observable: behaviorist. Such view of listening responds to the behaviorist view of learning, which dominated the decade of the sixties, and which held the need for learning to be observable. Under such view, comprehension was what made the listening skill visible, and therefore thought to be successfully developed. Surprisingly, in my experience, it is the very same view most English language teaching textbooks and courses under the Communicative Approach, or Communicative Language Teaching, adopt for listening today.

I believe that skill development does not necessarily have to be tangible to exist. In fact, under a socio-constructivist view of learning, skills are not developed that way. Palincsar (2005) maintain that “the research regarding direct instruction suggests that while it is an effective way of teaching factual content, there is less evidence that this instruction transfers to higher order cognitive skills, such as reasoning and problem solving” (p. 286). Listening, like higher-order thinking skills such as problem-solving, critical thinking and transfer (Brookfield, S. 2010), is not observable. Such argument supports a cognitivist view of listening.

Cognitive View of Listening

As is known nowadays and I discussed in the section above, a behaviorist view of learning could not fully explain human learning processes. Consequently, language learning was not described clearly and fully under such view of learning (Kumaravadivelu, 2008). This lack of precision opened the doors to a cognitive view of learning.

Listening processes and skill development are framed within the cognitive view of learning, in that it not only does include comprehension, but also takes into account both top-down and bottom up processing, controlled and automatic processing, perception, parsing, utilization, and metacognition (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012). Vandergrift and Goh (2012) state that these processes permit to identify the actions listeners perform while listening, how efficiently they listen, and how they can regulate such processes (p. 17).

In the next paragraphs, I will discuss and analyze each of the elements that Vandergrift and Goh (2012) consider paramount to explaining the listening comprehension process, namely, controlled and automatic processing, top-down and bottom up processing, perception, parsing, utilization, and metacognition.

Controlled and automatic processing

Controlled processing is the natural onset of listening comprehension as a cognitive activity. It depends to a great extent on working memory capacity. Working memory is defined by Baddeley (1992) “as a cognitive process that involves the temporary storage and manipulation of information used in complex cognitive activities such as language processing” (p. 556). At the early stages of foreign language learning, linguistic resources are limited and exposure to the spoken language is so unfamiliar that the listener employs

too many working memory resources trying to make sense, and to build meaning, from what is listened. In fact, Rost (2011) maintains that controlled processes in listening require attention and interfere with other control processes (p. 21), which might explain why automaticity, as Field (2009) conceives it, “can be achieved only by extensive experience of actually using the skill” (p. 32).

Thus, extensive experience and exposure, as proposed by the communicative approach, does help build automatic processing over time. Questions such as how long would a student need to be exposed?, how often would the student need to be exposed?, and is the time allotted in class for listening exposure sufficient to develop automaticity? Are very up to date. I am afraid the answers to these questions would debunk the claim for exposure as a sole means to develop automaticity.

Bottom-up processing starts taking place in the listener’s brain, with adequate exposure to the spoken foreign language and under proper learning conditions. This happens as the listener adds the learned linguistic resources to long term memory, consequently freeing working memory to be utilized to enrich meaning through the top-down processing. Thus, according to Vandergrift and Goh (2012) meaning making is more efficient, and comprehension is enhanced.

This fact is relevant in that the participants of this study are elementary level CEF A.2. students, whose linguistic resources are very limited, and therefore take great pains at making sense and making meaning of the auditory input. At this level, it is desirable that students free up working memory to direct it to top-down processing, and in this way they can enhance comprehension.

Cognitive Understanding: the role of schemata

Under this view, listening is understood primarily as a cognitive activity. Rost (2011) asserts that it involves “the activation and modification of concepts in the listener’s mind. The conceptual knowledge that the listener brings to text comprehension needs to be coordinated in ways that allow him or her to activate it efficiently and continuously arrive at an acceptable cognitive understanding of the input” (p. 57). This view supports the implementation of a metacognitive pedagogical cycle which permits students to take cognitive control over their development of listening skills.

In addition, Rost (2011) expands on how this view is held by cognitive psychologists and linguists, and introduces the concept of schemata as an asset that is natural to adults:

As a way of referring to activated portions of conceptual knowledge, cognitive psychologists and linguists often refer to modules of knowledge as schemata. It is estimated that any normal adult would have hundreds of thousands of available schemas in memory, which would be interrelated in an infinite number of ways.

Further, new schemata are created and existing ones are updated constantly: every time we read, listen to, or observe something new we create a new schema. (p. 57).

Rost concludes by stating that comprehension researchers believe that activating appropriate schemata that will assist in understanding the incoming text is key to effective comprehension (2011, p. 58).

Top down and bottom up processing

Vandergrift and Goh (2012) describe top down processing as the processing:

[It] involves the application of context and prior knowledge to interpret the message. Listeners who approach a comprehension task in a top-down manner use their knowledge of the context, of the listening event or the topic of a listening text to activate a conceptual framework for understanding the message. Listeners can apply different types of knowledge to the task, including: prior (world or experiential) knowledge, pragmatic knowledge, cultural knowledge about the target language, and discourse knowledge (types of texts and how information is organized in these texts). This knowledge is stored in the listener's long-term memory in the form of schemata (complex mental structures that group all knowledge concerning a concept) (p. 19).

Rost (2011) defines top-down processing as that in which learners use “concepts in the brain to impose meaning” (p. 52), and Field (2009) holds that top-down processing refers to the use of “context and co-text to help identify words that are unclear, (...) to compensate for gaps in understanding or to enrich a fully decoded message” (p. 132).

Top down processing requires interpretation and assumes that comprehension occurs provided listener expectations about information in the listening text coincide with the application of appropriate knowledge sources to comprehend the sound stream. This approach to listening comprehension is not satisfactory because, according to Vandergrift and Goh (2012) “listeners may not have all the prior knowledge required, or share enough of the speaker's perspective on the subject matter to interpret accurately” (p. 19).

Main Ideas

A main idea is the chief point an author or a speaker is making about a topic. It sums up the author or speaker's primary message. Sometimes a text, spoken or written, lacks an explicit enunciation of the main idea, or a topic sentence, but that does not mean that it lacks a main idea. The speaker or author simply lets the details of the selection suggest the main idea.

Then it is the listener who must figure out the implied idea by deciding the points of all the details (University of Hawaii, Learning Assistance Center, 2016).

Details

A speech act contains facts, statements, examples and specificities which guide us to a full understanding of the main idea. They clarify, illuminate, explain, describe, expand and illustrate the main idea and are supporting details (University of Hawaii, Learning Assistance Center, 2016).

Decoding

Additionally, Vandergrift and Goh describe bottom up processing as that which “involves segmentation of the sound stream into meaningful units to interpret the message (...) based on their knowledge of (...) individual sounds or phonemes, and (...) patterns of language intonation, such as stress, tone, and rhythm of the target language” (2012, p. 19). It assumes that the comprehension process is based on extracting such information from the sound stream, “with minimal contribution of information from the listener's prior knowledge of the world” (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012, p. 18).

Rost defines bottom-up processing as that in which learners use “data derived from the speech signal directly to make sense” (2011, p. 52). Field sees bottom-up processing as that in which learners “distinguish between building phonemes into words and words into phrases” (2009, p. 52). One key feature of bottom-up processing is decoding, which I will discuss next more in depth, for it plays a key role in this study.

Decoding is the bottom-up device that permits the processing of a particular speech signal that starts in the auditory system (outer ear, medium ear, and inner ear), and its subsequent transformation into an electrical signal that travels through the auditory nerve to the auditory cortex in the brain, where it is matched to familiar representations of sounds that can be phonemes and/or linguistic knowledge (Rost, 2011). The sum of the constituent parts of different signals serve to build meaning by recurring to previous knowledge of the world, which is a top-down listening device (Field, 2009).

SUBSKILLS AND THE PROCESS APPROACH

Subskills

One view held by some in regards to listening skills development is that of sub-skills. Field, (2009, p. 98) states that some “have chosen to regard (listening) not as a monolithic skill but as a complex of many contributory abilities or sub-skills. They suggest that a language learner wishing to develop listening competence needs to acquire a command of as many of these abilities as possible”. Thus, the teacher, “focuses on one sub-skill at a time: enabling the learner to build up local routines first, before using the sub-skills in conjunction with each other. An approach of this kind to foreign language listening makes three important assumptions: that sub-skills can be identified; that they are capable of being practised

independently; and that, once practised, they can be recombined in a way that enhances overall performance in the target skill.” (Field, 2009, p. 98). One criticism held against this isolating view of listening skills development is that it may provide for a great deal of recorded material to use in and out of the classroom, but, as Field puts it, “does nothing to ensure progress over time in the way in which learners process the material” (2009, p. 99).

The Process Approach.

Field (2009, p. 108) states that the main difference between a process approach and sub-skills is that the process approach relies on evidence of behavior of skilled listeners, while sub-skills are hypothetical, because their existence is difficult to prove. One clear example of how the process approach works can be identified in how English listeners rely on the usage of stress to recognize words. Learners can imitate this.

The process approach is informed by discoveries on the operations which expert listeners undergo and how these operations interact, the input that the listeners’ ears receive and the accommodations the listener needs to make in order to interpret them, and the ways in which the brain responds to the listening demands. This approach also adopts the fact that the L2 listener possesses a fully formed listening competence in L1. Thus, such listening competence apparently needs to be made relevant to the different circumstances of a second language. This is not a simple and immediate event in a learner’s learning process.

On the contrary, this process requires strategies that inform targeted and intensive practice because, as Field (2009) asserts, the process approach can be seen as that which “relates to the processes which underpin native-speaker performance” (p. 111). Naturally,

Field is aware of the inappropriacy of using the term ‘native speaker’ in a world where English is mostly spoken as a second or foreign language:

“These processes have been acquired as a result of many years’ experience of using the target language, during which the most efficient routines for handling the language have become established. It is in this respect that the native performer provides a model for the non-native: as the possessor of expertise in the form of tried, rapid and efficient systems for processing connected speech. Indeed, it may be more precise to refer to an ‘expert’ listener in the target language rather than a native one” (Field, 2009, p. 111). In this work, metacognitive strategies are a central tenet to the process approach.

As the conception of listening as a skill has evolved over time, several authors and methodologists, including Vandergrift (2012), Goh (2012), Lynch (2009), and Rost (2011), have studied mechanisms, areas and subtleties involved in the listening process, as well as beneficial strategies that empower the learner to take control over their progress in the development of listening skills. Consequently, these authors have proposed different approaches to listening, both as a directed and a self-directed activity. Given all these different views of listening, it is important to provide a definition that extensively covers all the aspects and phenomena involved in the listening skills. This will be introduced in the following section.

Even though Vandergrift and Goh make a rigorous description of the speech production and comprehension processes, they acknowledge that they are not sufficient to elucidate the phenomenon either, since these two processes do not take the sound stream into consideration (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012, p. 18). Rost (2011), in turn, holds the view

that these processes are just tools, and they do not explain entirely the listening phenomenon.

Such insufficiency of top-down and bottom-up processing to shed light on the listening process might explain in part the failure of the Communicative Approach to develop listening skills. As the internet site of the National Capital Language Resource Center at the George Washington University, in its Teaching Listening section (retrieved on Feb. 2, 2016) claims “in the communicative approach to language teaching, helping students become effective listeners means modeling listening strategies and providing listening practice in authentic situations: those that learners are likely to encounter when they use the language outside the classroom” (Teaching and Listening section, para. 4), however modeling strategies and providing listening practice in authentic situations are not pedagogical methodologies to help students develop listening skills, nor provide them with tools to develop listening skills outside the classroom. Students are not going to have an English teacher in front of them to model a listening strategy for them in every social and listening situation. Based on the affirmations made by Field (2009), Rost (2011), Vandergrift and Goh (2012), I can conclude that such approach to helping students become effective listeners is not very beneficial.

It is worth noting how the vision of Field (2009) brings to light the fact that mere top-down processing is insufficient and, as such, it only provides support to understand words and fill gaps, which is a bottom-up process, but if vocabulary knowledge is missing, then sole top-down processing is not efficient. In fact, Rost maintains that top-down and bottom-up processing, in conjunction, allow “an acceptable measure of comprehension to take place smoothly, at least in our first language, and at least most of the time” (2011, p.

52). In this work, I am discussing listening for main ideas, details and decoding in a foreign language, and a pedagogical approach to develop these subskills to be effective most of the time, if not all the time. As discussed, top-down and bottom-up processes alone are inefficient to achieve such goal, knowledge of vocabulary is necessary, too. Considering the insufficiency of top-down and bottom up processes, it is evident that such processings alone are not very beneficial to inform teachers on how to approach listening lessons efficiently and effectively. It is necessary to go deeper to take into account the vast array of processes and involuntary and voluntary phenomena that occur during the listening event, and which I will present now.

Working Memory

Vandergrift and Barker (2015) and Komori (2016) discuss the concept “working memory”. Cowan (2009) holds that Miller used working memory in the 1960s, and it is not completely distinct from short-term memory. It was used to refer to functions such as planning and carrying out behavior, as would be expected to occur during comprehension. Others, for instance Rost (2011), use the term short-term memory. For the purpose of this action-research study, I will use the term working memory as used by Vandergrift & Barker (2015) and Komori (2016), which is the one proposed by Baddeley (1992), cited by Vandergrift and Barker (2015): “working memory involves the temporary storage and manipulation of information used in complex cognitive activities such as language processing (...) in which there is a central executive component for planning, coordinating the flow of information and retrieving knowledge from long-term memory.” (Vandergrift & Barker, 2015, p. 396).

Memory building during comprehension

Additionally, McLeod (2007) affirms “Memory is involved in processing information. This information takes many different forms, e.g. images, sounds or meaning” (McLeod, 2007). When Rost (2011) refers to memory access during listening, he means “both the process of activating existing memories to assist in comprehension and also the process of forming new memory connections or updating or strengthening existing memories during and immediately following comprehension. Memory is generally discussed as involving two dimensions: long-term memory, associated with the sum of all of a person’s knowledge and experience, and short-term memory, associated with knowledge that is activated at a particular moment” (2011, p. 72). Memory not only plays a crucial role in semantic processing, but also in strategy retrieval. Therefore, it is vital to raise student’s awareness of its importance as a factor benefiting or hampering listening comprehension.

Problem-solving during comprehension

Rost (2011) maintains that inferencing serves to solve comprehension problems while listening. He cites Barbey and Barsalou (2009), when he states that “inferences (...) are employed only when there is a need to draw a relevant inference before comprehension can continue, and when evidence is available from which some conclusion can be drawn” (P. 63). Such process also supports the implementation of Vandergrift’s Listening Metacognitive Pedagogical Sequence for it provides students with the metacognitive strategies that help students solve comprehension problems.

Reasoning during comprehension

As a cognitive process, listening therefore needs to rely on reasoning. Reasoning, in the view of Rost (2011), occurs not only after listening, but during listening, and during comprehension, for which we use working memory. Rost (2011) maintains,

“In real time reasoning during discourse comprehension, we must depend on short term memory, a calculation space in our memory. And because of limitations of [working] memory, we are apt to oversimplify complex arguments and interpretations in order to arrive more readily at an acceptable understanding. The process of reasoning during listening is relatively straightforward, though not always easy to apply in real time. Reasoning involves five basic cognitive processes: comprehension of facts, categorisation of claims about those facts, relative assumptions of truth value in what the speaker is saying, induction of unknown or unknowable facts from given information, and deduction of a generalisation based on evidence given. Reasoning while listening involves rapid identification and evaluation of facts, premises and claims. Listeners need to make assessments quickly in order to understand the claims that the speaker is making – directly or indirectly” (p. 66).

Compensatory strategies during comprehension

“Given natural limitations of memory, all listeners need to resort to compensatory strategies from time to time to perform semantic processing – to make sense of spoken language when conditions become severe” (Rost, 2011, p. 70). It is not surprising, hence, that

listening strategies are important to be taught. Rost identifies five instances in which semantic processing might break down (2011, p. 70).

- The listener cannot hear what the speaker is saying;
- The listener does not know specific expressions the speaker is using;
- The information the speaker gives is incomplete;
- The listener hears a familiar word, but it is used in an unfamiliar way;
- The listener encounters an unknown word or concept, or when the speakers proceed too quickly for the listener to conduct all of the reasoning processes required, and no opportunity for clarification is available.

These are clearly situational factors that might affect listening comprehension during the performance of listening skills development, which naturally must be taken into account in this study. Consequently, Rost (2011) addresses five compensatory strategies for such interruptions of semantic processing:

- **Skipping:** omitting a part or a block of text from processing for comprehension.
- **Approximation:** using a superordinate concept that is likely to cover the essence of what has not been comprehended; constructing a less precise meaning for a word or concept than the speaker may have intended.
- **Filtering:** compressing a longer message or set of propositions into a more concise one. (This is different from skipping or approximation, which are ‘reduction’ strategies, because filtering involves active construction of a larger semantic context.)
- **Incompletion:** maintaining an incomplete proposition in memory, waiting until clarification can be obtained.

- Substitution: substituting a word or concept or proposition for one that is not understandable. (Rost, 2011, p. 70).

Comprehension and learning

An additional consideration Rost (2011) makes of semantic processing concerns the memory and learning. He maintains that “it is important to note that what is remembered and learned from a listening experience, however, is not purely a function of textual information or information processing. Emotional and individual experiential factors play a major role in learning through listening” (p. 76), which, under Vandergrift and Goh’s (2012) view, constitute factors affecting listening comprehension, and thus learning.

Pragmatic Processing

Rost (2011) maintains that “pragmatic processing evolves from the notion of relevance, or the idea that listeners take an active role in identifying relevant factors in verbal and non-verbal input, and inject their own intentions into the process of constructing meaning” (p. 9). He also holds that “effective listening involves making use of available information in the speech signal and activating all *-the aforementioned-* cognitive resources” (p. 77). The italics are mine. This is where individual, contextual and personal differences start having an influence on the understanding of messages. Under the pragmatic processing perspective, Rost (2011) asserts, one needs to consider “phenomena of language from the subjective point of view of the speaker and the listener, and the intersubjectivity that is co-constructed in an interaction” (p, 78).

Rost affirms that

the central aspect of pragmatic processing is deriving and building contextual meaning. Contextual meaning includes the interactional status and interpersonal relationship between the speaker and listener. Part of contextual meaning is signalled in and recoverable from the language used, and part of it is invoked by the listener, through inferring the intentions of the speaker in order to conform to – or to depart from – the norms of language for particular purposes (2011, p. 79).

For the purpose of this study, pragmatic processing is only observed from the listener perspective and its role as an addressee of a message, since no interaction occurs between the students and the speakers in the recordings they listen to.

Metacognition

Developing listening skills in English is done in order to improve listening comprehension. According to Dettori, G. and Lupi, V (2013) such improvement “involves practicing core skills, such as listening selectively, e.g., for details or for gist, making inferences, and predicting the content of the following sentences, yet always keeping the attention on the development of effective communication” (p. 615). In consequence, they maintain that “in this process, it is important that the learners develop awareness of task requirements as well as of their own strengths and weaknesses as listeners” (2013, p. 615). This is the view I share, and therefore I adopted a metacognitive approach to listening instruction in this study. In this section, I review, discuss and present the metacognitive approach to listening, which is one of the guiding approaches of this study.

Definitions of metacognition

Metacognition, in spite of being an emerging field in education, has been shown to be present in both animals and humans. Among the work on animal metacognition we find Couchman et al. (2014), who presented evidence of animal metaminds; Crystal, J. (2012), who showed animal models of metacognition; and Fujita et al. (2012), who inquired on birds' and capuchin monkeys metacognition. Regarding metacognition in humans, several studies have addressed many knowledge fields, among them neuroscience, cognitive psychology, education, and foreign language learning.

As occurs in emerging fields, there are several terms that are commonly associated with metacognition which include metacognitive beliefs, metacognitive awareness, metacognitive experiences, metacognitive knowledge, feeling of knowing, judgment of learning, theory of mind, metamemory, metacognitive skills, executive skills, higher-order skills, metacomponents, comprehension monitoring, learning strategies, heuristic strategies, and self-regulation among the terms that are commonly associated with metacognition (Veenman, M. V. J. et al, 2006). However, none of these terms comprises what the concept entails, nor addresses the issue of listening in a foreign language.

A basic definition of metacognition is “thinking about one’s thinking” (Beran et al., 2012). However, it is evident that such definition is too general, for it does not provide enough detail to study it. Here, I review the concept of metacognition from different approaches, and finally I frame it within the objective of this work, which is metacognition in listening in a foreign language.

According to Peña-Ayala (2010), Flavell, who is considered the founding father of this field (Dettori, G. and Lupi, V., 2013), in the late seventies of the 20th Century defined

metacognition as “knowledge concerning one’s own cognitive processes and products or anything related to them; and the active monitoring, consequent regulation and orchestration of these cognitive processes” (p. 42).

Flavell’s definition of metacognition holds the possibility to influence one’s cognitive processing by regulating and orchestrating it. However, it does not mention any specific cognitive processes, and therefore, listening is not among them, under this view of metacognition.

The first knowledge presented by Flavell, knowledge of cognition, could include the listener's knowledge about his or her own cognitive resources and the compatibility between the listener and the listening situation. If a listener were aware of what is needed to perform efficiently, then it would be possible to take steps to meet the demands of a listening situation more effectively. If, however, the listener were not aware of his or her own limitations as a listener, or of the complexity of the task at hand, then the listener could hardly be expected to take preventative or corrective actions to anticipate or recover from problems.

Regarding the second aspect, the regulation of cognition, Carrell and Grabe (2002) maintain that it refers to when a "higher order process orchestrates and directs other cognitive skills". Still, Carrell et al.,’s work addresses reading, a receptive language skill from a metacognitive perspective, but not listening.

In 2010, a definition appeared which could address listening in a foreign language. Alejandro Peña-Ayala (2010, p. V) defines metacognition as “a term used to identify a kind of cognition oriented to monitor and regulate cognition engaged in a given mental activity (e.g., listening, reading, memorizing). Human beings consciously, even unconsciously,

acquire and exploit metacognitive knowledge, and develop metacognitive skills every day to perform complex cognitive duties such as: learning, decision-making, and problem solving”. This view of metacognition includes listening as a mental activity subject to intervention and monitoring of the listener. This given, they should be capable of making decisions on what to pay attention to, and on which strategy to employ to solve a listening problem.

In the words of Vandergrift and Goh (2012, p. 83), metacognition “is our ability to think about our own thinking or ‘cognition’, and, by extension, to think about how we process information for a range of purposes and manage the way we do it. It is the ability to step back, as it were, from what occupies our mind at a particular moment in time to analyze and evaluate what we are thinking”. The definition of metacognition proposed by Vandergrift and Goh (2012) reflects the view of listening as a processing of information, which matches the elements present in the current definition of listening and its conception as a process.

Metacognition can be seen in action through the utilization of strategies by learners, provided they are self-directed and have had training in their use. These strategies are known as metacognitive strategies and they are planning, monitoring and evaluation. Under a metacognitive approach to listening, learners are expected to use the three strategies in parallel processing, as they listen. Parallel processing models assume, in words of Randall Holme (2013, p. 619) that “the larger part of cognitive processing is not specific to the sensory mechanisms from which knowledge of the world and of language is acquired (...) such models replicate how the brain performs mental operations by making connections across synapses with neurons with degrees of strength established by usage”.

In terms of pedagogical methodology, these three strategies offer ground to build a path towards an informed pedagogical sequence to listening. Planning, monitoring and evaluation hold promise on the development of listening skills, supporting top-down and bottom-up processing, and a pedagogical sequence that provides students with the opportunity to plan, monitor and evaluate what they listen.

Metacognitive Instruction

Metacognitive instruction facilitates learning to listen by raising learners' awareness of the aspects that affect positively and negatively their understanding and identification of details when listening. Since this is a parallel processing in which learners are preparing for the input they are going to listen (planning), while they are listening, they are monitoring for sounds, phonemes and pragmatic cues which help them comprehend, and finally, evaluate the overall effectiveness of their planning and monitoring. This is the cycle proposed by Vandergrift and Goh (2012). The authors assert that such cycle ensures permanent improvement of students' utilization of metacognitive strategies: "Through a continuous cycle of learning to listen in and out of class, learners are able to develop their listening ability more quickly and effectively" (p. 98).

Additionally, the authors maintain that a metacognitive pedagogical sequence "is one way to integrate metacognitive activities with conventional listening activities in a lesson" (p. 98), which clearly satisfies the purpose of this action research: to help beginner learners of English as a Foreign Language develop their listening skills, through the implementation of a pedagogical sequence that suits their perceived needs.

Vandergrift and Goh (2012) describe briefly what their proposal of metacognitive instruction is and the expected result it leads to.

“Metacognitive instruction in L2 listening refers to pedagogical methods that increase learner awareness about the listening process. In particular, it develops richer metacognitive knowledge about the nature and demands of listening and strategies for listening. Through metacognitive instruction, learners become more skilled in using the following processes: (1) planning for the activity; (2) monitoring comprehension; (3) solving comprehension problems; and (4) evaluating the approach and outcomes. The result is improvement in overall ability to listen” (p. 106).

Interestingly, Field (2009) and Vandergrift & Goh (2012) conceive listening as a process. According to Field (2009), listening as a process can be conceived as the highlighting of relevant aspects of listener behavior that have been observed and investigated, being decoding the backbone of such behavior. (p. 110). Furthermore, Vandergrift & Goh (2012) conceive learning to listen as a cognitive process. Consequently, they propose a metacognitive approach to listening in which a “‘Metacognitive Pedagogical Sequence’ shows how the metacognitive processes of planning, monitoring, problem-solving, and evaluation can shape a pedagogical sequence that leads learners to activate the cognitive processes in real-life listening” (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012, p. 104).

Furthermore, Vandergrift and Goh (2012) share the view of Field (2009) in regards to equipping students with tools to self-direct their own learning. In this case, such tools are metacognitive strategies. “In the long run, a metacognitive approach to listening will greatly benefit learners and help them develop real-world listening skills that can ‘ensure that the acquisition of L2 continues in the world beyond courses and classrooms’” (Field,

2007, p. 31 in Vandergrift & Goh, 2012, p. 212), which further builds the theoretical foundation of this study.

At the core of this metacognitive approach to learning to listen are main ideas, details and decoding, as I attempt to determine whether metacognitive strategies are beneficial to improve understanding of main ideas, details and decoding in Level 1 students at Instituto de Idiomas at Universidad del Norte. Because of all the arguments mentioned above, within the view of listening as a process, contextual cues can no longer be relied upon so heavily.

Neurological Processing.

Holme, in Herschensohn, M. & Young-Scholten affirms that “the brain is essentially a network of different connections that are made, inhibited or let fall into disuse in response to how they are electrically excited by data that is fed into them through the senses.

Neurons are nerve cells that respond to the stimulus of electric current and will bind to synapses, thus creating connections” (2013, p. 619). He adds “the neuron’s molecular structure changes its shape to become a channel through which the charge can flow. The biological basis of thought therefore involves tissue whose plastic nature allows it to process different types of data”. Over time and with exposure and practice, it is said that synapses change their shape and strengthen, enabling neurons to send signals through the synapses. Holme states that “the multiple shape changes caused by data passing through a network captures thought as a wave effect or flow, with each neuron responding to the current passed through it” (2013, p. 619).

In the case of listening, neurological processing is comprised of hearing, consciousness, and attention. Even though it is a general neurological processing in humans, some individual differences are present.

Rost (2011) states that hearing is the primary physiological system that allows for reception and conversion of sound waves (p. 13), and thus it constitutes the first step in perception. Rost maintains that “while hearing provides a basis for listening, it is only a precursor for it” (2011, p. 12). Psychologically, this means that “perception creates knowledge of distal objects by detecting and differentiating properties in the energy field. In the case of audition, the energy field is the air surrounding the listener. The perceiver detects shifts in intensity, which are minute movements in the air, in the form of sound waves, and differentiates their patterns through a fusion of temporal processing in the left cortex of the brain and spectral processing in the right. The perceiver designates the patterns in the sound waves to various learned categories, which is the first stage of assigning some meaning to the sound (p. 12).

Consciousness and listening

Rost (2011) defines consciousness as “the aspect of mind that has a self-centred point of view and orientation to the environment” (p. 17). In addition, he believes that consciousness is directly related to intentionality – the intention to understand and to be understood (p.17). This is important in this study because one of the requirements of metacognition is intentionality, which means that the listening process is not a passive one, but demands from the listener the intention to understand, to monitor comprehension, to solve problems and to evaluate his or her understanding. Those processes require the listener to be conscious.

Attention

Rost (2011) defines attention as the operational aspect of consciousness “which activates parts of the cortex that are equipped to process it” (p. 19) and he divides it into three stages: arousal, orientation and focus.

Rost (2011) defines the three stages as follows: Stage 1 is arousal: in response to a stimulus (internal or external) neurotransmitters originating in the brain stem (reticular activating system) fire throughout the brain, activating brain chemicals (dopamine and noradrenaline) and creating bursts of electrical activity. Stage 2 is orientation: the superior colliculus regulates the neurotransmitters and directs them to areas of the brain that will be used for processing the stimulus. Stage 3 is focus: the lateral pulvinar region of the brain (the part of the brain most active in experiences of consciousness) locks the neurotransmitters onto the parts of the cerebral cortex needed to process the stimulus (p. 19). Rost highlights that these three stages occur nearly simultaneously.

Perception, Parsing and Utilization.

Perception

This three-stage process sheds light on the intricacy of top down and bottom up processes. Perception is the first event that occurs to the listener when exposed to the speech act. Rost maintains that perception starts from hearing, as he considers it to be the “primary physiological system that allows for reception and conversion of sound waves” (2011, p. 11). However, before hearing, the ear encounters sound waves, which Rost holds “are experienced as pressure pulses and can be measured in pascals (Force over an Area: $p =$

F/A)” (2011, p. 11). Rost (2011, p. 13) describes the phenomenon of hearing as occurring when “sound waves travel down the ear canal and cause the eardrum to vibrate. These vibrations are passed along through the middle ear, which is a sensitive transformer consisting of three small bones (malleus, incus, and stapes) surrounding a small opening in the skull (the oval window)”. And he adds by describing the functions of the different parts of the ear (2011, p. 13) “The major function of the middle ear is to ensure efficient transfer of sounds, which are still in the form of air particles, to the fluids inside the cochlea (the inner ear), where they will be converted to electrical pulses and passed along the auditory nerve to the auditory cortex in the brain for further processing.

According to Lopez-Poveda, E. et al. “human auditory perception depends on the frequency- and level-dependent gain and tuning characteristics of the human cochlea”. They hold that it “is not yet possible to directly measure these characteristics in living subjects for obvious reasons” (2013, p. 72).

It is also important to know what is perceptible and what is not. According to Rost (2011), the normal threshold for human hearing is about 20 micropascals – which is equivalent to the sound of a mosquito flying about 3m away from the ear. Sound can be represented in a frequency continuum, ranging from infrasound to ultrasound, both of which are imperceptible for the human ear. Infrasound is defined by the American National Standards Institute as sound at frequencies less than 20 Hz, which is said to be the "normal" limit of human hearing, whereas ultrasound is composed of sound waves with frequencies higher than the upper audible limit of human hearing, which are higher than 20 kHz. All listening events that are studied and analyzed in this study occur within the acoustic

frequency range of 20Hz and 20kHz, or in other words, they are perceptible to human hearing.

The converted electrical pulses are transmitted from the outer ear through the inner ear to the primary auditory cortex of the brain. Rost holds that “as with other sensory phenomena, auditory sensations are considered to reach perception only if they are received and processed by a cortical area in the brain” (2011, p. 11), which is the primary auditory cortex.

Bottom up processes and decoding take place in this stage when the listener “recognizes phonemes, pauses and acoustic emphases” (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012). In consequence, the listener decodes by “(1) attending to the text, to the exclusion of other sounds in the environment; (2) noting similarities, pauses, and acoustic emphases relevant to a particular language; and then (3) grouping these according to the categories of the identified language” (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012). In this stage is when word segmentation starts.

Parsing

According to Vandergrift and Goh (2012, p.22), in this phase, listeners analyze the structure of the phonetic representation of what they hold in their working memory, and activate potentially similar words. They maintain that parsing in listening involves the segmentation of an utterance according to syntactic structures or semantic cues to create a mental representation (2012, p. 41). The information is used to retrieve vocabulary from long-term memory, based on meaning of these words held in working memory, while obtaining new input.

Ding and Simon (2013) divide “speech recognition into two consecutive processes. One is the parsing of the continuous and possibly noisy acoustic input into basic processing unit, e.g., syllables. The other is the decoding of linguistic information from each unit” (p. 373). Van Patten and Jegerski state that “parsing is about the syntactic computations performed during comprehension of grammatical sentences” (2013, p. 3). In addition, they highlight that parsing involves computations of language during real-time comprehension (2013, p. 4).

Van Patten and Jegerski hold that “theoretically, there are two perspectives on processing and parsing. The first is processing as part of the acquisition of formal features (and anything else, for that matter) and the second is processing that assumes or presupposes particular underlying grammatical knowledge during comprehension” (2013, p. 5). For the purpose of this study, I adopt the latter perspective, under which parsing presupposes some particular grammatical knowledge that helps to make meaning of the auditory input.

Interestingly, and worth mentioning for this study, is the affirmation that Nai Ding and Jonathan Z. Simon make: “In the presence of an intermediate amount of noise, the parsing process becomes a bottleneck for speech recognition, and therefore listeners who are better at extracting basic speech units rate speech intelligibility as higher” (2013, p. 381). This is relevant to this study because it shows a correlation between extracting speech units (decoding) and a high rate in speech intelligibility (comprehension).

Utilization

By using pragmatic and prior knowledge, listeners relate the resulting meaningful units from parsing to information sources in long-term memory in order to interpret the intended or implied meanings (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012). This phase is comprised of top-down processing of the parsed speech, schemata in the long-term memory, and relevant information in the listening context. In words of Vandergrift and Goh, this permits listeners to “elaborate on the newly parsed information and monitor this interpretation for congruency with their previous knowledge and the evolving representation of the text in memory, as often as necessary within the time available” (2012, p.22).

In addition, Vandergrift and Goh affirm that “during this phase of processing, the derived meaning from the parsed speech is monitored against the context of the message, what the listener knows about the speaker, the tone used to convey the message, and any other relevant information available to the listener, in order to interpret the intended meaning of the speaker or text” (2012, p. 42).

The latter three processes are by no means linear. On the contrary, they feed from each other as the listener employs them all throughout the exposure to the listening text, and new needs to build meaning and relate it to prior knowledge arise.

The figure below represents graphically the interaction between Perception, Parsing and Utilization as part of the processing components involved in speech production and comprehension.

Processing Components Involved in Speech Production and Comprehension

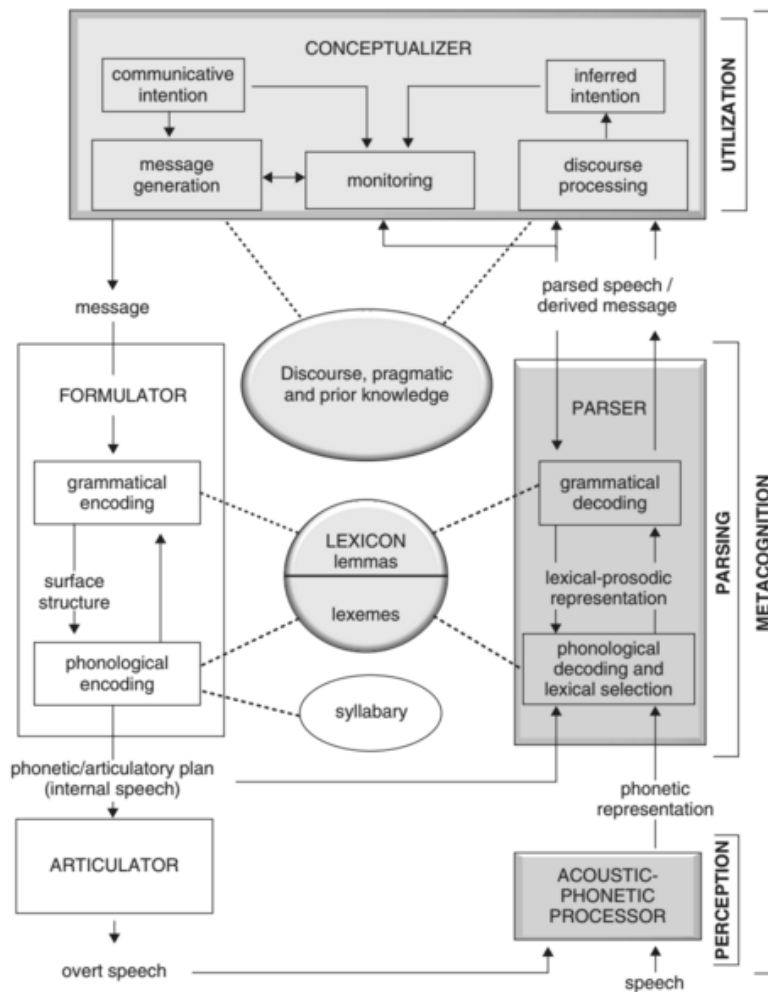


Figure 1. Schematic Representation of the Processing Components Involved in Speech Production and Comprehension (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012; based on Levelt, 1993).

Individual differences in Neurological Processing

Each of these individual component skills requires the involvement of large areas of the brain and a complex interplay of neural health, attentional readiness, local neural processing, coordination of functional neural circuits, and high-level strategic organisation.

In spite of these common capacities for language processing, not all humans process language in the same way. As in other areas of neural processing, individuals display a great range of differences across these functions.

- Local processing: Rost (2011) maintains that individuals show marked differences in speed of neural transmission, activation of neural transmitters, involvement of the thalamus, and hippocampus, memory and attention, and patterns of neural connectivity
- Commitment and plasticity: as basic linguistic features are mastered, they are confined to smaller areas in the brain. This is what leads to automaticity in language listening and speaking. However, it comes at the expense of the plasticity required for language reorganization, and it may be one of the reasons adult learners of foreign languages encounter so many difficulties. (Rost, 2011, p. 23).
- Integrative circuits: Rost (2011) holds that “current models of the formation and consolidation of episodic memories focus on the role played by the hippocampus in forming integrated representations. In terms of language learning and use, these neural connections allow a variety of local areas of the brain to form a series of impressions of sensory and conceptual aspects of an utterance, which are then linked into a new grammatical form or syntactic construction”. This author also asserts that “another variety of local circuits are likely used in analysing and breaking apart local memories through a

process called resonance. Resonant circuits copy successfully detected linguistic forms to temporary local buffers so that the system can focus on incoming, unprocessed material while still retaining the recognised material in local memory. As with all neural mechanisms, differences in the efficiency of these individual circuits can be assumed” (p. 23).

- Functional neural circuits. “The types of local integration supported by the episodic memory system are complemented by a variety of other functional neural circuits that integrate across wider areas of the brain. A prime example of such a circuit is the phonological rehearsal loop, which links the auditory processing in the temporal lobe with motor processing from the prefrontal cortex. We use this loop to store and repeat a series of words or to speed the learning of new words. Differences in the abilities of listeners to store items in this loop have been shown to correlate strongly with relative success in both L1 and L2 learning” (Rost, 2011, p. 23).

- Strategic control. Rost (2011) asserts that “brain functioning can be readily modified, amplified, integrated and controlled by higher-level strategic processes. These higher-level processes include mood control, attentional control, motivational control as well as learning strategies and applications of cognitive maps and scripts. The degree to which the listener can activate and apply these higher-level processes will determine relative success and failure in language comprehension in specific instances and in long-term acquisition” (p. 24). In addition, such strategic control feature makes the neurological case for the application of a metacognitive pedagogical cycle to develop listening skills.

- Level of attention. “Some listeners pay more attention to overall conceptual structure, attempting to process incoming language more through top-down inferential, whereas other

learners focus more on bottom-up detail. This individual difference is also likely to be important in determining the relative success of listeners in language comprehension to specific texts and in longer-term acquisition of the language”. (Rost, 2011, p. 24).

Regarding working memory and neurological processes, Cowan (2009, p. 12) maintains that “the control of attention is relevant, but there is an independent contribution from the number of items that can be held in attention, or its scope”. Therefore, individual differences in neurological process could help explain the limitations of working memory.

Linguistic Processing

This section presents the linguistic decoding processes that are the basis of listening.

Perceiving Speech

As part of the principle of least effort first presented by Zipf (1949), speech brevity leads to phonological reduction, which poses a challenge to speech perception as “the listener has to adopt an efficient principle for understanding speech. This means processing language as efficiently as possible in order to keep up with the speaker”. (Rost, 2011, p. 26). This leads to maximisation of recognition, which should occur as the speaker is reducing effort in production, and the listener tries to make maximum use of the available acoustic information in order to reconstruct the meaning of the utterance. And it also leads to minimisation of categorisation. As there are large variations between speakers, the listener must tolerate ambiguity and create as few perceptual classes as possible into which the acoustic input can be grouped” (Rost, 2011, p. 26).

Identifying Units of Spoken Language.

We tend to remember information, not aleatory linguistic units, such as words or syllables. Therefore, Rost (2011) maintains that in order to manage speech in real time, it is essential for the listener to group the speech into a small number of constituents that can be worked easily within short-term memory.

Using Prosodic features in Processing Speech.

This is when intonation, rising and lowering your tone of voice come into play in terms of processing speech. Rost (2011) holds that speech is produced not in a continuous stream but in short bursts, which is a biological necessity: “it allows the speaker periodically to replace air in the lungs efficiently. These units of speech have been identified as intonation units. This term, intonation units, indicates that an intonational contour is constructed by the speaker to indicate a focal centre of attention” (p. 30).

Recognizing words.

Even though we remember information, we need to recognize words to perceive the message. In fact, Rost (2011) considers that recognizing words in fluent speech is the basis of spoken language comprehension, and the development of automaticity of word recognition is considered to be a critical aspect of both L1 and L2 acquisition. Although all aspects of speech recognition are important contributors to comprehension, under conditions of noise or other perceptual stress, or when sounds are ambiguous or degraded

and marginally intelligible (or especially for L2 listeners, when syntax is indecipherable), listeners will tend to focus on and rely on lexical information alone (p. 34).

Employing phonotactic knowledge.

Phonotactic knowledge refers to the knowledge of sounds and the ability to differentiate them, which of course is a vital knowledge to listening comprehension. Rost holds that:

effective speech recognition involves an automated knowledge of the phonotactic system of a language – that is, knowledge of its allowable sounds and sound patterns – and an acquired sensitivity to the allophonic variations of the prototypes in the system. Some speech processing researchers contend that phonetic feature detectors in the auditory cortex, which enable the listener to encode speech into linguistic units, atrophy during development if they are not used (Rost, 2011, p. 39).

This means that for adult L2 learners, L2 speech can be difficult to segment into words and phonemes, different phonemes in the second language can sound as if they are the same, and the motor articulations of the second language can be difficult to reproduce.

One of the interesting aspects of auditory decoding is allophonic variation, the alternate pronunciations of a citation form (pure form, uttered in isolation) of word or phrase that occur due to context. Allophonic variations (e.g. gonna versus going to) are allowed in every language because of efficiency principles in production. For reasons of efficiency, speakers of a language tend to use only the minimum energy (loudness and articulatory movement) required to create an acceptable phonological string, one that is likely to be recognised by the intended listener. As a result, nearly all sound phrases in a natural spoken language sample are underspecified – that is, they are always less clearly articulated than pure citation forms would be. The variations are brought about through co-

articulation processes of assimilation, vowel reduction and elision. These changes – essentially simplifications – shorten both production and reception time. In essence, they allow the speaker to be more efficient in production, and the listener to be more efficient in perception and processing. However, this principle tends to hold true only for native listeners of a language; non-native listeners often find the simplifications to make the spoken language more difficult to process, particularly if they have learned the written forms of the language and the citation forms of the pronunciation of words in the language before they have begun to engage in natural spoken discourse” (Rost, 2011, p. 39), which is the case in this study.

Syntactic Parsing

This refers to a grammatical representation in the brain of the auditory input. Here I will provide Rost’s definition and its utilization, in addition to its benefits.

Rost (2011) asserts that “while processing speech starts with successful chunking of sound into phonological groups, followed by word recognition, a more automated and more precise processing of the auditory input is possible if the listener can map incoming speech onto a grammatical model of the language” (p. 44). As with phonological parsing, these two passes take place simultaneously, but operate across differing time spans and with different, though consistent, priorities. As is inferred from neuroimaging studies, the first pass involves a broader time frame – typically six to eight seconds (the span of two to three pause units) – while the second pass involves a more constrained time frame – typically just the two or three seconds of a single pause unit” (p. 40).

Utilizing syntactic parsing

Rost (2011) maintains that syntactic parsing “occurs at two levels: that of the immediate utterance, or sentence level, and that of the extended text, or discourse level. There is some evidence that syntactic processing takes place in two passes. The first pass identifies syntactic categories of units in the speech stream, and the second pass integrates syntax of the immediate utterance with syntax of the larger speech unit that is being processed”. (p. 45).

Additionally, Rost (2011) expands on the benefits of syntactic parsing. He asserts that in the first pass, syntactic processing, or parsing, accomplishes three basic goals: “(1) It speeds up aural processing by using constraints to quickly assign parts of incoming utterances to inviolable syntactic categories; (2) it allows for predicting functions of incoming parts of an utterance and for disambiguating partially heard parts of an utterance; (3) and it helps the processor create a propositional model of the incoming speech from which logical inferences can be calculated for further comprehension”.

Semantic Processing

This is the aspect of listening that integrates memory and prior experience into understanding events. According to Rost (2011), it “encompasses the listening processes involved in comprehension, inferencing, learning, and memory formation” (p. 53), processes which naturally pertain this study.

The Role of Comprehension, or knowledge structures, in Semantic Processing

As part of the objective of paying attention to auditory input is comprehension, for such event to occur we need to go beyond linguistic processing. Rost (2011) uses the term “comprehenders” (p. 54). He defines the role of comprehension in semantic processing from the subject. He asserts

comprehenders (listeners or readers or observers) build a comprehension structure by first developing a map in which the concepts will fit. As they listen (or read or observe) comprehenders then place concepts representing new information into this figurative map. They can do this only if and when the new information relates to previous information already in the structure. However, when the incoming information is judged to be unrelated, comprehenders shift attention and attach a new substructure. The building blocks of mental structures are memory nodes, which are activated by incoming stimuli and controlled by two cognitive mechanisms: suppression and enhancement (p. 54).

In terms of language processing, adds Rost (2011), comprehension is the experience of understanding what the language heard refers to in one’s experience or in the outside world, and sensing how any incoming burst of language enhances or suppresses one’s current understanding. Complete comprehension then refers to the listener having a clear concept in memory for every reference used by the speaker, not necessarily the same referents in the speaker’s memory (p. 54).

Because comprehension involves the mapping and updating of references that the speaker uses, the process of comprehending occurs in an ongoing cycle, as the listener is attending to speech. A useful starting point for discussing how comprehension – the mapping and updating procedure – takes place is the notion of given information and new information. Each intonation unit uttered by a speaker unit can be seen as including both new or focal information and given or background information”. Rost finally describes the process in comprehension at this stage as “ the integration of the information conveyed by the text with information and concepts already known by the listener. Comprehension occurs as a modification (additions, deletions, amendments) of the internal model of the discourse by the listener, in which the explicit information in the text plays only one part”. (p. 55).

Sociocultural View of Listening: Social Understanding or the Role of Common Ground.

Despite listening being a biological and neurological phenomenon, relying on cognition to make sense of the auditory input, there is also an important part that is played by society and culture. Rost (2011) states that “understanding spoken discourse goes beyond creating a cognitive map of the speaker’s intended meaning. Social frameworks and affective elements are also involved, even with seemingly objective texts and innocuous interactions. What a listener understands depends to a large degree upon having common ground with the speaker: shared concepts and routines, ways of acting in and reacting to the world” (p. 60). This fact supports the use of the Sociocultural Theory of Learning (Lantolf, 2000) in this study, in order to take advantage of the similar socio economic and cultural backgrounds of students in this class.

The Role of Inferencing in constructing meaning.

Understanding a message from the cognitive, the social, and the cultural points of view is limited to the literal and “face value” meaning. Nevertheless, a message is rarely entirely understood at such level. Rost (2011) presents the role of inferencing in constructive meaning.

He asserts that

since we do not have direct access to a speaker’s intended meaning in producing an utterance or series of utterances (and since the speaker often is not fully aware of all of his or her intended meanings in any event), the listener has to rely repeatedly on the process of inference to arrive at an acceptable interpretation of each utterance and the connection between a series of utterances. One part of the process of inference by the listener is achieved through conventional inferencing involving linkages within the language used and another part is achieved through problem-solving-oriented heuristic procedures involving both logic and real-world knowledge. When a speaker makes an utterance, she is typically adding successive bits of information about a topic or set of topics that are already ‘in play’. The references for information within any one utterance and the connections between the bits of information across utterances will be signaled by the speaker through conventional use of cohesion devices, such as anaphora, lexical substitution, conjunction and ellipsis. All of these are in the domain of text linguistics, and a competent user of the language will acquire the ability to process them quickly via a

cognitive process known as priming, which helps the listener anticipate and recall expected discourse structures (2011, p. 61).

This fact makes the case for implementing Vandergrift's metacognitive pedagogical listening cycle, which takes inferences into consideration and supports its development. Vandergrift & Goh (2012) maintain that listeners can use inferencing "to compensate for what they did not know at the time of listening, to overcome a weaker linguistic base, and to compensate for gaps in understanding" (p. 60). In addition, the same authors state that context is important for inferencing. Such context offers a conceptual framework for inferencing. Therefore, the metacognitive pedagogical sequence proposed by Vandergrift and Goh (2012) highlights the importance of inferencing in comprehension, as it "involves the orchestration of metacognitive processes and other pertinent comprehension strategies, most notably inferencing and elaboration" (p. 108).

Language

I carried out this study under the view that language is a functional symbol system that expresses knowledge acquired through interaction with the physical world. Such interaction emerges and expands socially, and in self-reflection and internal speech processes. I believe in Vygotsky's social interactive conception of language, which holds that "the secret of effective learning lies in the nature of the social interaction between two or more people with different levels of skill and knowledge" (Williams & Burden, 1997). However, in order for such interaction to exist, it is necessary to have a means with which to interact. That means language is understood as Piaget's symbol system conception (as cited in Lightbown & Spada, 2006). According to Halliday, such symbols have "meaning-making potential" (1978, p. 39), which permits negotiation of meanings according to contextual

functions. In sum, language permits people to interact socially by exchanging and negotiating meanings of contextualized symbols.

In terms of listening, the sociocultural and sociolinguistic knowledge can be observed in pragmatic knowledge (e.g., formal or informal registers, idioms, and slang), which listeners use to further interpret an utterance (Buck, 2001).

Learning

As discussed above, this study is framed within both the Cognitive and the Sociocultural learning theories. Therefore, learning is framed within both.

Regarding cognition, I will adopt the cognitive theory of second language acquisition (SLA). This is because I have presented listening as a skill to be developed, and the cognitive theory of SLA as a developmental process. Such theory gives cohesion to this work. Consequently with my previous assertion, Myles (2013, p. 59) maintains that

cognitive approaches see the acquisition of a second language as the acquisition of a complex skill, and (under such view) researchers believe that we can better understand the second language acquisition process by investigating how the human brain processes and learns new information, as well as how a learner's individual makeup impacts on this process". She adds: "cognitivists' hypotheses originate from cognitive psychology and neurology, and from what we know about the acquisition of complex skills generally. They view second language acquisition as one instantiation of learning, relying on the same mechanisms as other types of learning (Myles, F. 2013, p. 60).

Myles also asserts: “the emergentist/constructionist approach to the cognitive view of learning holds that the learner operates a complex processing system which deals with linguistic information in similar ways to other kinds of information”, and “share a usage-based view of language development, which is driven by communicative needs, and they reject the need to posit an innate, language-specific, acquisition device” (2013, p. 61). Such communicative needs emerge from the sociocultural context, which leads me to the subsequent theory.

Sociocultural learning theory holds that humans need mediations to learn. In words of Lantolf (2000), the human mind is mediated. Such mediation occurs throughout interactions and agreement upon symbols and signs that represent reality and serve as means to comprehend, influence and even change it. These symbols and signs are responses to communicative and ideational necessities, proper of a specific point in time and a culture or a people. Over time, such symbols and signs are transmitted through generations that can preserve and adapt them to their current realities, leading to mostly common representations of reality, which are generally agreed upon within such temporal and societal context.

Vygotsky named such symbols and signs artifacts (Lantolf, 2000). In his view, psychology should aim to “understand how human social and mental activity is organized through culturally constructed artifacts”. Under Vygotsky’s view, the human mind is conceived of as a functional system comprised of biological and biochemical properties that are organized into a “culturally shaped mind” (Lantolf, 2000), which occurs when the aforementioned artifacts are integrated into thinking. In words of Ohta (2013, p. 649) “Sociocultural theory (SCT) is an integrative approach to human development and

cognition built upon the work of Vygotsky, his students and colleagues, and contemporary scholars”.

Some of the higher mental capacities of the culturally shaped mind are logical thought and problem solving, learning, and evaluation of the effectiveness of these processes, which accounts for the employment of metacognitive thinking. Language learning, in a Vygotskian (sociocultural) perspective, is mediated by “all the semiotic resources that are available in the learning environment, including of course in the classroom” (van Lier, 2004 p. 97).

Mediation is a central concept in sociocultural theory. Leo van Lier (2004) maintains that “language is a meaning-making activity that takes place in a complex network of complex systems that are interwoven amongst themselves as well as with all aspects of physical, social and symbolic worlds. It is not immune to social, political and economic influences, and it harbors misconceptions with the same ease as wisdoms”. These interwoven influential factors determine to a great extent, and sometimes limit and even hamper, understanding. Ohta (2013, p. 650) contends that “mediation is the most important notion in sociocultural theory, referring to the process through which human activity, including mental activity, incorporates a range of tools, and how these tools function to transform activity and mind. In turn, Lantolf and Thorne (2006, p. 79) define mediation as thinking that incorporates culturally constructed artifacts, concepts and activities, including language. Ohta (2013, p. 651) complements: “the origin of human mental processes is the mediation of mind via historically and culturally embedded social interactive processes”.

Additionally, van Lier (2004) asserts that the sociocultural theory “rejects the view that language (or any other phenomenon, worldly or mental) is ready-made for

consumption. Rather, we construe and construct it as we go along. A word or an expression never means the same thing twice, in any conversation or across conversations” (p. 90).

Furthermore, van Lier (2004, p. 116) identifies the core elements of Vygotsky’s sociocultural perspective on learning: “perceptual and social-interactive (interpersonal) processes precede and grow into conceptual, intrapersonal processes. The role of speech as a tool and as a specific type of activity, alongside or accompanying other activities such as grasping, gesturing, moving, playing and so on, is a specific focus of Vygotsky’s work in this respect”.

In spite of a clear position in favor of mediated and sociocultural learning, van Lier does not neglect the role of cognition. Van Lier asserts that “the work of Vygotsky and Bakhtin, dating from the early decades of the twentieth Century, illustrates an ecological approach to cognition, learning, and language” (2000, p. 245), and that under an ecological perspective “not all of cognition and learning can be explained in terms of processes that go on inside the head” (2000, p. 246). Consequently, he quotes Neisser (1992) when he explains such affirmations mean that “cognition and learning rely on both representational (schematic, historical, cultural, and so on) and ecological (perceptual, emergent, action-based) processes and systems” (p. 247). The metacognitive approach to learning in this study integrates learning as an individual cognitive enterprise and learning as a social enterprise. It accounts for both cognitive and social processes in language learning and it reflects both cognitive and socio-cultural theories of learning. Furthermore, van Lier’s ecological perspective on learning serves as a frame for connecting cognitive and sociocultural layers, and thus to support my espoused view of learning.

Team-Based Learning (TBL)

Within the umbrella term of cooperative learning we find Team-Based Learning. Team-Based Learning was designed in the late seventies by Larry Michaelsen, and ever since, he has been teaching large business courses, and training faculty all over the world on how to implement it. Some months before the design of this study, I had been participating as a faculty member at a CAD, for its initials in Spanish (Comunidad de Aprendizaje Docente), a Professional Development Community (PDC) open for all faculty at Universidad del Norte, offered by the CEDU, which is the Center for Teaching Excellence at the university.

In this PDC, I had the opportunity to design activities for my English classes, and I had already decided to focus on the development of listening skills as a particular interest that had triggered my curiosity because of the assertions made by Field (2009) regarding the difficulty in teaching it, and from my personal experience in an English teaching career of seven years. Thus, in 2014, I carried out a study and co-authored a book chapter on the implementation of TBL in a beginner EFL listening class. This experience helped me to learn the intricacies and difficulties of implementing a methodology, which relies heavily upon cooperative learning and student autonomy.

At the end of this experience, I decided to keep implementing it in other classes in the future because students said to have enjoyed it and some stated to have benefited from it because it permitted them to interact, which contributed to their learning, and to make joint decisions as a team whenever they needed to answer a question. Now, I will elaborate on the Metacognitive Listening Supplement, on Vandergrift's Metacognitive Pedagogical Sequence for Listening and on Team-Based Learning.

This methodology will support the pedagogical intervention reported. As consistently reported in the literature, group work is beneficial to learning if groups are

organized in a structured manner and instead of groups they are learning teams, so the outcomes are much more evident (Michaelsen et al, 2007). As stated by the author, these outcomes may include “1) developing students’ higher level cognitive skills in large classes, 2) providing social support for "at-risk" students, 3) promoting the development of interpersonal and team skills, and 4) building and maintaining faculty members’ enthusiasm for their teaching role (p.19). All of these are related to my own research needs.

To achieve these objectives, changes need to be made in the course goals to expand it from mere content to using these contents to solve real-life problems; teachers and students are to take a different role in both teaching and learning (p.1). The pre-class changes “involves three key tasks: 1) partitioning the course content into macro-units, 2) identifying the instructional goals and objectives, and 3) designing a grading system” (Michaelsen et al, 2007 p. 8).

All the changes are supported in essential design principles proposed by Michaelsen et al, (2007) which are: 1) groups must be properly formed and managed, 2) students must be made accountable for their individual and group work, 3) group assignments must promote both learning and team development, and 4) students must have frequent and timely feedback. When these principles are in place, groups of students evolve into cohesive learning teams.

As summarized by Pelley (2010):

The TBL process is aimed at teaching students to apply knowledge. To accomplish this they are first tested with Readiness Assurance Tests (RATs) to assure that they understand the concepts they are applying. This is followed by vignette test questions (application exercises) that require the utilization of these concepts in

team problem solving. Thus, testing in teams using the TBL method combines the motivation of formative evaluation provided by the dialogue during the group activities with the learning of analytical thinking skills as students defend their rationales for ruling out incorrect answer choices. Thus, students are more likely to be better prepared for the summative evaluation milestones that mark their progress through a course of study” (2010, p.1).

This relates directly to my decisions in terms of learning: supporting both individual and group learning.

Literature Review

In this section, I present the methodology and conclusions of studies on metacognition and/or listening. I will first discuss metacognition studies both in Colombia and internationally; next I will do so with listening studies and Team-Based Learning studies. Finally, I will report those studies which combined metacognition and listening instruction.

Metacognition Studies

In Colombia, metacognition has been reported to have been implemented for developing writing and reading skills in EFL. In 2009, Martha Judith Camelo González carried out a research study which shows how writing as a school practice can be improved through metacognition. The author claims that the quality of writing increased significantly due to a reflective process about the importance of gradually improving drafts by taking into account guidance from the teacher and contributions of the students. Additionally, according to the author, through this exercise, students identified the narrative, expository,

argumentative texts and their characteristics through knowledge gained by reading, analyzing and writing texts within those categories. This study supports the use of a metacognitive approach in foreign language instruction, since it served to enhance students' writing skills across genres.

Internationally, metacognition has been studied for reading purposes in Turkey, Iran and for listening in Japan. In Turkey, Salim Razi and Feryal Çubukçu in 2014 investigated the impact of a metacognitive reading strategy-training program (METARESTRAP) on metacognitive reading strategies and reading comprehension. The authors affirm to have used a pre and a post-reading test, as well as a metacognitive reading strategy questionnaire. After the pre and post-reading tests and the metacognitive reading strategy questionnaire were administered, they implemented a six-week METARESTRAP. The authors hold that results demonstrated that METARESTRAP significantly fostered reading comprehension skills by providing awareness of metacognition along with declarative, procedural, and conditional knowledge about metacognitive reading strategies. The authors conclude that METARESTRAP worked well specifically for matching- type cohesion, coherence, text structure, and global meaning questions along with multiple- choice-type main idea, opinion, detail, and reference questions. This study, albeit focused on reading skills, resembles very much the action research study reported here. Specifically, the design of a pre and a post test, and the implementation of a metacognitive questionnaire, accompanying metacognition instruction.

Listening Studies

In Colombia, Liliana Ballesteros Muñoz and Silvana Tutistar Jojoa (2013) reported a study that explored the relationship between SMART goal setting (Specific, Measurable,

Attainable, Relevant, and Time-based) and learning English in Colombia concerning a foreign language learners' self-efficacy beliefs in listening. The participants of this study were seventh and ninth grade students of two schools in Bogotá, Colombia. The results revealed that self-efficacy was highly positive when related to goal setting as students were able to set SMART goals to improve their listening comprehension and learners showed improvement in self-efficacy beliefs and felt more motivated while completing listening tasks related to songs. This study shows how a proactive attitude towards the listening material, in terms of setting goals, listening with a purpose, and raising self-efficacy among students, can have a positive effect on the students' listening process. I think it is possible to achieve such positive effects with the metacognitive pedagogical cycle proposed by Vandergrift & Goh (2012).

Furthermore, Angela Bailey (forthcoming) reports an analysis of multiple resources available within a Business English program. Her results indicate that pragmatic skills are more apt to be addressed than linguistic and sociolinguistic skills during listening comprehension activities and considers listening comprehension to be an interactive process and labels it as essential in the language learning processes of ESOL classrooms. The author analyzed how listening comprehension is exemplified within the classroom by examining test results, course outcomes, written course materials, and instructor questionnaire responses. Implications for listening comprehension instruction and professional development include a need for: 1. Greater professional development around the instruction of listening comprehension skills for language learners at all levels of learning. 2. Greater understanding of the competences and the importance of higher level skill needs. 3. Greater understanding of the importance of setting and planning meaningful

activities which vary in difficulty and skill. The author suggests that further research includes implementation of more interactive approaches to listening comprehension, the collection of student data, and the creation of authentic materials for Business English.

Even though the group I studied does not belong to a Business English program, the design of this study, which I will present in the next chapter - Chapter 3 - Methodology -, takes into consideration the three implications presented by the author of this study:

1. Greater professional development around the instruction of listening comprehension skills for language learners at all levels of learning. The implementation of Vandergrift's Metacognitive Pedagogical Sequence and Team-Based Learning required professional development from me, in order to intervene a listening class in an innovative way.

2. Greater understanding of the competences and the importance of higher level skill needs. This theoretical framework offers an in-depth understanding of the listening competences, the foundations that support listening success, and the underlying conditions for successful listening, as well as the factors affecting listening comprehension.

- And 3. Greater understanding of the importance of setting and planning meaningful activities, which vary in difficulty and skill. Such variety in difficulty and inclusion of meaningful listening activities is tackled in the intervention that this study reports. Finally, this study builds upon the author's suggestion of further research by implementing a more interactive approach to listening through Team-Based Learning and Vandergrift's Metacognitive Pedagogical Sequence, and including collection of student data.

These studies showed that goal setting training could be incorporated successfully into the English as a foreign language classroom in Colombia, and what implications listening

instruction has, and to my understanding they could be addressed via Team-Based Learning and Metacognition.

Regarding the international context, Xian Zhang (2013) reports a quantitative analysis study made with 300 first year English majors at a university in China. Among them, 261 were female and 39 were male. The purpose of this study was to explore listening anxiety among learners of English as a foreign language and its effects on listening comprehension and listening task performance. The study was carried out in order to establish the existence of a causal relation between anxiety and performance. The study concludes that anxiety, along with insecurity about one's own listening foreign language listening ability does cause performance to deteriorate.

This study highlights the need to equip students with cognitive tools that permit them to control anxiety. Metacognitive strategies can be useful for students to cope with anxiety in that they help students make sense of their thinking and how information is processed, according to Vandergrift and Goh (2012, p. 83).

Finally, in Taiwan, John-Michael L. Nix reports a 2015 study which identifies the structure of latent trait listening strategy use by developing and validating an inventory of EFL listening strategic knowledge among 315 (175 female, 140 male) undergraduates of mixed major of study from a public university in eastern Taiwan. The author reports results of factor analysis and multi-dimensional item response theory (MIRT) analysis, utilizing responses from 315 subjects identified and confirmed a two-dimensional structure composed of top-down and bottom-up processing strategy types. The author maintains that these constructs are shown to have robust correlations with listening comprehension and also exhibit robust inter-correlation, providing empirical support for the formal model of

interactive processing. The author reports that bottom-up strategies do not exert direct effects on listening comprehension, but must be mediated by top-down strategies. The author discusses results in light of extant strategy effect studies and calls for future research to test the generalizability of the inventory across cultural contexts, and to gauge its feasibility in pedagogical applications is suggested.

Results show L2 listeners engage with aural input by employing bottom-up and top-down strategies in an interactive manner, which, the author states, was shown to explain significant and substantial variance in listening ability, 12 percent and 31 percent, respectively, which contrasts with Vandergrift et al.'s (2006) results of $r = 0.36$ or 13 percent shared variance between the hypothesized model and listening outcomes. The author affirms that Vandergrift et al. (2006) did not consider the possibility of multidimensionality in listening strategic knowledge when incorporating the construct into the MALQ, and such misspecification may explain the low correlation with listening ability. This paper describes the development, validation, and pedagogical application of an inventory of trait listening strategic use by L2 learners. Since observations by Buck (2001) and Vandergrift (1997) that a common underlying dichotomy exists in taxonomies of listening skills and strategies, the author designed a questionnaire called the EFL Listening Strategy Inventory (ELLSI) to estimate the strength of the latent trait, listening strategy use, among the population of Taiwanese EFL learners. To conclude, the author suggests that subsequent research investigate the feasibility of integrating ELLSI into listening strategy training regimens. Even though my study does not implement ELLSI, it does implement a questionnaire, the MALQ, to research listening skills development, in spite of the statistical finding that the author of this study reports.

Team-Based Learning

A search on the principal databases on the terms Team Based Learning and Colombia did not yield any results in the year 2015. However, that year Rosado and Gallego wrote a book chapter to be published in late 2016 reporting a small-scale research comprising a group of 30 elementary English level learners. The research was conducted during their listening instruction; some surveys were applied, group interaction was recorded, and students listening exam scores were analyzed. Our findings suggest a positive relationship between the use of TBL and results in the listening component of their course assessment.

Internationally, Arifuddin Hamra and Eny Syatriana reported a 2012 study at University of Makassar, Indonesia, designing a model of teaching reading for university EFL students based on the English curriculum at the Faculty of Languages and Literature and the concept of the team-based learning in order to improve the reading comprehension of the students. They asked what kind of teaching model can help students to improve their reading comprehension. They affirm that the steps of this developmental survey consist of needs analysis, design, and model development.

The authors maintain that this paper conducted needs and conceptual analysis among the reading lecturers to generate a model of teaching. In the model development and implementation, instructional materials were said to be designed to try out the teaching model with treatment (X) and observation (O) to see the effectiveness of the model. The instructional materials consider the required and selected reading materials, team-based learning, and weekly reading tasks.

The instructional materials are said to have been reviewed and validated by the reading lecturers. The instructional design consisting of a pre-reading activity outside of the

classroom before coming to the class, practice in group of five to seven students in each group in the classroom, and class discussions was based on a learning objective, pedagogical aspects, the language competence, self-selected reading materials, and required reading materials. The authors hold that the result of the reading test indicated that the teaching model improves the reading comprehension of the students. This is a highly relevant study which paves the way for the implementation of Team-Based learning in an EFL class. However, the study did not address listening, but reading. The results reported by the authors of the study bring hope to the probability of having positive findings in this study.

Metacognition and Listening Studies

The previously reported studies paved the way in this literature review to report studies based on metacognition and listening. Firstly, Jeremy Cross (2010) reports having done a small-scale study based on the Sociocultural learning theory which explored learners' metacognitive awareness of second language (L2) listening. Over five lessons, six pairs of advanced-level, adult, Japanese, EFL learners participated in a sequence of tasks involving the explicit verbalisation of strategies as part of a pedagogical cycle designed to stimulate their metacognitive awareness of the processes underlying L2 listening. Peer-peer dialogue was the central mechanism mediating the construction and co-construction of metacognitive awareness, which also served as the primary unit of analysis. The author claims that the qualitative and quantitative analyses of the pairs' dialogue and corresponding diary entries illustrated that through, and in, dialogue as part of a structured pedagogical cycle, learners were afforded, and exploited, opportunities to enhance their metacognitive awareness of L2 listening.

In 2014, Leyla Harputlu and Eda Ceylan carried out a study on the effects of motivation and metacognitive strategy use on EFL listening proficiency. They maintained that motivation and metacognitive strategy use are two of the factors affecting listening ability in second language acquisition and they are variables which students bring with themselves and can develop with their teachers. They posed three research questions: (1) the relationship between listening proficiency and metacognitive strategy use; (2) the relationship between listening proficiency and the motivation orientations; (3) the relationship between metacognitive strategy use and the motivation orientations.

Motivation is a significant factor that determines the effort a learner puts into language learning. Metacognitive strategy use as the other variable of the Harputlu and Ceylan study is defined as thinking about thinking or thinking about your own studies. The strategy use is also an important factor for language learning. Therefore, the purpose of the study is to investigate the relationship among listening proficiency, motivation and metacognitive strategy use. The participants of this study are 33 students majoring in the ELT Department of the Buca Education Faculty at Dokuz Eylül University, in Turkey.

The research was designed primarily to collect quantitative data to be analyzed. The data was collected using three instruments: Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ), Language Learning Orientations Scale (LLOS) and the listening section of the TOEFL. The authors report in their conclusions that the learners who use translation may be unsuccessful in listening skill because the first language may interfere with the process of listening. Besides, the learners who have a high level of anxiety and a lack of confidence may be unsuccessful in the listening skill. The authors maintain that this study also indicates that there is a significantly positive correlation between listening

proficiency and extrinsic motivation. However, they hold, the correlation between listening proficiency and intrinsic motivation is not significant. These findings may be derived from the sample size in the study; therefore they suggest that further studies should investigate these research questions with a larger group.

In Japan, Mie Komori (2016) reports interesting findings about the interdependence of working memory capacity and the quality of metacognitive performance. A verbal working memory task was used to examine how working memory capacity limits affect monitoring. Participants performed a Japanese listening span test that included maintenance of target words and listening comprehension. On each trial, participants responded to the target word and then immediately estimated confidence in recall performance for that word (metacognitive judgment). The results confirmed significant differences in monitoring accuracy between high and low capacity groups in a multi-task situation. In other words, confidence judgments were superior in high vs. low capacity participants in terms of absolute accuracy and discrimination (decoding). The research further investigated how memory load and interference affect underestimation of successful recall.

The results indicated that the level of memory load that reduced word recall performance and led to underconfidence bias varied according to participants working memory. In addition, irrelevant information associated with incorrect true/false decisions only influences low, but not high, capacity participants. Therefore, monitoring accuracy, which requires high working memory capacity, improves metacognitive abilities by inhibiting task-irrelevant noise and focusing attention on detecting task-relevant targets or useful retrieval cues, which could improve actual cognitive performance.

In another study, Christine Goh (2008) discusses a metacognitive approach for second language listening development, its theoretical rationale and identifies principles for carrying out metacognitive instruction, as well as outlines general instructional objectives and learning activities for this purpose. Finally, she suggests possible research directions for examining the role of metacognition in second language listening and the relevance of metacognitive instruction to listening development. Among them, she mentions the need to further understand specific ways in which metacognition improves listening comprehension and long-term listening development. In addition, the author identifies that there is a need to understand how contextual, learner and cultural factors may influence learners' knowledge and willingness to adopt strategies, the metacognitive instructional process and its outcome. This paper accentuates the relevance of carrying out research to better inform a structured metacognitive pedagogy in listening instruction, as well as encourages further research to understand the impact of a metacognitive approach to listening on overall language learning.

Another study, authored by Larry Vandergrift and Susan Baker (2015), goes deeper into the matter of the impact of metacognition and the factors affecting its successful application in listening skills development. The authors report that they sought to obtain empirical evidence for the impact of some of the learner variables and the degree to which they might predict success in L2 listening. The learner variables of interest reported in the study included: first language (L1) listening ability, L1 vocabulary knowledge, L2 vocabulary knowledge, auditory discrimination ability, metacognitive awareness of listening, and working memory capacity. The authors report that data from 157 Grade Seven students in the first year of a French immersion program indicated a significant

relationship among most of the variables and L2 listening ability. A number of path analyses were then conducted, based on hypothetical relationships suggested by current theory and research, in order to uncover relationships between the variables in determining L2 listening comprehension ability. The best fit to the data supported a model in which general skills (auditory discrimination and working memory) are initially important, leading to more specific language skills (L1 and L2 vocabulary) in determining L2 listening comprehension. In positing a provisional model, this study opens up useful avenues for further research on model building in L2 listening. This study in particular gives further relevance to working memory capacity by placing it as an initially important skill, along with auditory discrimination ability. In my study, auditory discrimination ability is seen as decoding.

These studies show contexts in which listening has been approached from a metacognitive perspective through a structured pedagogical cycle, in which dialogue supports the construction and co-construction of knowledge and raises students' metacognitive awareness; the role of motivation and metacognition in listening comprehension; and approaches to research design which further explore the role of metacognition in listening comprehension and open roads to new directions for listening and metacognition research in the future.

Main Controversies.

The main controversies that surround the development of listening skills are the approaches under which it has been addressed. Currently, the Communicative Approach to English language teaching limits listening to a skill to be worked on in class as practice, because it

holds the view that it is a skill that learners acquire after adequate exposure, and meaning can be understood through contextual cues. As mentioned before, the view of listening skills as products based on the students' performance on listening comprehension tests is opposed to that of listening as a process. Richards (2006, p. 11) reports that the listening skill in a communicative syllabus would look like this:

- Recognizing key words in conversations (decoding)
- Recognizing the topic of a conversation (main ideas)
- Recognizing speakers' attitude toward a topic (inferences)
- Recognizing time reference of an utterance (details)
- Following speech at different rates of speed
- Identifying key information in a passage (details)

This view of listening relies on comprehension questions to report and, to some extent, "observe" the listening skills. In other words, the Comprehension Approach presents a direct correlation and a causation between correctness in responses to comprehension questions and the development of listening skills (Field, 2009). This approach basically leaves listening pedagogically unattended, in comparison to the development of the other communicative skills. As students report responses to listening comprehension questions, the focus of the methodology (or lack thereof) is placed on the product. Such product focus may be due to the underlying difficulty to teach listening skills, since their development and progress is invisible.

On the other hand, Field (2009) and others (Rost, 2012; Vandergrift & Goh, 2012) approach listening from a process perspective. They state that listening skills can be developed by providing learners with focused practice that emphasize decoding of

phonemes, syllables and chunks, in addition to training learners on the uses of learning strategies that foster deeper knowledge of personal learning skills, tasks development and listening and learning strategy use.

This would mean that the development of understanding main ideas and details, and the ability to decode would be better addressed and analyzed as part of a long-term process, under the Communicative Approach.

For some scholars, Margaret Thomas affirms (2013, p. 43), “a sociocultural approach necessarily excludes the validity of a cognitive approach (Long 1997; Johnson 2004); for other scholars, social and cognitive factors coexist within separate domains of L2 acquisition (Block 2003)”. As seen, the controversies are worth areas of further research. In a local contribution, this study is limited to answer the research question that follows.

Research Question

To what extent does the use of Vandergrift’s Metacognitive Pedagogical Sequence on listening instruction, delivered through Michaelsen’s Team-Based Learning methodology, affect beginner EFL learners’ metacognitive awareness, their understanding of spoken main ideas and details, and their ability to decode phonemes?

Working Definitions

Listening

As mentioned above, definitions of listening have changed over time, according to conceptual views and scientific advances. Nowadays, Nation and Newton (2009, p. 37)

hold that listening has been seen as a “passive process by which the listener received information sent by a speaker”. However, they also report that “more recent models view listening as a much more active and interpretive process, in which the message is not fixed but is created in the interactional space between participants. Meanings are shaped by context and constructed by the listener through the act of interpreting meaning rather than receiving it intact”. So the view of listening has shifted at least theoretically.

Consequently with the above, and bearing in mind the evolution of listening conceptions and the current knowledge thereof, Rost (2011) defines listening as the overlapping neurological, linguistic, semantic and pragmatic processes involved in a conscious subject’s brain after the emergence of auditory stimuli. On the other hand, and as mentioned above, Field (2009) conceives listening as a skill in which the experience of a skilled listener, native or non-native, serves as a model of the cognitive and linguistic processes involved in its development. Field’s definition relies heavily on input and context (2009, p. 125), decoding and meaning building (2009, p. 125), and on Bottom-up and Top-down processing (2009, p. 125). Therefore, and in accordance with the spirit of the current times, this is the definition I will espouse in this work, and I will complement it with that of Rost (2011) because it is precise in its inclusion of biological processes (neurological, brain), as well as sociocultural ones (auditory stimuli, linguistic, semantic and pragmatic processing). Thus, these definitions permit me to frame my study within a sociocultural view of listening and learning, and to present the physical and biological phenomena that take place within the listener, in order to give a more thorough and accurate view of this phenomenon.

Language

I will use the definition presented by Leo van Lier (2006). He holds that

language is a meaning-making activity that takes place in a complex network of complex systems that are interwoven amongst themselves as well as with all aspects of physical, social and symbolic worlds. It is not immune to social, political and economic influences, and it harbors misconceptions with the same ease as wisdoms” (p. 53).

This definition provides the mediation that is key to the sociocultural theory, and its inclusion of a meaning making activity matches perfectly the semantic processing and the pragmatic processing of listening, as a language skill. In addition, the occurrence of language in a complex network of complex systems accounts for the mediation of language.

Learning

Bearing in mind all the aforementioned processes (top-down, controlled and automatic, neurological, linguistic, semantic and pragmatic processing), it is pertinent to frame this study within the socioconstructivist view of learning.

Metacognitive strategies, as proposed by Vandergrift and Goh (2012), rely heavily upon learners conversations and discussions on what they have listened to, and the tools and strategies they have used to decode and come to conclusions and understanding thereof. In addition, Vandergrift and Goh (2012) have established three types of metacognitive knowledge, namely personal knowledge, task knowledge and strategy knowledge, in which the first one gives count of students’ perception of self-efficacy and attitude to accomplish

tasks. The second, task knowledge, refers to knowledge about the purpose, demands, and nature of learning tasks.

It includes knowing how to approach and complete a real-life listening task. In the case of listening comprehension, task knowledge also includes knowing about features of different types of spoken texts, such as the respective discourse structures, grammatical forms, and phonological features of words and phrases as they appear in connected speech (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012, p. 86).

The third, strategy knowledge, refers to “knowing which strategies can be used to accomplish a specific goal, be it achieving comprehension in a specific communicative context or improving one’s listening ability after one term of study” (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012, p. 87).

Furthermore, the intervention to instruct students in metacognitive strategies is based on Team-Based Learning, a collaborative learning methodology which places a great emphasis on learners discussion with peers to construct knowledge by reaching agreements upon previously studied materials.

Consequently, metacognitive strategies serve to help students cope with challenging input or affordances. Such challenges have been dealt with through scaffolding, which arises as necessary guidance in a sociocultural context (van Lier, 2006 p. 162). Van Lier, (2006, p. 147) defines Scaffolding as “assisted performance”. He adds the following metaphor to exemplify the function of scaffolding in education from the construction perspective: “A scaffold on a building permits work to be conducted that would not be possible without the scaffold. But the scaffold is temporary: as soon as it is no longer needed it is dismantled” (p. 147). This does not mean students would not need

metacognitive strategies, neither that they should be dismantled. On the contrary, what is expected to be dismantled is the instruction on listening, or scaffolding, once students are equipped with the metacognitive tools to develop their listening skills more autonomously.

Team-Based Learning

Group interaction lies at the heart of the development of communicative competence since the group seems to be the natural setting for communication to happen. As defined by Johnson, Johnson and Holubec (1993) “Cooperative learning is the instructional use of small groups so that students work together to maximize their own and each other’s learning” (p. 9). Two key concepts that define cooperative learning are positive interdependence, or the amount of group support, and individual accountability, or the degree to which each member of the group needs to learn and show his or her achievement (McCafferty, Jacobs, & DaSilva Iddings, 2006). In this research, cooperative learning is realized through the Team-Based Learning methodology.

The above-mentioned theories guide this action research study and limit its scope by establishing the aspects and definition that inform the research design and the concepts with which to analyze the results of this intervention in discussion and conclusions section. In the next chapter, Chapter 3 - Methodology, I will describe the methodological aspects of this study, such as activities, data collection and limitations.

CHAPTER 3 - METHODOLOGY

The previous chapter presented the theoretical framework upon which this study is based.

In this chapter, I will establish the elements of research that underpin this study, the research paradigm, and the type of research. Then, I will present the research question, the participants, the ethical considerations, and the materials employed. Subsequently, I will present the research phases of this study, which are three (3): diagnosis, intervention and post-intervention/evaluation, and the sequence of activities of each phase. Next, I will present the data sources and the limitations of this study.

Research

Although research has been defined in many different ways, researchers in different sciences and disciplines need to adhere to specific and coherent views that match their research goals, methods, theoretical frameworks and data sources (McKay, 2006). The two broader groups of research are quantitative and qualitative. Quantitative research serves exact sciences such as mathematics, physics, biology, chemistry, and others that are not subjected to (or have a very limited) human intervention, and whose reports are principally numerical. On the other hand, qualitative research serves to collect evidence and to explain human phenomena, which are possible to intervene and, to some extent, modify. McKay (2006, p. 6) states that “qualitative research typically starts with the assumption that classroom learning must be studied holistically, taking into account a variety of factors in a specific classroom”.

Research Paradigm

Richards (2003, p. 12) maintains that three additional elements are crucial to establish a more comprehensive view of research: 1) A paradigm or “a set of basic beliefs” regarding research; 2) a tradition or an “approach to research covering generally recognized territory and employing a generally accepted set of research methods, namely quantitative and qualitative traditions;” and 3) a method or “a means of gathering, analyzing and interpreting data using generally recognized procedures”.

Regarding research paradigms, Willis (2007, p. 8) holds that a paradigm is a comprehensive belief system or framework that guides research and practice in a field. He establishes that “from a philosophical perspective, a paradigm comprises a view of the nature of reality (i.e., ontology) – whether it is external or internal to the knower; a related view of the type of knowledge that can be generated and standards for justifying it (i.e., epistemology); and a disciplined approach to generating that knowledge (i.e., methodology)”.

Additionally, McKay (2006) identifies two ontological differences in research. She makes the distinction between basic and applied research. Basic research refers to research intended to inform about phenomena that cannot be altered or intervened, such as physical and natural events, while applied research, in her own words “deals with human and societal problems in the hopes of finding solutions to real-world problems” (McKay, 2006). Moreover, McKay argues that applied research has a rather narrow scope in that it “is more limited in its questions and conclusions”. In addition, she claims that “It does not attempt to define a theory of language learning that accounts for all language learners; rather it sets

forth findings that apply to a particular time, place, and context” (McKay, 2006). Because of the nature of this study, it is adhered to an applied research paradigm.

In addition, Taylor and Medina (2013) provide an overview of the characteristics of major educational research paradigms shaping contemporary educational research, ranging from the traditional positivist perspective to the latest multi-paradigmatic worldview. Among the most salient characteristics, they establish two categories of research paradigms. These are traditional paradigms and relatively new paradigms. The Traditional Paradigms include the Positivist Paradigm and the Post-positivist Paradigm, and the Relatively New Paradigms include The Interpretive Paradigm, The Critical Paradigm, The Postmodern Paradigm, and Multiparadigmatic Research.

Due to the nature of this study, it is inscribed in the interpretive paradigm. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007) maintain that the interpretive paradigm focuses on the individual. Consequently, in their own words (p. 21), “the central endeavour in the context of the interpretive paradigm is to understand the subjective world of human experience”. Moreover, they expand by stating that “to retain the integrity of the phenomena being investigated, efforts are made to get inside the person and to understand from within. The imposition of external form and structure, such as that of a questionnaire, is resisted, since this reflects the viewpoint of the observer as opposed to that of the actor directly involved.” (Cohen et al, 2007, p. 21). Cohen et al., (2007) also affirm that interpretive approaches focus on action and that this could be thought of as “behavior-with-meaning” (2007, p. 21), and such behavior is intentional, therefore it is future oriented. They add that “actions are meaningful to us only in so far as we are able to ascertain the intentions of actors to share their experiences” (Cohen et al, 2007, p. 21).

Hence, the interpretive paradigm is the most suitable one to inscribe this action research study because it is my purpose to design this intervention based on the perceptions of coordinators of the ELP program and my own, and to interpret the results from the performance of the students in the Listening Post-Test. That interpretation of results will permit me to take more future meaningful action, based on my own self-reflections and criticism upon systematic exploration of my own teaching context (Burns, 2009), in order to enhance students' experiences of developing understanding of main ideas, details and decoding while listening.

Action Research

This far, I have defined research concepts, research paradigms, research methods, and my chosen paradigm, and methods appropriate to my study. In this section, I will discuss the type of study suitable for my research.

Action research is defined by Anne Burns (2009, p. 2) as “part of a broad movement that has been going on in education for some time, which is related to the ideas of ‘reflective practice’ and ‘the teacher as researcher’”.

She adds that:

Action research involves taking a “self-reflective, critical, and systematic approach to exploring one’s own teaching contexts.”

And its main purposes are to identify a ‘problematic’ situation or issue that the participants – who may include teachers, students, managers, administrators, or even parents – consider worth looking into more deeply and systematically, and to intervene in a deliberate

way in the problematic situation, in order to bring about changes and, even better, improvements in practice. Importantly, the improvements that happen in AR are ones based on data that an action researcher collects systematically. Burns (2009, p. 2).

Kember (2000), cited in Norton, L. (2009), affirms that action research is characterized by

- being a social practice
- being aimed towards improvement
- being cyclical
- requiring systematic enquiry
- requiring reflection
- requiring participation
- being determined by the practitioners

Action research as a social practice has drifted away from positivism in that, unlike physical sciences, it entails addressing and analyzing the complexity of human behavior and human interactions, which are inextricably messy and, to some extent, unpredictable (Norton, L. 2009). Furthermore, Cohen et al (2007) support the link between an interpretive paradigm in research and action research by establishing the paradigm's anti-positivist nature. They maintain that "the interpretive paradigm, in contrast to its normative counterpart, is characterized by a concern for the individual. Whereas normative studies are positivist, all theories constructed within the context of the interpretive paradigm tend to be anti-positivist" (Cohen et al., 2007, p. 21).

Considering that action research aims towards improvement, it is worth mentioning that after implementing a study of this nature, processes and methodologies are unlikely to

remain the same. Action research can have an impact by making changes and improvements in the curriculum, the department and the institution (Norton, L. 2009).

As regards to its cyclical nature, Norton, L. (2009, p. 55) warns that oftentimes such cycle is oversimplified and reduced to mere “simple spirals of reflection, planning, acting, observing, reflecting and so on”. Yet, the complex reality of human behavior confronts us with unexpected scenarios, which might arise over the course of the study. Such unpredictable scenarios require the use of the interpretive paradigm to analyze them and to take action based on the analysis. In other words, unpredictability in findings leads to their interpretation. Norton (2009, p. 55), citing Kember (2000), suggests that “while we should progress in a logical way, it is a good strategy to accept that there will be diversions, which might need parallel cycles of research overlaid on our original research course”. Under such premise, it is worth noting that the design of the study is inevitably subject to flaws in its depiction of reality. Hence, Norton (2009, p. 55) proposes that it is necessary to be aware “that action research is interpretive and needs to be thought of in terms of further refinements in following studies”. I agree with Norton in that this is an important point, as our practice needs progressive refinement, and we can only be informed of those needs by forming a holistic view, which can only be attained by carrying out further cycles of research.

Additionally, action research also requires systematic enquiring. Even though it stands apart from positivism, due to its nature, it should not be less rigorous by no means. Regarding its reflective characteristic, Norton holds that “action researchers must be transparently reflective about their own practice and the implications for that practice that their research has shown” (2009, p. 56). This means that part of the rigor involved in action

research should be devoted at finding areas for improvement, rather than utilizing it as a means to justify ineffective practices.

Norton (2009, p. 56) states that action research in its participative nature calls for scrutiny and review. This can be done in conference papers and journal articles, and other ways of seeking peer comment. However, due to its narrow scope of application and study, and its specific context of implementation, it cannot be prescriptive.

Last but not least, by being determined by the practitioners, it is up to teachers to determine the topic of the research. Norton (2009, p. 56) maintains that action research should be “driven from your own need to know why there is a problem or an issue in your students’ learning and what you might be able to do to improve matters.” In addition, nevertheless, she holds that “collaboration with outside researchers who might be able to advise us on how to turn a topic into a research study” can be useful.

Thus far, I have discussed the characteristics of action research. Now I will go over its implementation steps. Norton (2009) identifies five steps to implementing action research.

Step 1 Identifying a problem/paradox/ issue/difficulty

Step 2 Thinking of ways to tackle the problem

Step 3 Doing it

Step 4 Evaluating it (actual research findings)

Step 5 Modifying future practices

She uses the acronym ITDEM (2009, p. 70) to refer to the five-step process, and I will use it hitherto.

Classroom Research

Allwright and Bailey (1991) state that classroom research encompasses “a whole range of research studies on classroom language learning and teaching. The obvious unifying factor is that the emphasis is solidly on trying to understand what goes on in the classroom setting” (p. 2). In addition, Nunan (1992) suggests that research is made up of three elements “(1) a question, problem or hypothesis, (2) data, (3) analysis and interpretation of data” (p. 3). Such information about research serve to introduce the subject, yet they fall short to describe “the types of inquiry that can be undertaken, the kinds of questions that can be asked, and the methods of data collection and analysis that can be used”. (McKay, 2006). As a consequence, a more robust and detailed view is necessary to frame this study. Therefore, for the purposes of this study and due to its nature, I will circumscribe to a qualitative action research, within the context of classroom research, in terms of Sandra McKay (2006, p.3), and Allwright and Bailey (1991).

Research Question

This study aims to explore the following question:

To what extent does the use of Vandergrift’s Metacognitive Pedagogical Sequence on listening instruction, delivered through Michaelsen’s Team-Based Learning methodology, affect beginner EFL learners' metacognitive awareness, their understanding of main ideas and details, and their ability to decode phonemes?

Objectives

The objectives of this study are:

- To analyze how Vandergrift's Metacognitive Pedagogical Sequence promotes metacognitive awareness among students
- To analyze how Vandergrift's Metacognitive Pedagogical Sequence fosters understanding of main ideas, details and decoding among beginner students.
- To evaluate the effectiveness of the Team-Based Learning methodology to help promote metacognitive awareness and to foster understanding of main ideas, details and decoding among beginner students.

In order to examine this, I selected the techniques and instruments below to collect data for the purpose of answering the question guiding this study.

Research Methods

This is an action-research qualitative study supported by quantitative data. Curtis et al. (2010, p. 28) present as an objective in their book chapter the following: "identify multiple quantitative and qualitative data sources that will inform your guiding questions and be feasible to collect while teaching full time". Thus, even though action-research is predominantly qualitative, quantitative data is also important. Much of the information typically gathered from tests, quizzes, and rubric scores is numerical, therefore it is quantitative (Curtis et al., 2010), and it is necessary to be analyzed.

In spite of the practicality of gathering, grading and displaying quantitative data sources, qualitative data sources provide rich descriptive and contextual information about the people, actions, and interactions that occur in classrooms (Curtis et al., 2010). On the

other hand sole quantitative comparisons may overlook important details of differences among individual students or meaningful aspects of the contexts within which learning occurs, not providing as deep and rich contextual information as qualitative sources (Curtis et al., 2010, Burns, A., 2009).

In addition, qualitative examples support the quantitative data (Burns, A. 2009). Burns (2009) suggests employing both quantitative and qualitative sources of information in order to strengthen one's action research:

This usually means collecting more than one type of data (it doesn't necessarily mean three types, although the term triangulation seems to suggest this). Then you can compare, contrast and cross-check to see whether what you are finding through one source is backed up by other evidence. In this way you can be more confident that your reflections and conclusions are supported by the data and not just by your own presuppositions or biases (2009, p. 96).

Burns (2009) attests that triangulation has a number of advantages. "Not only does it provide a more balanced picture, it can also help to explain things that seem to contradict or not support each other" (p. 97).

Research Phases

I implemented this qualitative action research following Norton's (2009) ITDEM, mentioned above.

ITDEM - STEP 1 –Identifying A Problem/Paradox/Issue/Difficulty

First, I needed to confirm my perception of the problems with the immediate academic authorities' perception of listening needs among beginner EFL learners. Based upon their information, I needed to diagnose students' current ability to understand main ideas, details and to decode. Next, since the purpose of this study is to identify the impact of metacognition on the fostering of understanding of main idea, details and decoding among beginner EFL student, I needed to identify their current level of metacognition awareness, their weaknesses and strengths in listening in English, and their approaches to tackling listening activities.

This phase is comprised of three activities, instruments and techniques, which include the identification of academic coordinators' perceived needs in terms of listening skills among beginner EFL learners; a diagnosis of listening skills of beginner EFL learners; and a diagnosis of metacognitive awareness of beginner EFL learners (Table 1). I will elaborate on them in the data collection instruments section of this chapter.

Table 1

Diagnostic phase. Activities, techniques and instruments, and comments.

Diagnostic phase		
Activities	Techniques and Instruments	Comments
Identification of academic coordinators' perceived needs in terms of listening skills among beginner EFL learners.	Open-ended question to EFL Program coordinator and Level One Coordinator.	The purpose of this question is to know how stakeholders perceive the listening skills of beginner EFL learners and what their immediate needs are.
Diagnosis of listening skills of beginner EFL learners.	Listening diagnostic test that measures comprehension of details, main ideas and level of decoding.	This diagnostic test permits to identify weaknesses of students' listening skills.
Diagnosis of metacognitive awareness of beginner EFL learners.	Larry Vandergrift's MALQ (Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire) Instrument.	This questionnaire permits to identify student's knowledge about their own thinking and analyzing strategies to listen and to tackle listening activities.

Open-ended question to EFL Program Coordinator and Level One Coordinator

As I had expected, their answers led me to designing and carrying out this study. As mentioned in the introduction of this study, they expressed noticing poor listening skills development during students' English courses, which they maintained had a great deal to do with the lack of appropriate input and instruction on how to learn to listen, and insufficient and inadequate exposure, being the latter mostly controlled by the teacher at

specific moments in the class. This situation led both coordinators to grant me permission to carry out this study. I will elaborate on this question and the answers of the coordinators on the Data Collection Instruments section of this chapter because their answers constituted data for this study, and the question itself was an instrument to collect such data.

Results from Vandergrift's MALQ (Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire) Instrument.

This is a questionnaire designed by Vandergrift (2006) that permits to identify students' knowledge about their own thinking and analyzing strategies to listen and to tackle listening activities. I translated the entire instrument to Spanish, with explicit permission granted by Vandergrift in 2015 to translate it and use it for this study. Once translated, I transferred it to a newly created file on Google Forms, and I posted its web link to the Blackboard LMS platform of this English course, in order for students to access it and take it before the implementation phase, again, with the purpose of using it as baseline of their metacognitive awareness at the beginning of the implementation. Additionally, I had students take the very same questionnaire again at the end of the implementation, in order to determine their gains in metacognitive awareness.

This section seeks to respond the metacognitive awareness research question I will name this MALQ 1 because I will revisit it in the Post Intervention results section, and then I will have to call that one MALQ 2, in order to differentiate the stage at which the instrument was applied and consequently the results obtained in both stages. The MALQ, both 1 and 2, is a questionnaire comprised of 21 questions (see Appendix 1), which students answered using a Likert scale, originally designed to measure the intensity of

attitudes towards statements in terms of the extent to which they agree or disagree with them, thus tapping into the cognitive and affective components of attitudes (McLeod, 2008). The options students had to react to the statements presented were: 1. Totally Disagree; 2. Disagree; 3. Partially agree; 4. Partially Disagree; 5. Agree 6. Totally Agree.

All students were supposed to take the MALQ 1 questionnaire between August 18th and September 19th 2015, before the intervention started. All the 17 students did. As for the MALQ 2, they were expected to take it in November, after the intervention. However, only 6 out of 17 students did. Therefore, I can only report the results of those six students for both MALQ 1 and MALQ 2. (See Appendix 1)

On the Likert Scale, which ranged from 1.0 to 6.0, the results of the MALQ 1 showed some metacognitive awareness in both Planning and Evaluating, where students ranked 4.0 in average, and Mental Translation, which yielded 4.4. Meanwhile, a higher metacognitive awareness was seen in Directed Attention, which yielded a 4.5, and Problem Solving 4.8.

Results from Listening Pre Test

The Listening Pre Test intended to measure students' ability to identify top-down information, such as main ideas, some of its details, and to measure their bottom-up understanding skills, or decoding. Here I will present first the overall results of the Listening Diagnostic Test in a scale of 0.0 to 5.0, in which 0.0 corresponds to no attempts to answer the questions, and 5.0 corresponds to answering them all correctly. Next, I will present the results of each component. Overall Listening Diagnostic Test - Results. In average, the seventeen students obtained a score of 3.2 in the Listening Diagnostic Test. Regarding Main Ideas, they obtained a score of 3.4 in the Main Ideas section of the

Listening Diagnostic Test. As for Details, the score was 4.2. Finally, Decoding yielded a 3.8 in the. See Appendix 2 and Table 1.1.

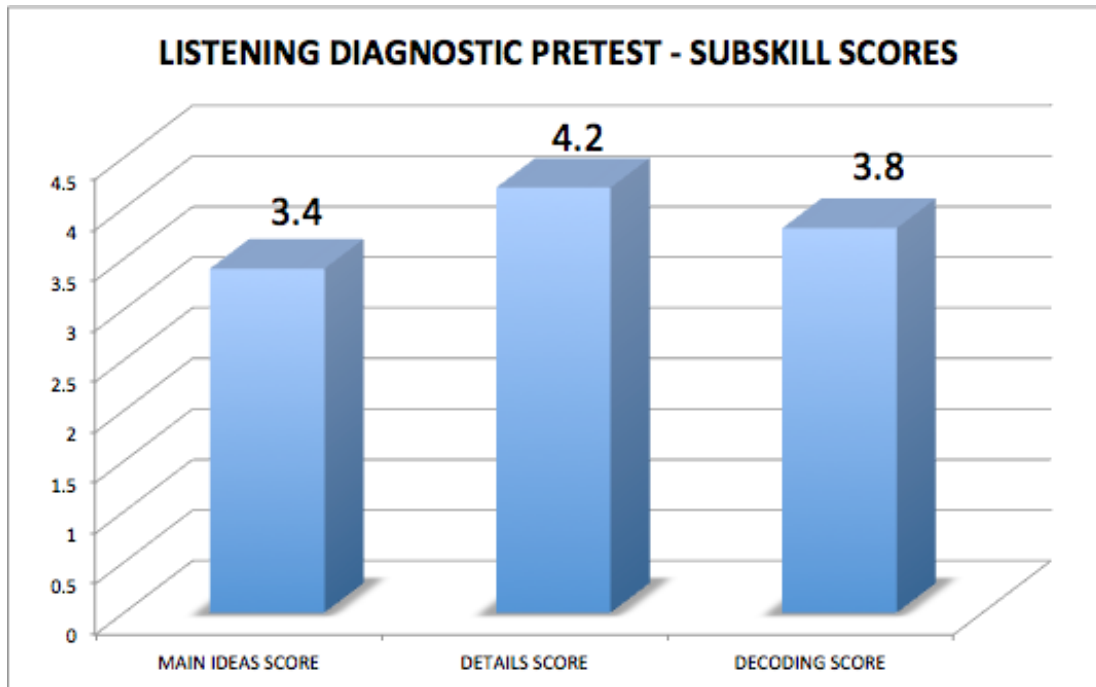


Figure 1. Listening diagnostic test – subskills scores.

ITDEM - STEP 2. Thinking of Ways to Tackle the Problem

Steps 1 and 2 in reality happened almost parallelly. The previous diagnostic phase helped to confirm my qualms and get permission to carry out this study, and by the time I wrote the question for the coordinators, I had already started studying Vandergrift's Listening Metacognitive Pedagogical Sequence. Hence, I naturally favored testing this particular pedagogical sequence. The deciding factor was the fact that this sequence proposed a carefully planned session of activities in which students would have several purposeful instances of exposure to the listening text, and these activities seemed to lead them to develop listening strategies based on their particular degree of listening skills development.

In short, this pedagogical sequence for listening held the promise to benefit everyone in the classroom. As my aim was that all my students learned and achieved their objectives, it seemed a suitable methodology.

Decisions

Metacognition, through Vandergrift's Listening Metacognitive Pedagogical Sequence, was the 'what', and I naturally needed a 'how', or a way to deliver it in a collaborative learning structure. The methodology to implement this is Team-Based Learning.

This intervention is supported by the theories and statements presented in the Theoretical Framework of this study, namely the proposals presented by and views held by Field (2009), Vandergrift and Goh (2012), Rost (2011), and Michaelsen (2007). It took place on the second semester of 2015, specifically from the first week of October to the last week of November.

Participants of this study were seventeen (17) students from one group of Level One English as a Foreign Language class at Instituto de Idiomas at Universidad del Norte, which I was in charge of.

The intervention consisted on providing the group with a blended methodology of Vandergrift's Listening Metacognitive Pedagogical Sequence and Team-Based Learning. This intervention was carried out over four weeks and aimed to act as scaffolding to the listening sections of three (3) units from the coursebook North Star 2 - Listening and Speaking - published by Pearson Longman. Once Vandergrift's Metacognitive Pedagogical Sequence had been covered through Team-Based Learning methodology in the group, I reassessed both the development of the specific listening skills and the degree of metacognitive awareness, and found some answers for my research question. Throughout

this intervention, I collected data that served as results of this study. I will analyze and discuss them on the following chapters.

Intervention

The intervention phase was comprised of eight (8) activities that took place sequentially.

First, students were assigned the reading and study of a Metacognitive Listening

Supplement (in Spanish, as the students participants are A1 level students), which informs them about listening strategies and factors affecting their listening process. After utilizing

the Metacognitive Listening Supplement, I continued this intervention by working on

Vandergrift's Metacognitive Pedagogical Sequence and Team-Based Learning in an

interwoven fashion, which I will describe below.

Table 2

Intervention phase. Team-Based Learning Activities, techniques, instruments, and comments. Gallego (2016), based on Michaelsen (2008)

Activities	Techniques and Instruments	Comments
Assignment of Metacognitive Listening supplement 1	Written guidelines on listening techniques	An informative and pedagogical supplement which covers the principal aspects of Top-down and Bottom-up listening techniques, how we listen and understand, and macrostrategies.
Reading Assurance Test 1 - Individual	Test	A five question listening test to confirm students' reading, understanding and application of the listening techniques presented in Listening Supplement 1.
Reading Assurance Test 1 - Teams	Test	Same individual test, intended to have students discuss and debate the questions of RAT 1, and to present a team response to the test.
Application	Activity worksheet, video projector, whiteboard and markers	Student teams have to report simultaneously the answers of a group activity. The answers they report will guide the class
Assignment of Metacognitive Listening Supplement 2	Written guidelines on listening techniques	An informative and pedagogical supplement which covers the principal aspects of Top-down and Bottom-up listening techniques, inferencing and decoding.
Reading Assurance Test 2 - Individual	Test	A five question listening test to confirm students' reading, understanding and application of the listening techniques presented in Listening Supplement 2.
Reading Assurance Test 2 - Teams	Test	Same individual test, intended to have students discuss and debate the questions of RAT 2, and to present a team response to the test.
Application	Activity worksheet, video projector, whiteboard and markers	Student teams have to report simultaneously the answers of a group activity. The answers they report will guide the class.

Metacognitive Listening Supplement

The Metacognitive Listening Supplement was written in Spanish mostly, with some specific activities in English, and was divided into two parts. The first part introduces students to the concept of listening by exposing briefly and succinctly how we listen in ESL and understand by addressing the factors that affect listening comprehension in ESL, which are cognitive, affective and contextual factors, according to Lynch (2009). Additionally, it presents students with the listening macrostrategies discussed by Lynch (2009), which are predicting, monitoring, clarifying and evaluating. Furthermore, this first part of the listening supplement provides students with three exercises to practice the prediction macrostrategy in class and independently. Moreover, this part of the Metacognitive Listening Supplement introduces the concept of decoding, and presents exercises to practice such skill.

The second part of the Metacognitive Listening Supplement presents the metacognitive stages of listening, as presented by Vandergrift and Goh (2012), and describes what students can do in each one of them. Lastly, it provides students with an exercise to practice the metacognitive stages, based on a sequence chart proposed by Vandergrift and Goh (2012, p. 104), which was also translated to Spanish with permission of the authors, to facilitate beginner students the comprehension of the pedagogical sequence and its activities. The detailed description and contents of the second part of the Metacognitive Listening Supplement appears under the subheading Vandergrift's Metacognitive Pedagogical Sequence. This Metacognitive Listening Supplement can be found in the Appendix 3.

Vandergrift's Listening Metacognitive Pedagogical Sequence

This section presents Vandergrift's Metacognitive Pedagogical Sequence. The authors maintain that "the sequence was designed to help learners integrate the use of multiple strategies while focusing on the process of listening" (2012, p.13).

The Metacognitive Pedagogical Sequence is comprised of the metacognitive processes of planning, monitoring, problem-solving, and evaluation. First, I will present Vandergrift and Goh's account of the development of these metacognitive processes they call planning, monitoring, problem-solving, and evaluation, for listening in real-life listening contexts. Next, I will present the design of a Listening Metacognitive Pedagogical Cycle, which Vandergrift and Goh (2012) define as "a number of different listening activities that focus on the development of the metacognitive processes in a deliberate manner" (p. 105) in order to "increase learner awareness about the listening process" (p.106). This Listening Metacognitive Pedagogical Cycle is adapted for beginner EFL learners, which is the target population of this action-research.

Planning for the Listening Activity (Pre-listening)

According to Vandergrift and Goh (2012), it is important that students are proactive. The authors maintain that proactive listening will permit learners to decide what to focus on while listening, thus establishing "the necessary conditions for successful listening, so they can pay closer attention to meaning while listening" (p.106).

The authors suggest that in order for learners to plan for successful completion of the activity, they can:

- bring to consciousness their knowledge of the topic and any relevant cultural information;
- analyze the text genre and recall how information might be organized in it;
- anticipate words and/or ideas that they may hear;
- determine where to pay attention and decide on how much detail to find, based on their purpose for listening, in order to direct listening efforts;
- predict what they will hear, based on information brought to consciousness and any relevant contextual information; and,
- prepare the conditions for listening by clearing their minds of distractions and focusing their attention (2012, p. 6).

Monitoring Comprehension (While - listening)

In this stage, learners focus on comparing their predictions with what they understand in the listening activity, and they make any necessary adjustments.

Vandergrift & Goh (2012) suggest that in this stage learners can:

- evaluate continually what they understand;
- check for consistency with their predictions, for appropriateness with world knowledge and for internal consistency: that is, the ongoing interpretation of the context;
- verify predictions and accept the fact that they do not need to understand every word;
- assess their level of comprehension;
- verify progress in their comprehension of the desired information and necessary details; and

- determine whether the approach to understanding the text is working or not” (p. 107).

Solving Comprehension Problems (While - listening)

Vandergrift and Goh (2012, p.107) believe that at the same time as learners monitor their understanding and encounter difficulties, they can adjust their approach to the text or activate specific listening comprehension strategies. The authors (2012, p.108) maintain that learners can:

- adjust their approach by activating more appropriate strategies as required: for example, revise predictions or adjust their inferences to reflect new possibilities;
- make inferences about the meaning of a chunk of text they did not understand by deducing from the information they are confident they have understood; or
- ask for clarification, if the listening context allows for this.

Evaluating the Approach and Outcomes (Post-listening)

Vandergrift and Goh (2012) assert that learners “need to evaluate the effectiveness of the approach adopted and/or decisions made during the listening process after completion of the activity.” They believe that learners can:

- reflect on difficulties encountered, what went wrong, and why;
- confirm comprehension with a transcription of parts or all of the text; or

- reflect on the success of problem-solving efforts, such as the success of an inference or modification of a particular strategy (if the listening context allows for this). (2012, p. 107).

According to the authors, these steps do not necessarily have to occur linearly or circularly. However, for the purpose of this study, I will adopt a linear sequence in which some of the aforementioned steps overlap, as a natural development of metacognitive processing. This view is held by Perner (1991), who is cited by Ryan Scott and Zoltán Dienes (Scott & Dienes, 2010), since they affirm that metacognition's "representational capacity arises at around 18 months in humans, when we acquire the ability to use "multiple models" of the same object. This capacity makes possible some of the requirements of episodic memory (the same object simultaneously considered as it was and as it is) and of hypothetical reasoning (the same object considered in the different ways it might be)".

This overlapping linear sequence begins with Planning, followed by Monitoring, Evaluation and Planning, then Monitoring, Evaluation and Problem-solving, then Monitoring and Problem-solving, and finalizes with Evaluation and Planning. This overlapping linear sequence will be repeated as part of the action research cycle during three content units of the Listening and Speaking Module of the course. The figure below represents Vandergrift's Metacognitive Pedagogical Sequence.

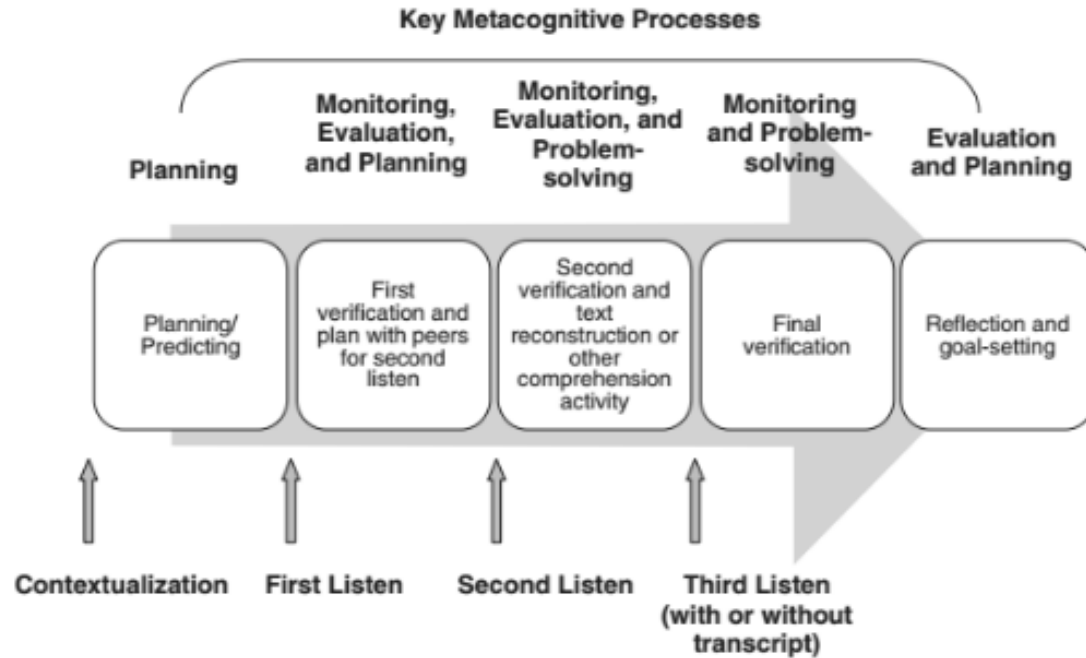


Figure 2. Vandergrift's Metacognitive Pedagogical Sequence. From Teaching and Learning Second Language Listening - Metacognition in Action (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012, p. 106)

Team-Based Learning

Team formation

First of all, I formed groups of students at random to work as teams permanently during the implementation of this study. The class was made up of seventeen (17) students, who I organized in five teams:

Team 1 is comprised of three (3) students

Team 2 by three (3) students

Team 3 by four (4) students

Team 4 by four (4) students

Team 5 by three (3) students.

Individual and Team-based Testing.

Students individually need to have read and completed the exercises of listening supplement part 1. Once they have done so, they were given a Reading Assurance Test (RAT 1), in order to both evaluate and hold them accountable for the reading and practicing of the material from listening supplement part 1. First, students take the test individually. Then, they take the same text in groups. After an intra group discussion, students mark their responses on a special card provided to them called Immediate Feedback Assessment Technique (IFAT). These cards need to be scratched off a covering that hides the answer.

They come with options A, B, C, and D for twenty five questions. Students have a maximum of three chances to find the correct answer. If they scratch off the correct option at once, they will get one point for that question. If they need to scratch off twice, they will be taken 0.25 points, yielding a 0.75. If they need to scratch off three times, they will be taken 0.50 points, yielding a 0.50. And if they scratch four times, they will get zero points (Michaelsen et al., 2008). These cards were created with the all the necessary security precautions to avoid cheating from students and I received them from CEDU, the Center for Teaching Excellence at Universidad del Norte.

Application

When students have seen the correct responses, they continue with an application process in which I explain the listening strategies and play an audio recording that requires students to use all the previously learned techniques. In this phase, students listen and they report their answers simultaneously through the use of cards that come in different colors and each corresponds to one letter of the IFAT responses (A, B, C, D, E). This entire process from

RAT 1 to the application phase is repeated after students have worked with Metacognitive listening supplement part 2.

Metacognitive Listening Supplement 2

The second part of the Metacognitive listening supplement presents Inferencing as a macrostrategy. This section is intended to inform students of the top-down ability to understand meaning that is not stated explicitly in the listening text, but can be implied based on the context and socio cultural information that surround it, and which helps to identify Main Ideas. After students have read and practiced the exercises of Metacognitive listening supplement two, they will repeat the process of RAT 1 through to the application, focusing on the content of Metacognitive listening supplement 2 (See Appendix 4).

ITDEM - STEP 3. Doing It

In this section, I will describe as exactly as possible how I carried out the intervention. Here I describe how the Metacognitive Listening Supplement was used in class, and how it was supposed to be used outside of class by students. Furthermore, I will describe how I integrated Vandergrift's Metacognitive Pedagogical Sequence with Team-Based Learning. I will do this by dividing the contents of the Listening and Speaking Module of the English Level 1 course, which is the object of this study, into the learning units that it is comprised of. Those units are Unit 3, Unit 4 and Unit 5 of the Listening and Speaking book of North Star 2, published by Pearson Longman (2008).

Application and Instruction with the Metacognitive Listening Supplement.

Students received each a copy of the Metacognitive Listening Supplement (See Appendix 3). In the groups previously formed as part of the TBL methodology, they read, discussed and asked me questions as they progressed in the learning about metacognition and the factors affecting listening comprehension, and practiced proposed exercises both as homework and classwork.

Vandergrift Listening Metacognitive Pedagogical Sequence and Team-Based Learning

Hitherto, I will refer to the methodologies as VLMPS and TBL, respectively. I will make the description based on what I did in each of the three units of the listening and speaking module: *Unit 3 - A Penny Saved is a Penny Earned*, *Unit 4: Innocent or guilty*, and *Unit 5: Etiquette*.

The learning outcomes for the listening part of the course are three, which are expected to be achieved through the pedagogical work of the three units mentioned above:

1. Listen and predict content.
2. Identify main ideas and specific details.
3. Recognize opinions and reasons.

The three outcomes clearly respond to this action-research study objectives, with the exception of 1. Listen and predict content. However, in the VLMPS Planning and Predicting phase, such predictions are a tool to enhance comprehension (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012).

It was vital to accompany students through VLMPS because it is something students were not familiar with, thus some steps seemed strange to them at first. For example, students manifested that comparing predictions with a classmate and listening for a third time with the transcript of the text was not usually proposed by their English teachers at school.

Furthermore, the four steps of VLMPS had to be presented in an ordinal fashion (first, second, third, and fourth), yet they are by no means sequential, but tend to overlap. Such overlapping might be confusing for students when engaging in the metacognitive listening sequence (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012). In fact, before this study, I had been implementing the sequence for one semester, and I found it confusing the first time I used it. Therefore, I provided guidance to my students, in order to avoid unfortunate outcomes and frustration. The figure below was extracted from Vandergrift and Goh's book *Teaching and Learning Second Language Listening - Metacognition in Action* and it represents the interaction and overlapping of the four steps.

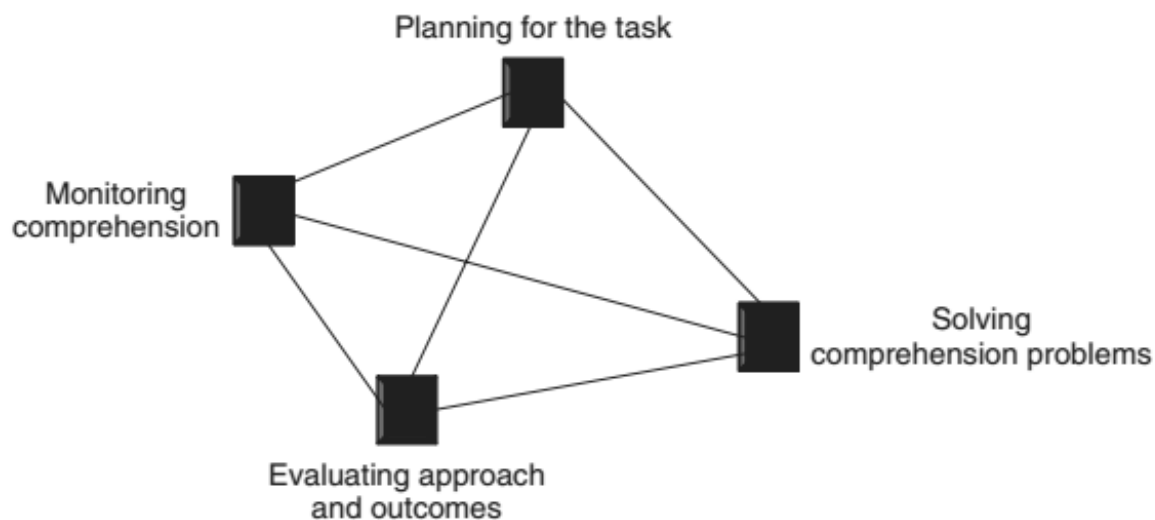


Figure 3. Interaction and overlapping of the four metacognitive steps. From *Teaching and Learning Second Language Listening - Metacognition in Action* (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012, p. 106)

The following paragraphs will describe the intervention in the participant group in three phases.

Phase 1 instructs students in the factors affecting their listening comprehension and permits them to practice content language and listening exercises which pertain to money management. This phase is organized in two moments: the first moment sees TBL implemented, and the second moment is instructed through the Metacognitive Listening Supplement - Part 1. This phase took place during the first two weeks of October 2015.

Phase 2 instructs students on the metacognitive strategies to listening and on the steps of VLMPS through the Metacognitive Listening Supplement - Part 2. In this phase, students deal with the topic Justice and they learn vocabulary to support the listening exercises of this topic. Phase 2 sees the introduction of the Metacognitive Template (see Appendix 5), and again, it is organized in two moments: first VLMPS and then TBL. This phase took place between the fourth week of October and the first week of November 2015.

Regarding Phase 3, I interwove VLMPS and TBL along the instruction. This third phase gave students the opportunity to apply and practice freely the metacognitive strategies learned from the metacognitive listening supplement. In this phase, students learned vocabulary about etiquette and manners to practice the listening exercises. This phase took place in the third week of November 2015.

This first stage in this implementation consisted in providing students with the Metacognitive Listening Supplement, both parts 1 and 2, which informed them about the factors affecting their listening process and the metacognitive listening strategies they could

employ to tackle their listening exercise, as mentioned above and which I elaborate on below.

**Phase 1 - Unit 3 - A Penny Saved Is A Penny Earned (North Star 2).
Contextualization and Metacognitive Listening Supplement Part 1. Metacognition
and VLMPS Instruction**

On the first week of October 2015, I started carrying out this intervention. First, as part of the contextualization phase and VLMPS instruction, students received a copy of the Metacognitive Listening Supplement - Parts 1 and 2. This Metacognitive Listening Supplement presents students with cognitive and metacognitive tools, strategies and information for them to employ before and while listening, in order to enhance comprehension, namely cognitive, affective and contextual (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012). The first part of the metacognitive listening supplement deals with the factors affecting comprehension.

I told students to read and practice the exercises in part 1 in the first class of this intervention, and to practice at home the exercises they could not finish in that class. Nevertheless, the part I made sure everybody could finish was the instruction on the factors affect comprehension, in order to discuss them as a class. Once students had finished reading them, I organized a roundtable session in which I had students reflect upon the information and relate it to instances in their life in which they had faced similar situations. Students must have read the first part of the metacognitive listening supplement to complete this part.

Team-Based Learning

As for TBL, students had to read the first part of the metacognitive supplement before class. The reading of this supplement was assessed in class with a RAT instrument (Reading Assurance Test) - (RAT 1), which students first took independently and then with their teams.

The purpose of taking this test (RAT 1) independently and then in groups was to have students discuss and reflect on their understanding of the metacognitive processes, and to hold them accountable for their learning process (Michaelsen, 2007). Once students had finished their team test and had seen the answers to their questions in the IFAT, they started preparing for the Planning and predicting phase with an additional contextualization.

Vandergrift's Listening Metacognitive Pedagogical Sequence Application

The next activity constituted contextualization of the topic. In this section, I first presented students the topic Money, Saving and Bartering, and the vocabulary related to the topic. The presentation consisted, first, on eliciting students' prior knowledge of concepts, both in L1 and L2, which are part of the topic. The purpose of this elicitation was to guide students through the topic and to activate prior knowledge (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012) upon which they could construct new knowledge by association, in accordance with the sociocultural learning theory to developing language proficiency (Lantolf, 2000).

In the Planning and predicting phase, students wrote statements about a cartoon (see Appendix 6) with the goal of activating previous knowledge about the topic, so I could clarify pronunciation, intonation, and teach new vocabulary they needed for the listening

activity (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012). I asked students three questions proposed in the textbook to help them think about the cartoon and respond to them. Those questions were:

1. *What's the man's problem?*
2. *What do you think he should do?*
3. *Read the title of the unit (A penny saved is a penny earned). It is a famous American saying. What do you think it means?*

The cartoon (Appendix 4) extracted from North Star 2 - Listening and Speaking, Third Edition, by Natasha Haugnes, 2008 shows a man staring at an empty wallet while he thinks about things he either desires to purchase, or has already purchased. Next, students shared information about methods of payment and how often they use them. I asked them an additional question which was not proposed by the textbook: *“How do you usually pay for the things you need?”* They responded to the question by writing on their notebooks: *often, sometimes, or never*, and the methods of payment they mentioned were: *cash, checks, and credit cards* (which I had to explain as: plastic cards you use to buy things and pay later), I showed them the words *loans*, and explained them that it is money you borrow and pay back later.

In this stage, I taught pronunciation and stress of these words, in addition to meanings. Next, students worked with their teammates and answered the following two questions:

1. *In your group, what is the most common way to pay for things? What is the least common way?, and*
2. *What do you think is the best way to pay for things when you want to save money? Why do you think so?*

The objective to work on these two questions was to take contextualization to the planning stage by using the critical vocabulary (Field, 2009) to interact in a conversation, since “vocabulary knowledge is a strong predictor of L2 listening success” (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012, p. 24).

Furthermore, by using this critical vocabulary in a conversation, students are likely to be employing cognitive strategies, or conscious ways of tackling linguistic input (Kumaravadivelu, 2008), that help them retrieve memories of pronunciation, intonation, stress and meaning of the vocabulary taught because it is necessary for listening success. Peña-Ayala (2015) reports that two studies on metacognition show improvement in retrieval of information through rehearsal and repeated study of important information. In our case, that important information is linguistic knowledge: intonation, stress and meaning are part of linguistic knowledge, which is a cognitive factor affecting listening comprehension (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012).

Next, students were exposed to background vocabulary that was necessary for them to understand the listening text. This new vocabulary is contextualized in a written text which permitted students to understand meaning from context.

Before students were exposed to the first play of Listening 1 - a barter network-, I asked them to think about the ways they know people can obtain and have obtained goods and services throughout history, both with money and other means, so they can activate useful schemata that prepares them for the listening. Bransford, et al. (2000, p. 66) maintain that “memory retrieval and transfer are promoted by schemata because they derive from a broader scope of related instances [of learning experiences] than single learning experiences”.

Later, students listened to the beginning of the audio recording and employed top-down listening skills to determine the context and the kind of talk they were being exposed to. I offered them three possible scenarios to predict what the talk would be: a radio announcement, a meeting and a class, being a meeting the correct prediction. In addition, students needed to identify the audience, and the options were *a. members of the barter network b. people who work for the barter network, and c. people who are interested in joining the network*, being the latter the correct option.

First Listen

Then students did the first listen. In this phase, students first read the questions for main ideas of the recording they were going to listen. Then they listened. Immediately after students did the first listen, they did the first verification and started planning with peers for the second listen, as part of the Monitoring, Evaluation and Planning stage of VLMPS. In this phase, students needed to compare answers with peers and discuss the difficult aspects or parts in the audio recording. Additionally, they needed to go back to the metacognitive listening supplement to confirm having used the metacognitive tools presented, or to plan to use them in the second listen.

Second Listen

Once students had finished the first verification and planning for the second listen, they did the second listen. After students did the second listen, they started the Monitoring, Evaluation and Problem-solving phase. This stage involved a second verification in groups and answering questions about details as a comprehension activity. Students needed to compare and contrast their answers, and again discuss, in English and Spanish, the

metacognitive tools and steps from the metacognitive listening supplement they employed to choose their responses

Third Listen

Once they had discussed and compared their answers, students moved to the third listen, in which they read the transcript as they listen. This third listen took students to the Monitoring and Problem-solving phase. Here, students do a final verification based on the transcript and their previous responses to the comprehension questions. Students in this stage could take notes about the difficult words and phonemes, which some did and others did not, and they presented them to me in the next and final stage: Evaluation and planning.

TBL. 2

The Evaluation and Planning phase was integrated to the Application phase of the TBL approach. Here students needed to present their arguments in favor and/or against the metacognitive tools presented in the listening supplement, according to their degree of listening success or lack thereof, and the perceived usefulness of the metacognitive strategies presented in the Metacognitive Listening Supplement.

This first phase opened the box of metacognitive strategies for students, perhaps for the first time for some of them. The importance of this initial contextualization phase lies in the development of familiarity with metacognition and possibly raising awareness of the possibilities the metacognitive approach to listening offers to the development of these skills.

The next phase offered students the possibility to experience metacognitive listening instruction in its fullest. Having the necessary awareness and knowledge to address

listening metacognitively, thanks to the metacognitive listening supplement - part 1 and their interaction within their teams, students now could follow VMPS as it was meant to be carried out by Dr. Vandergrift, and engage more confidently in TBL.

Phase 2 - Unit 4 - Innocent or Guilty - (North Star 2)

In this section, I presented students the topic 'Justice' and the concepts of *DNA testing, Evidence, and innocent people mistakenly sent to prison*, along with other vocabulary related to the topic. As in phase 1 above, the presentation consisted, first, on eliciting student's prior knowledge of concepts, both in L1 and L2, that are part of the topic (see Appendix 7). Students practiced the pronunciation and read vocabulary and concepts of justice in English, and problems in understanding were clarified in Spanish, before moving on to practicing the skills of Listening for Main Ideas, Listening for Details and Decoding, where they had to use the metacognitive skills they read about in the metacognitive listening supplement. This section was naturally made up of VLMPS and TBL.

Contextualization and Metacognitive Listening Supplement - Part 2

Students this time had to read the second part of the Metacognitive Listening Supplement before practicing the listening skills mentioned in the previous paragraph. The second part of the Metacognitive Listening Supplement informed students about the four metacognitive listening stages proposed by Vandergrift & Goh (2012); (1) Planning for the activity, (2) Monitoring comprehension, (3) Problem solving; solving comprehension problems; and (4) Evaluating approach and outcomes (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012, p. 105).

The second part of the Metacognitive Listening Supplement presented explicitly and in detail the four stages of Metacognition in Listening that were worked shallowly and only with my guidance in the previous unit as a matter of introduction to the metacognitive sequence. This explicit guide to metacognitive strategies was comprised of charts with information in Spanish about the four steps of metacognition and what students could do in each one of them to improve their listening skills, and a template designed by Vandergrift (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012, p. 113) for students to put the metacognitive strategies into practice before and while listening.

This template (see Appendix 6) - guide for listening was translated to Spanish with kind permission of Dr. Vandergrift and presented to students in the second part of the metacognitive listening sequence.

Planning for the Task - Planning and Predicting

In this step, students had to see the cartoon below and brainstorm prior knowledge (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012) in order for them to prepare for the new concepts and vocabulary they would learn to succeed at the listening exercise. First, they answered three questions proposed by the textbook.

1. *Where are the people?*
2. *Why do you think the man is there?*
3. *What do you think the man and woman are talking about?*

Once students had answered those questions, they got together with their teams to compare and contrast their answers. Next, they answered the questions as a class and I helped with pronunciation and some new vocabulary (*lawyer, inmate*). Next, students had to listen and read along to a conversation between two friends about DNA Testing. For this

conversation, I decided to introduce the concept of DNA Testing first, and students seemed to have grasped it, as they immediately associated it with the popular CBS TV series CSI: Crime Scene Investigation.

The purpose of this conversation was to introduce some new and useful vocabulary for students to have bottom-up input to support the contextualization and predictions made as part of VLMPS, in order for them to make meaning of the listening exercise. The new words were: *prison, guilty, crimes, commit, DNA, evidence, victim, arrest, innocent, prove, and eyewitness.*

Predictions

Subsequently, I introduced students to the VLMPS template (see Appendix 5) in order to use it for the first listening comprehension exercise of the unit. This listening text was a story of a man -Roger- who had been sent to jail in spite of being innocent, due to mistaken identity (see Appendix 8). It was a first-person narrative. The textbook presents students with a predictions step, which is based on by a set of six sentences from which they needed to select the information they think they would find the in conversation. However, such predictions step does not give room for sharing and discussing students' predictions, unlike the template. Therefore, and for the purpose of this study, I decided to use the template for predictions, instead of the exercise in the textbook. Nevertheless, I used the six given statements for students to include three of them in their five predictions, so they needed to come up with two other sentences of their own, and rule three of the given sentences out, or just the words they think they might hear including the new ones and others. For this planning activity, I gave students 10 minutes, because they are beginners and, as such, they need time to prepare and organize their ideas.

Next, students needed to compare their predictions in pairs by looking both at the ones each selected from the given options, and the ones they thought they might find. In order to enrich the range of information possibilities, in terms of both sentences and words, each student needed to write down two of their partner's predictions.

First Listen

Once they had made and shared predictions, students moved on to the first listen part, accordingly with VLMPS and its template. While listening, students focused on finding the predictions, both their own and their partner's, in the audio recording of Roger's story. After this first listen, students proceeded to the monitoring and identification step, in which they verified their initial hypotheses, corrected what they needed to, and annotated what they had understood which was not predicted. The next step in VLMPS was monitoring, evaluating and planning, for which students compared what they had understood with their TBL team, modified what they needed to, determined what they still needed to solve, and decided which important details still required solving.

Second Listen

Students listened to Roger's story a second time, and afterwards they engaged in the monitoring, evaluating and problem-solving step, in which they had the opportunity to address the differences and possible disagreements they encountered during the monitoring, evaluating and planning step. Next, I had students participate in a class discussion in which all of them needed to contribute to reconstructing the main points of the text, its most relevant details, as well as reflect on how they managed to come up with the meaning of certain words or parts of the text.

Third Listen

This third listen stage provided students with the opportunity to listen for the decoding parts -phonemes, words and/or chunks- they individually had difficulty understanding, and it constituted the monitoring and problem-solving step. Vandergrift and Goh (2012) suggest that this stage can be done with the transcript of the listening text, but it was not necessary in this case because students seemed to have understood most of the audio recording. What only needed further clarification were specific words and phonemes students were not accustomed to, as well as the accent of the speaker, whose voice, in addition, sounded pretty raspy.

Reflection and Goal-Setting

This is the final stage of VLMPS, and it gives students the opportunity to reflect on their use of the metacognitive strategies and to raise their metacognitive awareness, in order to make decisions and plans for future listening instances. In this stage, students wrote their goals for future listening exercises, based on what they learned about factors affecting listening comprehension and the metacognitive strategies they studied in the Metacognitive Listening Supplements.

This sequence was carried out in order to permit students to have control over their listening exercise because they did not sit idle listening to a passage only to face a set of questions afterwards. On the contrary, they had the opportunity both to go over different parts which posed difficulty, and to reflect on their approaches to tackle listening exercises.

Once students had finished VLMPS, they started implementing the metacognitive strategies learned through TBL.

TBL Component - RAT 2

Regarding the socio-constructivist component of this study, the TBL sequence of this second phase provided students with the opportunity to have free practice of the metacognitive strategies they learned about on the metacognitive listening supplement.

This TBL component helped students to address the second listening of this unit. The second listening of this unit was an interview with an Innocence Project lawyer. This interview was adapted for English as a foreign language instruction.

First, as part of the initial exposure to TBL, students had to read and learn from the metacognitive listening supplement, which they did in the previous two phases. Hence, the next step in TBL was the Readiness Assessment, or RAT, which was also assessed in the first phase of this study. However, the objective of this implementation of TBL was to determine whether the study of the metacognitive listening supplement had indeed helped students improve their listening skills. Therefore, a new RAT was necessary to provide students with the opportunity to display their use of the metacognitive strategies, which was this RAT 2. In this case, since students were to take a RAT on a listening text, I thought it should have been named LAT to stand for Listening Assurance Test, but for the sake of sticking with the author's terminology and to ease the reading of this study, I decided to keep naming it RAT.

Before students took the Individual RAT 2, I informed them about the interview and the Innocence Project. In addition, I told them that the lawyer in the interview explains why innocent people sometimes go to prison. The purpose of giving them this information was to have them predict what they could hear in the interview, both words and complete ideas. I gave them five minutes to take notes on their notebooks about the predictions.

Once students had made their predictions, I had them take the Individual RAT 2. In this case, students had three questions about the reasons why innocent people go to prison that the lawyer mentions. Students had four options per question. Question one required students to read and identify the correct option based on the information provided by the lawyer, which was based on the vocabulary students had already learned during the previous exercises. Question two asked students to identify two more reasons not presented in question one, and question three asks for a final reason why innocent people go to prison, but this one is based on lawyers' performance.

First, students had the opportunity to read the questions and their options to answer. Next, they listened to the interview and answered the questions individually. Then, they joined their teams and I played the recording one more time, in order for them to compare, contrast and discuss their initial answers. After the interview was played a second time, students debated and answered the questions as a group in the IF-AT. Once they had answered the questions as a team and they had got their immediate feedback, I proceeded to the Application section of TBL. Here, I played the interview one last time to have students identify the problematic sections and learn what the words, chunks or phonemes were.

At this point students had been exposed to Metacognitive Strategies through the Metacognitive Supplement, and had put them into practice through the Metacognitive Template. The next and last phase offered them additional and free practice.

Phase 3 - Unit 5 - Etiquette (North Star 2) Contextualization - VLMPS and TBL

The third and last phase of this intervention was based on the topic of etiquette and manners. Once more, the presentation consisted, first, on eliciting students' prior knowledge of concepts, both in L1 and L2, which are part of the topic. Then, students had to learn about how etiquette and manners have changed over time in different cities and countries. Again, in this phase students needed to learn some new words to tackle the listening activities. The new words were: *manners, raised, courteous, treat, respect, rude, complaining, hold the door for (someone), pick (something) up for (someone), and drop (something) off.*

Once students were presented with those words, they needed to look at the cartoon (see Appendix 8) and answer two questions proposed by the textbook:

1. *What is happening?*
2. *Have you been in a similar situation?, what happened?, how did you feel?*

The objective of this short conversation students were proposed to have was to give them control over the new vocabulary to be prepared for the subsequent activities in the intervention.

VLMPs and TBL Roled Into One

In this phase, I decided to intertwine VLMPs and TBL, and I decided, based on ongoing observation in the previous cycles, to exclude the Metacognitive Template. I had two reasons for doing this.

First, students are not always going to have a metacognitive template at hand whenever they encounter listening situations and challenges, such as conversations, which they can probably solve by asking for repetition or clarification. Hence, the metacognitive template served as scaffolding to students throughout the previous phases, but what should remain onwards is the use of the four metacognitive stages: planning for the task, monitoring comprehension, evaluating approaches to listening, and solving problems.

Second, it is true students may not have many chances to listen several times to a radio show from a radio station, be it AM, FM or satellite radio, however now in the 21st Century people tend to obtain the information that interests them through streaming TV services such as Netflix and Hulu, websites such as YouTube and Vimeo, and podcasts from millions of sources on different topics, which they can rewind and listen to as many times as they wish. Thus, listeners and students can put the four metacognitive stages into practice, but they do not necessarily have to have a metacognitive template at hand to listen successfully.

Interestingly, students manifested to have felt a little discomfort and confusion because they had forgotten some of the steps in the metacognitive template. Therefore, I had to guide them through Phase 3.

RAT 3

Planning for the task - Planning and Predicting

Before students took the Individual RAT 3, I informed them about the listening they were going to work on. It was an interview with a woman, Sarah Jones, who conducted a survey about manners internationally, and that was all the information I gave them. I asked students to predict freely and individually what they would find in the interview. Again, they could include both words and complete ideas. I gave them five minutes to take notes on their notebooks about the predictions.

First Listen - Individual Listen

As in the previous two phases, in this first listen students compared what they heard with what they had predicted. Again, after this first listen, students proceeded to the monitoring and identification step, in which they verified their initial hypotheses, corrected what they needed to, and annotated what they had understood which was not predicted. The next step in VMPS was monitoring, evaluating and planning, for which students compared what they had understood with their TBL team, modified what they needed to, determined what they still needed to solve, and decided which important details still required solving.

RAT 3 – Individual

Based on the interview with Sarah Jones, students needed to answer individually a set of five questions, each with five different options to choose from. One question was about main ideas, other two questions were about details and the last two questions addressed decoding. Students could also compare and contrast their predictions with the options given

to answer the questions. This section provided monitoring and evaluating, and planning for the second listen.

Students listened to Sarah Jones's interview a second time, and afterwards they engaged in the problem solving step, in which they had the opportunity to address the differences and possible disagreements they encountered during the monitoring, evaluating and planning step, and thus they could prepare for the second listen with their teammates.

RAT 3 - Second Listen - Team Listen

In this stage, students had the opportunity to listen again and evaluate their previous assertions about the questions in the listening exercise. Teams scratched their answers on their IFATs instruments.

Application - Third Listen - Team Listen

Next, as I had done in phase 1, I had students participate in a class discussion in which all of them needed to contribute to reconstructing the main points and the details of the interview, as well as reflect on how they managed to come up with the meaning of certain words or parts of the text by addressing the factors they thought affected their listening comprehension for better or worse, and also how VLMPS and TBL had helped them tackle the exercise.

Finally, I showed students the interview transcript to clarify doubts and questions they might have had about main ideas, details and decoding.

Reflection and Goal-Setting

Again, in this stage, I had students write their goals for future listening exercises, based on what they learned about factors affecting listening comprehension and the metacognitive strategies they studied in the Metacognitive Listening Supplements, however, this time they did not do so in the Metacognitive Template, as they did not have any. They did it in their notebooks, so they could keep them for future reference.

POST INTERVENTION PHASE

ITDEM - Step 4 Evaluating it (actual research findings)

I evaluated the intervention of this study using a Listening Test, in order to assess the development of listening skills in the group, and thus find answers for the research question of this study. In addition, I considered important to evaluate the metacognitive awareness gains afterwards, too, so I had students take the MALQ questionnaire again. I will present the results of this evaluation in Chapter 4 - Results.

Team-Based Learning - Individual and Group Tests - Reading Assurance Tests.

In the study group, the RATs -individual and team tests- served to measure the development of the intended listening skills gradually, and the data yielded by those instruments will help to analyze the results of the Listening Post-Test in Chapter 5 - Discussions and Conclusion.

Listening Final Test

The Listening Final Test consisted in evaluating the same listening skills of the Listening diagnostic pre test, in order to compare it with such baseline, and thus analyze the gains of this intervention. It measures students' top-down and bottom-up listening skills. More specifically, comprehension of main ideas and details, and the degree to which they could decode, after the Metacognition and Team-Based Learning tasks. (See Appendix 25)

DATA SOURCES

This study is composed of secondary and primary sources. Secondary data, according to McKay (2006), is all data collected after “researchers examine what others have discovered about a particular topic”. McDonough and McDonough (1997) maintain that “the outcome of the research is the establishment, publicizing, or utilization of something that somebody—not the researcher or the person commissioning it—already knows” (p. 37). Examples of secondary data are the findings in literature reviews of peer-reviewed articles and academic books.

Primary data is knowledge no-one had before that responds to a question (McDonough and McDonough, 1997). It is collected through means and instruments of quantitative and qualitative data.

DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES

DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES - DIAGNOSTIC PHASE

These are the same instruments described in the Diagnostic phase section before (see Table 1.1). These data will be analyzed with the software SPSS by IBM to determine the Mean and the Standard Deviation of the Listening Diagnostic Test.

DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES – INTERVENTION

As for data collection procedures during the intervention, I decided to keep records of TBL's RATs, both individual tests and team tests (IFAT instruments), this way:

RATs

Phase 1: RAT 1 (See Appendix 9)

Phase 2: RAT 2 (See Appendix 10)

Phase 3: RAT 3 (See Appendix 11)

Observations: Audio Recordings of Interactions

The recorded team was Team 3. I selected this group because, before the intervention, I had noticed the students in this group were really committed to their English learning process, so I assumed they would be willing to discuss actively during the tasks.

I recorded one of the intra-team interactions of Team 3, in order to collect qualitative data to analyze and discuss the results of the Listening Final Test, and also to inform the conclusions of this study. I did the recordings by placing an iPhone 5 on one of

the students' desks during their entire interactions. Students used Spanish to discuss and answer the questions (see Appendix 26).

Log

I carried a log in which I took notes of the interactions among students within their teams, different from Team 3. The purpose of this carrying this log was to keep a record of events and how students displayed use of the metacognitive factors in their team interactions.

DATA COLLECTION – EVALUATION

I employed a variety of sources to give strength to findings. Consequently, for the evaluation, I collected one Listening Test per student and did one interview with each one of the five teams. Additionally, I had students take the MALQ once more, in order to see if there had been any gains in their metacognitive awareness.

Listening Final Test

The Listening Final Test serves to make a comparison with the Listening Diagnostic Pre Test, in order to compare students' performance on both tests, and thus helps to answer the research question: to what extent does the use of Vandergrift's Metacognitive Pedagogical Sequence on listening instruction, delivered through Michaelsen's Team-Based Learning methodology, affect beginner EFL learners' metacognitive awareness, their understanding of spoken main ideas and details, and their ability to decode phonemes? (see Appendix 25).

Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire MALQ – Survey

The MALQ, as discussed above, was assigned in order to collect data about their level of metacognitive awareness. (See Appendix 1)

Interviews

At the end of the intervention, I carried out interviews with the five (5) teams in order to find out about students' perceptions on the implementation. The interviews consisted on three open-ended questions to have students express their views and perceptions on the intervention. I recorded the interviews on an iPhone 5. The transcripts of those interviews can be found in Appendix 27.

Data Analysis

Regarding the quantitative data, the Listening Final Test, like the Diagnostic Test, will be analyzed with the SPSS software to measure the Mean and the Standard Deviation. The MALQs 1 and 2 will be analyzed with the STATGRAPH software to determine the same statistical variables.

In order to analyze the interviews, I will use the qualitative data analysis software Nvivo version 10 developed by QSR, in which I created a set of nodes/categories to classify the statements uttered by students.

For the Team 3 interactions, the nodes/categories are the five metacognitive factors addressed in the MALQ, as they are factors expected to be used when tackling listening activities.

For the Interviews, I used the same metacognitive factors in addition to other categories: benefits and disadvantages of individual tasks, team interactions, suggestions for improvement, positive and negative perceptions of the methodology, and evidence of learning under a socio constructive perspective under the node Socio Constructive learning. These categories cover the most likely set of responses given by students under the theoretical framework of this study, but other subcategories can emerge in order to elucidate the results.

Participants

The group was initially comprised of twenty one (21) students, female (6) and male (15), but the participants of this action research study were seventeen (17) students out of those twenty one (21). Four students voluntarily opted out of the study by not signing the informed consent. Consequently with the ethical considerations, they could not be participants in the study. All students were registered in the Level 1 of the English Language Program at Instituto de Idiomas at Universidad del Norte during the 201530 Academic Term. Students' ages ranged from 16 to 19 years, and their purpose to learn English is to become competitive workers in their own fields when they graduate from their respective undergraduate programs. The criteria used to select the students of this group as participants of this study is that they were members of one Level 1 group I was appointed as a teacher on the second semester of 2015.

ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Participants were informed about the class methodology, and were asked to participate voluntarily in this study, which implies opting out at any moment of the intervention. They manifested their disposition to participate in the study by signing a document drafted by Oficina Jurídica, which grants the researcher and the university permission to analyze and publish the results, nonetheless withholding the participants' identities. See Appendix 28.

Limitations of this Study

As can be expected from any research design, there are some limitations that are worth mentioning. Norton maintains: “to look at our own teaching and facilitating student learning, however honest we are with ourselves, does pose limitations” (Norton, L. 2009, p. 33).

The first and perhaps most important limitation of this study is the challenges in designing this sort of blended pedagogical methodology such as the one that pertains this study (TBL + VLMPS). Even though I had applied and intervened two previous classes before this one with TBL (Rosado, N. & Gallego, J., forthcoming), this study sees my first time implementing VLMPS. I am aware of and take responsibility for any flaws which might have occurred during this intervention, in spite of having followed strictly the recommendations of both experts, Larry Michaelsen and Larry Vandergrift, in both methodologies after personal interviews and workshops in 2014 with both of them.

The second limitation I considered from the very beginning of the research design was the time I had to carry it out. As I mentioned above, I intervened the Level 1 group with these pedagogical methodologies during two (2) months. This was because the English

Language Program at Instituto de Idiomas at Universidad del Norte is a skills-based program, which focuses on the development of the reading and writing skills for the first two months of the academic period or semester, and the remaining two months are devoted to developing listening and speaking skills. Therefore, the answer to the research question will be framed within these two (2) months.

The third limitation to this study was the students' apparent lack of commitment to learning English. Sometimes students arrived late to class so they could not take part in the individual RATs and, as Michaelsen et al. (2008) recommends, students who do not take part in the individual test should not take part in the team test either. Michaelsen et al. (2008, p. 6) hold that under TBL "students learn quickly that their grades as individuals in the course are derived from how well they prepare for TBL sessions (individual Readiness Assurance Test), how well they relate to their team members and contribute to their team's productivity (peer evaluation), how well they as team members can demonstrate their collective preparation (group Readiness Assurance Test), and how well they collaborate as team members to apply their knowledge to solve difficult problems (group application exercise)".

This is reflected in the lack of information of some RATs questions, which I will present in Chapter 4 - Results. Oftentimes, students did not come to class at all, which on top of the short time to implement the intervention, affected students by depriving them of valuable time to practice the metacognitive strategies and hence to benefit from the TBL and the VLMPS.

In addition, all students are taking this English class as a university's requirement to graduate from their undergraduate programs, which might enhance extrinsic motivation, but not contribute much to intrinsic motivation.

ITDEM - Step 5 Modifying future practice.

This step corresponds to the last chapter in this thesis (CHAPTER 5 - DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS), in which I will discuss the findings and results of CHAPTER 4 - RESULTS, and I will also address how I plan to modify future practice, based on the results.

In the next chapter, Chapter 4 - Results, I will present and analyze the results obtained from the data collection instruments applied in the three (3) aforementioned intervention phases, and I will discuss and draw conclusions from them in the last chapter, Chapter 5 - Discussions and Conclusions.

CHAPTER 4 - RESULTS

ITDEM - Step 4 Evaluating it (actual research findings)

In this section, I will present and analyze the results obtained from the data collection instruments I described in detail in the methodology section of this study (Chapter 3). In Chapter 5 - Discussion and Conclusions, I will discuss them under the light of the theories I have presented in the theoretical framework of this study (Chapter 2).

I will present these results in the same order of the intervention phases I described in Chapter 3 - Methodology. First, I will describe the data collected from the instruments applied in Phase 1, Phase 2 and Phase 3 of this study. Then, I will compare the results of both the Listening Diagnostic and Final Tests, and the MALQ 1 and 2 instruments. Finally, I will provide a statistical analysis, which will help to visualize details and perhaps interesting findings of this study. In turn, they will enrich the discussion and conclusions in Chapter 5.

In order to comply with ethical considerations and the informed consent requirements of anonymity and protection of personal data of Universidad del Norte, I will refer to students using the word Student and identifying numbers for each, thus: Student 1, Student 2, Student 3, and so on up to Student 17, wherever such necessity arises.

At this point, it is important to revisit the objectives of this study: to tackle the need to improve beginner students of English as a Foreign Language through metacognitive instruction, under a socio-constructivist approach to learning, and using a Team-Based Learning methodology, and thus determining whether Vandergrift's listening metacognitive

pedagogical sequence affects positively beginner EFL learners' development of listening skills.

Intervention Phase

As I mentioned in the Methodology (Chapter 3), the Intervention Phase was comprised of Vandergrift's Metacognitive Listening Sequence and Team-Based Learning, which appeared during the three phases of the intervention. Here I will report the results in average obtained by students in those three phases.

Phase 1.

Phase one objectives consisted in raising students' awareness of metacognition and enabling them to use metacognitive strategies before, while and after listening. Phase 1 instructed students in the factors affecting their listening comprehension and permitted them to practice content language and listening exercises. This phase was organized in two moments: Team-Based Learning implementation, and metacognitive instruction through the Metacognitive Listening Supplement - Part 1 (See Appendix 3). Here I will present the scores of the RATs adjusted to a scale of 0.0 to 5.0. In the RAT 1 Individual Test, students obtained an average score of 3.1, while in the Team Test, students obtained an average score of 4.8 (see Appendix 9).

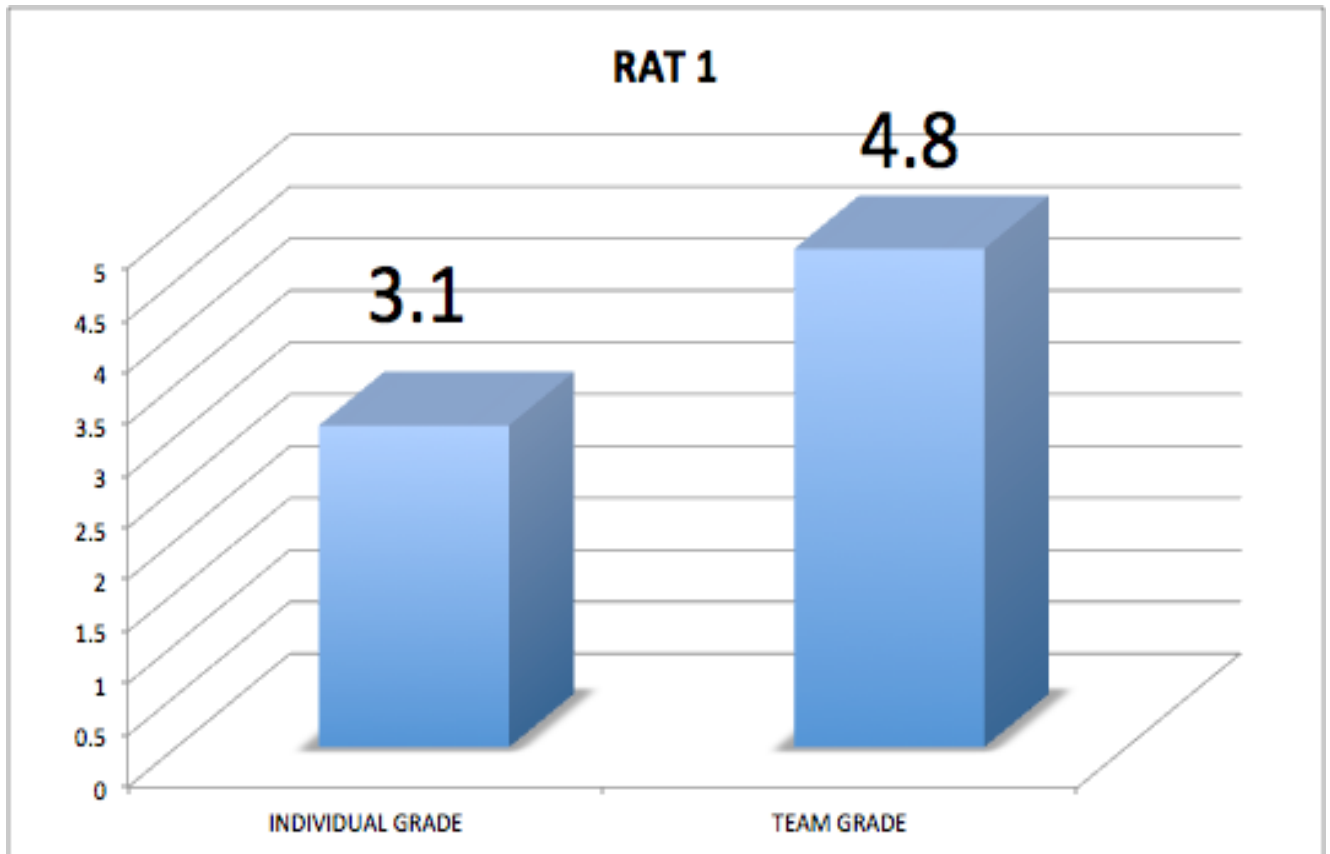


Figure 4: RAT 1 Individual and team grades.

Phase 2

Phase 2 instructed students on the metacognitive strategies to listening and on the steps of VLMPS through the Metacognitive Listening Supplement - Part 2. In Phase 2, I introduced the Metacognitive Template, and like the previous stage, it was organized in two moments: first VLMPS and then TBL. In the Individual Test, students obtained an average score of 2.0, while in the Team Test, students obtained an average score of 4.5 (see Appendix 10)

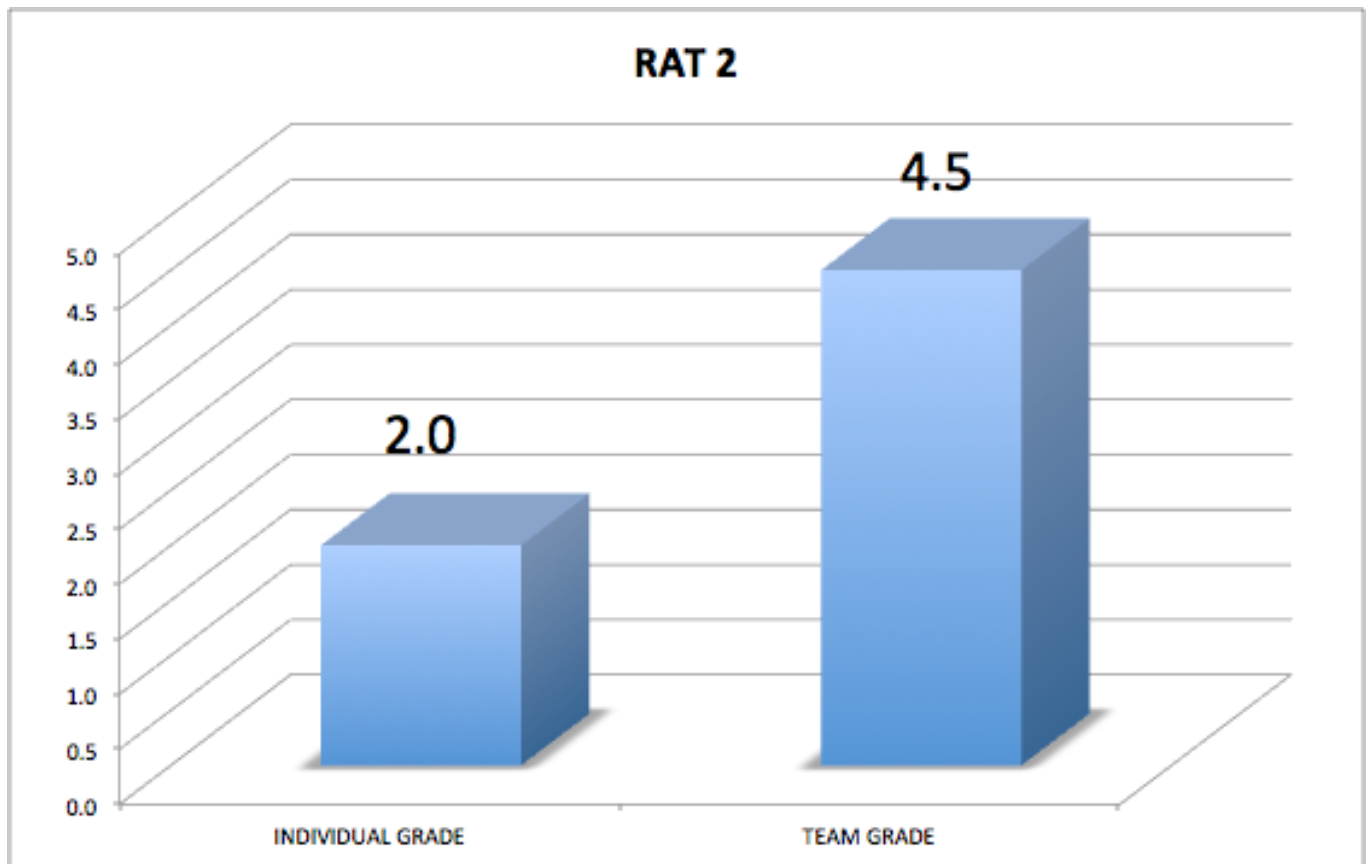


Figure 5: RAT 2 Individual and team grades.

Phase 3

In Phase 3, I interwove VLMPS and TBL along the instruction. This third phase gave students the opportunity to apply and practice freely the metacognitive strategies learned from the metacognitive listening supplement, without using the Metacognitive Template. In the Individual Test, students obtained an average score of 2.4 while in the Team Test, students obtained an average score of 4.4 (see Appendix 11).

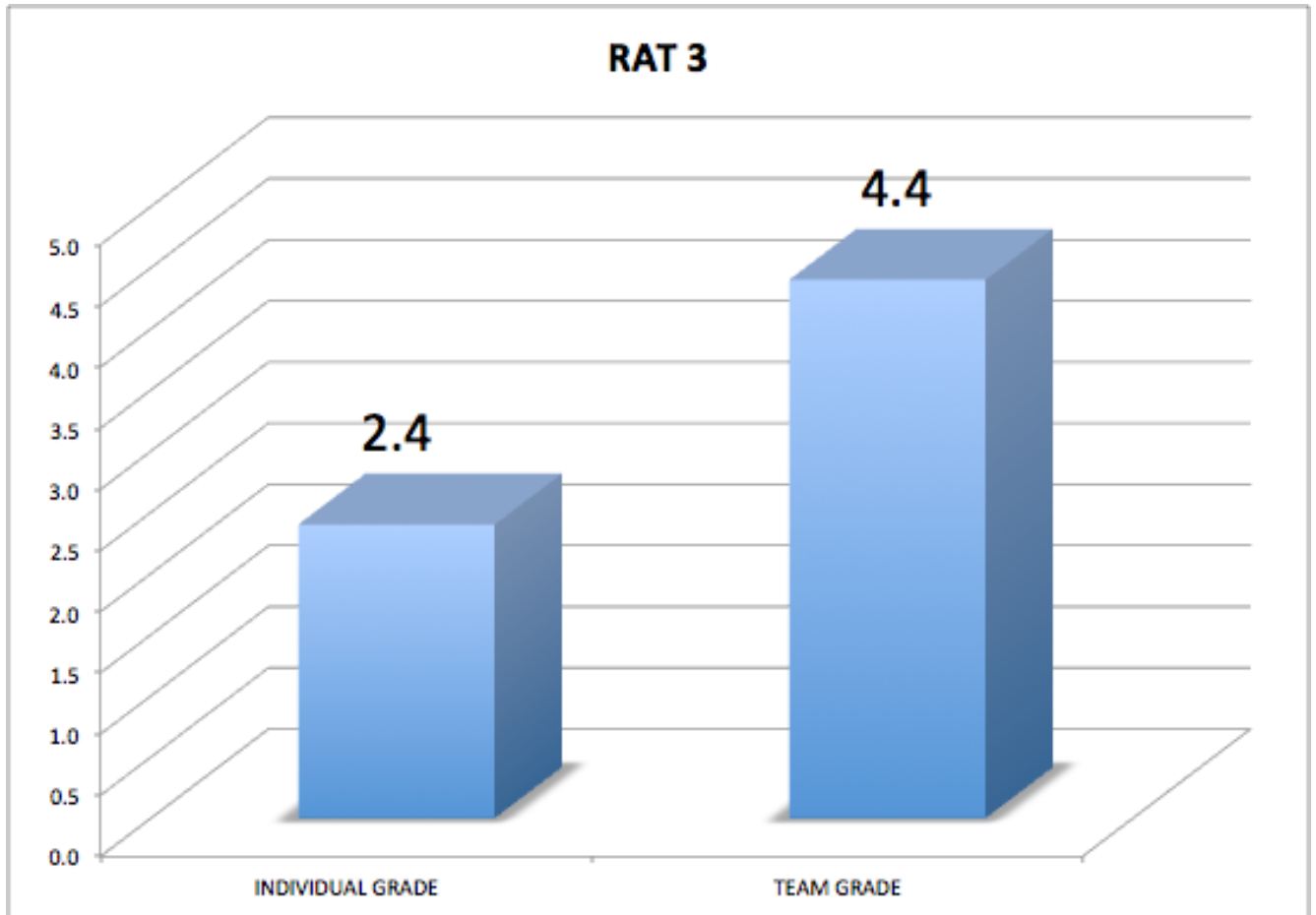


Figure 6: RAT 3 Individual and team grades.

Teams Average Performance

In this section, I will present the average intra-team performance for each team by comparing individual results of students taking RATs 1, 2 and 3 with the Team performance in the same tests.

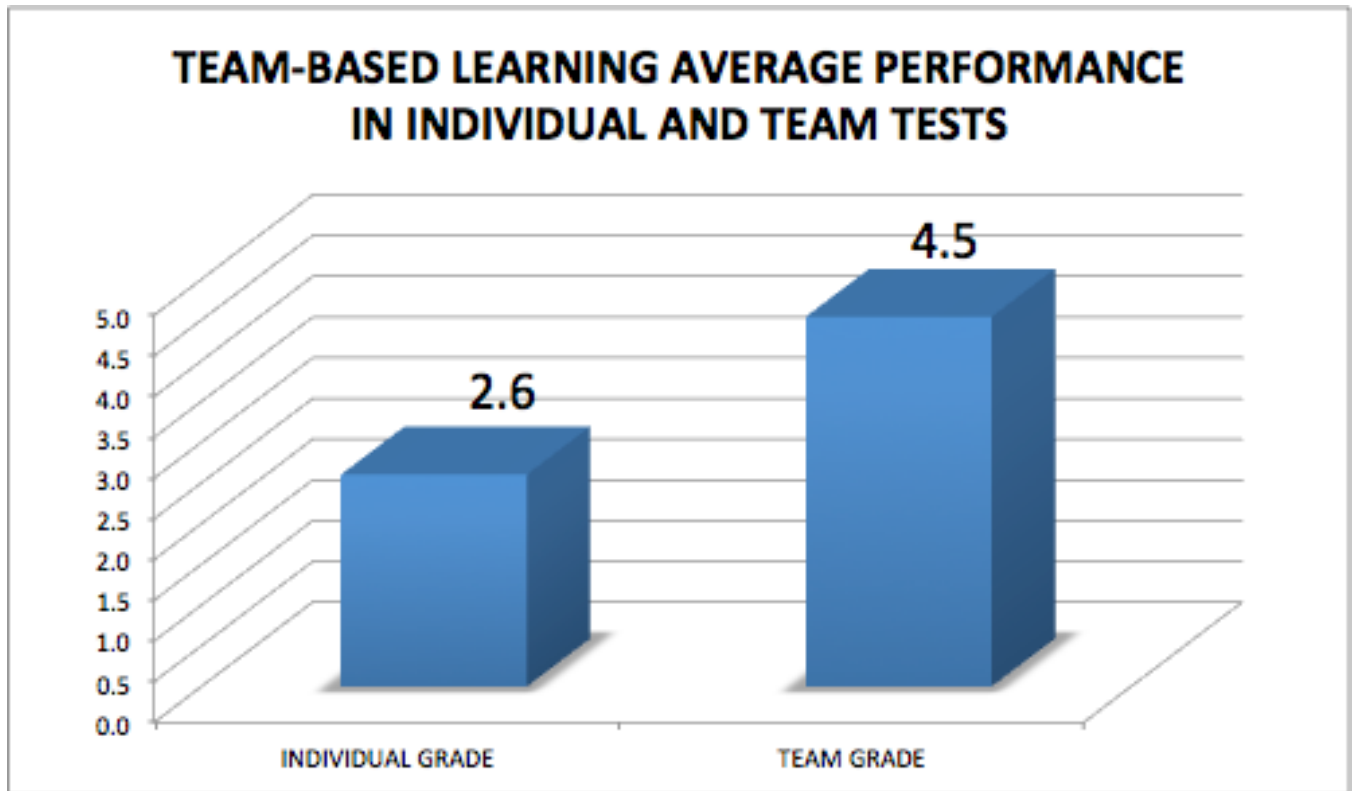


Figure 7: Team-Based Learning average performance in individual and team tests.

The Team-Based Learning methodology results suggest how the intervention results of team performance are always higher than individual performance (Michaelsen, 2007).

TEAM 1 AVERAGE PERFORMANCE

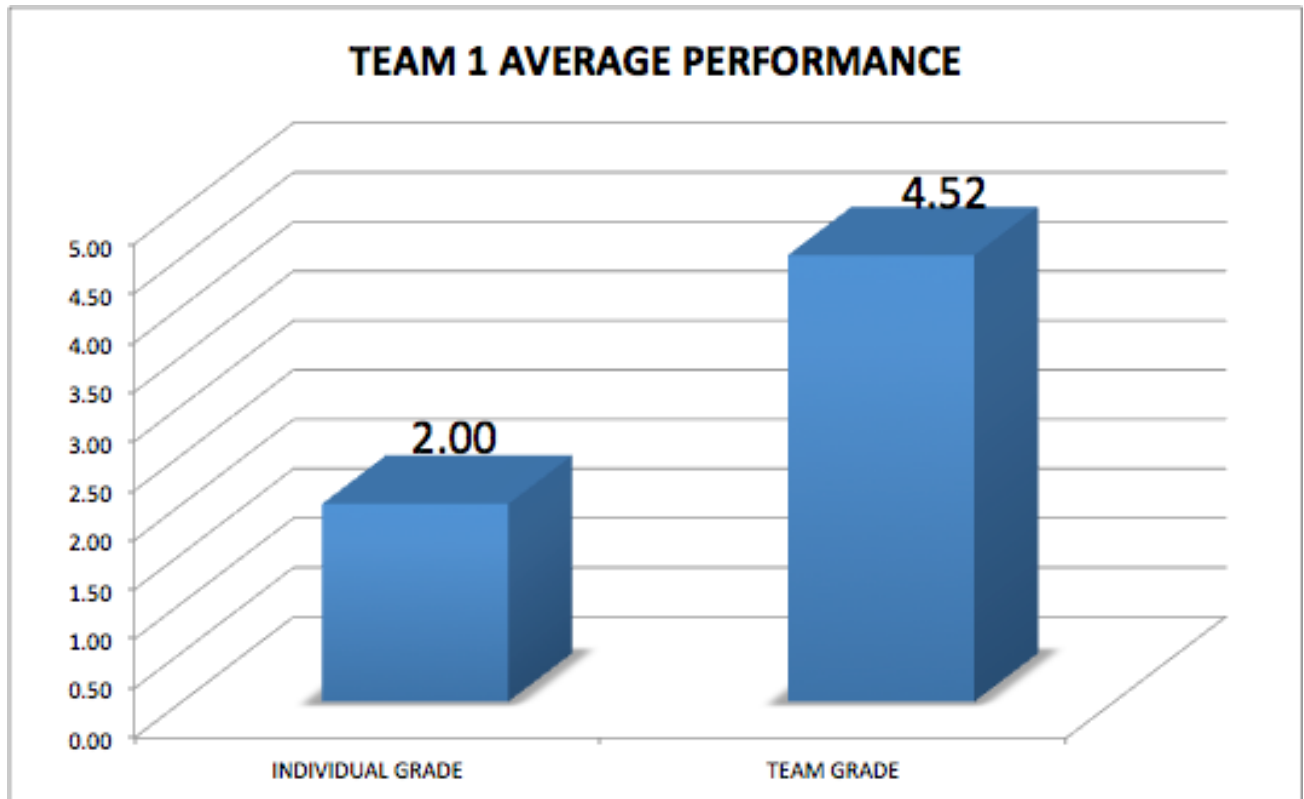


Figure 8: Team 1 average performance.

Team 1 showed a difference in individual and team performance of 125%.

TEAM 2 AVERAGE PERFORMANCE

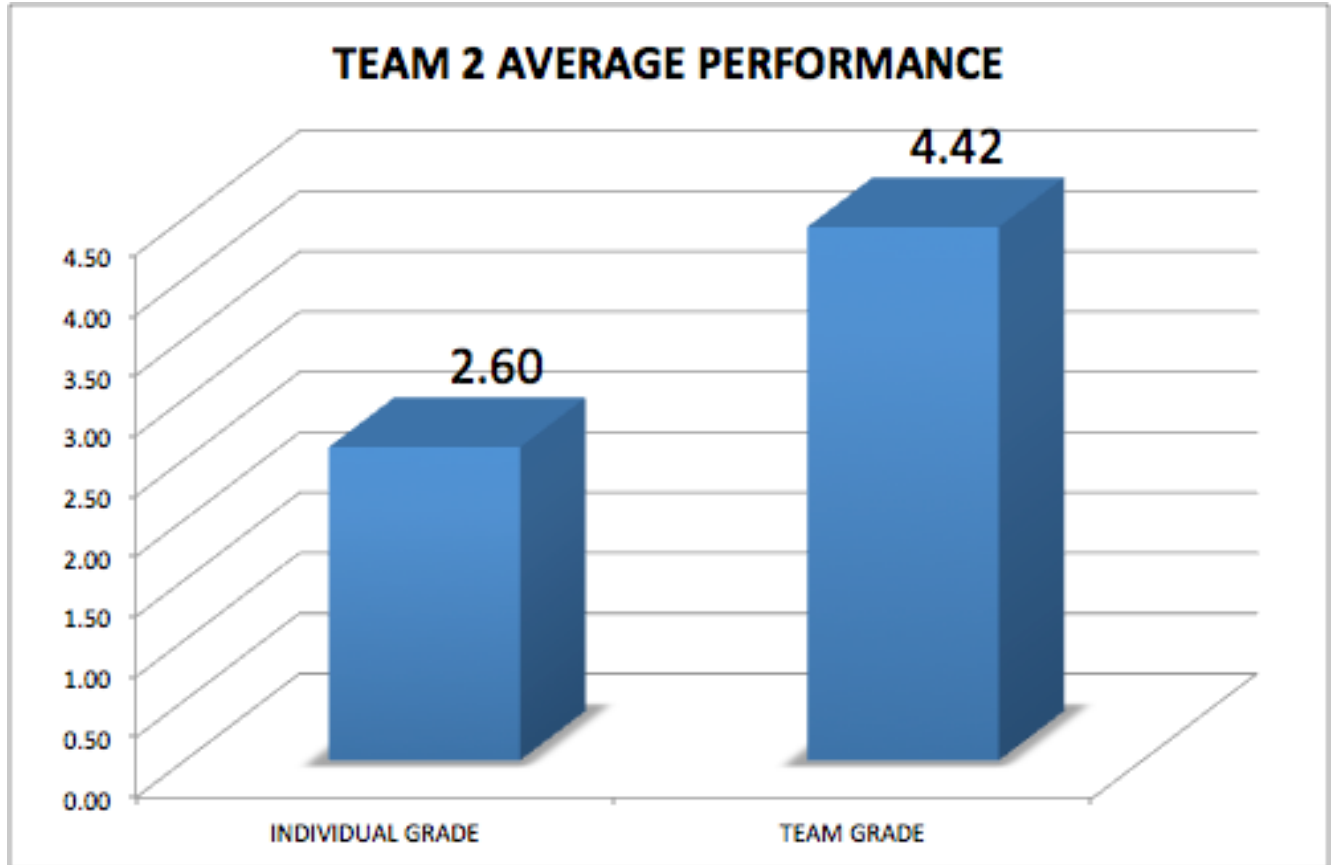


Figure 9: Team 2 average performance

Team 2 showed a difference in individual and team performance of 170%.

TEAM 3 AVERAGE PERFORMANCE

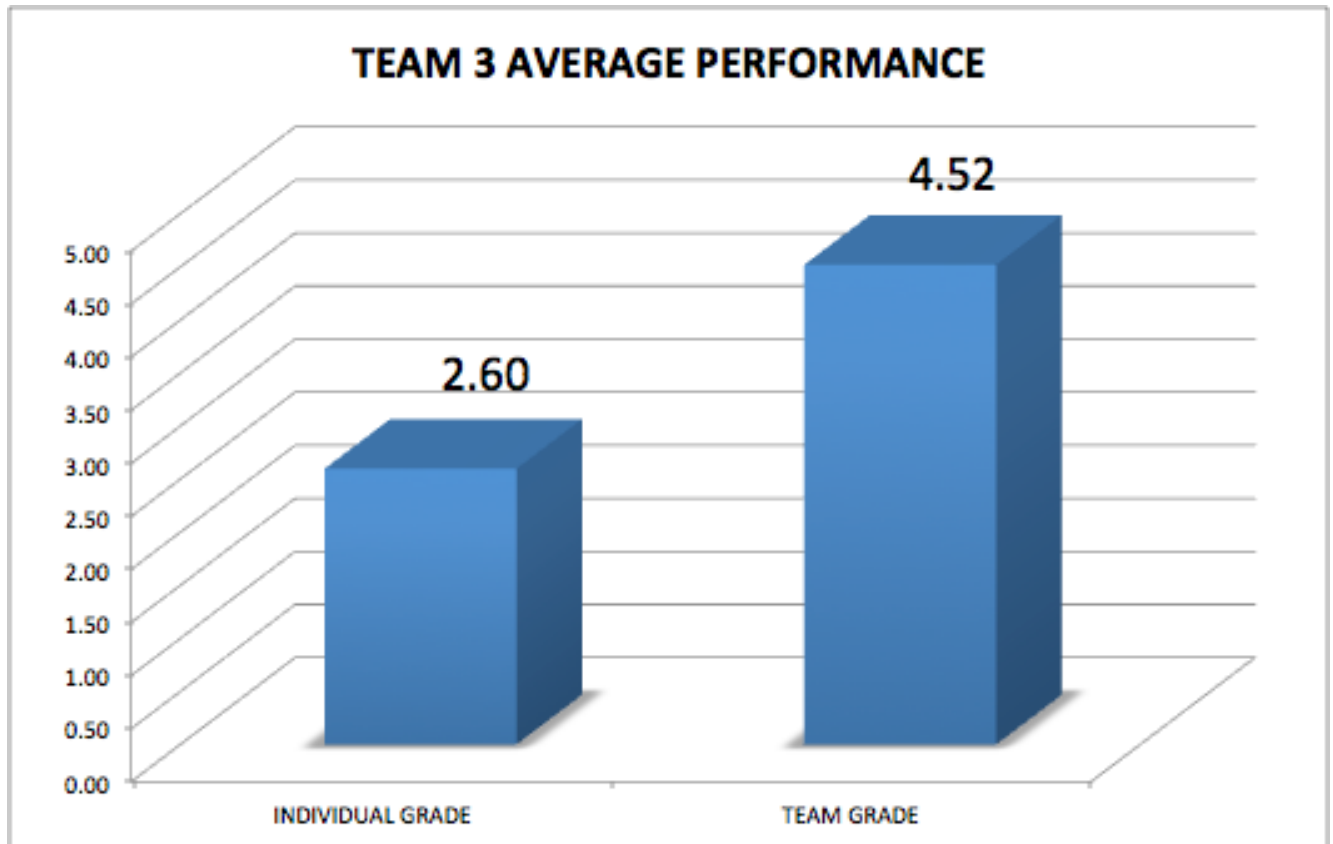


Figure 10: Team 3 average performance

Team 3 showed a difference in individual and team performance of 174%.

TEAM 4 AVERAGE PERFORMANCE

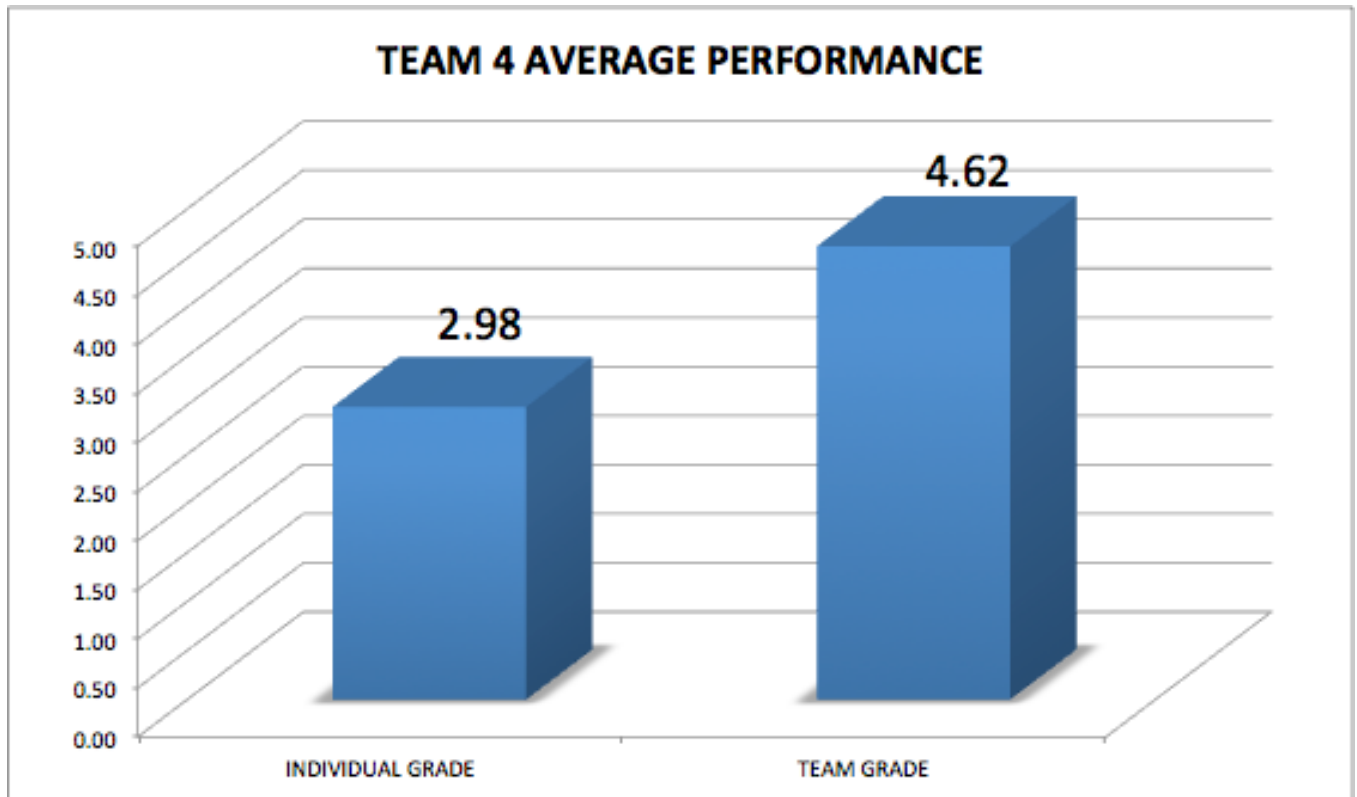


Figure 11: Team 4 average performance

Team 4 showed a difference in individual and team performance of 155%.

TEAM 5 AVERAGE PERFORMANCE

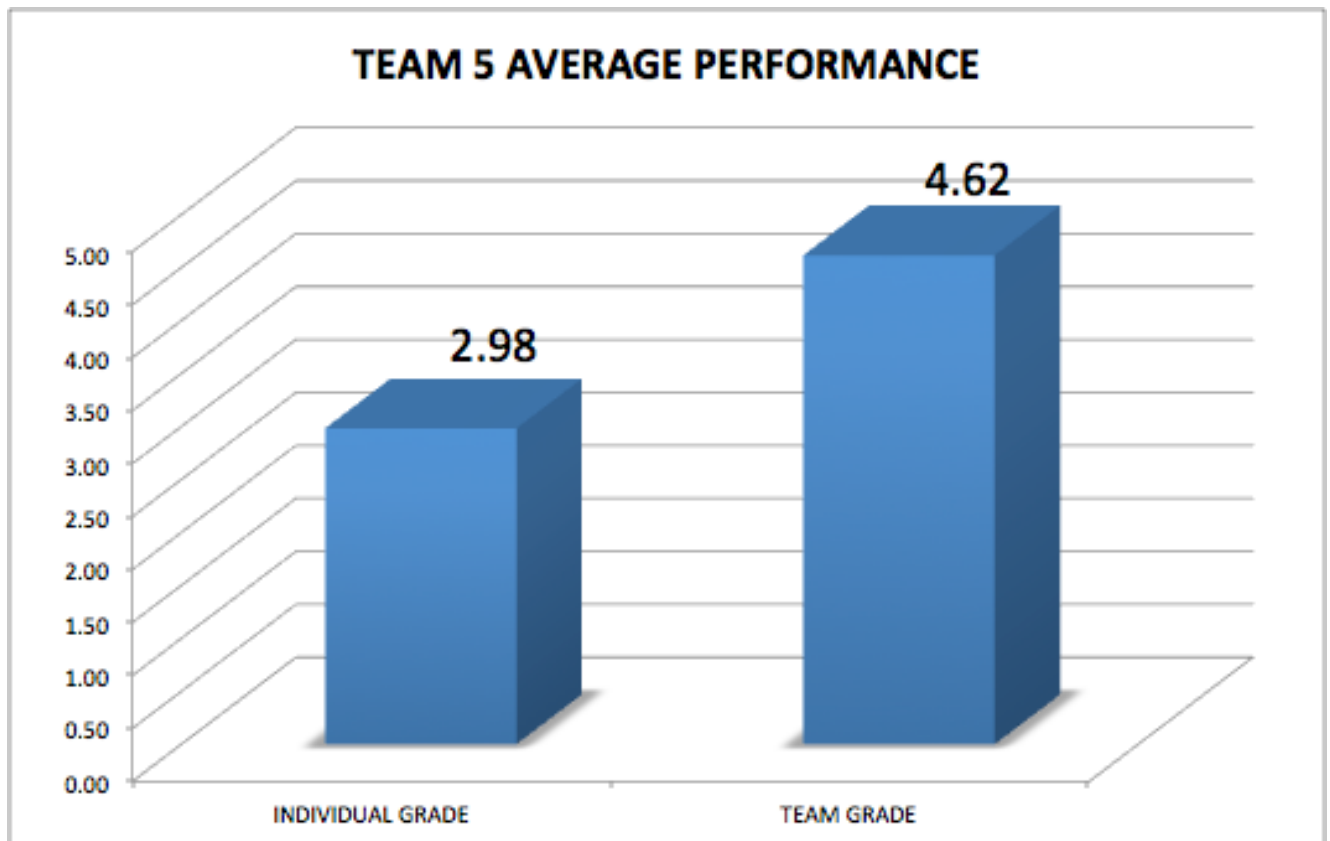


Figure 12: Team 5 average performance.

Team 5 showed a difference in individual and team performance of 125%.

The team with the possible highest gain in learning was Team 3, with a gain of 174% from individual to team tests.

Post Intervention / Evaluation Phase - Results

MALQ 1 VS. MALQ 2 – Results

The purpose of applying the MALQ questionnaire once more at the end of the intervention was to determine whether the methodological design implemented through the merging of

VLMPS and TBL had had an impact on students' metacognitive awareness (see Appendix 1)

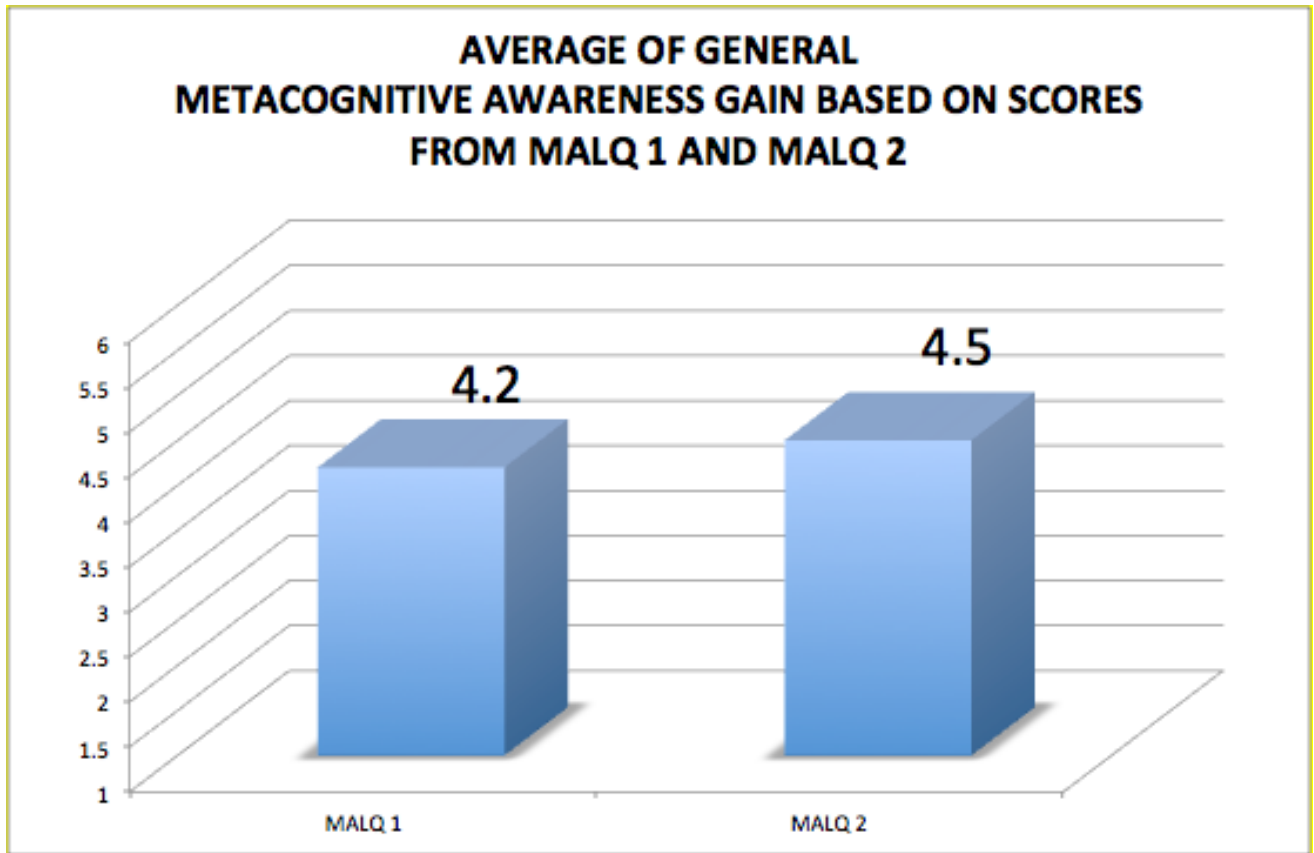


Figure 13. Metacognitive awareness gain based on scores from MALQ 1 and MALQ 2.

The graph shows that the average score obtained by students in the MALQ 2 was 4.5. This is a higher result than the one obtained in MALQ 1, which was 4.2. This finding represents an increase of **7%** in terms of average general metacognitive awareness gain in the students.

Concerning the five metacognitive factors pertaining the MALQ, the graph below shows the changes from MALQ 1 to MALQ 2.

MALQ 1 VS. MALQ 2 - METACOGNITIVE FACTORS

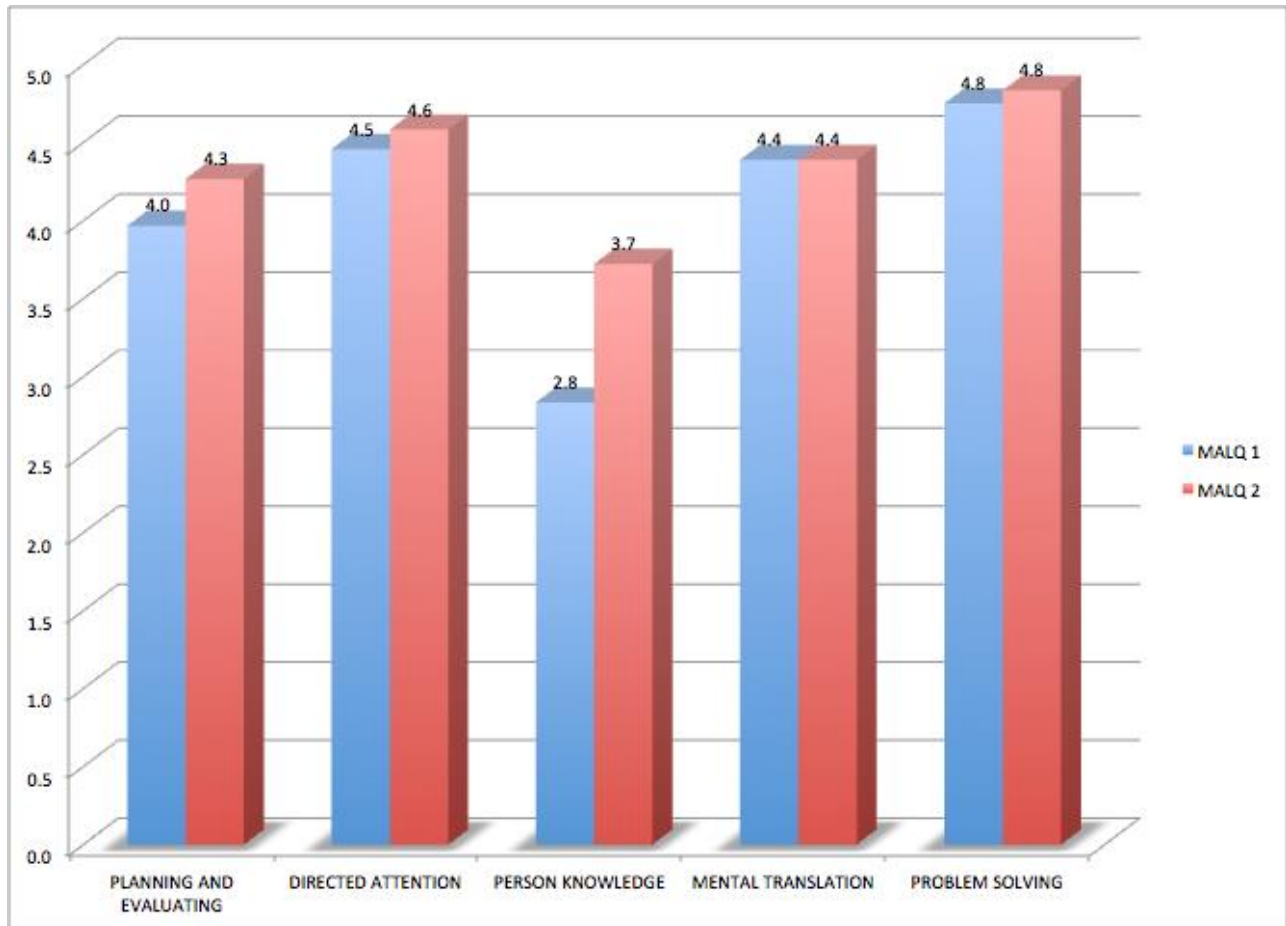


Figure 14. MALQ 1 vs. MALQ 2-Metacognitive factors

In terms of Planning and Evaluating awareness, students' responses showed a gain of 7% from MALQ 1 to MALQ 2. Regarding Directed Attention, students' awareness seem to have grown 2%. As for Person Knowledge, students' responses show a gain of 24%. Mental Translation and Problem Solving remained steady, at 4.4 and 4.8 respectively.

Listening Diagnostic Test Vs. Final-Test – Results

The Listening Final Test intended to help answer the Research Question that guides this study by showing students' development of their listening skills through the use of Vandergrift's Metacognitive Pedagogical Cycle and Team-Based Learning, and accordingly to the methodology used and the Listening Diagnostic Test. It aimed to identify top-down information, such as main ideas, some of its details, and their bottom-up understanding skills, or decoding. Here I will present the results of each component of the Listening Final Test in a scale of 0.0 to 5.0, in which 0.0 corresponds to no attempts to answer the questions, and 5.0 corresponds to answering them all correctly. For detailed scores, see Appendices 16:20.

Listening Skills Variation between Diagnostic and Final Tests

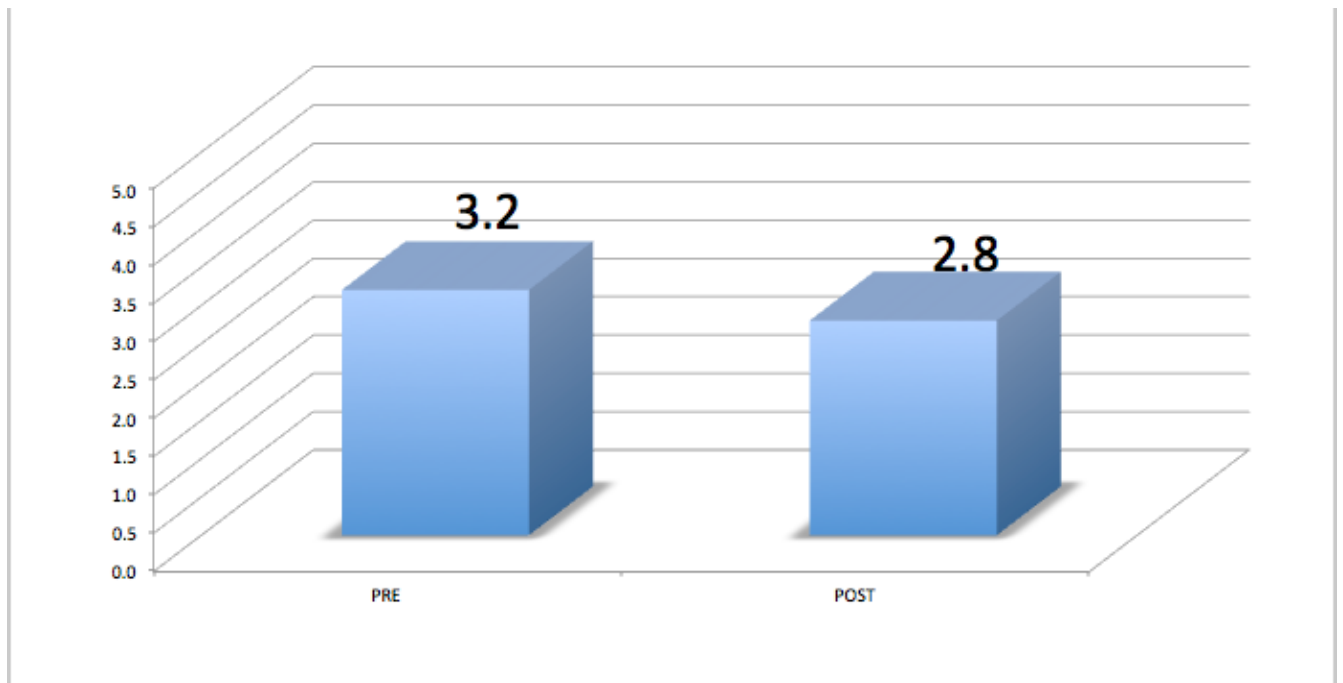


Figure 15. Listening skills variation between diagnostic and final test

In average, the Listening Final Test responses show a decrease of 12.5% in students' listening sub-skills performance.

Main Ideas - Diagnostic Test vs. Final-Test – Results

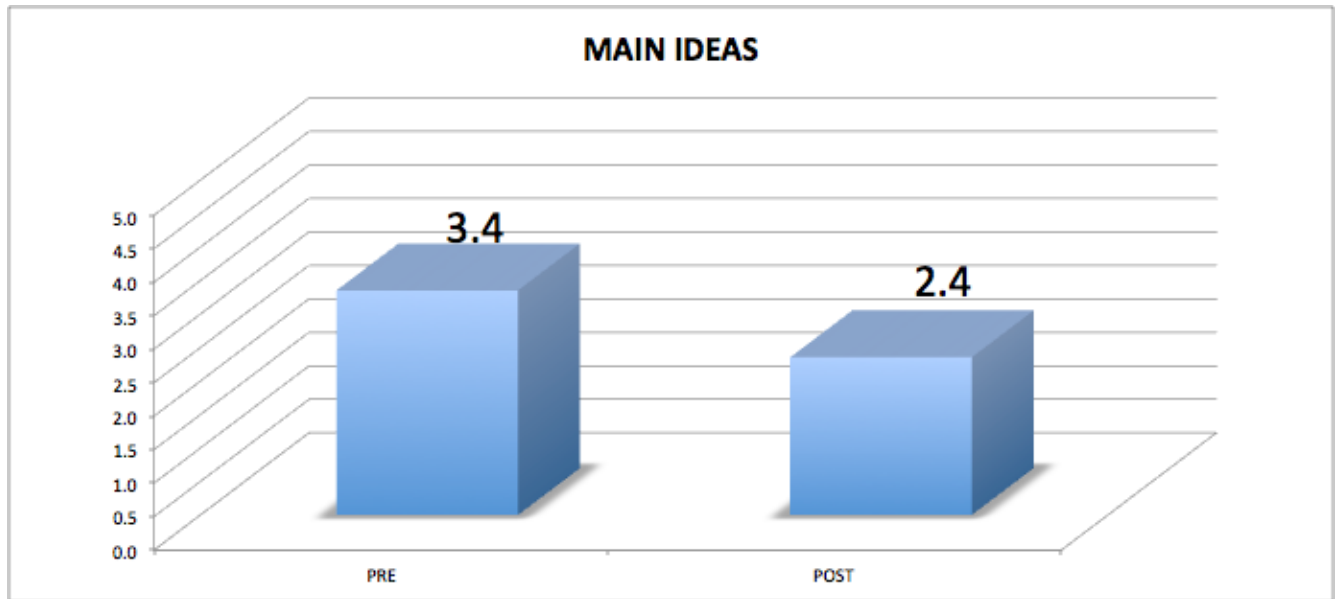


Figure 16. Diagnostic and Final Tests.

The Listening Final Test responses show an average decrease of 29% in students' test performance for understanding of Main Ideas.

Details - Final Test – Results

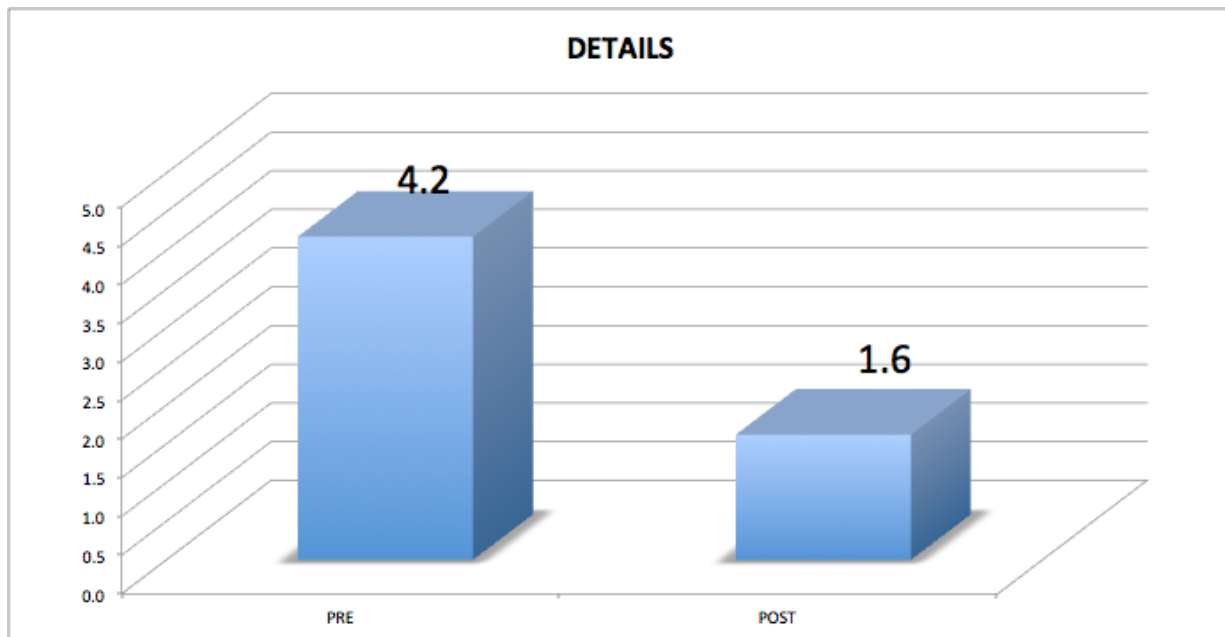


Figure 27. Details- final test- results

The Listening Final Test responses show an average decrease of 61% in students' performance for understanding of Details.

3.2.3. Decoding - Final-Test – Results

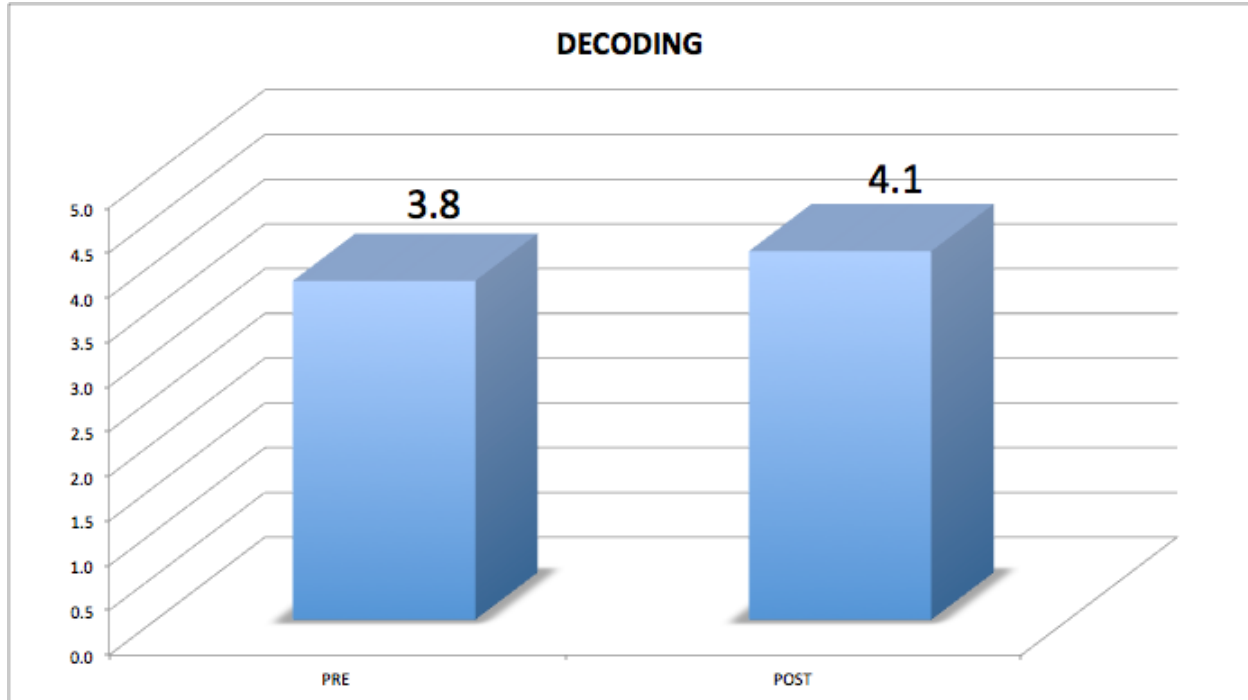


Figure 18. Decoding- Final test- results

The Listening Final Test responses show an average growth of 7% in students' performance to decode phonemes.

Data Analysis

Quantitative Data

As support to the results, I will present a statistical analysis based on Mean and Standard Deviation, for which I used the statistics software SPSS Statistics - Version 23, developed by IBM to analyze the three listening sub-skills that pertain this study. First, I compared the paired samples statistics of the Listening Diagnostic Test and the Listening Final Test. Later, I compared metacognitive awareness data (MALQ) using the software Statgraph. The paired samples of this analysis include a comparison of the mean, the standard deviation, and the standard error mean.

Table 3

Results Diagnostic test - Final test.

	DIAGNOSTIC		FINAL TEST	
	MEAN	SD*	MEAN	SD*
OVERALL	3.2	0.413	2.8	0.761
MAIN IDEAS	3.3	0.862	2.3	2.572
DETAILS	4.2	1.014	1.6	1.061
DECODING	3.8	0.869	4.1	1.288

The Standard Deviation for the Overall Listening Pre Test is low (0,41270), which means that the results of such test are close to the mean. In other words, students' results in general were close to the 3,2, across the three listening sub-skills whereas the standard deviation in the Listening Final Test was high (0,76167), which means that many students' results were different from the mean result (2,84). Such difference in the standard deviation between the two tests justifies carrying out an analysis of students' performance in the three components in both tests, in order to identify possible findings and implications after the intervention.

Main Ideas – Analysis

There is an important difference between the Means of both the Diagnostic test and Final test in the Main Ideas component (Pre Test: 3.3 – Post Test: 2.3). For the Diagnostic test, the Standard Deviation is high (0.862), which means that even though students seem to have performed well in the Diagnostic test, there were many students whose scores were

below and above 3.3. In other words, students started the intervention at different levels of understanding of Main Ideas.

The Standard Deviation of the Main Ideas in the Post Test section was higher than it was in the Diagnostic Test (2.572), which can be interpreted as the intervention having yielded mixed results in terms of Main Ideas development. Simply put, a few students are likely to have benefited more than the majority.

Details – Analysis

Details is the section that at first sight seems to have suffered an important detriment in the Mean, and therefore students performance (Diagnostic test= 4.2 and Final test= 1.6).

Interestingly, in both tests the Standard Deviation is high, yet not very different from one another (Diagnostic Test 1.014 and Final Test 1.061). Thus, students started the intervention with different degree of development of understanding Details, as was the case of Main Ideas. However, the degree of skill development in terms of Detail understanding was not as dissimilar as it was in Main Ideas.

It could be said that the intervention did not yield positive results in terms of understanding of details. Nevertheless, such high Standard Deviations show mixed results once more. Some students apparently did benefit from the intervention while the majority likely did not.

Decoding – Analysis

This is the area that apparently benefitted from the intervention. The Diagnostic test Average was 3.8 and the Post test Mean was 4.1, which are positive scores, and both Standard Deviations were high (0.869 and 1.288, respectively). This means that students

started and ended the intervention with differences in their ability to decode. However, the Standard Deviation was much higher in the Final test than in the Diagnostic test, which can be interpreted as some students having clearly obtained higher scores than the mean, while others obtained lower scores.

MALQ

These results were analyzed with the Statgraphs software.

Table 4

Results Diagnostic test - Final test.

	MALQ 1	SD	MALQ 2	SD
PLANNING AND EVALUATING	4.0	0.321	4.3	0.548
DIRECTED ATTENTION	4.5	0.567	4.6	0.726
PERSON KNOWLEDGE	2.8	1.167	3.7	0.977
MENTAL TRANSLATION	4.4	0.255	4.4	0.255
PROBLEM SOLVING	4.8	0.274	4.8	0.544

Regarding the MALQs results, Planning and Evaluating, and Directed Attention, increased both in terms of the Average and the Standard Deviation, which could be interpreted as few students having benefited from the intervention in terms of both metacognitive domains.

As for Person Knowledge, this domain presents the most positive results since its average score increased after the intervention from 2.8 to 3.7, going from a below passing score to a passing one, and the Standard Deviation decreased from 1.167 to 0.977. This implies that students in general raised their awareness of the role Person Knowledge can play in approaching listening successfully.

Finally, Mental Translation and Problem Solving average scores remained steady in both MALQs. Interestingly though, is that Problem Solving's Standard Deviation grew (0.274 to 0.544). This could mean that students' might have had some latent ideas about how to solve problems while and after listening, but after the intervention they might not have felt sure about these.

Qualitative Data

The qualitative information collected for this study is derived from Team 3 interactions and the post-intervention Interviews. In order to analyze this information, I used the *Nvivo* software, *version 10*, developed by QSR. I assigned node categories to the MALQ's metacognitive factors in order to analyze the Team 3 interactions during the three phases, which I chose at random to record.

Intra-team Interactions

The metacognitive factors that were evident in the intra-team interactions were Directed Attention, Mental Translation, Planning and Evaluating, and Problem Solving. Interestingly, Person Knowledge was not evident in the intra-team interactions. Mental Translation yielded the highest coverage percentage with a 96,5% of occurrence, which

means it was always present during all the interactions, as students solely relied on Spanish to discuss their answers as a team (see Appendix 26). These are some of the instances in which it was evident:

Reference 1 - Frequency 96,48%

Estudiante 1: “Entonces, ¿Cuál fue la respuesta que pusieron en el punto uno?”

Estudiante 2: “Yo el primer punto escogí la a, pero en realidad no, ósea esa la cogí como por descarte, porque no entendí nada de lo que decía”

Estudiante 3: “Yo escogí la a, la puse como... Más bien ¿Cuál pusieron ustedes primero cuando tenían que poner, ósea cuando tenían que predecir?”

Such interactions evidence the use of Spanish at all times, which indicates the permanent use of Mental Translation as one of the Metacognitive Factors expected to be found in accordance to the theoretical framework.

The following are some instances in which Planning and Evaluating was evident in the interactions:

Reference 1 - Frequency 2,80%

“Yo escogí la a, la puse como... Más bien ¿Cuál pusieron ustedes primero cuando tenían que poner, ósea cuando tenían que predecir?”

This instance shows a student inquiring about predictions and decisions made by the other team members based on such. Therefore, this is evidence of metacognitive awareness gains. Again, Mental Translation is present, as can be evidenced from the use of Spanish in the discussion.

Reference 2 - Frequency 4,17%

Estudiante 3: “Aja, eso fue lo que escuche allí varias veces, bueno en realidad corregí porque había puesto mal, pero me di cuenta que en realidad era porque los abogados hacen un mal trabajo”

Here it is evident how students evaluate their choices, which indicates how Planning and Evaluating as a metacognitive factor plays a role in the discussion. Once more, Mental Translation is present, as can be evidenced from the use of Spanish in the discussion.

Reference 3 - Frequency 5,41%

Estudiante 2: *“Ósea si, en realidad no dijo, yo también estaba pensando en la c cuando ella dijo esta parte, de que los testigos no recuerdan. Ósea nada más escuchaba esta parte”*

Estudiante 1: *“Tal vez no lo dijo explícitamente, pero no se tal vez”*

In this sample, students seem to be evaluating the information they understood based on the explicitness or lack thereof from the listening input, which gives additional support to the gains in Planning and Evaluating as part of their metacognitive awareness. Again, Mental Translation is present, as can be evidenced from the use of Spanish in the discussion.

The following are some instances in which Problem-Solving was evident:

Reference 1 - Frequency 3,65%

“Yo puse la a, porque por lo general, eso por mucho que la lectura la cambien, eso es lo que se ve en realidad aquí. Se cambia siempre, compran a los, no se esa vaina...”

In this instance, a student is solving comprehension problems by using previous knowledge, which even though is limited to his or her sociocultural background, shows the use of Problem Solving as a metacognitive factor, thus showing increase in metacognitive awareness. Again, Mental Translation is present, as can be evidenced from the use of Spanish in the discussion.

Reference 2 - Frequency 20,23%

Estudiante 3: “Yo lo pensé, pero no sé, después vi que aquí decía que por corrupción pero en realidad allí en ninguna parte decía que le pagaran a ninguno de los testigos, ni nada de eso. Yo solamente leí, escuche pues, que la gente a veces no se acordaba bien, ósea creía que había visto a alguien, pero en realidad no era eso. Entonces, si estarían bien los errores (mistakes), pero corrupción no me convenció, por eso fue que puse que una razón era que los testigos no podían recordar bien”

Estudiante 2: “No recuerdan bien?”

Estudiante 1: “Tú también decidiste eso, por lo tanto yo estoy de acuerdo con...”

Estudiante 2: “No, ósea yo decidí fue la a”

Estudiante 3: “La a?”

Estudiante 2: “Que es porque una razón los testigos son corruptos”

Estudiante 3: “En realidad yo puse la c. La otra, Otra razón porque los inocentes van a la cárcel según Laura Cheng? y yo puse que las confesiones son falsas y errores policíacos”

Reference 3 - Frequency 14,45%

Yo puse está, pero porque escuche exactamente la misma frase”

Estudiante 3: “Si es que eso lo dijeron, estaban hablando que los testigos se veían obligados a responder, ósea como los presionaban la policía, ellos pensaban que le iban a echar la culpa a ellos, o algo así, entonces decían así cualquier persona allí”

Estudiante 2: “Entonces otra razón de porque las personas inocentes iban a prisión es porque dices tú?”

Estudiante 3: “Porque la confesión es falsa y errores policíacos”

Estudiante 1: “Si, yo también estoy de acuerdo con este man”

Estudiante 2: Bueno vamos al 6, no al 7, al 7 porque el 6 todavía lo tenemos como pendiente, es la b? bueno el b.

In Reference 2 and Reference 3, we could see three students discussing the choice of one answer from the IFAT instrument by analyzing the given options and their understanding. Interestingly, this reflects Problem Solving because of the argumentation presented by students 3 and 2, in addition to individual differences in comprehension, something which is in accordance with the intricacies of the listening and comprehension processes described in the theoretical framework. Again, Mental Translation is present, as can be evidenced from the use of Spanish in the discussion.

Reference 4 - Frequency 10,30%

Las dos veces que yo escuché esto, decía esto es una razón por la que es por eso”

Estudiante 1: *“Es la a”*

Estudiante 3: *“Bueno entonces nos decidimos por la a, en la 6 cuál es?”*

Estudiante 2: *“Tú tienes la?”*

Estudiante 3: *“La c”*

Estudiante 2: *“Tú tienes la?”*

Estudiante 1: *“La d”*

Estudiante 2: *“Y yo la a, ni manera de ponernos de acuerdo”*

Estudiante 3: *“Hay que aja, vamos a ver, cual ven como más factible entonces. Porque creen que la gente inocente va a prisión?”*

In Reference 4, students engage in Problem Solving by trying to reach a consensus on which option to select to scratch from the IFAT instrument. Although this time they are solely focused on the selection but not on arguing why. Again, Mental Translation is present, as can be evidenced from the use of Spanish in the discussion.

As for Directed Attention, it was the lowest metacognitive factor to appear in the intra-team interactions, with a 9,3% of occurrence. These are some of the instances in which it was evident:

Reference 1 - Frequency 4,74%

Estudiante 1: *“Yo puse la d, no se creo que considero esa”*

Estudiante 2: *“Por muchas razones, dos razones son la corrupción y ¿Qué es mistakes?”*

Estudiante 3: *“Errores”*

Estudiante 2: *“Bueno por corrupción y errores”*

Reference 2 - Frequency 2,09%

Estudiante 2: *“Las dos veces que yo escuche esto, decía esto es una razón por la que es por eso”*

Reference 3 - Frequency 2,48%

Estudiante 3: *“Yo también tenía esa, pero después volví a escuchar y no escuche nada de corrupción ni nada de eso”*

The use of the Spanish words “esa”, “esto” and “eso” (that, this and that) evidence a discussion on one specific part of the recording, which exemplifies Directed Attention to one problematic area in terms of comprehension. Again, Mental Translation is present, as can be evidenced from the use of Spanish in the discussion.

Table 4

Nvivo v. 10 exported Excel file presenting coverage percentage of MALQ’s metacognitive factors, excluding Person Knowledge, which was not present.

Node	Frequency
Nodos\\Directed Attention	9,30%
Nodos\\Mental Translation	96,48%
Nodos\\Planning and Evaluating	12,39%
Nodos\\Problem Solving	48,63%

For full transcript, see Appendix 26

Regarding the log I carried during students’ interactions, I took notes of the interactions of other teams than Team 3. In my notes I found that students from all teams during Phases 2 and 3 manifested not having understood and not remembering some details that would permit them to answer questions. Additionally, they mentioned feeling confused and overwhelmed, although they did not explicitly say in which part or for which reason.

Another interesting finding in my log notes is related to their approach to tackling the interactions, which shows them using Spanish at all times and just limiting themselves to use English to read the RATs questions allowed and to recall some words they had heard from the recordings, but that they had already studied. Regarding other words they seemed to have understood, they used their equivalent in Spanish. For instance:

“Roger dijo que llevaba más de veinte años en la cárcel”

“El test de etiqueta lo hicieron viendo haber quién abría las puertas y no me acuerdo el resto...”

“El man dijo que la red de bartering no le parecía una buena idea pero no entendí por qué”.

Interestingly, in general students showed their willingness to cooperate with one another to help solve doubts and to clarify meanings of words and expressions. Regarding the log I carried during students' interactions, I took notes of the interactions of other teams than Team 3. In my notes I found that students from all teams during Phases 2 and 3 manifested not having understood and not remembering some details that would permit them to answer questions. Additionally, they mentioned feeling confused and overwhelmed, although they did not explicitly say in which part or for which reason.

Interviews

The qualitative results of the interviews show that in general students had a positive perception of the intervention (17,3%), which was the highest percentage of occurrence throughout all the interviews. These are some instances in which students manifested perceiving the intervention well:

[<Elementos internos\Metacognition and Listening Perception - Interviews> - § 17 coded](#)
References [Frequency 17,32%]

Reference 1 - Frequency 0,51%

A mí me gustó que a medida que nos fue haciendo más ejercicios de listening, uno puede ir mejorando, ósea puede ir mejorando.

Reference 2 - Frequency 2,29%

lo que me gustó fue que tienes eso de revisarte y mirar que es lo que está siendo negativo para ti o en que debes mejorar y que es lo que principalmente te ayuda a fortalecer lo que tú tienes y que hay que tener en cuenta a la hora de hacer ejercicios, como por decir no tenía claro que cosas hay que tener en cuenta como tener cosas previas te ayuda a la hora de hacer el listening, a como decir cuando habla de los factores que afecta, ósea tener seguridad y tener claro cómo

podemos cambiar la ansiedad o lo que experimentamos a la hora de hacer estos ejercicios.”

Reference 4 - Frequency 1,78%

Con estas actividades yo aprendí más porque por ejemplo, yo antes cuando iba a escuchar, por ejemplo algo en inglés, yo sabía que era inglés de Estados Unidos o de Reino Unido, y yo decía “A este man no le voy a entender” porque yo no le entendía bien, mientras que, si me hablaba una persona latina en inglés yo si le entendía, pero ahora yo aprendí a prepararme más antes de esos listening, y así podía entenderlos más a ellos, y ya aprendí”.

Reference 5 - Frequency 0,63%

Estudiante 2: *“Me gustó porque, los demás profesores no hacen como los pasos de predecir, no los recuerdo ahora, pero si me gustaba el proceso, porque tengo*

Reference 6 - Frequency 0,45%

con esos pasos como que uno entiende más y uno como que ya sabe algo más de lo que va a escuchar o algo así, y ya

Reference 7 - Frequency 0,61%

Me gustó porque la metodología preparada nos ayudó, porque nos dan muchos prejuicios de digamos lo que vamos a hablar o de los temas que se van a tratar,

Reference 8 - Frequency 0,80%

me gustó mucho la forma de ayudarnos a diferenciar las distintas formas de hable de inglés tanto el británico como el estadounidense, fue muy bueno y parece que tengo preferencia por el estadounidense

Reference 11 - Frequency 1,09%

pues a mí me pareció muy interesante porque todo estaba detallado paso por paso me pareció tan imprescindible algo que nunca había visto que habían trabajado pero que es muy completo y muy desarrollado y se nota la ayuda la capacidad de la metacognición y al listening.

The context of the above utterance permits to evidence the student is talking about metacognition and listening in a positive way (see Appendix 27). Even though the sample

provided by the student does not contain the noun metacognition, as classified in Nvivo, the question I asked in Spanish was “¿qué les gusto de estas tres actividades metacognitivas?” (“what did you like of these three metacognitive activities?”), which contains its adjective form (metacognitive).

The language used by students in Spanish that supports the positive view claim can be found in words such as “A mí me gustó que... (I liked that...); uno puede ir mejorando (one can improve...); lo que me gustó fue... (what I liked was...); con estas actividades yo aprendí más (with this activities I learned more); me gustó porque... (I liked it because...); me gustó mucho la forma de... (I liked a lot the way...); and a mí me pareció muy interesante (to me it seemed very interesting...)”.

Nevertheless, it was evident that a negative perception of the intervention ensued due to material overload (1,2%):

[<Elementos internos\Metacognition and Listening Perception - Interviews>](#) - § 1 coded reference [Frequency 1,24%]

Reference 1 - Frequency 1,24%

lo que no me gustó en cierto modo fue al inicio las diferentes cuestiones meta cognitivas q uno tiene pues yo sentí q en un momento había mucha información q había q digerir q no manejamos los estudiantes comúnmente como metacognición memoria entonces uno trabajo mucho entonces yo sentí que era mucho material.

The negative perception is evidenced in the use of the Spanish expressions “lo que no me gustó...” (what I did not like...), in addition to “había mucha información que había que digerir” (there was a lot of information to process); yo sentí que era mucho material (I felt there was a lot of material).

Regarding the contents of the metacognitive listening supplements, Vandergrift's Listening Metacognitive Pedagogical Sequence was barely mentioned as having a positive perception, with 4,2% of occurrences. These are some instances:

[<Elementos internos\Metacognition and Listening Perception - Interviews>](#) - § 4 coded references [Frequency 4,16%]

Reference 1 - Frequency 0,63%

Estudiante 2: *“Me gustó porque, los demás profesores no hacen como los pasos de predecir, no los recuerdo ahora, pero sí me gustaba el proceso, porque tengo*

Reference 2 - Frequency 1,09%

pues a mí me pareció muy interesante porque todo estaba detallado paso por paso me pareció tan imprescindible algo que nunca había visto que habían trabajado pero que es muy completo y muy desarrollado y se nota la ayuda la capacidad de la metacognición y al listening

Reference 3 - Frequency 1,36%

me gusto todo pues las explicaciones q el profesor dio ya que con eso pude apreciar lo que estaba haciendo ya que nos la hoja sobre toda su tesis los paso a paso para aprender a desarrollar en ingles mejor sirvió mucho ya que me he dado cuenta q he mejorado no así evidente pero si he mejorado en cuanto al desarrollo concreto en ingles

The positive perception of the metacognitive listening supplements was evidenced in expressions such as “me gustó porque...” (I liked it because); me gustaba el proceso (I liked the process); muy completo y muy desarrollado (very complete and developed); me gustó todo pues (I liked everything because); and sirvió mucho ya que me he dado cuenta (it was very beneficial because I have realized)

Interestingly, the metacognitive factors that students most frequently mentioned were Planning and Evaluating (13,2%), and Person Knowledge (12,4%). However, they never mentioned them explicitly, rather they described them.

Here are some instances of Planning and Evaluating:

[<Elementos internos\Metacognition and Listening Perception - Interviews>](#) - § 10 coded references codificadas [Frequency 13,24%]

Reference 1 - Frequency 1,17%

“Organizarse más, que por decir uno a la hora de escuchar un audio, uno en blanco, no se ponen a analizar los vocabularios que ya tenían antes, o nos con lo que nos van a plantear de que van a hablar, muy poco hacemos eso. Entonces ya llegar, y tener más claro eso, a la hora de escuchar”.

The Spanish expressions “organizarse más” and “tener más claro eso, a la hora de escuchar” evidence the recognized importance of planning, as part of the metacognitive factor of Planning and Evaluating.

Reference 4 - Frequency 1,47%

bueno pues yo me llevo primero me gustó mucho cuando trataba de buscar palabra por palabra y busca una idea en general de lo que estaban hablando y entendía mucho más rápido con una o dos palabras q entendiera y hacer como que primero inferir para hacer primero una idea de lo q voy a escuchar como una idea más general de lo q tengo q escuchar en la escucha

This sample shows the importance given to the Planning and Evaluating factor by one student, inasmuch as the student is planning to use it in further listening activities. I obtained this sample by asking “what do you take with you from the metacognitive instruction for further listening activities”? The student uses the term “inferir” (to infer), which clearly demonstrates how the student managed to evaluate perceived information to make sense of the entire listening text.

Regarding Person Knowledge, here are some instances:

[<Elementos internos\Metacognition and Listening Perception - Interviews>](#) - § 10 References codificadas [Frequency 12,37%]

Reference 1 - Frequency 0,41%

debes tener un vocabulario previo, entonces esto te obliga a que tú tienes que tener tu vocabulario,

This sample shows a student recognizing the importance of previous knowledge as part of Person knowledge in that the student reflected and arrived to the conclusion that without previous vocabulary knowledge, he or she would not comprehend much.

Reference 2 - Frequency 2,29%

lo que me gustó fue que tienes eso de revisarte y mirar que es lo que está siendo negativo para ti o en que debes mejorar y que es lo que principalmente te ayuda a fortalecer lo que tú tienes y que hay que tener en cuenta a la hora de hacer ejercicios, como por decir no tenía claro que cosas hay que tener en cuenta como tener cosas previas te ayuda a la hora de hacer el listening, a como decir cuando habla de los factores que afecta, ósea tener seguridad y tener claro cómo podemos cambiar la ansiedad o lo que experimentamos a la hora de hacer estos ejercicios.”

In this sample, it is evident once more how the metacognitive process helped to make students self-reflective, mind previous knowledge, which reflects an increased Person Knowledge. In addition, anxiety came up in this sample, which shows a gain from the metacognitive listening supplement part 1, in regards to affective factors.

Reference 3 - Frequency 0,36%

Puede mejorar pero a la vez no, porque todo el mundo no escucha igual ni interpreta igual

Interestingly, this sample shows metacognitive awareness in this student from the spontaneous fragment utterance that translates “not everyone listens or interprets the same”, which is related to individual neurological differences and sociocultural background, experience and knowledge, which act as schemata to facilitate or hamper comprehension.

Concerning the lowest occurrences of metacognitive factors, those were seen in Monitoring (8,3%) and Problem-Solving (7,5%). As an emerging category, I decided to include Importance of Previous Knowledge, which had a 5% of occurrences.

Here are some instances of monitoring:

Reference 3 - Frequency 4,85%

bueno mi principal estrategia o lo que yo me llevo es más q todo lograr entender fijarme más q todo mirar las preguntas para ver maso menos de q es el tema y no quedarme exactamente mirando la respuesta por siento q me concentro en buscar la respuesta y no me contaba en el audio como tal pero ahora algo q hago mas es concentrarme en el audio y concentrarme más y sacar mucho más fácil la idea principal de lo q se está hablando y eso lo hago en una primera escucha y ya la segunda trato de enfocarme más en lo q me están preguntando y así concentrarme ensacar la respuesta también lo q yo hago es vocabulario si hay q aprender bastante vocabulario y sobre todo saber cómo se escucha y por ejemplo yo me siento más cómodo si yo estoy escuchando y leo lo q estoy escuchando tengo una mayor comprensión de ellos o cuando ya quitas eso es más complicado por eso hay q practicar más el vocabulario en la escucha yo intento hacer más q todo con las paginas q usted nos dio de música ya q es un buen método para lograr q nosotros los jóvenes q hay q completar mediante la escucha entonces eso es algo muy bueno q te puede ir ayudando poco a poco a ganar esa habilidad de comprender más el inglés más naturalmente

Monitoring is evidenced here in the statement: “*pero ahora algo que hago mas es concentrarme en el audio y concentrarme más y sacar mucho más fácil la idea principal de lo q se está hablando y eso lo hago en una primera escucha y ya la segunda trato de enfocarme más en lo q me están preguntando y así concentrarme ensacar la respuesta también*”, which translates as what I do now is focusing on the audio and more on extracting the main idea and I do that on the first listen, and in the second listen I try to focus more on what I am being asked and thus I can obtain the answer”. Monitoring is seen when the student listens to answer the questions having listened for the Main Ideas before, which reflects implicit knowledge of the importance of co-text (Field, 2009) for comprehension.

Reference 4 - Frequency 1,21%

bueno ya aprendí q no debo apresurarme tanto y que tengo q hacer una revisión previa antes de contestar porque todo esta ahí y lo que yo escucho se q va a estar entonces debo darme cuenta y de revisar que lo q escuche no se me pase porque eso está mi mente y puedo revisar tamban en mi mente lo q ya escuche

The student mentions not hurrying and revising before answering (questions perhaps), and also revising what he or she did not understand, and revising in his or her mind what he or she already heard, which in spite of not mentioning the word Monitoring, is an explicit example of its existence, according to the definition provided by Vandergrift and Goh (2012).

Here are some instances in which Problem-Solving was addressed by students:

[<Elementos internos\Metacognition and Listening Perception - Interviews>](#) - § 6
Referencias codificadas [Frequency 7,51%]

Reference 1 - Frequency 0,51%

realmente esto no es suficiente para sacar las respuestas aunque sea por descarte, que lo que realmente uno trata de hacer.”

Here the student seems to understand the importance of having sufficient information to answer questions correctly, an important step in Problem Solving (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012).

Reference 2 - Frequency 0,44%

Y sobre todo de que tú puedas argumentar porque escogiste eso, que fue lo que te motivo a coger esa respuesta

Here arguing appears as a way to solve problems (see Appendix 28).

Reference 3 - Frequency 0,41%

aprendí que no, que primero escuchaba todo y luego entendía con el vocabulario que adopte en el curso”.

Here we see a student mentioning the importance of vocabulary to solve comprehension problems.

Reference 4 - Frequency 0,80%

Aplicar los pasos de metacognición, por mí misma, ósea no que me lo esté diciendo como que el profesor ni la evaluación sino mi misma porque en realidad si ayuda mucho a la comprensión de los temas”.

The context of this reference refers to metacognition in broad terms as a beneficial tool to solve comprehension problems.

Reference 5 - Frequency 0,50%

en escucha me pareció q en algunas grabaciones hablaban muy rápido pero con la repeticiones pude entender mejor lo que decían

This student mentions repetition as way to solve comprehension problems.

Regarding Importance of Previous Knowledge, here are some instances in which was it addressed by students:

[<Elementos internos\Metacognition and Listening Perception - Interviews>](#) - § 5 Coded References [Frequency 4,96%]

Reference 1 - Frequency 2,29%

lo que me gustó fue que tienes eso de revisarte y mirar que es lo que está siendo negativo para ti o en que debes mejorar y que es lo que principalmente te ayuda a fortalecer lo que tú tienes y que hay que tener en cuenta a la hora de hacer ejercicios, como por decir no tenía claro que cosas hay que tener en cuenta como tener cosas previas te ayuda a la hora de hacer el listening, a como decir cuando habla de los factores que afecta, ósea tener seguridad y tener claro cómo podemos cambiar la ansiedad o lo que experimentamos a la hora de hacer estos ejercicios.”

The Spanish expression “hay que tener en cuenta como tener cosas previas te ayuda a la hora de hacer el listening” (you have to take into account things such as previous knowledge to help you tackle the listening exercise), mentions explicitly the awareness of importance of previous knowledge for comprehension.

Reference 2 - Frequency 1,17%

“Organizarse más, que por decir uno a la hora de escuchar un audio, uno en blanco, no se ponen a analizar los vocabularios que ya tenían antes, o nos con lo que nos van a plantear de que van a hablar, muy poco hacemos eso. Entonces ya llegar, y tener más claro eso, a la hora de escuchar”.

The Spanish expression “analizar los vocabularios que ya tenían antes”, analysing previous vocabulary, is an explicit occurrence of previous knowledge.

Regarding suggestions for improvement, need for additional listening practice had the highest coverage (4,3%). Here are some instances:

[<Elementos internos\Metacognition and Listening Perception - Interviews>](#) - § 6 Coded References [Frequency 4,34%]

Reference 1 - Frequency 0,67%

quizás un poco más de practica en el listening, en la forma de listening, un poquito más de practicar porque es bastante complicado, a mí se me hizo bastante complicado

Reference 2 - Frequency 0,43%

Más practica en el listening, y en el speaking, porque aja somos nivel uno y aparte de que no sabemos mucho

Reference 3 - Frequency 0,51%

Más pruebas de listening, ósea me hubiese gustado que en el módulo de listening fueran como muchas más actividades de listening.

Reference 4 - Frequency 0,93%

a mí me parecería buena idea poner trabajos como traer alguna música en inglés y pues aprender de su pronunciación y lo que dicen en español ya que uno pasa escuchando música pues algunos así podrían comprender mejor las palabras

The above samples show students mentioning the necessity to practice more listening exercises, and more varied (music, pronunciation and translation), as suggestions for improvement.

Regarding the lowest coverage percentage in suggestions for improvement, it was seen in suggestions to include more metacognition practice (0,99%), as it was mentioned only once. Here it is:

[<Elementos internos\Metacognition and Listening Perception - Interviews> - § 1 Coded reference \[Frequency 0,99%\]](#)

Reference 1 - Frequency 0,99%

bueno yo pienso q deberían haber más secciones como en cada clase de listening o speaking como de una hicieran equitativamente de metacognición y todo esto y así poder implementar la posibilidad de q las personas vean sus errores y los resuelva

Here we can see only one student mentioning the use of more metacognitive cycles or instruction as well as listening, which can be interpreted as seeing a student's raised metacognitive awareness ratifying its importance and wanting to see it in further listening instruction sessions.

Regarding the perception of students about Team-Based Learning interactions, results in general were mixed: 6,5% of the occurrences corresponded to positive perceptions of Team-Based Learning, 10,9% was the coverage percentage in the interviews

corresponding to being perceived as beneficial, and 6,1% corresponded to disadvantages of Team-Based Learning interactions.

Here are some instances in which TBL was perceived positively:

[<Elementos internos\Metacognition and Listening Perception - Interviews>](#) - § 7 Coded
References [Frequency 6,47%]

Reference 3 - Frequency 1,22%

el método me pareció mi bueno hicimos la parte de raspa y gana fue algo interesante primero dieron a conocer las habilidades q debíamos desarrollar en dicho en forme para así desarrollar las preguntas del listening me parece una buena estrategia.

Reference 4 - Frequency 0,53%

bueno a mí me gusto q teníamos la posibilidad de trabajar en grupos podíamos exponer nuestra opinión y absorber la opinión de otros

In references 3 and 4 students mention the IFAT (“Raspa y Gana” – “scratch and win), which refers to common lottery games in Colombia, as having a positive impact, in addition to knowing in advance specifically which skills were planned to be developed, and exchanging opinions in groups.

[<Elementos internos\Metacognition and Listening Perception - Interviews>](#) - § 12 Coded
References [Frequency 10,91%]

Reference 2 - Frequency 0,73%

pues tal vez si porque en ocasiones se encontraban compañeros perdidos y yo les ayudaba en lo que podía lo que estaba en mi alcance y les decía o más bien les explicaba porque era así

Reference 3 - Frequency 1,61%

bueno a mi si me parece que eso en grupos es muy bueno porque a veces uno tiene una respuesta y otros se preguntan porque es la respuesta entonces ellos dicen q no y tu explicas porque se escogió y así uno le da más claridad a las cosas como que le queda

todo más claro y la próxima vez tiende a coger el consejo e intentar escuchar la parte textual del listening si no trata de interpretar lo que dice

Reference 4 - Frequency 1,06%

bueno pues la verdad entre toditos contribuimos igualmente porque todos tenemos el mismo voto en el grupo pero igual intentamos como escoger la mayor y por turnos y cada uno escoger porque escogió su respuesta y entre todos escogíamos la que veíamos más razonable

In the above instances we can see students highlighting the benefits of cooperative learning by helping each other to comprehend through explanations, arguments, clarifications, advising, and team member contributions in democratic team interactions.

Regarding disadvantages of Team-Based Learning interactions, here are some instances:

[<Elementos internos\Metacognition and Listening Perception - Interviews> - § 4 Coded Reference codificadas \[Frequency 6,12%\]](#)

Reference 1 - Frequency 0,24%

pues más tal vez más actividades individuales y menos en grupo

This student mentioned not perceiving benefits from the TBL interactions, yet it does not necessarily mean to be a problem in the methodology, but a student's personal preference.

Reference 2 - Frequency 1,12%

si a mi también me parece que más actividades individuales porque en grupo uno no ve si realmente está aprendiendo como estamos todos, alguno siempre tiene la respuesta correcta o siempre se coge por descarte los que tienen las mismas respuestas y uno no se pone a pensar tanto.

However, in this case, this student highlights the fact that some students tend to overtake the other team members' opinions which leads to finding the correct answer in the IFAT instrument, but not to learning and listening skill development.

S3 me pareció bien q algunos nos agrupáramos para hacer la actividad q usted había dejado propuesta pero en lo personal a mí no me gusta hacer nada en grupo me gusta hacer todo yo solo y pues apesar que tenía un grupo y que aja no es un grupo malo que no hacía nada pues nose no ha sido lo mio trabajar en grupo y pues me parecía suficiente con lo que yo oía y ya sabía q iba a decir a que otro tuviera q darme una idea o aceptar lo que otro estuviera diciendo pues a mí me parece mejor q uno trabaje solo, y pues en grupo no me lleva creer q sea muy beneficioso pues porque si uno tiene una duda y no dice que no sabe que va ahí o algo como uno escucha q el otro dice que va ahí esto o lo otro uno dice q de pronto va eso y como en los listening siempre se escucha una palabra q estaba ahí en el texto uno ya queda dudando por eso, pues a mí me parece que es mejor hacerlo solo.

This is an example similar to that of the student in Reference 1 in that the team based learning disadvantage is perceived as detrimental due to a personal preference of working individually. However, like the student in Reference 2, this one also mentions that exchange of opinions leads to confusion and hesitation about one's responses, rather than learning and listening skill development.

S2 si fue beneficioso pero no a tal grado pero si fue beneficioso ya que con esto los trabajos en grupo si no estás seguro puedes acercarse al compañero y aclarar las dudas pero algunas veces hay q conformarse con lo q tienen los otros ya q no estás seguro tú y no se llega a una conclusión a una respuesta verdadera concreta.

This example also exemplifies what the previous (Reference 3) mentioned, in that students in teams sometimes have to settle for what the other team members know even

though they are not sure about the correct answer, yet that is the only resource they have to find the correct answer.

For full transcripts, see Appendices 27, 28, 29.

Table. 5

Nvivo v. 10 exported Excel file presenting coverage percentage of MALQ's metacognitive factors, student perception of the intervention and its methodological aspects, and suggestions for further practice.

Node	Frequency
Nodos\Benefits of Individual tasks	5,27%
Nodos\Benefits of team interactions	10,91%
Nodos\Directed Attention	1,97%
Nodos\Disadvantages of team interactions	6,12%
Nodos\Importance of previous knowledge	4,96%
Nodos\Monitoring	8,33%
Nodos\Negative Perception	1,24%
Nodos\Negative Perception\Material Overload	1,24%
Nodos\Person Knowledge	12,37%
Nodos\Planning and Evaluating	13,24%
Nodos\Positive perception	17,32%
Nodos\Positive perception\Metacognitive Sequence	4,16%
Nodos\Positive perception\Practicing	1,61%
Nodos\Positive perception\Preparation	5,05%
Nodos\Positive perception\Team Based Learning	6,47%
Nodos\Problem Solving	7,51%
Nodos\Socio Constructive Learning	2,23%
Nodos\Suggestions for Improvement	5,24%
Nodos\Suggestions for Improvement\Include more listening practice	4,34%
Nodos\Suggestions for Improvement\Include more metacognition practice	0,99%

CHAPTER 5 – DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

ITDEM - Step 5 Modifying future practice.

In the previous chapter, I reported the results of the action research study which aims to answer the question “To what extent does the use of Vandergrift’s Metacognitive Pedagogical Sequence on listening instruction, delivered through Michaelsen’s Team-Based Learning methodology, affect beginner EFL learners’ metacognitive awareness, their understanding of spoken main ideas and details, and their ability to decode phonemes?”.

In this chapter, I will answer this question addressing each aspect in the same order as they appear in the research question.

Metacognitive Awareness

Metacognitive awareness increased after the intervention an average of 7%. This might be due to explicit instruction on metacognitive strategies along with practice of them during the intervention phase. As I mentioned in the theoretical framework, metacognitive instruction intends to facilitate learning to listen by raising learners’ awareness of the aspects that affect positively and negatively their understanding and identification of details when listening. In addition, a solid pedagogical methodology based on the raising of metacognitive awareness, which is Vandergrift’s Listening Metacognitive Pedagogical Sequence, and the use of metacognitive strategies that was implemented through Michaelsen’s Team-Based Learning, are highly likely to have led to such increase in metacognitive awareness in this study. This result also confirms the findings of raised

metacognitive awareness reported by Cross (2010) in his study with Japanese adult students. This increase in metacognitive awareness is also relevant in that, according to Vandergrift, Goh, Mareschal, and Tafaghodtari (2006), self-reported metacognitive knowledge, as tapped by questionnaire responses, was able to explain about 13% of the variance in L2 listening performance of university-level language learners.

Regarding Directed Attention, it increased from 4,5 to 4,6 from MALQ 1 to MALQ 2, and its standard deviation did not increase significantly (0,567 to 0,726); in the interaction, its percentage coverage was 9,30%, and in the interviews its percentage coverage was 1,97%. This shows that students learned about the importance of its use when tackling listening exercises, yet they might not still be fully aware of their own knowledge of it, so in the MALQ their responses could have been activated by seeing the statements that relate to it, and could have selected the highest option in the Likert scale.

As regards to Planning and Evaluating, quantitatively it increased from 4,0 to 4,3 and its standard deviation did so too from 0,321 to 0,548. This means that, in general, students increased their awareness of this metacognitive factor, but in an uneven fashion. In the interactions, it only had an coverage percentage of 12,39% and of 13,24% in the interviews. This seems to mean that students did actively use them in the listening activities and were aware of its importance, as it was explicitly mentioned by some students: *“hacer primero una idea de lo que voy a escuchar como una idea más general de lo q tengo q escuchar”*. This is a clear example of raised awareness of Planning and Evaluating.

Concerning Problem Solving, it remained steady in terms of average change, however the standard deviation increased a bit from 0,274 to 0,544, which means that students responses were more dissimilar to the Mean than in MALQ 1. In other words,

relying solely on the quantitative results, it could be concluded that some students could have gained awareness of problem solving, while other students could have lost awareness of this metacognitive factor. Nevertheless, the qualitative data shows otherwise. The interaction coverage of percentage was 48,63%, which means that students did actually use it in practice: when solving problems in the listening exercises and the intra team interactions and discussions. On the other hand, it only had a percentage of 7,51% in the interviews. Again, this could mean that students have not reached the verbalization point in terms of awareness, yet they seem capable of using it in spite of not naming it as frequently.

As for Mental Translation, it was the most frequently seen metacognitive factor in the qualitative instruments, yet it remained steady in both MALQs in both the Mean and the Standard Deviation. These could mean that students had always been using it to try to comprehend listening input in English, which naturally affects their parsing and perception rates, and could have affected the results in the Main Ideas and Details of the Listening Final Test.

Interestingly, the metacognitive factor that had the largest gain in the MALQ was Person Knowledge (2,8 to 3,7), and its standard deviation decreased, which means that results were distributed more evenly than in MALQ 1. In other words, in general students increased their awareness of this metacognitive factor. This is interesting because Person Knowledge was not evident in the intra-team interactions recordings, and in the interviews it only had a percentage of coverage of 12,4%. The gain might be explained by the implementation of Michaelsen's Team-Based Learning methodology, and the socio-constructivist learning orientation of the intervention. The lack of explicitness or allusion might be due to insufficient verbalization of such concept, yet its awareness could have

increased thanks to the role of the other metacognitive factors addressed by the MALQ and covered in the Metacognitive Listening Supplements, which helped build it upon students' realization of the importance of previous knowledge (an emerging category in the qualitative analysis), and in students reflection about their perception on both the metacognitive instruction and Team-Based learning.

I can affirm this because, during the three phases of the intervention, students had the opportunity to compare and contrast their answers to the questions with those of their teammates, which might have informed them better about the way they had been tackling listening exercises, and informing them about the metacognitive strategies they needed to work on.

In general, the findings of raised metacognitive awareness in MALQ 2 are similar to those reported by Cross (2010), in terms of the construction and co-construction of knowledge that took place over the implementation in the intra-team interactions. Importantly, it is also likely to have benefited students' ability to decode.

Main Ideas

As I reported in Chapter 4 - Results, regarding to understanding of Main Ideas the results are not positive as those of metacognitive awareness. The compared results from Listening Diagnostic Test and Listening Final Test show a decrease of 29% in students understanding of Main Ideas. Here it is important to remember that the definition of Main Ideas espoused in this research accounts for the need to infer them when they are not explicitly presented in the listening input, which would demand many cognitive resources from students. For this situation, Vandergrift's Listening Metacognitive Pedagogical Cycle offers the strategy of Problem-solving during comprehension and which Rost (2011) addresses as "inferences

(...) are employed only when there is a need to draw a relevant inference before comprehension can continue, and when evidence is available from which some conclusion can be drawn” (P. 63). The decrease in Main Ideas results might have occurred due to the following factors:

First, overloading of working memory. Rost (2011) asserts that at the early stages of foreign language learning, linguistic resources are limited and exposure to the spoken language is so unfamiliar that the listener employs too many working memory resources trying to make sense, and to build meaning, from what is listened. Working memory is directly related to Reasoning during comprehension, which in the view of Rost (2011), occurs not only after listening, but during listening, and during comprehension, for which we use working memory. Rost (2011, p. 66) maintains that “in real time reasoning during discourse comprehension, we must depend on working memory. And because of limitations of short-term memory, we are apt to oversimplify complex arguments and interpretations in order to arrive more readily at an acceptable understanding”.

He expands:

The process of reasoning during listening is relatively straightforward, though not always easy to apply in real time, especially among beginner language learners.

Reasoning involves five basic cognitive processes: comprehension of facts, categorization of claims about those facts, relative assumptions of truth value in what the speaker is saying, induction of unknown or unknowable facts from given information, and deduction of a generalization based on evidence given. Reasoning while listening involves rapid identification and evaluation of facts, claims that the speaker is making – directly or indirectly (p. 66).

That, again, is not plausible for beginner language learners, according to the A2 listening skills descriptors of the Common European Framework.

As expected due to the students' low level of English proficiency, such task complexity affects working memory capacity. This argument is supported by the findings of Komori's (2016) study on Effects of Working Memory Capacity on Metacognitive Monitoring. Komori reports that functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) studies on Working Memory discovered that the prefrontal cortex (PFC) plays a crucial role in Executive Functions. Komori's research confirmed that Working Memory Capacity affects absolute accuracy of metacognitive judgments, or use of metacognitive strategies, in a multi-task situation. It adds that participants with high Working Memory Capacity were better at discriminating between correct and incorrect recall. Interestingly, Komori (2016) also reports that although low Working Memory Capacity impaired absolute monitoring accuracy, low Working Memory Capacity did not block monitoring completely.

Furthermore, Larry Vandergrift and Susan Barker carried out a study in 2015 which focused on first language (L1) listening ability, L1 vocabulary knowledge, L2 vocabulary knowledge, auditory discrimination ability, metacognitive awareness of listening, and working memory capacity, as potentially predicting variables in L2 listening success. Based on Baddeley's (1992) definition of working memory, Vandergrift and Barker (2015) maintain that it proposes a central executive component for planning, coordinating the flow of information and retrieving knowledge from long-term memory. Additionally, working memory in listening is comprised of three additional subsystems: "a phonological loop to retain spectral information about the sounds currently being processed and a visuo-spatial sketchpad to hold nonverbal (visual and spatial) information, and an episodic buffer, was

later added to account for integration of information from all the systems (episodes) for transfer to long-term memory” (Vandergrift & Barker, 2015, p. 396).

Komori’s (2016) research focused on monitoring as a metacognitive strategy, and reported working memory capacity overloading. In this study, monitoring was one of the metacognitive strategies employed along with planning, problem solving during comprehension, and the evaluation of the effectiveness of these processes. I can infer that the employment of more than one metacognitive strategy might have contributed to further overloading of working memory capacity in the students. In conclusion, employing metacognitive strategies seems to have a negative impact while listening to L2 at such early learning stages.

Second, possible problems in attention, perception, parsing and utilization might have affected the results of the main ideas section in the Listening Final Test. This hypothesis would pose biological and anatomical differences, and perhaps even physiological anomalies among students. That is very unlikely to be the case, but as no hearing test of any kind was carried out at the onset of the course, it cannot be discarded either.

Additionally, regarding Parsing, Rost maintains that in listening it involves the segmentation of an utterance according to syntactic structures or semantic cues to create a mental representation (2012, p. 41). Such information is used to retrieve vocabulary from long-term memory, based on meaning of these words held in working memory, while obtaining new input. As established in the Theoretical Framework, Parsing is processing that assumes or presupposes particular underlying grammatical knowledge during comprehension” (Van Patten & Jegerski, 2013, p. 5). Such grammatical knowledge

existence, accompanied with vocabulary knowledge, should help free up students working memory by focusing on semantic processing instead of syntactic structures. This might also explain why their working memory might have been overloaded: because of lack of grammatical knowledge, heavy reliance on syntactic structures, and heavy focus on employing metacognitive skills. Moreover, parsing's computations of language during real-time comprehension might not occur as efficiently in L2 beginner learners as in more advanced ones or native speakers.

Interestingly, and worth mentioning for this study, is the affirmation that Ding and Simon (2013) make: "In the presence of an intermediate amount of noise, the parsing process becomes a bottleneck for speech recognition, and therefore listeners who are better at extracting basic speech units rate speech intelligibility as higher" (2013, p. 381). This is relevant to this study because it shows a possible correlation between extracting speech units (decoding) and a high rate in speech intelligibility (comprehension).

Pasley et al. (2012) conducted a study which sought to reconstruct speech from human auditory cortex and found neurological evidence that support this correlation:

the human brain has evolved computational mechanisms that decode highly variable acoustic inputs into meaningful elements of language such as phonemes and words. Unraveling these decoding mechanisms in humans has proven difficult, because invasive recording of cortical activity is usually not possible. In this study, we take advantage of rare neurosurgical procedures for the treatment of epilepsy, in which neural activity is measured directly from the cortical surface and therefore provides a unique opportunity for characterizing how the human brain performs speech recognition. Using these recordings, we asked what aspects of speech

sounds could be reconstructed, or decoded, from higher order brain areas in the human auditory system. We found that continuous auditory representations, for example the speech spectrogram, could be accurately reconstructed from measured neural signals. Reconstruction quality was highest for sound features most critical to speech intelligibility and allowed decoding of individual spoken words. The results provide insights into higher order neural speech processing and suggest it may be possible to readout intended speech directly from brain activity (p. 2).

Consequently, what Ding and Simon (2013) state, and what I have found in this study, could revise one of the commonly found practices in the Communicative Approach to English Language Learning: listening and giving account of what has been listened to and understood, and thus pave the way for an alternative approach to listening instruction. Field (2009) maintains that “by emphasizing methods associated with testing rather than teaching, and requiring each student to report her own set of answers, the Communicative Approach tends to isolate learners. The atmosphere in a listening class often approximates more closely to that of an exam center than to that of a forum for communicative practice of the second language” (2009, p. 31), which also explains why in this study their individual and team scores differ.

Thirdly, individual differences in neurological processing seem to offer another likely explanation given the relative high standard deviation found in the Listening Final Test (2.572), compared to the standard deviations of the other measured listening subskills, which means that results of student performance in main ideas was the most widely spread out.

Individual differences in neurological processing might be found in the complex interplay of neural health, attentional readiness, local neural processing, coordination of functional neural circuits, and/or high-level strategic organisation. As I had mentioned in the theoretical framework when quoting Rost (2011), not all humans process language in the same way. As in other areas of neural processing, individuals display a great range of differences across Local processing, Commitment and plasticity, Integrative circuits, Functional neural circuits, Strategic control, and Level of attention.

Details

As regards to understanding of details, the Listening Test showed a decrease of 61% in students performance on this listening subskills. Here, syntactic parsing and semantic processing could have played a role in explaining these results. Interestingly, decoding, which I will discuss next, showed positive results. This means that students managed to understand and identify vocabulary -decode-, yet they were not as successful in understanding details, or tying the words together to build meaning, which is normal for A2 level learners. The CEFR (2011, p. 26) maintains that a student at an A2 level can “understand phrases and the highest frequency vocabulary related to areas of most immediate personal relevance (e.g. very basic personal and family information, shopping, local area, employment. [Learners] can catch the main point in short, clear, simple messages and announcements”, in addition to “understand enough to be able to meet needs of a concrete type provided speech is clearly and slowly articulated” (p. 32). The CEFR does not consider A2 learners to be capable of tying the words together in realms other than those of their immediate personal relevance, which is likely not the case of financial, manners and justice topics.

Syntactic Parsing

Firstly, syntactic parsing involves the ability to identify syntactic categories of units in the speech stream, and then integrating the syntax of the immediate utterance with syntax of the larger speech unit that is being processed (Rost, 2011). For syntactic parsing to occur successfully, students would need to know not only the target vocabulary studied in the intervention - which accounts for the success of decoding-, but also the functional vocabulary which gives cohesion and coherence to the details. Moreover, according to Vandergrift and Goh (2012, p.22), in parsing, listeners analyze the structure of the phonetic representation of what they hold in their working memory, and activate potentially similar words. Therefore, vocabulary knowledge is crucial to activate potentially similar words, and thus understand details.

The ever-present Mental Translation metacognitive factor could have impacted syntactic parsing negatively, as their use of Spanish could have neglected the comprehension, and even the decoding, of functional vocabulary. This might be one of the reasons why the Details results in the Listening Final Test were lower than in the Listening Diagnostic Test. Not because students had not relied on Mental Translation before to solve comprehension problems, but because they were likely trying to use Directed Attention, Planning and Evaluating, and Problem Solving, in addition to resorting to Previous Knowledge and parsing syntactically which pose a heavy cognitive load, and likely working memory overloading.

Utilization

If working memory is overloaded, it is likely that parsing utilization's retrieval of information sources from long-term memory is affected too, thus affecting understanding of main ideas and details, and rendering previous knowledge useless, and perhaps detrimental. By using pragmatic and prior knowledge, listeners relate the resulting meaningful units from parsing to information sources in long-term memory in order to interpret the intended or implied meanings (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012). This is what they could have attempted at doing, yet from the quantitative data yielded by the Listening Diagnostic Test, it does not seem to have benefited students performance.

In words of Vandergrift and Goh (2012, p.22), utilization permits listeners to “elaborate on the newly parsed information and monitor this interpretation for congruency with their previous knowledge and the evolving representation of the text in memory, as often as necessary within the time available”, which in the presence of an affected capacity in working memory is not likely to be possible.

In addition, Vandergrift and Goh affirm that “during this phase of processing, the derived meaning from the parsed speech is monitored against the context of the message, what the listener knows about the speaker, the tone used to convey the message, and any other relevant information available to the listener, in order to interpret the intended meaning of the speaker or text” (2012, p. 42).

Importantly, in this phase of processing, it seems clear to what extent the limited listening exposure and the limited practice of the metacognitive strategies among beginner L2 students affect monitoring against the context of the message, what the listener knows about the speaker, the tone used to convey the message, and any other relevant information

available to the listener, in order to interpret the intended meaning of the speaker or text, in addition to the decision making process involved in employing metacognitive strategies: affection of working memory capacity. Interestingly, some students seem fully aware of this by having suggested additional listening practice in further practice, which both the quantitative and the qualitative data support, and definitely opens a new way for future practice. I would also dare say that not only more practice is necessary, but a longer time frame than two months to dedicate to this skill would also be beneficial.

Semantic Processing

Secondly, semantic processing could also have been affected. As discussed in the theoretical framework, this is the the aspect of listening that integrates memory and prior experience into understanding events and, according to Rost (2011), it “encompasses the listening processes involved in comprehension, inferencing, learning, and memory formation” (p. 53). The instance that might have caused semantic processing to break down is likely to have been the following: “the listener encounters an unknown word or concept, or when the speakers proceed too quickly for the listener to conduct all of the reasoning processes required, and no opportunity for clarification is available” (Rost, 2011, p. 70). This could be seen in one of the claims of one student of Team 3: *“yo el primer punto escogí la a, pero en realidad no, ósea esa la cogí como por descarte, porque no entendí nada de lo que decía”*.

The Role of Comprehension, or knowledge structures, in Semantic Processing

Rost asserts that

comprehenders (listeners or readers or observers) build a comprehension structure by first developing a map in which the concepts will fit. As they listen (or read or observe) comprehenders then place concepts representing new information into this figurative map. They can do this only if and when the new information relates to previous information already in the structure. However, when the incoming information is judged to be unrelated, comprehenders shift attention and attach a new substructure. The building blocks of mental structures are memory nodes, which are activated by incoming stimuli and controlled by two cognitive mechanisms: suppression and enhancement (p. 54).

For students to act like comprehenders under Rost's terms, they would need to be at a higher level of English learning. Furthermore, with a working memory possibly overloaded, it is not likely that they may be able to be building such figurative map while listening and attempting to employ one or more metacognitive strategies.

An additional consideration Rost (2011) makes of semantic processing concerns memory and learning. He maintains that "it is important to note that what is remembered and learned from a listening experience, however, is not purely a function of textual information or information processing. Emotional and individual experiential factors play a major role in learning through listening" (p. 76). Emotional and individual experiential factors, under Vandergrift and Goh's (2012) view, constitute factors affecting listening comprehension, and thus learning. Even though students in this study were not listening to learn concepts, but to develop the listening sub-skills, learning serves as proof of

comprehension. Thus, learning reflects comprehension. This draws a very thin line between listening to practice and listening to learn, with the implication that beginner language students could in fact learn concepts in L2 provided they are as straightforward and clear as possible that their semantic processing does not break, nor their working memories get overloaded.

Again, the simultaneous employment of metacognitive factors to comprehend listening input could have overloaded students' working memories. This could be seen in one of the students comments on the interview: "*yo sentí q era mucho material*".

Additionally, lack of necessary vocabulary -other than that which was part of the learning goals of the textbook units- to understand details accounts for problems at identifying units of spoken language. As I discussed in the theoretical framework when I quoted Rost (2011), we tend to remember information, not aleatory linguistic units, such as words or syllables, for which he maintains that in order to manage speech in real time, it is essential for the listener to group the speech into a small number of constituents that can be worked easily within working memory. Nevertheless, in order for such grouping to occur, students might have needed more than just the metacognitive strategies employment. They might have needed to know more vocabulary. If syntactic parsing is compromised due to lack of necessary vocabulary knowledge, so is semantic processing.

Finally, neurological processing could have also affected students understanding of Details. Even though there are no marked differences among students in this sub-skill, as there were in the understanding of Main Ideas, it cannot be discarded the possibility that neurological processing might have affected the group in general.

Decoding

Concerning Decoding, this sub-skill showed positive results with an increase of 7% from the Listening Diagnostic Test to the Final Test. Similarly to Vandergrift and Barker's 2015 research findings, L2 vocabulary knowledge played a key role in the decoding ability success. They report that the robust role of L2 vocabulary in L2 listening comprehension was the most significant finding.

In this study, students first answered to the decoding section of the Listening Diagnostic Test without any previous knowledge of either the vocabulary, or the topic they would listen about. In the Listening Final Test, the decoding section was comprised of tasks made up of vocabulary students had already studied in the phase 3 of the intervention.

Importantly, this result coincides with what Field (2009) maintains about the importance of vocabulary knowledge. As I mentioned in the theoretical framework, sole top-down processing is insufficient for comprehension and, as such, it only provides support to understand words and fill gaps, which is a bottom-up process, but if vocabulary knowledge is missing, then the word sole top-down processing is not efficient. Interestingly, one student manifested identifying this in the interviews when he or she mentioned the importance of previous knowledge and vocabulary.

As I noted in the theoretical framework, another variable that might have an impact on decoding is the employing of phonotactic knowledge for adult L2 learners. Rost (2011) maintains that L2 speech can be difficult to segment into words and phonemes, different phonemes in the second language can sound as if they are the same, and the motor articulations of the second language can be difficult to reproduce. Interestingly, this did not seem to be the case in this study because the Listening Final Test clearly showed gains in

terms of decoding. This might not necessarily be due to the young ages of the students, as it is commonly believed to be a contributing factor to successful language learning. Li, P.

(2015) mentions that

recent scientific evidence (...) has challenged the view of [decreasing plasticity of the adult brain in acquiring a new language]. In particular, cognitive and brain studies of bilingual language acquisition, along with studies of memory, attention, and perception, have demonstrated continued neuroplasticity for language learning in the adult brain that has never been previously imagined (p. 2).

Therefore, gains in decoding are expectable in language learners regardless of their ages. Nevertheless, it could be the case that metacognition has had an accelerating impact in the development of decoding, and that could also be seen in older learners.

Surprisingly, the results of decoding and the general metacognitive awareness show the same increasing percentage: 7%. This does not necessarily mean that they are directly correlated, but it may suggest some relationship between one another. However, there are not sufficient qualitative sources to triangulate decoding with the quantitative data of the Listening Diagnostic Test and the Listening Final Test, therefore such claim cannot be concluded.

Impact of Limitations of the Study on the Results

One of the most salient, and perhaps self-explanatory, of the limitations in this study was the short time that framed the pedagogical intervention. Even though two months was

sufficient time to implement the research and the methodological designs, it was not enough to attain the goal of developing listening skills in beginner EFL learners.

Another serious limitation was student lack of commitment and intrinsic motivation. This limitation implies that students are not likely to have made their best efforts at all times, which renders the results of this study less conclusive. However, the interactions of Team 3 and the interviews show something different. Students from that team seemed engaged at all times with the activities, yet it cannot be concluded that all of the students in the group made their best effort at all times, especially when not all students took the MALQ, as there was no reward for taking it. Therefore, in spite of the seemingly positive perceptions manifested in the interviews and the active engagement displayed in the interactions, it is not possible to conclude that students were highly motivated to carry out the listening, metacognition and team-based activities at all times.

As mentioned in the theoretical framework, some of the higher mental capacities of the culturally shaped mind are logical thought and problem solving, learning, and evaluation of the effectiveness of these processes, which accounts for the employment of metacognitive thinking. Language learning, in a Vygotskian (sociocultural) perspective, is mediated by “all the semiotic resources that are available in the learning environment, including of course [those] in the classroom” (van Lier, 2004 p. 97). One of the limitations of this study is the lack of information about students’ degree of culturally shaped minds, which would help to predict performance on metacognitive strategies employment. MALQ 1 constituted an element to see students’ initial degree of use of metacognitive strategies, however I decided not to look at their results before the intervention in order to avoid making judgments which would affect the design of this study and to avoid making

assumptions about students performance on the Diagnostic and Final tests. In other words, I decided to ignore such information in order to remain unbiased during the intervention.

Consciousness and listening

As noted in the theoretical framework, Rost (2011) defines consciousness as “the aspect of mind that has a self-centred point of view and orientation to the environment” (p. 17). In addition, he believes that consciousness is directly related to intentionality – the intention to understand and to be understood (p.17). Even though students might possess individual differences in their neurological processing, and their intrinsic motivation to learn English is not very high, I believe their intention to understand is common ground in this study from what they mentioned in the recorded interviews and their team interactions of phases 2 and 3.

Attention

Despite attention stages in neurological processing occurring simultaneously, it is not clear to what extent this process occurs in a similar fashion when listeners are exposed to L2, and also to what extent the processing of such stimulus leads to the same understanding. It is my view from my experience that this process is dissimilar in L1 and L2, especially in beginner learners of L2. Unfortunately, other physiological studies to measure hearing ability, and thus determine whether there are gains in listening subskills or not, do not seem plausible in the current times. “Human auditory perception depends on the frequency- and level-dependent gain and tuning characteristics of the human cochlea” (Lopez-Poveda, E. et al., 2013, p. 47). Subsequently, they hold that it “is not yet possible to directly measure

these characteristics in living subjects for obvious reasons” (Lopez-Poveda, E. et al., 2013, p. 47).

Vandergrift’s Listening Metacognitive Pedagogical Sequence

Metacognitive instruction clearly raised metacognitive awareness in this intervention, as the MALQ results show. Yet, metacognitive awareness per se seems insufficient to improve understanding of main ideas, details and decoding. One of the aspects to consider in further interventions is to provide students with out-of-class listening cycles in which they put the metacognitive strategies into practice, and thus maximize the practicing and processing time, and so possibly see positive results in listening test that assess understanding of main ideas and details, and decoding.

Though scores of main ideas and details in the Listening Final Test were lower than in the Diagnostic Test and did not evaluate the actual use of the metacognitive processes, the MALQ shows such increase in metacognitive awareness, and it is possible that students’ overall listening skills have actually developed, but it was not reflected in the Listening Final Test. Conversely, it is also possible that understanding of main ideas, details and decoding have remained steady, but the using of the aforementioned metacognitive processes had had a negative impact on listening performance due to occupation of working memory space.

“The Metacognitive Pedagogical Sequence shows how the metacognitive processes of planning, monitoring, problem-solving, and evaluation can shape a pedagogical sequence that leads learners to activate the cognitive processes in real-life listening” (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012, p. 104). It seems that for such activation of cognitive processes

in real-life listening to be beneficial and to be reflected in a listening test, further exposure to spoken English as well as additional practice with the Metacognitive Pedagogical Sequence are necessary. As I quoted in the theoretical framework: “in the long run, a metacognitive approach to extensive listening will greatly benefit learners and help them develop real-world listening skills that can ‘ensure that the acquisition of L2 continues in the world beyond courses and classrooms’” (Field, 2007, p. 31 in Vandergrift & Goh, 2012, p. 212).

Two months are clearly not the long run, thus this study cannot conclude that Vandergrift’s Listening Metacognitive Pedagogical Sequence delivered through Michaelsen’s Team-Based Learning does not lead to the development of understanding of main ideas, details and decoding. As I noted in the theoretical framework, developing listening skills in English is done in order to improve listening comprehension. According to Dettori, G. and Lupi, V. (2013) such improvement “involves practicing core skills, such as listening selectively, e.g., for details or for gist, making inferences, and predicting the content of the following sentences, yet always keeping the attention on the development of effective communication”. In consequence, they maintain that “in this process, it is important that the learners develop awareness of task requirements as well as of their own strengths and weaknesses as listeners” (2013, p. 615).

In the words of Vandergrift and Goh (2012, p. 83), metacognition “is our ability to think about our own thinking or ‘cognition’, and, by extension, to think about how we process information for a range of purposes and manage the way we do it. It is the ability to step back, as it were, from what occupies our mind at a particular moment in time to analyze and evaluate what we are thinking”. The definition of metacognition proposed by

Vandergrift and Goh (2012) reflects the view of listening as a processing of information, which matches the elements present in the current definition of listening and its conception as a process.

Metacognition could be seen in action through the utilization of strategies by learners in parallel as they listened. Parallel processing models assume, as mentioned in the theoretical framework in words of Randall Holme (Ed. 2013, p. 619), that “the larger part of cognitive processing is not specific to the sensory mechanisms from which knowledge of the world and of language is acquired (...) such models replicate how the brain performs mental operations by making connections across synapses with neurons with degrees of strength established by usage.” Such connections across synapses with neurons cannot be measured in a classroom, and as individual differences exist in neurological processing, it is another aspect to take into consideration when implementing metacognitive strategies in the classroom. Simply put, students working memories are different, and that can be seen in their listening processes.

In terms of pedagogical methodology effectiveness, these three strategies did offer ground to build a path towards an informed pedagogical sequence to listening. Planning, monitoring and evaluation hold promise on the development of listening skills, supported by top-down and bottom-up processing, and a pedagogical sequence that provides students with the opportunity to plan, monitor and evaluate what they hear or comprehend, and to interact with a community of listeners to make sense of the listening task. Nevertheless, such promise needs students’ time and opportunities to practice, both in and out of the classroom, to be fulfilled.

Finally, it seems to be a potentially effective methodology in terms of learner engagement for some students, as it was generally well perceived by students, according to their claims in the interviews.

Application of Prior Knowledge

Vandergrift and Goh (2012) describe top down processing as the processing that “involves the application of context and prior knowledge to interpret the message. Listeners who approach a comprehension task in a top-down manner use their knowledge of the context, of the listening event or the topic of a listening text to activate a conceptual framework for understanding the message. Listeners can apply different types of knowledge to the task, including: prior (world or experiential) knowledge, pragmatic knowledge, cultural knowledge about the target language, and discourse knowledge (types of texts and how information is organized in these texts). This knowledge is stored in the listener’s long-term memory in the form of schemata (complex mental structures that group all knowledge concerning a concept)” Vandergrift and Goh (2012, p. 19). One problem in this study would be to determine to what extent students did really apply the context and the prior knowledge to interpret the listening texts. In addition, the assumption of students storing such knowledge in their long-term memories implies having had sufficient and spaced out exposure to transfer such knowledge from short-term memory to the long-term one, for which two months to work on three different topics, and to make such transfer in the three topics, is probably not sufficient.

In terms of sociocultural learning, by being exposed to a foreign language, students might encounter that their cultural symbols, signs artifacts and referents are no longer useful to elucidate meaning from a different language in which different conceptions from

the ones they are familiar with of etiquette, justice and money were discussed. Van Lier (2004) asserts that the sociocultural theory “rejects the view that language (or any other phenomenon, worldly or mental) is ready-made for consumption. Rather, we construe and construct it as we go along. A word or an expression never means the same thing twice, in any conversation or across conversations” (p. 90). Assuming that students had applied all their previous knowledge, which might not be the case, could not necessarily have helped them match it with the listening tasks to build the adequate schemata that supports top-down processing, because of the possible mismatches between students own previous knowledge about the conceptions of etiquette, justice and money, and those of input conveyed in the listening tasks, which reflect those concepts from a different sociocultural viewpoint and context.

Team-Based Learning.

The findings of the three intervention phases in terms of Michaelsen’s Team-Based Learning show Team grades were always higher than Individual grades, a tenent of Team-Based Learning (Michaelsen, 2007). Consequently, it is possible to affirm that learning as under a socio constructivist view did indeed take place in this intervention, likely as a byproduct of Team-Based discussions to answer the questions of the IF-AT instruments. Interestingly, even though intrinsic motivation might have been low at this English course, students seem to have strived to give their best during the RATs solving, maybe in order to not lose face in front of their peers. Therefore, it can safely be affirmed that Team-Based Learning is a positive instruction force in the classroom to achieve learning goals. Now, further research, especially longitudinal, would be required to determine and to confirm to what extent it contributes to the development of understanding for Main Ideas, Details,

Decoding. As for metacognitive awareness, students intra-team discussions for Phase 1 - RAT 1 seem sufficient evidence to hold that it indeed contributed to its rising. The fact that the Listening Final Test was only individual and not Team-Based does not allow comparing results. Individual results were always low. However, if individual tests from RAT 2 and RAT 3 are compared, we can see an increase of 17% in the scores (RAT 1 = 2.0; RAT 2 = 2.4).

Regarding the qualitative data, surprisingly, students' perception of Team-Based learning did not seem to be very positive, based on the low percentage of coverage of its category on the interviews (6,47%). This can be interpreted in two ways: either students did not feel comfortable or satisfied enough with it to mention it spontaneously in an open-ended question, or they just did not mention it as not being asked specifically to mention it. Either way, I consider the socio constructive methodology proposed by Team-Based Learning a promising area for Metacognitive Listening instruction in the long term.

Suggestions for Future Research

It is important to further understand specific ways in which metacognition improves listening comprehension and long-term listening development. In addition, I identify that there is a need to understand how contextual, learner and cultural factors may influence learners' knowledge and willingness to adopt strategies, the metacognitive instructional process and its outcome.

It would also be valuable to instruct on compensatory strategies for interruptions of semantic processing, as presented by Rost (2011) Skipping, Approximation, Filtering,

Incompletion and Substitution, in order to compensate for problems like the one reported by a Team 3 student on semantic processing.

Regarding learning, under the Socio-cultural theory, it is worth remembering van Lier (2000) when he asserts that “not all of cognition and learning can be explained in terms of processes that go on inside the head” (p. 246), which means that neuroimaging techniques might fall short at explaining and displaying learning. This assertion of van Lier’s could be tested in future longitudinal studies that include neuroimaging and metacognitive strategies, and compare them against listening skills development.

As additional actions to be carried out in future similar studies, the inclusion of SMART goals (Specific, Measurable, Attainable, Relevant, and Time-based), which were used in Study 1 of the Literature Review, could show additional gains in terms of immediate task performance.

In addition, a Listening Span Test as the one applied by Komori in the 2016 study would help confirm whether working memory capacity is affected and to what extent. And, like in this study, separating metacognitive strategies and assessing their application individually hold the potential to explain which metacognitive strategy would be better taught and implemented in early language learning stages.

In further studies, it would also be interesting to accompany the application of metacognitive strategies in parallel with MRI or ideally fMRI images, which permit to see the brain areas activated during listening perception and comprehension processes, making it possible to compare and associate, and perhaps determining the extent to which neurological differences among students explain individual performance on listening tasks, and to see how the listening process takes shape in the students’ brains while employing

metacognitive strategies. Such studies could also look into metacognition and the primary areas of the brain involved in listening (the primary auditory cortex, the Superior Temporal Gyrus (STG), Heschl's gyri, Wernicke's area and Broca's area (Rost, 2011) through imaging techniques such as MRI, fMRI and Tensor Diffusion Imaging (Alexander et al., 2007), which permit to see functionality of the brain performing cognitive tasks, in order to gain insights on whether metacognition's impact in those areas can be seen and measured, and thus neuroscience can inform pedagogy on the listening process, thus making it more deeply and thoroughly understood, and hence better developed. Additionally, such neuroscience techniques hold the potential to help us see the relationship between metacognition and changes in the brain structure, as those reported by Li, P. et al.'s (2015) "second language experience induced brain changes, including increased gray matter (GM) density and white matter (WM) integrity, can be found in children, young adults, and the elderly; can occur rapidly with short-term language learning or training; and are sensitive to age, age of acquisition, proficiency or performance level, language-specific characteristics, and individual differences" (p. 1). In conclusion, neuroscience has the potential to inform richly listening instruction.

In addition, as I mentioned in the theoretical framework: over time and with exposure and practice, it is said that synapses change their shape and strengthen, enabling neurons to send signals through the synapses. This is supported by Holme, who states that "the multiple shape changes caused by data passing through a network captures thought as a wave effect or flow, with each neuron responding to the current passed through it" (2013, p. 619). Thus, such imaging techniques might serve the purpose to visualize gains in

listening subskills, and so to offer a visual perspective on listening skills gains other than a listening test.

Further studies should also apply additional metacognitive pedagogical cycles along with Team-Based learning, and be longitudinal, in order to determine whether sustained application of metacognitive instruction and socio constructivist pedagogy yield positive results in students' development of listening skills over time.

Finally, it could also be beneficial to inform future research on the effectiveness of both methodologies, Vandergrifts' Listening Metacognitive Pedagogical Sequence and Michaelsen's Team-Based Learning, to have a control group in which none of the two methodologies are implemented to compare Listening Final Test results, in order to test the effectiveness of both methodologies compared to another, and thus make decisions which benefit students development of understanding of Main Ideas, Details and Decoding. In addition, including a qualitative component or data collection instrument to the listening sub-skills seems a potentially insightful area for inquiry in further studies.

CONCLUSIONS

The quote from the Stephen King's 11/22/63 at the beginning shows Jake Epping, the fictional character of the novel using some metacognitive strategies to try to decode: monitoring, and planning and evaluating. However, Jake did not succeed at his attempt to understand what exactly he was listening to. Such seems to be the case of this study in terms of main ideas and details.

The results reported on Chapter 4 show a general detriment in students' listening skills performance, in terms of main ideas and details. The raw data may suggest that the answer to the question pertaining this action research would be:

“to a limited extent in the short term, only in terms of metacognitive awareness and decoding, but not in terms of understanding main ideas and details”.

Such view of the results might suggest a negative impact of Vandergrift's Listening Metacognitive Pedagogical Sequence delivered through Michaelsen's Team-Based Learning methodology. Nevertheless, such general claim about the research question would be inaccurate.

First, it seems bottom-up processing starts taking place in the listener's brain, with adequate exposure to the spoken foreign language and under proper learning conditions. This happens as the listener adds the learned linguistic resources to long term memory, consequently freeing working memory to be utilized to enrich meaning through the top-down processing. Thus, meaning making is more efficient, and comprehension is improved (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012). This might explain why automaticity, as Field conceives it, “can be achieved only by extensive experience of actually using the skill” (2009, p.32), which would imply even more extensive experience using the metacognitive strategies in

order to transform them into skills. Moreover, the results of this research bring to light the importance of vocabulary knowledge to successful bottom up processing. Vandergrift and Barker maintain that “listeners need to attain a certain level of vocabulary knowledge before they can efficiently transfer L1 skills to L2 listening tasks” (2015, p. 407).

In fact, Rost holds that controlled processes in listening require attention and interfere with other control processes (2011, p. 21). This fact is relevant in that the participants of this study are elementary level CEF A.2 students, whose linguistic resources are very limited, and therefore take great pains at making sense and making meaning of the auditory input. At this level, it is desirable that students free up working memory to direct it to top-down processing, and in this way they can enhance comprehension.

Linguistic knowledge seems to play an important role in decoding, which is a bottom-up process. However, for an effective top-down activation, I believe it is necessary to possess conceptual knowledge, which builds strong schemata, understood as “a structure in semantic memory that specifies the general or expected arrangement of a body of information” (Carroll, D.W. 2008, p. 176). I derive this belief from the results of MALQ 2, and Rost’s (2011) assertion that

as a way of referring to activated portions of conceptual knowledge, cognitive psychologists and linguists often refer to modules of knowledge as schemata. It is estimated that any normal adult would have hundreds of thousands of available schemas in memory, which would be interrelated in an infinite number of ways. Further, new schemata are created and existing ones are updated constantly: every time we read, listen to, or observe something new we create a new schema (p. 57).

However, one problem in this research would lie in knowing whether students did in fact activate their schemata due to low intrinsic motivation, which would be key to effective comprehension, or even if they had a sufficiently good one which permitted to merge top-down and bottom-up processings, or if schemata was blocked due to being under pressure in a test situation.

Furthermore, Field (2009) states that “the main difference between a process approach and sub-skills -main ideas, details and decoding- is that the process approach relies on evidence of behavior of skilled listeners, while sub-skills are hypothetical, because their existence is difficult to prove.” (p. 108). Therefore, the results of this study cannot be taken as conclusive, as they account for subskills whose results in the Listening Final Test may not seem to show evidence of development of such skills, yet the absence of such development cannot be confirmed either. Instead, under a process approach, it is necessary to set long-term skill development goals, and to accompany instruction with longitudinal action research.

Field also holds that top-down processing refers to the use of “context and co-text to help identify words that are unclear, (...) to compensate for gaps in understanding or to enrich a fully decoded message.” (2009, p. 132). Field’s inclusion of context and co-text to compensate for lack of decoding abilities also contributes to working memory limitations to cope with details and main ideas. Students dealt with listening input on three levels: main ideas, details and decoding, and with the implementation of metacognitive strategies, along with context and co-text, which students probably knew about from the exposure and study of the three topics in class during the intervention phase. However, it is also unlikely to have helped answer the questions correctly because, as Vandergrift and Goh put it,

“listeners may not have all the prior knowledge required, or share enough of the speaker’s perspective on the subject matter to interpret accurately”. (2012, p. 19).

One important finding of this research is the importance of working memory capacity, which confirms that memory not only plays a crucial role in semantic processing, but also in strategy retrieval. Therefore, it is vital to raise students’ awareness of its importance as a factor benefiting or hampering listening comprehension, as I mentioned in the theoretical framework.

I believe that listening sub-skill development does not necessarily have to be tangible to exist. In fact, under a socio-constructivist view of learning, skills are not developed that way. Palincsar (2005) maintains that “the research regarding direct instruction suggests that while it is an effective way of teaching factual content, there is less evidence that this instruction transfers to higher order cognitive skills, such as reasoning and problem solving” (p. 286). As a matter of fact, Team-Based Learning appears to have a bigger impact on the awareness development of the Person Knowledge Metacognitive Factor, while it seems to have no impact on Mental Translation. However, listening, like higher-order thinking skills such as problem-solving, critical thinking and transfer (Brookfield, S. 2010), is not observable.

The process approach to listening adopts the fact that the L2 listener possesses a fully formed listening competence in L1. Thus, such listening competence only needs to be made relevant to the different circumstances of a second language. This is not a simple and immediate event in a learner’s learning process. On the contrary, this process requires strategies that inform targeted and intensive practice because, as Field (2009) asserts, the process approach can be seen as that which “relates to the processes which underpin native-

speaker performance”, in terms of skill mastery, not in terms of birthplace or nurture (p. 111). Hence, the process approach justifies sacrificing good grades in the beginning of the language learning instruction for the sake of transforming strategies into skills over time, rather than focusing on obtaining high results in the short term.

Under the view of listening as a process, such ability to make decisions on what to pay attention to and the strategy to employ to solve a listening problem requires practicing employing the metacognitive strategies, and that practicing requires time. Thus, the results of this study prove that two months and three intervention phases are not sufficient to reflect development of the sub-skills of understanding main ideas, details and decoding on a listening test, yet the results of this study do not prove conclusively that metacognitive strategies are not beneficial for beginner level students of English as a Foreign Language to develop such subskills.

Furthermore, regarding action-research and in order to assess the development of listening sub-skills such as Main Ideas, Details and Decoding, it is important not only to design quantitative data collection instruments, but also to design qualitative ones, which permits to inquire students about their own perception of the development of such skills, and to gain insights of cognitive processes while taking tests through the implementation of think-aloud protocols. The triangulation of both quantitative and qualitative sources of data would give us more thoroughly insightful information on the development of such skills.

Consequently, even though the results obtained in the Listening Final Test at first sight do not seem positive in terms of development of abilities to understand main ideas and details by utilizing a metacognitive approach under Team-Based Learning, they should not be discouraging either. In this research, students have started a process, and that process

should continue. Based on Field's (2009) assertion on years of experience employing a skill, I can conclude that a two-month period of intervening listening instruction in a classroom setting solely in order to answer the research question of this study is insufficient.

With my research, I hope to advance knowledge on the relationship between metacognitive listening strategies, vocabulary knowledge, socio cultural learning, L2 listening comprehension and working memory, as there is very little research specifically. Recently, Vandergrift and Barker stated that "the role of working memory in L2 listening comprehension deserves much greater research attention, particularly its role in real-life listening tasks" (2015, p. 397).

Personally, this study has posed several tough challenges to me. Firstly, I needed to find time to complete this study, as I had to work on my teaching duties and another research project in parallel. I consider that time management is a crucial skill I still need to work on, but after completing this study, I can safely say that I have made improvements from the beginning of it. This has been a tough but highly rewarding process.

As a teacher, I had never engaged in such kind of action research endeavour. This is the first time I do this type of research and its logistics in terms of designing activities, implementing them, keeping records of events, are not easy. In addition, writing this thesis has been a difficult process in which as ideas come, so can be discarded, and long hours of reading take place before any valuable writing occurred. Nevertheless, I can say that the process gets easier as results appear. Before results, everything from the theoretical framework to the methodological implementation seems blurry.

As a researcher, I think this is my first formal step. As I mentioned before, this is the first time I engage in such process, and I think I am more dexter at finding sources of valuable information, at drafting a research question, and at designing an action research study. Additionally, I have also become better at connecting dots from pieces of supposedly isolated -or apparently not directly connected- information, discussing analysis and drawing conclusions.

One of the most important gains from this study for me both as a teacher and a learner is the deeper understanding of the listening skills, their intricacies and their development process.

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APPENDIX 1 - MALQ

1. MALQ by Larry Vandergrift, 2006.

Circle the number which best shows your level of agreement with the statement at the present time.						
	Strongly disagree 1	Disagree 2	Slightly disagree 3	Partly agree 4	Agree 5	Strongly agree 6
Factor	Strategy or Belief/Perception					
Planning/ Evaluation	1. Before I start to listen, I have a plan in my head for how I am going to listen.					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Directed Attention	2. I focus harder on the text when I have trouble understanding.					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Person Knowledge	3. I find that listening in English is more difficult than reading, speaking, or writing in English.					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Mental Translation	4. I translate in my head as I listen.					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Problem Solving	5. I use the words I understand to guess the meaning of the words I don't understand.					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Directed Attention	6. When my mind wanders, I recover my concentration right away.					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Problem Solving	7. As I listen, I compare what I understand with what I know about the topic.					
	1	2	3	4	5	6

Person Knowledge	8. I feel that listening comprehension in English is a challenge for me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Problem Solving	9. I use my experience and knowledge to help me understand.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Planning/Evaluation	10. Before listening, I think of similar texts that I may have listened to.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Mental Translation	11. I translate key words as I listen.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Directed Attention	12. I try to get back on track when I lose concentration.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Problem Solving	13. As I listen, I quickly adjust my interpretation if I realize that it is not correct.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Planning/Evaluation	14. After listening, I think back to how I listened, and about what I might do differently next time.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Person Knowledge	15. I don't feel nervous when I listen to English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Directed Attention	16. When I have difficulty understanding what I hear, I give up and stop listening.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Problem Solving	17. I use the general idea of the text to help me guess the meaning of the words that I don't understand.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Mental Translation	18. I translate word by word, as I listen.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Problem Solving	19. When I guess the meaning of a word, I think back to everything else that I have heard, to see if my guess makes sense.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Planning/Evaluation	20. As I listen, I periodically ask myself if I am satisfied with my level of comprehension.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Planning/Evaluation	21. I have a goal in mind as I listen.	1	2	3	4	5	6

The 21 statements of the MALQ 1 refer to strategies and beliefs/perceptions related to factors which have an impact on listening performance. Such factors are Planning and

Evaluating, Directed Attention, Person Knowledge, Mental Translation and Problem Solving. The purpose of applying this questionnaire before the intervention was to measure the students' initial metacognitive knowledge. The 21 statements were extracted from Vandergrift & Goh (2012, p. 95) and were translated from English to Spanish with kind permission of the authors, in order to avoid confusion related to students lack of linguistic knowledge. Consequently, this is how I presented the 21 statements to students:

1. Antes de comenzar a escuchar, tengo un plan en mente sobre la forma en que voy a hacerlo.
2. Me enfoco más en el texto cuando tengo problemas entendiendo.
3. Considero que escuchar en inglés es más difícil que leer, hablar o escribir en inglés.
4. Traduzco mentalmente mientras escucho.
5. Empleo las palabras que entiendo para adivinar el significado de las que no puedo entender.
6. Cuando me distraigo, me vuelvo a concentrar inmediatamente.
7. Mientras escucho, comparo lo que entiendo con lo que sé sobre el tema.
8. Siento que la comprensión auditiva en inglés es un desafío para mí.
9. Empleo mi experiencia y conocimientos para intentar entender.
10. Antes de escuchar, pienso en textos similares que haya escuchado antes.
11. Traduzco palabras claves mientras escucho.
12. Intento devolver la pista cuando pierdo la concentración.
13. Mientras escucho, modifico rápidamente mi interpretación si me doy cuenta que esta no es correcta.

14. Después de escuchar, hago memoria sobre la forma en que escuché y sobre como podría hacerlo diferente la próxima vez.
15. No siento nervios cuando escucho en inglés.
16. Cuando tengo dificultad entendiendo lo que escucho, me rindo y dejo de escuchar.
17. Utilizo la idea general del texto como apoyo para adivinar el significado de las palabras que no entiendo.
18. Traduzco palabra por palabra mientras escucho.
19. Cuando adivino el significado de una palabra, hago memoria de todo lo demás que escuché para determinar si mi suposición tiene sentido.
20. Mientras escucho, regularmente me pregunto a mi mismo(a) si estoy satisfecho(a) con mi nivel de comprensión.
21. Tengo un objetivo en mente mientras escucho.

APPENDIX 2 – LISTENING DIAGNOSTIC TEST

Listening Diagnostic Test - Level 1- Part 1

Name: _____

Date: _____ Score: _____/3.

Read the questions. Then, listen to the recording. After you listen to the recording, you can answer the questions. Listen one more time to check your work. Make any necessary corrections.

Top Down Questions North Star 2 - Unit 2 - Track 13

1. You are probably listening to
 - A. a conversation
 - B. a speech (discurso)
 - C. a TV program
 - D. an Interview

2. The speaker is _____ of the audience.
 - A. a friend
 - B. a family member
 - C. a stranger

3. The purpose of the speaker is
 - A. to convince the audience of changing their lifestyle.
 - B. to inform about an innovative idea.
 - C. to explain a revolutionary trend (tendencia) in housing and living.

Listening Diagnostic Test - Level 1- Part 2

Name: _____.

Date: _____ Score: _____/10.

Main Ideas *North Star 2 - Unit 2 - Track 15*

*Read the list of ways that new-urbanist communities are designed to be different from typical suburbs. Put an **X** next to the things that are **true**.*

New-urbanist communities...

- A. are convenient for walking. _____
- B. are connected to public transportation. _____
- C. are places where people have a sense of community. _____
- D. have many parks and trees. _____
- E. have different kinds of housing near each other. _____

Details

*Listen again. Read each statement. Write **T** (true) or **F** (false) Focus on Elizabeth's information.*

- _____ 1. In Kentville, the housing and businesses are near from each other.
- _____ 2. Kentville is not a friendly place.
- _____ 3. People in Kentville want to walk more.
- _____ 4. Elizabeth Jones thinks people will not stay in front of their houses.
- _____ 5. Elizabeth Jones wanted to build a community where people live near each other.

Listening Diagnostic Test - Level 1- Part 3

Name: _____

Date: _____ Score: _____/8.

Bottom up - Decoding *North Star 2 - Unit 2 - Track 20*

*Listen to the radio host take some calls from the listeners.
Then listen again and select the option you hear from the (words in bold).*

Host: Thanks for that report, Roy. Now, let's open up the

(1) _____

(a. phone ties - b. phone mines - c. phone lines - d. phone tries)

to our listeners. So tell us . . . what do you think about this new community? Would you like to live in Kentville? OK, we have our first caller. Hello. You're (2) _____.

(a. on the air - b. on thief air - c. up the air)

Caller 1: Hi. Well, I live in Kentville. And I think it's a great place to live . . . you really can walk everywhere IN Kentville . . . but one problem is there just isn't enough public transportation to get places OUTSIDE of Kentville. Most people still have to drive to work. . . Like me-I'm stuck in traffic

(3) _____! **(a. night now - b. right now - c. mind now - d. might now)**

Host: Oh . . . that's too bad. So public transportation is a problem. . . .

Let's hear from 4 _____ . Hello?

(4) (a. a better caller - b. other caller - c. another caller - d. another call him)

Caller 2: Hi. Well, I don't think I'd really like it in Kentville. I grew up in a small town-my family's lived there for years and years. I think in my hometown people really do feel a sense of community because we

(5) _____

(a. share a long history together - b. share a long story together). We really know each other... I don't think you can just make that happen in a new place.

Host: OK. Well, that's an interesting point. It takes time to build a sense of community. All right, we have time for one more caller . . .

Caller 3: Yes, hello. Well, I live in the city. So, I really like it here. It is pretty crowded and noisy, but it's an exciting place to live. I have a friend who lives in Kentville, and . . . **(6)** _____ to visit **(a. it's a fine place - b. it's a nice place)** - to visit but I wouldn't want to live there.

Host: Oh? And _____?

(7) (a. way is that? - b. my is at - c. why is that? - d. why is at?)

Caller 3: Well, Kentville is so small, and _____ **(8)(a. there isn't - b. there is - c. there is and)** much to do. And everything is so much the same. The houses and the buildings all look the same-and they all have rules that tell what color you can paint your house, and how you can decorate it. I think it's boring!

Host: Well, there you have it. A lot of people love Kentville, but not everyone is crazy about it. Until next week, this is Joanne Williams for Newsline. Goodnight.

APPENDIX 3 - METACOGNITIVE LISTENING SUPPLEMENT

METACOGNITIVE LISTENING SUPPLEMENT 1: Factores que afectan la comprensión de escucha

Fase de contextualización

En este suplemento para mejorar la habilidad de escucha en inglés, encontrarás información muy útil para entender y aprender tanto acerca de los temas que discutiremos las próximas semanas en clase, como acerca de ti mismo y cómo has venido abordando los ejercicios de escucha, y cómo puedes abordarlos más eficientemente durante tu proceso de aprendizaje del inglés.

Lo primero que vas a hacer es leer sobre algunas experiencias de otros estudiantes de lenguas extranjeras en distintos lugares del mundo, y vas a analizar con cuáles de estas experiencias te sientes identificado cuando haces ejercicios de escucha en inglés.

Pon un check (✓) al lado de las experiencias con las cuáles te sientas identificado:

Escuché una historia acerca de un elefante. Sonaba familiar, pero entonces escuché la historia una vez, y casi no entendí nada. Yo estaba muy deprimido, pero yo sabía que tenía que escuchar de nuevo, a pesar de que tal vez el segundo intento me impactaría al no comprender nada otra vez. Pero sin embargo, en el segundo intento conseguí una chispa de esperanza. Me alegré de que pude conseguir alrededor de la mitad de la historia. Fue un incentivo para mí. (Mae)	
Me pareció que el gran obstáculo para oír es mi memoria, que es ineficiente. Cuando escucho palabras nuevas, me olvido de los contenidos antes mencionados. Así que si oigo una frase larga, rara vez cojo todo sentido la frase, pero a veces puedo oír cada palabra con claridad. Mi memoria de escucha es un gran problema para mí. (Ronald)	
Después de la clase me paso mucho tiempo recogiendo vocabulario. Creo que es importante. Hago lo que puedo para coger las palabras cruciales del ejercicio. Después de conseguir estas palabras, puedo comprender el contenido en conjunto. (Yang)	
Todos los días escucho la BBC y las noticias. Pero sólo cuando estoy completamente concentrado en la transmisión, puedo entender lo que dice. Hay también algunos intervalos cuando reflexiono sobre el significado específico de una palabra y pierdo las siguientes palabras, lo cual me impide entender coherentemente. La distracción es la barrera más peligrosa y frecuente en mi práctica de escucha. (Wendy)	
Escuché las noticias de la BBC. Creo que mi problema es la pronunciación y el acento del presentador. No podía escuchar claramente muchas de las palabras que decían. Aunque podía entender la idea general de lo que estaban hablando. (Boris)	
Esta semana, seguí escuchando FM 90.5. Aunque su Inglés no es tan bueno como el de la BBC, sus temas son más interesantes. Muchas de sus conferencias están relacionadas con	

nuestra vida, así que cuando lo escucho, siento que me puedo concentrar, y también lo entiendo mejor debido a la idea que tengo al respecto. Creo que la mejora es realmente útil y siempre me hace ser más confiado. (Stuart)	
--	--

Traducido de Vandergrift & Goh, (2012). *Teaching and learning second language listening. Metacognition in action.*

Como pudiste leer en las experiencias anteriores, es común que los estudiantes de lenguas extranjeras muestren distintos tipos de problemas y dificultades a la hora de abordar los ejercicios de escucha, y las mismas actividades cotidianas que implican escuchar en la lengua que están buscando aprender. Así que no te preocupes, sigue adelante. En este suplemento para mejorar la habilidad de escucha, vas a aprender un poco más acerca de los factores que inciden en tu habilidad de escucha y cómo sacar el mejor provecho de ellos.

Factores que afectan la habilidad de escucha

Según Vandergrift & Goh (2012), hay tres factores principales que afectan la habilidad de escucha, y que se interrelacionan. Estos son:

- Factores cognitivos
- Factores afectivos
- Factores contextuales

Vandergrift & Goh (2012) sostienen que los factores cognitivos incluyen conocimientos lingüísticos (vocabulario y conocimiento sintáctico), el conocimiento del discurso, el conocimiento pragmático, el conocimiento metacognitivo, el conocimiento previo, la capacidad de escucha en la lengua materna, la capacidad de discriminación de los sonidos, y la capacidad de memoria de trabajo.

Los factores afectivos incluyen factores tales como la ansiedad, la motivación y la autoeficacia. Los factores contextuales de escucha incluyen escuchar en la vida real informal fuera del aula (escuchar a la televisión o la radio) y escuchar en la vida real formal en el aula, contextos tales como conferencias, prácticas de escucha aula formal, escucha interactiva, y la evaluación de la habilidad de escucha. Cada uno de estos contextos presenta diferentes demandas cognitivas y afectivas en el oyente.

Ahora, vamos a explicar estos factores detalladamente y qué partes los componen:

Factores cognitivos

- Conocimiento de vocabulario: son las palabras y expresiones que conoces.
- Conocimiento sintáctico: es tu conocimiento del orden de las palabras en una oración: S + V + O.
- Conocimiento del discurso: es tu conocimiento sobre lo que vas a escuchar (una narración, una descripción, una conversación, una presentación, un programa, etc).
- Conocimiento pragmático: es tu conocimiento de las convenciones y señales que utilizan los hablantes para comunicar ideas sin palabras. Ejemplos son sonidos como “Ajá”, Ah, Ehhh, Huh!
- Conocimiento metacognitivo: es tu conocimiento sobre los factores cognitivos anteriormente mencionados y tu conocimiento sobre tu habilidad de monitorear y controlar el uso de tus habilidades cognitivas para comprender mejor.
- Conocimiento previo: es tu conocimiento del mundo y del tema en cuestión durante la escucha.
- Habilidad de escucha en la lengua materna: es tu habilidad de escuchar y comprender en español.
- Habilidad de discriminación de sonidos: es tu capacidad de distinguir sonidos, como vocales, consonantes, sílabas, altos y bajos de entonación.
- Capacidad de memoria de trabajo: es parte de los recursos neurológicos que utilizas para desempeñar la función de recordar partes de información y crear significado a partir de éstas.

Factores afectivos

- **Ansiedad:** es una emoción negativa que se genera frente a la incertidumbre respecto al contenido del material que se va a escuchar e incertidumbre frente a la habilidad propia de entenderlo
- **Motivación:** es el factor personal que determina el grado de interés en lo que se escucha. La motivación puede ser propia, tal como la curiosidad que genera el tema o el ejercicio de escucha, o puede ser externa, tal como un reconocimiento o una recompensa al escuchar sobre el tema o al realizar exitosamente el ejercicio de escuchar
- **Autoconcepto de eficacia:** es la creencia que se tiene de sí mismo y su propia capacidad de desempeñar una labor exitosamente.

Factores Contextuales

- Escucha informal fuera del aula de clases (televisión o radio).
- Escucha formal de la vida real en el salón de clases, tales como conferencias y ejercicios de escucha formales.
- Escucha interactiva: ocurre cuando estás en una conversación.
- Evaluación y valoración de la escucha: ocurre durante un examen de habilidad de escucha.

Cada uno de estos contextos presenta diferentes demandas cognitivas y afectivas. El propósito de este material es ayudarte a abordar dichas demandas de manera eficiente para que puedas mejorar tu habilidad de escucha, y así mejorar en tu dominio del inglés.

Estrategias de escucha

¿Cómo escuchamos y entendemos?

Escuchar y comprender lo que escuchamos es un proceso que requiere exposición y el trabajo con estrategias puntuales. El propósito de este suplemento es ayudarte a desarrollar tu habilidad de escucha en inglés a través de una serie de pasos y ejercicios para que hagas de forma individual. Por supuesto, siempre cuentas con el apoyo de tu profesor/a para aclarar dudas y mejorar tus habilidades a lo largo de este proceso.

Lo primero que debemos tener en cuenta es que el proceso de escucha y comprensión va más allá de responder correctamente una pregunta con selección múltiple. Ésto es algo a lo que tal vez estés acostumbrado/a, pero en realidad no es suficiente, incluso es irrelevante, para desarrollar habilidades de comprensión oral.

Cuando tú escuchas un texto, no solamente escuchas la información, sino que también activas la información que tú tienes sobre el tema desde antes. Es decir, tu comprensión del mismo está ligada a tus conocimientos. Estos conocimientos te brindan el contexto que te “ayuda” a comprender lo que escuchas. Te preguntarás por qué el verbo ayudar está entre comillas. Es porque nuestro conocimiento es solamente útil para ayudarnos a identificar el tema, pero no para profundizar en el mensaje. Para profundizar en el mensaje debemos entender la mayor cantidad posible de palabras. Con el fin de lograr este objetivo, debemos concentrar nuestros esfuerzos y nuestra práctica en el desarrollo de la habilidad de decodificar, o en otras palabras, darle sentido a todo lo que escuchamos.

Esta guía está diseñada para ayudarte a desarrollar tu habilidad de decodificar mensajes en inglés en un contexto académico y a utilizar algunas estrategias de manera efectiva.

Macro estrategias

Tony Lynch (2009 y otras publicaciones), un reconocido experto en el área de desarrollo de habilidades de escucha, establece cinco macro estrategias que son muy

útiles para ayudarte a enfrentar las tareas de escucha tanto en la clase de inglés, como fuera de ella.

1. Predecir
2. Monitorear
3. Responder
4. Aclarar
5. Evaluar

Sin embargo, las estrategias no funcionarán si, de manera simultánea, no realizas un trabajo de familiarización y reconocimiento de vocabulario en inglés, es decir de Decodificación, que es el proceso de identificar los sonidos de las palabras y sílabas en cualquier situación.

Macro estrategia 1. Predecir

Como sugiere Lynch (2009), la predicción es una estrategia que usamos todo el tiempo. Predecimos cómo reaccionarán las personas ante ciertas noticias, la duración de una actividad, lo que saldrá publicado en las noticias, lo que dirán nuestros amigos sobre nuestro nuevo celular. En español, en inglés, o en cualquier otro idioma extranjero, podemos usar dos tipos básicos de información para ayudarnos a predecir lo que se va a decir:

- El conocimiento previo
 - conocimiento del mundo
 - conocimiento de la cultura extranjera
 - conocimiento del tema en cuestión

- El Contexto
 - La situación (quién habla, dónde y cuándo)
 - Lo que se ha dicho hasta el momento o co-texto

Jiang (2009) define la predicción como una estrategia básica que consiste en usar el conocimiento previo para entender un texto. La función del aprendiz consiste en generar una hipótesis o una idea acerca del tipo de texto que va a escuchar, su propósito y/o su alcance en términos de contenido, con el fin de generar un marco de referencia para abordar el texto, y así confirmar la comprensión de la escucha. Así mismo, Jiang (2009) asegura que nuestra interpretación de lo que escuchamos depende en gran medida de lo que esperamos escuchar. Si lo que oímos no cumple con nuestras expectativas, se pueden generar confusiones o malentendidos. Por otra parte, afirma el mismo investigador, si podemos predecir acertadamente lo que vamos a oír, nuestra escucha será mucho más eficiente. En la vida real, hay realmente muy pocas ocasiones en que las personas escuchan sin tener idea de lo que esperan oír. La habilidad de predecir depende, por consiguiente, de nuestro conocimiento del mundo y del lenguaje, lo que se conoce o se sabe de quien habla, y lo que se sabe del propósito de quien habla. Así, es importante desarrollar esta habilidad y siempre estar atentos a lo que puede venir en el ejercicio de escucha. Debemos prestar atención desde antes de empezar a escuchar.

Con el fin de mejorar nuestras habilidades de predicción, es usual que encontremos ejercicios que nos invitan a reflexionar y cuestionarnos acerca de lo que vamos a escuchar. Entonces es común encontrar en ejercicios de inglés alguna información que nos permita dar respuestas tentativas a preguntas que ayudan a hacer predicciones.

Un ejemplo de esta información es el siguiente:

“Vas a escuchar hablar sobre el clima en los últimos 5 años en un país de África”

Responde las siguientes preguntas:

1. Who do you think will speak? - ¿Quiénes crees que van a ser los participantes?
2. How old is this person? - ¿Qué edad tiene esa persona?

3. What is the relationship of the speakers? - ¿Cuál es la relación de las personas en la conversación?

4. What genre is this person?, female or male? - ¿Cuál es el sexo de esa persona, femenino o masculino?

5. Where do you think this conversation will take place? - ¿Dónde creéis que va a transcurrir la conversación?

6. What do you think the conversation / talk is about? ¿De qué crees que se trata la conversación?

7. Which words do you think you will hear? ¿Qué palabras crees que vais a escuchar?

ACTIVIDADES DE PREDICCIÓN

1. Presentation/Lecture. Predicción y Conocimiento Previo
- ¿Qué sabes sobre Barack Obama? Antes de escuchar el audio, responde las preguntas en la columna Predictions con lo que creas que puedas escuchar.

Barack Obama		
	Predictions	Results
WHO? (Different from Barack Obama)		
WHAT?(¿De qué se trata?)		
WHERE?(Donde se lleva a cabo este texto? ¿Qué lugares?)		
WHEN?(En qué tiempo/ momento esta ubicado este texto?)		
WHY?(¿Porqué se produce este texto, con qué propósito?)		

2. Ahora, escucha el audio haciendo click en el siguiente vínculo (o en el archivo MP3)

<http://www.voiceblog.jp/joke/698717.html>

2. Social Context

1. Esta conversación ocurre en una tienda de libros (Bookstore). Piensa en qué otras cosas podrías encontrar en este lugar, y completa la columna Predictions respondiendo las preguntas.

Conversation		
	Predictions	Results
WHO? (¿Quién- es?)		
WHAT?(¿De qué se trata?)		
WHERE?(Dónde?)		
WHEN?(En qué tiempo/ momento?)		
WHY?(¿Porqué , con qué propósito?)		
HOW?(¡Cómo?)		

--	--	--

2. Ahora escucha la conversación aquí <http://www.esl-lab.com/bookstore/bookstorerd1.htm> y responde las preguntas de la columna Results.

3. Este texto es sobre “trabajos”. Piensa en qué se podría discutir y completa la columna Predictions respondiendo las preguntas.

03 Pista 3 North Star 2 CD 1 Listening

<https://www.dropbox.com/sh/ylq21ua44j0hzmw/AADFYVNq4FJKDRiTueDg9Lmqa?dl=0>

<i>What's my job?</i>		
	Predictions	Results
WHO? (¿Quién es?)		
WHAT? (¿De qué se trata?)		
WHERE? (¿Dónde?)		
WHEN? (En qué tiempo/ momento?)		
WHY? (¿Por qué, con		

qué propósito?)		
HOW? (¿Cómo?)		

4. Esta conversación ocurre en la calle. Piensa en qué otras cosas podrías encontrar en este conversacion, y completa la columna Predictions respondiendo las preguntas.

Busca el archivo 23 Pista 23 en la carpeta North Star 2 Listening CD 1. (Debes crear una cuenta en Dropbox)

<https://www.dropbox.com/sh/ylq21ua44j0hzmw/AADFVYVnq4FJKDRiTueDg9Lmq?dl=0>

Conversation 3C		
	Predictions	Results
WHO?		
WHAT?		

WHERE?		
WHEN?		

5. MÁS PRÁCTICA INDEPENDIENTE DE PREDICCIÓN

Imprime una copia de **Actividades de Predicción**. Necesitarás Real Player. Lo puedes descargar de aquí [RealPlayer, click here](#)

1. Piensa cómo son contadas las noticias usualmente . Las personas que escuchan pueden reunir información básica sobre quién o qué se trataba, qué sucedió, cuándo y dónde sucedió, y por qué sucedió. Puedes escribir tus ideas en el siguiente espacio:

2. En Internet, visita <http://www.literacynet.org/cnnsf/home.html> y haz click sobre uno de las cadenas en línea (CNN o CBS-5) para ver un archivo de historias.

3. Escoge una de las categorías de noticias (por ejemplo, “aventuras”).
4. Haz click en una de las historias, y luego haz click en la opción “STORY”.
5. No leas la historia. Solamente mira la imagen y el título del artículo del artículo. Reflexiona sobre el título y cualquier cosa que sepas sobre el tema.
6. Basándote en lo que ya puedes predecir sobre la historia, completa toda la información que puedas acerca del tema en la primera columna de tu Hoja de Trabajo bajo “Predictions”. (Si estás trabajando con otro estudiante, pueden comparar sus predicciones).
7. En el sitio web de las noticias “literacynet”, haz click en el ícono del altavoz con “RA” debajo. Esto abrirá Real Player y la historia comenzará a sonar automáticamente.
8. Escucha la noticia y trata de completar la segunda columna de la Hoja de Trabajo (Results).
9. Compara tus predicciones con lo que escuchaste. ¿Acertaste en tus predicciones?, ¿Pudiste suponer correctamente sobre qué se trataría la historia?
10. En el sitio web “literacynet”, haz click en el ícono “Story” para escuchar tu noticia. ¿Son tus predicciones y lo escuchaste similares a lo que estaba escrito? (Si estás trabajando con un compañero, comparen sus resultados).
11. Haz lo mismo con tantas historias como gustes. Nota como tu propio conocimiento sobre el tema y tus expectativas sobre el mismo te ayudan a comprender.

SOURCE: :UH-Manoa ELI Students' Online Resource Room.htm

ACTIVIDADES DE DECODIFICACIÓN

1. Unit 3. A penny saved is a penny earned.

25 Pista 25 NorthStar 2 Listening CD 1

<https://www.dropbox.com/sh/ylq21ua44j0hzmw/AADFYVNq4FJKDRiTueDg9Lmqa?dl=0>

Lee y escucha la línea de tiempo y el artículo del periódico sobre la historia de Money and Bartering, de las páginas 38 y 39.

1. Escucha el texto y no hagas nada, solamente escucha, y cierra los ojos si quieres.
2. Escucha y sigue el texto en el libro, al menos tres veces.
3. Escucha y repite el texto en voz alta, al menos tres veces.
4. Presta atención a las nuevas palabras y prepara el nuevo vocabulario.
5. Copia 2 o 3 expresiones que te haya sido difícil de identificar cuando estabas escuchando este texto y llévalas a clase.

APPENDIX 4: METACOGNITIVE LISTENING SUPPLEMENT 2
METACOGNITIVE LISTENING SUPPLEMENT 2: Etapas de la metacognición en la escucha.

A continuación encontrarás las etapas en las cuales dividirás tus ejercicios de escucha en las siguientes dos unidades de nuestro curso. Es muy importante que sigas estas instrucciones cómo aparecen aquí, puesto que el libro guía North Star 2 no las incluye.

<u>Etapas del ejercicio de escucha</u>	<u>Procesos Metacognitivos</u>
<p style="text-align: center;"><i>1. Antes de escuchar - Etapa de planeación y predicción.</i></p> <p>Después de que sepas de qué se trata el tema y sepas qué tipo de texto vas a escuchar, vas a tratar de predecir qué palabras posiblemente vas a escuchar</p>	<p>1) Planeación.</p>
<p><i>2. Después de escuchar la primera vez - primera etapa de verificación.</i></p> <p>a. Verifica tus hipótesis iniciales, has correcciones si es necesario, y anota información adicional que hayas entendido.</p> <p>b. Compara lo que entendiste con tus compañeros de grupo, modifica lo que se necesite, y determina qué se necesita resolver aún, y decide qué detalles importantes aún requieren solución.</p>	<p>2a) Monitoreo e identificación.</p> <p>2b) Monitoreo, evaluación y planeación.</p>
<p><i>3. Después de escuchar la segunda vez - segunda etapa de verificación</i></p> <p>a. Verifica los puntos donde previamente hubo desacuerdos con tu grupo, haz correcciones y escribe detalles adicionales que hayas entendido.</p> <p>b. Participemos en una discusión en clase en la cual todos los miembros contribuyan a la reconstrucción de los principales puntos del texto y los detalles más pertinentes, junto con reflexiones sobre cómo llegaron al significado de ciertas palabras o partes del texto.</p>	<p>3a) Monitoreo, evaluación y solución de problemas.</p> <p>3b) Monitoreo, evaluación y solución de problemas.</p>

<p>4. <i>Después de escuchar la tercera vez - etapa final de verificación.</i> Escucha específicamente la información revelada en la discusión en clase que no pudiste captar anteriormente.</p>	<p>4. Monitoreo y evaluación de problemas.</p>
<p>5. <i>Reflexión y establecimiento de metas.</i> Escribe metas de comprensión para tu próximo ejercicio de escucha, basado en la estrategias compensatorias anteriormente discutidas.</p>	<p>5. Evaluación y Planeación</p>

Basado en: Table 6.1 Stages of Instruction and Underlying Metacognitive Processes for Generic Listening Activities. Vandergrift & Goh (2012).

A continuación, vamos a realizar una práctica basada en los pasos anteriores. Primero, vamos a leer un texto donde vamos a encontrar una información muy útil para comprender exitosamente el texto que vamos a escuchar. Ve a la página 57 de tu libro guía North Star 2. Lee y escucha la sección Background & Vocabulary. Trabaja con tus compañeros en la búsqueda del todo el vocabulario nuevo, y resuelve el ejercicio de vocabulario de la página 58.

Ejercicio de escucha

Una vez estés listo para escuchar el texto, vas a completar la parte A del siguiente cuadro. See Appendix 5: **METACOGNITIVE TEMPLATE IN SPANISH**

APPENDIX 5 - METACOGNITIVE TEMPLATE IN SPANISH

<p>A. Planeación.</p> <p>Escribe 5 ideas que creas que van a ser mencionadas en el texto:</p> <p>1. _____</p> <p>2. _____</p> <p>3. _____</p> <p>4. _____</p> <p>5. _____</p>
<p>B. Discute tus predicciones con un(a) compañero(a) y luego escribe al menos dos ideas que tu compañero(a) y escribe al menos dos ideas más que tu compañero o compañera haya incluido en sus predicciones y que consideres posibilidades lógicas.</p> <p>6. _____</p> <p>7. _____</p>
<p>C. Escucha el texto. Pon un check (✓) al lados de las ideas que tú (A) y tu compañero (B) predijeron y efectivamente fueron mencionadas en el texto, y escribe otras ideas que no hayan sido predichas, pero que efectivamente hayan sido mencionadas.</p> <p>8. _____</p> <p>9. _____</p> <p>10. _____</p>
<p>D. Después de verificar tus predicciones y dialogar sobre sus resultados en el ejercicios de escucha, escucha el texto nuevamente para revisar tus resultados y resolver cualquier discrepancia en la comprensión entre tú y tu compañero(a). Agrega cualquier punto adicional y/o detalles importantes que no hayas entendido durante la primera escucha.</p> <p>1. _____</p> <p>2. _____</p> <p>3. _____</p> <p>4. _____</p>

5. _____

E. Escucha el texto por tercera vez para verificar comprensión después de una discusión en clase acerca del contenido del texto, y una lectura de la transcripción.

Reflexión y Establecimiento de metas.

Tuve éxito en anticipar _____ ideas.

Lo que me sorprendió:

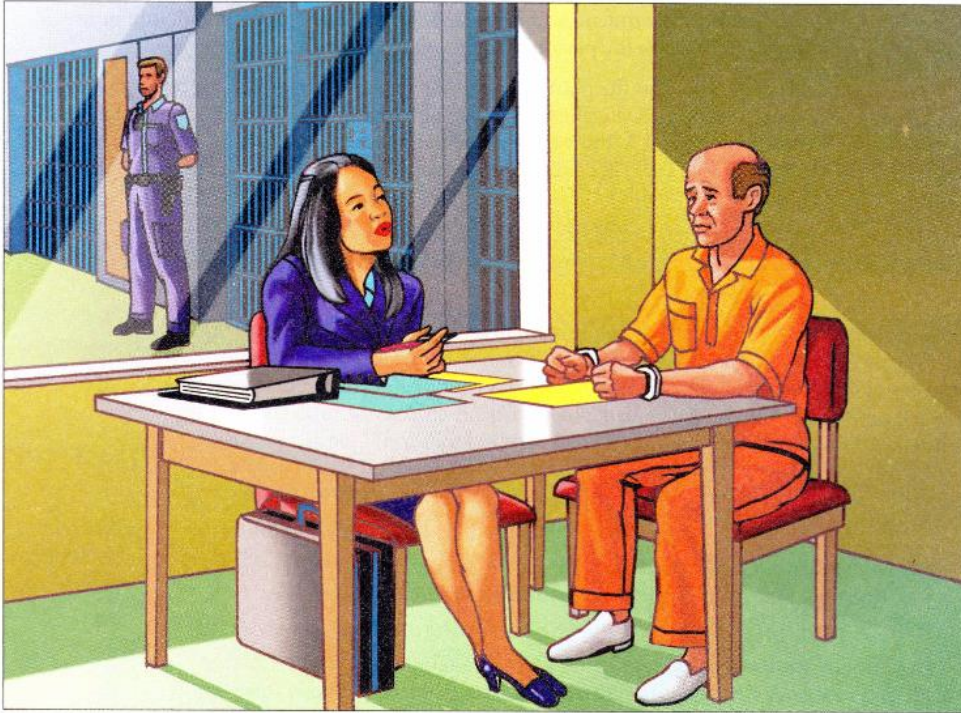
Lo que haré la próxima vez:

**APPENDIX 6 – CARTOON OF NORTH STAR 2 – CORRESPONDING TO
INTERVENTION PHASE 1**



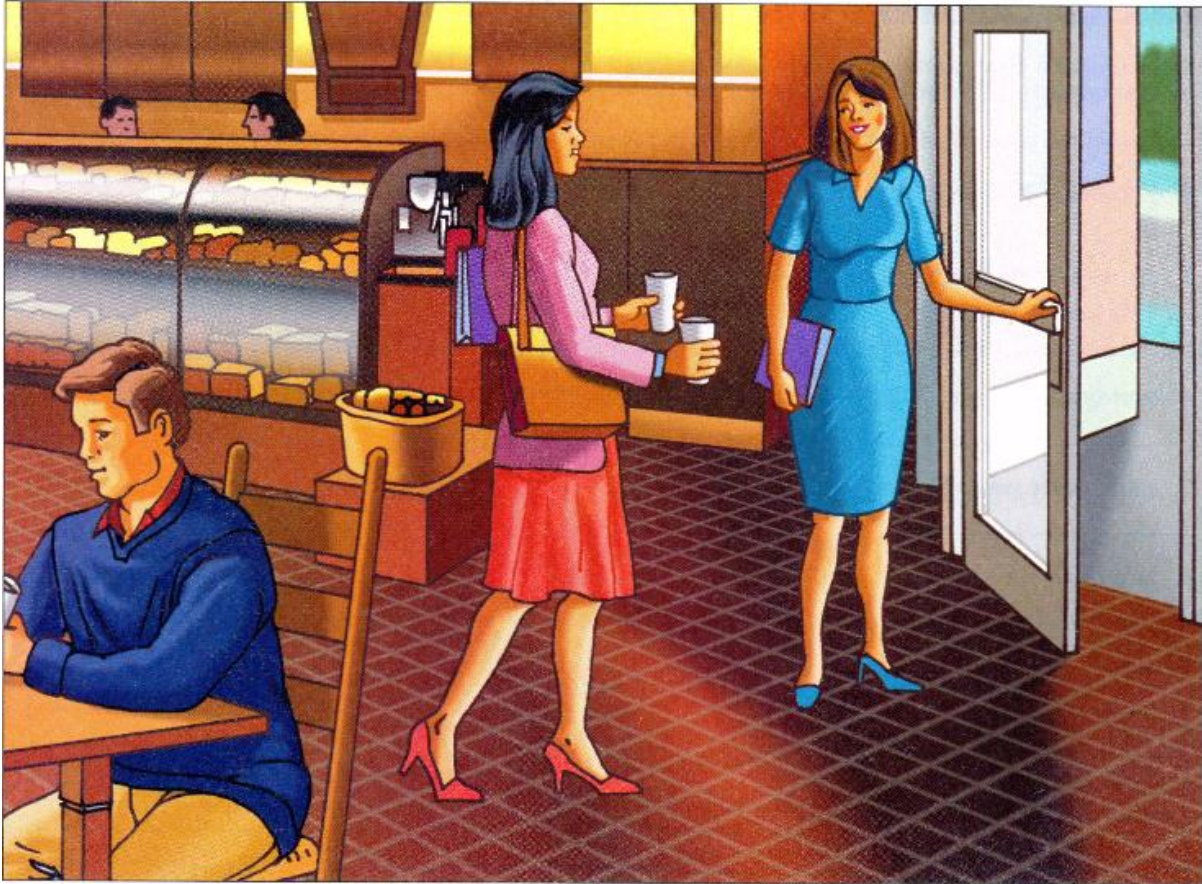
North Star 2 - Listening and Speaking, Second Edition, by Natasha Haugnes, Beth Maher,
Laurie Frazier, and Robin Mills and published by Pearson Longman

**APPENDIX 7 – CARTOON OF NORTH STAR 2 – CORRESPONDING TO
INTERVENTION PHASE 2**



North Star 2 - Listening and Speaking, Second Edition, by Natasha Haugnes, Beth Maher, Laurie Frazier, and Robin Mills and published by Pearson Longman

**APPENDIX 8 – CARTOON OF NORTH STAR 2 – CORRESPONDING TO
INTERVENTION PHASE 3**



North Star 2 - Listening and Speaking, Second Edition, by Natasha Haugnes, Beth Maher, Laurie Frazier, and Robin Mills and published by Pearson Longman

APPENDIX 9 - Phase 1: RAT 1

RAT 1 **Name:** _____

1. Escoge los factores que afectan la habilidad de escucha

- a. Factores cognitivos, Factores afectivos y Factores contextuales.
- b. Factores metacognitivos, Factores ambientales y Factores contextuales.
- c. Factores cognitivos, Factores afectivos y Factores ambientales.
- d. Factores Informativos, Factores ambientales y factores cognitivos.

2. Escoge las macro estrategias que puedes utilizar para mejorar tu habilidad de escucha.

- a. 1. Predecir 2. Dibujar 3. Responder
4. Aclarar 5. Evaluar
- b. 1. Predecir 2. Monitorear 3. Responder
4. Aclarar 5. Evaluar
- c. 1. Planear 2. Esperar 3. Escribir
4. Aclarar 5. Repetir el ejercicio
- d. 1. Esperar 2. Borrar 3. Escuchar nuevamente
4. Preguntar 5. Responder al final

3. Los factores cognitivos que afectan la habilidad de escucha son:

- a. Conocimiento de vocabulario - Conocimiento de palabras - Conocimiento de sílabas - Conocimiento fonético - Conocimiento metacognitivo - Conocimiento previo
- b. Capacidad de memoria de trabajo y Conocimiento de vocabulario
- c. Conocimiento de vocabulario - Conocimiento sintáctico - Conocimiento del discurso

- d. Conocimiento de vocabulario - Conocimiento sintáctico - Conocimiento del discurso - Conocimiento pragmático - Conocimiento metacognitivo - Conocimiento previo

4. Los factores afectivos que afectan la habilidad de escucha son:

- a. Ansiedad, Motivación y Autoconcepto de confianza.
- b. Ansiedad, Motivación, Autoconcepto de confianza y Bullying.
- c. Ansiedad y Motivación.
- d. Bullying y Ansiedad.

5. Los factores contextuales que afectan la habilidad de escucha son:

- A. Escucha informal fuera del aula de clases (televisión o radio).
- B. Escucha formal de la vida real en el salón de clases, tales como conferencias y ejercicios de escucha formales.
- C. Escucha interactiva: ocurre cuando estás en una conversación.
- D. Evaluación y valoración de la escucha: ocurre durante un examen de habilidad de escucha.
- E. Todas las anteriores.

APPENDIX 10 - Phase 2: RAT 2

RAT 2 Name: _____

Listening: Why Do Innocent People Go to Prison?

Listen to the text and select the BEST AND MOST DETAILED response.

1. According to Laura Cheng, **innocent people** go to prison...
 - A. For many reasons. One reason is a corrupt eyewitness.
 - B. For several reasons. One reason is a person commits a crime, and that is wrong.
 - C. For many reasons. One reason is an eyewitness can't remember well.
 - D. For several reasons. Two reasons are corruption and mistakes.

2. Other reasons why innocent people go to prison, according to Laura Cheng, are...
 - A. Corruption and committing a crime.
 - B. False confessions and police makes mistakes.
 - C. False confession and police.
 - D. Police pressure to say they're guilty.

3. One more reason Laura says innocent people go to prison is...
 - A. Lawyers sometimes do a bad job.
 - B. Lawyers never come to court with the accused person.
 - C. Lawyers are not interested in helping innocent people.
 - D. Lawyers always make things worse.

APPENDIX 11 - Phase 3: RAT 3

RAT 3 **Name:**

1. Why did Sarah Jones do a survey of manners?
 - a. She wanted to see if women are more polite than men.
 - b. She wanted to see if people in one country are more polite than in other countries.
 - c. She wanted to see if it is true that people are becoming very rude.
 - d. She wanted to see if women are more polite than men.
 - e. She wanted to see if young girls are more polite than old women.
 - f. She wanted to see if young boys are more polite than young girls.

2. Who did the researcher test?
 - a. men
 - b. all kinds of people students
 - c. only students
 - d. women
 - e. Students and business people

3. What situations were included in the survey?
 - a. holding the door for someone, helping someone pick up some papers, and letting someone sit down.
 - b. holding the door for someone, helping someone pick up some papers, and customer service.
 - c. helping someone pick up papers to hold the door with them.
 - d. holding papers for someone while they are at the restroom.
 - e. helping someone pick up some papers, helping someone cross the street, and customer service.

4. _____ reporters went to large cities.

- a. 35
- b. 3 and 5
- c. 2
- d. 13 and 5
- e. 22

5. New York

- a. scored as the number one city for good manners
- b. is the largest city they interviewers visited
- c. has the largest number of rude people
- d. is where the interviews occurred

APPENDIX 12 - LISTENING DIAGNOSTIC TEST – RESULTS

Results of students' performance on the Listening Diagnostic Test in a scale of 0.0 to 5.0.

STUDENT	SCORE
Student 1	3.65
Student 2	3.08
Student 3	3.27
Student 4	3.27
Student 5	2.88
Student 6	3.46
Student 7	2.88
Student 8	2.69
Student 9	3.65
Student 10	3.65
Student 11	3.27
Student 12	2.88
Student 13	2.12
Student 14	3.08
Student 15	3.65
Student 16	3.27
Student 17	3.46

APPENDIX 13 - Main Ideas - Diagnostic Test - Results

Results of students' performance on the four (4) questions of the Main Ideas section of the Listening Diagnostic Pretest in a scale of 0.0 to 5.0.

4 questions with multiple choice answer

STUDENT	SCORE
Student 1	4.0
Student 2	3.0
Student 3	4.0
Student 4	4.0
Student 5	3.0
Student 6	4.0
Student 7	4.0
Student 8	3.0
Student 9	4.0
Student 10	4.0
Student 11	2.0
Student 12	2.0
Student 13	2.0
Student 14	4.0
Student 15	4.0
Student 16	2.0
Student 17	4.0

APPENDIX 15 - Details - Diagnostic test - Results

Results of students performance on the five (5) questions of the Details section of the Listening Diagnostic Pretest in a scale of 0.0 to 5.0.

5 questions with multiple choice answer

STUDENT	SCORE
Student 1	3.0
Student 2	5.0
Student 3	2.0
Student 4	4.0
Student 5	5.0
Student 6	5.0
Student 7	3.0
Student 8	5.0
Student 9	5.0
Student 10	5.0
Student 11	5.0
Student 12	4.0
Student 13	3.0
Student 14	5.0
Student 15	4.0
Student 16	5.0
Student 17	3.0

APPENDIX 16 Decoding – Diagnostic Test - Results

Results of students performance on the eight (8) questions of the Decoding section of the Listening Diagnostic Pretest in a scale of 0.0 to 5.0.

8 questions with multiple choice answer

STUDENT	SCORE
Student 1	3.0
Student 2	5.0
Student 3	2.0
Student 4	4.0
Student 5	5.0
Student 6	5.0
Student 7	3.0
Student 8	5.0
Student 9	5.0
Student 10	5.0
Student 11	5.0
Student 12	4.0
Student 13	3.0
Student 14	5.0
Student 15	4.0
Student 16	5.0
Student 17	3.0

APPENDIX 17 - LISTENING FINAL -TEST - RESULTS

Results of students' performance on the Listening Post Test in a scale of 0.0 to 5.0.

STUDENT	SCORE
Student 1	2.95
Student 2	2.73
Student 3	3.64
Student 4	2.27
Student 5	3.18
Student 6	3.18
Student 7	2.27
Student 8	2.05
Student 9	3.86
Student 10	2.95
Student 11	1.59
Student 12	1.14
Student 13	3.41
Student 14	2.95
Student 15	3.86
Student 16	3.18
Student 17	3.18

APPENDIX 18 - Main Ideas – Final Test - Results

Results of students performance on the question of the Main Ideas section of the Listening Post Test in a scale of 0.0 to 5.0.

One question.

STUDENT	SCORE
Student 1	0.0
Student 2	5.0
Student 3	5.0
Student 4	0.0
Student 5	5.0
Student 6	0.0
Student 7	5.0
Student 8	5.0
Student 9	0.0
Student 10	5.0
Student 11	5.0
Student 12	5.0
Student 13	0.0
Student 14	0.0
Student 15	0.0
Student 16	0.0
Student 17	0.0

APPENDIX 19 - Details - Final Test - Results

Results of students performance on the four (4) questions of the Details section of the Listening Post Test in a scale of 0.0 to 5.0.

Four questions

STUDENT	SCORE
Student 1	1.3
Student 2	0.0
Student 3	3.8
Student 4	2.5
Student 5	1.3
Student 6	1.3
Student 7	0.0
Student 8	2.5
Student 9	2.5
Student 10	2.5
Student 11	0.0
Student 12	1.3
Student 13	1.3
Student 14	1.3
Student 15	2.5
Student 16	2.5
Student 17	1.3

APPENDIX 20 - Decoding - Final Test - Results

Results of students performance on the thirteen (4) questions of the Decoding section of the Listening Post Test in a scale of 0.0 to 5.0.

Fifteen questions

Student 1	4.00
Student 2	3.67
Student 3	4.00
Student 4	2.67
Student 5	3.67
Student 6	4.33
Student 7	3.00
Student 8	2.00
Student 9	5.00
Student 10	3.33
Student 11	2.00
Student 12	1.00
Student 13	4.67
Student 14	4.00
Student 15	5.00
Student 16	4.00
Student 17	4.33

APPENDIX 21 - COMPARISON OF THE LISTENING DIAGNOSTIC TEST AND THE LISTENING FINAL TEST RESULTS.

Results of students performance on the Listening Diagnostic Pretest and the Listening Post Test in a scale of 0.0 to 5.0.

STUDENT	DIAG. TEST	FINAL TEST
Student 1	3.65	2.95
Student 2	3.08	2.73
Student 3	3.27	3.64
Student 4	3.27	2.27
Student 5	2.88	3.18
Student 6	3.46	3.18
Student 7	2.88	2.27
Student 8	2.69	2.05
Student 9	3.65	3.86
Student 10	3.65	2.95
Student 11	3.27	1.59
Student 12	2.88	1.14
Student 13	2.12	3.41
Student 14	3.08	2.95
Student 15	3.65	3.86
Student 16	3.27	3.18
Student 17	3.46	3.18

APPENDIX 22 - COMPARISON OF THE RESULTS OF THE MAIN IDEAS SECTION OF THE LISTENING DIAGNOSTIC TEST AND THE MAIN IDEAS SECTION OF THE LISTENING FINAL TEST

Results of students' performance on the Main Ideas sections of the Listening Diagnostic Test and the Listening Final Test in a scale of 0.0 to 5.0.

	DIAG. TEST	FINAL TEST
Student 1	4.0	0.0
Student 2	3.0	5.0
Student 3	4.0	5.0
Student 4	4.0	0.0
Student 5	3.0	5.0
Student 6	4.0	0.0
Student 7	4.0	5.0
Student 8	3.0	5.0
Student 9	4.0	0.0
Student 10	4.0	5.0
Student 11	2.0	5.0
Student 12	2.0	5.0
Student 13	2.0	0.0
Student 14	4.0	0.0
Student 15	4.0	0.0
Student 16	2.0	0.0
Student 17	4.0	0.0

APPENDIX 23 - COMPARISON OF THE RESULTS OF THE DETAILS SECTION OF THE LISTENING DIAGNOSTIC PRE TEST AND THE DETAILS SECTION OF THE LISTENING POST TEST

Results of students' performance on the Details sections of the Listening Diagnostic Test and the Listening Final Test in a scale of 0.0 to 5.0.

	DIAG. TEST	FINAL TEST
Student 1	3.0	1.3
Student 2	5.0	0.0
Student 3	2.0	3.8
Student 4	4.0	2.5
Student 5	5.0	1.3
Student 6	5.0	1.3
Student 7	3.0	0.0
Student 8	5.0	2.5
Student 9	5.0	2.5
Student 10	5.0	2.5
Student 11	5.0	0.0
Student 12	4.0	1.3
Student 13	3.0	1.3
Student 14	5.0	1.3
Student 15	4.0	2.5
Student 16	5.0	2.5
Student 17	3.0	1.3

APPENDIX 24 - COMPARISON OF THE RESULTS OF THE DECODING SECTION OF THE LISTENING DIAGNOSTIC TEST AND THE DECODING SECTION OF THE LISTENING FINAL TEST

Results of students' performance on the Decoding sections of the Listening Diagnostic Pretest and the Listening Post Test in a scale of 0.0 to 5.0.

	DIAG. TEST	FINAL TEST
Student 1	5.0	4.00
Student 2	3.8	3.67
Student 3	4.4	4.00
Student 4	3.8	2.67
Student 5	2.5	3.67
Student 6	3.8	4.33
Student 7	3.1	3.00
Student 8	3.1	2.00
Student 9	4.4	5.00
Student 10	3.8	3.33
Student 11	4.4	2.00
Student 12	3.8	1.00
Student 13	1.9	4.67
Student 14	3.1	4.00
Student 15	5.0	5.00
Student 16	3.8	4.00
Student 17	5.0	4.33

APPENDIX 25 - Listening Final Test

Listening Final Test - Level 1- Part 1

Name: _____.

Date: _____ Score: _____/6.

Prediction: Put an (X) next to the best prediction of what the listening is about

- a. Ms. Jones' study _____
- b. the class's study _____
- c. both studies _____
- d. manners in class _____

Listen to the entire class discussion.

Listen for Main ideas: Use the information to choose the correct answers. Put an X in the space that corresponds to the correct answer.

- 1. The purpose of this discussion _____.
 - a. show how three tests can change people's ideas about manners _____
 - b. compare two studies on people's attitudes about manners _____
 - c. explain how good manners change over the years _____
 - d. discuss what some people think good manners are _____

Listen for Details: Use the information to choose the correct answers. Put an X in the space that corresponds to the correct answer.

- 2. Who did the paper drop test _____?
 - a. the professor _____
 - b. Ms. Jones _____
 - c. Andrew _____
 - d. Maria _____
- 3. Maria thought the results from the test she did were _____ ?

- a. typical _____
- b. confusing _____
- c. surprising _____
- d. interesting _____

4. Andrew feels that sales people in stores are _____?

- a. impolite _____
- b. respectful _____
- c. courteous _____
- d. dishonest _____

Listening Final Test - Level 1- Part 2

Name: _____.

Date: _____ Score: _____/6.

Decode.

Fill out the blank spaces with the missing words or the missing syllables.

Professor: Today we're (1) _____ (2) _____ (3) _____ at two studies about manners. We read a study by Sarah Jones, and then we did our own study at a class. First let's review the study by Ms. Jones. Could anyone tell us (4) _____ this study?

Andrew: Well, two reporters _____ around the world to see how (5) _____ people are. They had (6) _____ tests. In one, a person dropped some papers to see if anyone would pick them up.

Professor: Good. Could someone else continue?

Maria: There was another test to see if people held the door for other people. And the third test was to see how courteous people in customer service _____ (7) are.

Andrew: Courteous? They're always talking to somebody, but it's not a customer.

Maria: You don't think a customer is asking about a party next week?

Professor: OK now. In Ms. Jones's study, the reporters talked to people about why they were courteous. You talked to the people about their impolite, or (8) _____, behavior. Let's hear what they said. Andrew, you did the paper drop test, right?

Andrew: Yes, and I got some typical answers. For example, one woman told us that she'd really wanted to help, but her hands (9) _____ full.

Maria: Well, I got a pretty interesting result. I did the door test. I was walking behind a guy. And I'm sure he knew I was behind him because he looked at me when I coughed. He opened the door to this building and just continued walking. When I asked him about it, he said that many things about manners were confusing to him now. See, he had been raised to respect other people, especially women. He said now women don't want to be treated any differently from men. I never thought about it before, but (10) _____ (11) _____. People used to think certain things showed a lack of manners, but today we don't even think about them.

Professor: I think Ms. Jones found the same (12) _____ in her study.

Andrew: What do you mean?

Maria: Like when we were paying for your groceries. A teenager was talk_____ (13)on her cell phone while she was waiting on you. You spoke to her about it later and she was surpri_____ (14). She said all of her friends talked to each other on cell phones at work, on buses, in restaurants, everywhere. She's heard "old people" complaining about it, but for (15) _____ it's typical.

Andrew: Well, I guess that means we're old.

Appendix 26 - Team 3 Interaction

José Gallego: “Este es el grupo número tres, conformado por XXXXXX XXXXXXXX, XXXXXXXX XXXXXXXX, XXXXXXXX XXXXXXXX. Este es el RAR número dos”

Estudiante 1: “Entonces, ¿Cuál fue la respuesta que pusieron en el punto uno?”

Estudiante 2: “Yo el primer punto escogí la a, pero en realidad no, ósea esa la cogí como por descarte, porque no entendí nada de lo que decía”

Estudiante 3: “Yo escogí la a, la puse como... Más bien ¿Cuál pusieron ustedes primero cuando tenían que poner, ósea cuando tenían que predecir?”

Estudiante 2: “Yo puse la a, pero realmente...”

Estudiante 3: “Yo puse la a, porque por lo general, eso por mucho que la lectura la cambien, eso es lo que se ve en realidad aquí. Se cambia siempre, compran a los, no se esa vaina...”

Estudiante 1: “Yo puse la d, no se creó que considero esa”

Estudiante 2: “Por muchas razones, dos razones son la corrupción y ¿Qué es mistakes?”

Estudiante 3: “Errores”

Estudiante 2: “Bueno por corrupción y errores”

Estudiante 3: “Yo lo pensé, pero no sé, después vi que aquí decía que por corrupción pero en realidad allí en ninguna parte decía que le pagarán a ninguno de los testigos, ni nada de eso. Yo solamente leí, escuche pues, que la gente a veces no se acordaba bien, ósea creía que había visto a alguien, pero en realidad no era eso. Entonces, si estarían bien los errores (mistakes), pero corrupción no me convenció, por eso fue que puse que una razón era que los testigos no podían recordar bien”

Estudiante 2: “No recuerdan bien?”

Estudiante 1: “Tú también decidiste eso, por lo tanto yo estoy de acuerdo con...”

Estudiante 2: “No, ósea yo decidí fue la a”

Estudiante 3: “La a?”

Estudiante 2: “Que es porque una razón los testigos son corruptos”

Estudiante 3: “En realidad yo puse la c. La otra, Otra razón porque los inocentes van a la cárcel según Laura Cheng? y yo puse que las confesiones son falsas y errores policiacos”

Estudiante 1: “Yo también puse confesiones falsas y errores policiacos”

Estudiante 2: “Yo puse está, pero porque escuche exactamente la misma frase”

Estudiante 3: “Si es que eso lo dijeron, estaban hablando que los testigos se veían obligados a responder, ósea como los presionaban la policía, ellos pensaban que le iban a echar la culpa a ellos, o algo así, entonces decían así cualquier persona allí”

Estudiante 2: “Entonces otra razón de porque las personas inocentes iban a prisión es porque dices tú?”

Estudiante 3: “Porque la confesión es falsa y errores policiacos”

Estudiante 1: “Si, yo también estoy de acuerdo con este man”

Estudiante 2: Bueno vamos al 6, no al 7, al 7 porque el 6 todavía lo tenemos como pendiente, es la b? bueno el b.

Estudiante 3: “Entonces, el otro es, una razón más de la que Laura dice que los inocentes van a prisión es? Ahí yo puse que los abogados hacen un mal trabajo”

Estudiante 2: “Si yo también puse que porque los abogados hacen un mal trabajo”

Estudiante 3: “Yo puse la c”

Estudiante 2: “Yo puse la a y el también”

Estudiante 3: “Bueno yo puse la a porque...”

Estudiante 1: “Que es lo que realmente dice?”

Estudiante 3: “Una razón más por la que Laura dice que la gente inocente va a prisión es?”

Estudiante 2: “Porque los abogados realizan un mal trabajo”

Estudiante 3: “Aja, eso fue lo que escuche allí varias veces, bueno en realidad corregí porque había puesto mal, pero me di cuenta que en realidad era porque los abogados hacen un mal trabajo”

Estudiante 2: “Las dos veces que yo escuche esto, decía esto es una razón por la que es por eso”

Estudiante 1: “Es la a”

Estudiante 3: “Bueno entonces nos decidimos por la a, en la 6 cuál es?”

Estudiante 2: “Tú tienes la?”

Estudiante 3: “La c”

Estudiante 2: “Tú tienes la?”

Estudiante 1: “La d”

Estudiante 2: “Y yo la a, ni manera de ponernos de acuerdo”

Estudiante 3: “Hay que aja, vamos a ver, cual ven como más factible entonces. Porque creen que la gente inocente va a prisión?”

Estudiante 2: “Tu pusiste c?”

Estudiante 3: “Por muchas razones, una de las razones porque la gente no recuerda bien”

Estudiante 2: “y tú?”

Estudiante 1: “Por dos razones, por la corrupción y los errores”

Estudiante 3: “Yo también tenía esa, pero después volví a escuchar y no escuche nada de corrupción ni nada de eso”

Estudiante 2: “Ósea si, en realidad no dijo, yo también estaba pensando en la c cuando ella dijo esta parte, de que los testigos no recuerdan. Ósea nada más escuchaba esta parte”

Estudiante 1: “Tal vez no lo dijo explícitamente, pero no se tal vez”

Estudiante 2: “Bueno empecemos con la c porque creo que es la que tiene más coherencia”

Estudiante 3: “Pon la c”

Alumno: bueno en realidad yo respondí la opción A pero en realidad la cogí por descarte porque en realidad no entendí.

Alumna: yo escogí la A y la puse, más bien cual cogieron ustedes cuando tenían que poner, ósea cuando tenían que.... predecir.

Alumna: ósea yo puse la A pero.

Alumno: yo también puse la A porque por lo general por mucho que la lectura lo cambie eso es lo que se ve en realidad. Se trata siempre cuando tú le das un regalo... no sé cómo se dice esa vaina.

Alumna: aja, tú que pusiste

Alumno: y también, no se queremos escuchar

Alumna: por muchas razones, las razones son la corrupción.

Alumno: y errores

Alumna: bueno corrupción y errores.

Alumno: yo lo pensé, pero no sé, después vi que aquí decía que por corrupción, pero en realidad en ninguna parte decía que prepararan a ninguno de los testigos ni nada de eso, yo simplemente leí perdón, escuche que la gente no se acordaba bien, ósea creía que había visto a alguien pero en realidad no era ese, entonces si estaría en los errores pero

corrupción no me convenció. Por eso fue que puse que una razón fue que los testigos no pueden recordar bien.

Alumna: no recuerdan bien.

Alumno: tú también pusiste eso.

Alumna: no ósea, yo decidí fue la A.

Alumna: bueno pongamos la B.

Alumna: una razón son los testigos los corruptos.

Alumno: yo puse la c.

Alumno: la otra razón porque los inocentes, de porque los inocentes van a la cárcel según Laura cheng son las confesiones falsas y los errores policiacos.

Alumno: yo puse confesiones falsas y errores policiacos.

Alumna: yo puse este pero porque escuche exactamente este.

Alumno: si porque eso lo dijeron, por eso estaban hablando que los testigos se veían obligados a responder, porque como los presionaba la policía ellos pensaban que le iban a echar la culpa a ellos o algo así entonces decían así cualquier persona ahí trataría

Alumna: si otra persona es porque las personas inocentes van a prisión es porque dices tú.

Alumno: porque la conclusión es falsa y lo errores.

Alumno: si yo también estoy de acuerdo.

Alumna: bueno ahora vamos con el 6 no con el 7 porque el 6 todavía lo tenemos como pendiente

Alumno: entonces el otro es una razón por la que Laura dice que los inocentes van a prisiones, ahí yo puse q los abogados hacían un buen trabajo

Alumna: yo también puse lo mismo yo puse la A el también la puso

Alumno: bueno yo puse q la A porque en realidad estaba pensando en que...., es que dice una razón más por la que Laura dice una razón más porque la gente va a prisión es porque los abogados realizan un mal trabajo. Eso lo escuche varias veces, entonces es la A.

Alumno: bueno entonces nos decidimos por la A y la 6 cuál es?

Alumna: y la 6 no sé tú tienes la c tú tienes la D y yo tengo la A.

Alumno: ahí q aja vamos a ver, porque crees q la gente inocente va a inocente va a prisión?

Por muchas razones una de las razones es que la gente no recuerda bien.

Alumno: yo puse por dos razones por la corrupción y errores

Alumno: yo tenía esa pero no volví a escuchar más de corrupción y quite ese

Alumna: yo estaban pensando poner la c cuando ella dijo esta parte ve

Alumno: tal vez no lo dijo explícitamente

Alumna: pero si dijo esta parte que las personas no recuerdan pero en realidad como que nos ósea

Alumno: en realidad no dijo nada de corrupción explícitamente pero no se tal vez. Esa grabación la dañaron profe off no se escucha nada.

Alumna: bueno entonces la 6

Appendix 27 - Group 1 Perception

José Gallego: “Hoy viernes 13 de Noviembre del 2015, estoy reunido con las estudiantes XXXXXXXX y XXXXXXXX, miembros del grupo uno del estudio de metacognición y aprendizaje basado en equipos. Procederemos a hacer una pequeña entrevista acerca de su percepción de las actividades, para lo cual en este momento les muestro nuevamente los contenidos de las actividades que realizamos en la intervención son los Rat 1, Rat 2 y Rat 3, con el fin de que recuerden un poco las actividades que realizamos y puedan dar respuesta a las preguntas de manera objetiva. Entonces quiero aprovechar en estos momentos que están revisando, y preguntarles para que respondan de manera espontánea y libremente ¿Qué les gusto de estas tres actividades metacognitivas? ¿Qué no les gusto? y ¿Qué sugerencias harían para adecuarlas, cambiarlas para que se adecuen más a sus necesidades? Pueden responder.”

Estudiante 1: “A mí me gusto que a medida que nos fue haciendo más ejercicios de listening, uno puede ir mejorando, ósea puede ir mejorando. Al primer ejercicio la verdad, no se le pone mucha atención, pero luego uno se da cuenta de que en realidad tienes que poner atención para saber qué vas a contestar, ósea tienes que escuchar para poder entender lo que tienes que contestar, debes tener un vocabulario previo, entonces esto te obliga a que tú tienes que tener tu vocabulario, tienes que saber cómo se forman las oraciones y todo eso, porque puedes escuchar bien y más o menos entender las palabras, realmente esto no es suficiente para sacar las respuestas aunque sea por descarte, que lo que realmente uno trata de hacer.”

Estudiante 2: “A mi principalmente lo que me gustó fue que tienes eso de revisarte y mirar que es lo que está siendo negativo para ti o en que debes mejorar y que es lo que principalmente te ayuda a fortalecer lo que tú tienes y que hay que tener en cuenta a la hora de hacer ejercicios, como por decir no tenía claro que cosas hay que tener en cuenta como tener cosas previas te ayuda a la hora de hacer el listening, a como decir cuando habla de los factores que afecta, ósea tener seguridad y tener claro cómo podemos cambiar la ansiedad o lo que experimentamos a la hora de hacer estos ejercicios.”

José Gallego: “Ok. Con base en las actividades grupales, del quiz individual y luego el grupal, ¿Cómo les pareció esa experiencia, si consideran que contribuyó o no contribuyó para mejorar su habilidad de escucha a través del dialogo con su grupo, o no fue así? Pueden sentirse libres de expresar su opinión.”

Estudiante 1: Puede mejorar pero a la vez no, porque todo el mundo no escucha igual ni interpreta igual, entonces uno choca mucho, entonces es como que tu pones la a, yo la b, este puso la c, entonces era muy difícil porque como te digo no

todo el mundo interpreta igual. Pero si ayuda individualmente porque cuando te vuelvas a enfrentar a la misma situación ya tu estés más preparado.”

Estudiante 2: “Y sobre todo de que tú puedas argumentar porque escogiste eso, que fue lo que te motivo a coger esa respuesta, que escuchaste, ósea que tú mismo te des cuenta de cómo lo hiciste y también expresarlo para que también la otra persona te corrija o fortalezca lo que tú ya dijiste.”

José Gallego: “Ok. Bueno con base en esta experiencia, ¿Qué harían en próximos niveles de inglés de lo que aprendieron acá? ¿Qué consideran que es útil que se puedan llevar para sus próximos niveles?”

Estudiante 1: “Que todo es practicante, ósea no hay nada mejor para aprender inglés, o cualquier otro idioma, todo es practicando. Si tú no te pones a escuchar canciones en inglés o ver películas o leer en inglés, sinceramente las clases no te van a servir de mucho, pues es lo que pienso yo”.

Estudiante 2: “Organizarse más, que por decir uno a la hora de escuchar un audio, uno en blanco, no se ponen a analizar los vocabularios que ya tenían antes, o nos con lo que nos van a plantear de que van a hablar, muy poco hacemos eso. Entonces ya llegar, y tener más claro eso, a la hora de escuchar”.

José Gallego: “Ok. Chicas les agradezco mucho su participación durante todo el proceso de metacognición y aprendizaje basado en equipos”.

APPENDIX 28 - Group 2 Perception

José Gallego: “Me encuentro ahora reunido con los integrantes del grupo 2 del estudio de metacognición y aprendizaje basado en equipos para el desarrollo de las habilidades de escucha en estudiantes de nivel básico A1 de inglés. A continuación les voy a mostrar las actividades de aprendizaje basado en equipos y metacognición que realizamos con el fin que puedan recordar cuales fueron las actividades que realizaron y puedan expresar una opinión de manera más objetiva. Estas actividades fueron realizadas de manera individual, y posteriormente de manera grupal con el fin de hallar respuestas y poder dar lugar a una conversación en la cual expresarán o mostrarán su conocimiento de las estrategias metacognitivas para el desarrollo de las habilidades de escucha. Entonces voy a proceder a hacerles las preguntas, las cuales pueden responder de manera completamente espontanea, tomando turnos, y la primera pregunta que les hago es ¿Qué les gustó de la implementación metodológica de la metacognición y las actividades individuales y grupales del aprendizaje basado en equipos? ¿Qué les gusto de estas actividades?”

Estudiante 1: “Con estas actividades yo aprendí más porque por ejemplo, yo antes cuando iba a escuchar, por ejemplo algo en inglés, yo sabía que era inglés de Estados Unidos o de Reino Unido, y yo decía “A este man no le voy a entender” porque yo no le entendía bien, mientras que, si me hablaba una persona latina en inglés yo si le entendía, pero ahora yo aprendí a prepararme más antes de esos listening, y así podía entenderlos más a ellos, y ya aprendí”.

José Gallego: “Gracias XXXXXXXX, dime XXXXXXXX”

Estudiante 2: “Me gustó porque, los demás profesores no hacen como los pasos de predecir, no los recuerdo ahora, pero si me gustaba el proceso, porque tengo problemas con todos los..., no sé, pero con esos pasos como que uno entiende más y uno como que ya sabe algo más de lo que va a escuchar o algo así, y ya”.

José Gallego: “Ahora tu XXXXXXXX, Gracias XXXXXXXX”

Estudiante 3: “Me gustó porque la metodología preparada nos ayudó, porque nos dan muchos prejuicios de digamos lo que vamos a hablar o de los temas que se van a tratar, y de la forma en que usted nos enseñaba, siempre lo intentaba traducir y me quedaba en la forma en pequeñas palabras y nunca terminaba una oración, y aprendí que no, que primero escuchaba todo y luego entendía con el vocabulario que adopte en el curso”.

José Gallego: “Muchas Gracias XXXXXXXX, ¿Qué no les gustó?”

Estudiante 1: “A mí me gusto todo”.

Estudiante 2: “Creo que me gusto todo, o no recuerdo ahora algo que no gusté ahora”.

Estudiante 3: “Realmente fue agradable todo el curso”.

José Gallego: “Con respecto a las actividades de metacognición y de desarrollo de habilidades de escucha individuales y grupales, algo XXXXXXXX, en específico que no te haya gustado o que te haya gustado específicamente”.

Estudiante 3: “Si me gustó mucho la forma de ayudarnos a diferenciar las distintas formas de habla de inglés tanto el británico como el estadounidense, fue muy bueno y parece que tengo preferencia por el estadounidense”.

José Gallego: “Ok. Otra pregunta, ¿Qué sugerencias harían sobre modificaciones o cambios, pues desde su punto de vista, que les gustaría si se repitiera esta metodología”.

Estudiante 3: “Pues no sé, quizás un poco más de práctica en el listening, en la forma de listening, un poquito más de practicar porque es bastante complicado, a mí se me hizo bastante complicado.”

José Gallego: “Muchas Gracias, XXXXXXXX”.

Estudiante 2: “Más práctica en el listening, y en el speaking, porque aja somos nivel uno y aparte de que no sabemos mucho, los nervios también, entonces con más práctica, a uno se le va quitando y se va soltando.”

José Gallego: “Ok, pero con respecto al listening específicamente”.

Estudiante 2: “Más pruebas de listening, ósea me hubiese gustado que en el módulo de listening fueran como muchas más actividades de listening.”

José Gallego: “Ok. Perfecto, muchas gracias. Bueno con respecto a lo que acabamos de hablar ahora sobre las actividades de metacognición y listening, ¿Qué creen ustedes que podrían hacer los próximos niveles con base a lo que aprendieron ahora? Ósea ustedes en su estudio individual, y en su desarrollo de habilidades de escucha ¿Qué se llevan de acá, de este módulo que puedan aplicar en cursos posteriores?”.

Estudiante 1: “Estar más preparados, ósea saber cómo de qué va a tratar el tema para así ir preparando el vocabulario y saber qué palabras claves puedo sacar de allí que yo por ejemplo como inferir para saber ya que él me va a decir, algo así”.

Estudiante 2: “Aplicar los pasos de metacognición, por mí misma, ósea no que me lo esté diciendo como que el profesor ni la evaluación sino mi misma porque en realidad si ayuda mucho a la comprensión de los temas”.

Estudiante 3: “Auto ayudarse en lo enriquecido que está el lenguaje en estos momentos, porque se aprendió mucho lenguaje, y la forma de utilizarlos y también de tener una idea previa a lo que se va a dar como dijo mi compañero, si es bueno”.

José Gallego: “Ok muchachos”:

APPENDIX 29 - GROUP 3 - PERCEPTION

Estoy reunido con los estudiantes del grupo 3 del grupo de nivel 1 donde realizamos el estudio de metacognición y el aprendizaje basado en equipos para el desarrollo de habilidades de escucha en estudiantes de nivel A1 de inglés me encuentro reunido con 3 de sus miembros XXXXX XXXXX, XXXXX XXXXXXXX y XXXXXXX XXXXXXXXX a quienes procederé a entrevistar en estos momentos para conocer su percepciones acerca de esta implementación bueno muchachos la primera pregunta es

¿Qué les gusto y que no les gusto de la metodología implementada de metacognición para el desarrollo de habilidades dentro de un aprendizaje basado en equipos?

AM: yo diría q make inference porque lo hace uno pensar antes de la lectura de que se podía tratar y tener una idea general y pues me parece q eso nunca lo había trabajado y pues me gusto es una forma de desarrollar mas q palabras puede escuchar en el texto que puede escuchar en el listening o lo que puede leer en el texto

CH: pues a mí me pareció muy interesante porque todo estaba detallado paso por paso me pareció tan imprescindible algo que nunca había visto que habían trabajado pero que es muy completo y muy desarrollado y se nota la ayuda la capacidad de la metacognición y al listening

AS: me gusto todo pues las explicaciones q el profesor dio ya que con eso pude apreciar lo que estaba haciendo ya que nos la hoja sobre toda su tesis los paso a paso para aprender a desarrollar en ingles mejor sirvió mucho ya que me he dado cuenta q he mejorado no así evidente pero si he mejorado en cuanto al desarrollo concreto en ingles

Profesor: podrías hablar de tus habilidades de escucha o más general

AS en escucha me pareció q en algunas grabaciones hablaban muy rápido pero con la repeticiones pude entender mejor lo que decían

Mi siguiente pregunta muchachos es

¿Con respecto a las actividades realizadas de metacognición y actividades basadas en aprendizaje basada en equipos que sugerencias harían a este tipo de actividades?, si tienen alguna si no tienen no hay ningún problema

AM: pues más tal vez más actividades individuales y menos en grupo

CH si ama también me parece que más actividades individuales porque en grupo uno no ve si realmente está aprendiendo como estamos todos, alguno siempre tiene la respuesta correcta o siempre se coge por descarte los que tienen las mismas respuestas y uno no se pone a pensar tanto

AS: a mí me parecería buena idea poner trabajos como traer alguna música en inglés y pues aprender de su pronunciación y lo que dicen en español ya que uno pasa escuchando música pues algunos así podrían comprender mejor las palabras

Profesor: bueno muchachos gracias de esta pregunta y las respuestas q me acaban de dar me lleva hacer esta pregunta

Entonces ¿q piensan ustedes de que tan beneficioso pudo haber sido un aprendizaje basado en equipos? como esa metodología q tuvimos como por ejemplo hacer primero una actividad individual de escucha y luego pasar hacer esa misma actividad en grupo ustedes consideran q tuvo beneficio tuvo poco beneficio o no tuvo beneficio pueden sentirse libre de expresar sus ideas tranquilamente recuerden q esto es un estudio estamos buscando solamente la verdad

AS: pues ami me parecio bien q algunos nos agrupamos hacer la actividad q usted habia dejado propuesta pero en lo personal ami no me gusta hacer nada en grupo me gusta hacer todo yo solo y pues apesar q tenia un grupo y que aja no es un grupo malo que no hacia nada pues nose no ha sido lo mio trabajar en grupo y pues me parecia suficiente con lo que yo oía y ya sabía q iba a decir a q otro tuviera q darme una idea o aceptar lo q otro estuviera diciendo pues a mí me parece mejor q uno trabaje solo, y pues en grupo no me lleva creer q sea muy beneficioso pues pc si uno tiene una duda y no dice que no sabe q va ahí o algo como uno escucha q el otro dice q va ahí esto o lo otro uno dice q de pronto va eso y como en los listening siempre se escucha una palabra q estaba

ahí en el texto uno ya queda dudando por eso, pues a mí me parece q es mejor hacerlo solo

Profesor sientes q pudiste tu haberle contribuido algo al grupo o que tus contribuciones no fueron muy importantes

AS: pues tal vez si porque en ocasiones se encontraban compañeros perdidos y yo les ayudaba en lo que podía lo que estaba en mi alcance y les decía o más bien les explicaba porque era así

Profesor: ok, XXXXXX ahora XXXXXX cuéntanos tu

CH: bueno a mi si me parece que eso en grupos es muy bueno porque a veces uno tiene una respuesta y otros se preguntan porque es la respuesta entonces ellos dicen q no y tu explicas porque se escogió y así uno le da más claridad a las cosas como que le queda todo más claro y la próxima vez tiende a coger el consejo e intentar escuchar la parte textual del listening si no trata de interpretar lo que dice

Profesor: ok y como sientes q fue tu contribución al grupo

CH bueno pues la verdad entre toditos contribuimos igualmente porque todos tenemos el mismo voto en el grupo pero igual intentamos como escoger la mayor y por turnos y cada uno escoger porque escogió su respuesta y entre todos escogíamos la que veíamos más razonable

Profesor: gracias carolina, bueno XXXXXX cuéntanos cual fue tu perspectiva de como fue el trabajo en equipos te pareció bueno te pareció malo y cuéntanos porque

AM: si fue beneficioso pero nos a tal grado pero si fue beneficioso ya que con esto los trabajos en grupo si no estás seguro puedes acercarse al compañero y aclarar las dudas pero algunas veces hay q conformarse con lo q tienen los otros ya q no estás seguro tú y no se llega a una conclusión a una respuesta verdadera concreta

Profesor: ok XXXXXXXXXX y como sientes q fue tu contribución al grupo

AM: en los trabajos en grupo siempre tuvimos q tomar voto para escoger la respuesta por eso cada quien trabajo por igual ya que cada uno voto por escoger una respuesta

Profesor: ok muchachos para antes de finalizar quiero hacer una última pregunta.

¿con base a esta metodología que implementarían ustedes en los próximos niveles de inglés por su cuenta de manera individual sin esperar la guía del profesor si hay algo q ustedes se puedan llevar algo q les sirva como estrategia de aprendizaje y de estudio

AS: pues a mí me gustaría aprender a manejar mejor el speaking o pues mejor practicarlo más.

Profesor con respecto al listening ya q este es el motivo de investigación

AS: con respecto al listening me gusto el método de escuchar canciones y de pues tratar de ir yo mismo de ir como ya dije de ir haciendo el make inference y pues eso de ir guiándome por las palabras q ya conocía con lo q escuchaba haber q era lo q iba entiendo y pues después iba por ahí algo donde las letras paz ver cuáles eran las letras de lo q iban diciendo cuales estaban bien y cuales estaban mal sobre todo eso.

Profesor: gracias adrián, bueno carolina que te llevas para los siguientes niveles para complementar tu proceso de aprendizaje en la habilidad de escucha

CH: bueno pues yo me llevo primero me gustó mucho cuando trataba de buscar palabra por palabra y busca una idea en general de lo que estaban hablando y entendía mucho más rápido con una o dos palabras q entendiera y hacer como q primero make inference para hacer primero una idea de lo q voy a escuchar como una idea más general de lo q tengo q escuchar en la escucha

Profesor: ok XXXXXXXX y tu XXXXXXXX

AM: bueno a mí me sirvió mucho practicar las palabras antes de escuchar tener una especie de vocabulario una hoja para así poder relacionar lo que escucho con lo q he aprendido leyendo

Profesor: bueno muchachos les agradezco mucho su participación en este estudio y esta entrevista se extendió un poco más ya q los muchachos manifestaron un poco de inconformidad y discrepancias acerca del beneficio de la metodología de aprendizaje basada en equipos por esta razón se decidí indagar un poco más a profundidad para tener unos datos más precisos para q contribuyan al soporte de esta tesis y de este estudio q estamos realizando

APPENDIX 30 - SG GROUP 4 - PERCEPTION

esta es la entrevista al grupo número 4 de las actividades de metacognición y aprendizaje basado en equipos para el desarrollo de habilidades de escucha en inglés en estudiantes de niveles básico A1 bueno mi primera pregunta para XXXXXX XXXXXXXX y XXXXXXXX XXXXXXXXXX es

¿ Que les gusto y que no les gusto acerca de estas actividades basado en equipos y metacognición]? es una pregunta abierta pueden sentirse libre de expresar sus opiniones entonces comienzo por XXXXXX

JO: bueno lo que fue el método me pareció mi bueno hicimos la parte de raspa y gana fue algo interesante primero dieron a conocer las habilidades q debíamos desarrollar en dicho en forme para así desarrollar las preguntas del listening me parece una buena estrategia y pues bueno todo es para ayudar al proceso del profesor

PN: bueno lo q yo pienso es he lo que no me gusto en cierto modo fue al inicio las diferentes cuestiones meta cognitivas q uno tiene pues yo sentí q en un momento había mucha información q había q digerir q no manejamos los estudiantes comúnmente como metacognición memoria entonces uno trabajo mucho entonces yo sentí q era mucho material yo creo q la hoja donde explicaban cada una esa parte era donde explicaban digamos suficiente ya con respecto a lo otro como decía XXXXXX es una buena manera tu respondes lo q tú crees o lo que tú piensas q esta correcto y ver ya compararla con las respuestas de otros empiezas a hacer un análisis más profundo acerca de lo q tú haces

Profesor: ok gracias mi siguiente pregunta es ¿bueno que sugerencias harían para nuevamente se aplique esta metodología?

JO bueno en parte fue un 85% productivo sentí que mejore y en las primeras fue productivo que debería mejorar como lo dijo XXXXXX es de mucha información al principio de pronto no ósea fue útil pero minimizarla o recortarla más se vería mejor

Profesor: para contextualizar un poco para lo q pablo y Jaime están diciendo ellos están haciendo referencia acerca de los listening suplementes 1 y 2 donde se encuentran la

información meta cognitiva, bueno muchachos una última pregunta sería ¿Con base a lo que aprendieron que harían en futuras ocasiones para mejorar con base a lo que aprendimos se llevan algo que puedan usar como metodología de estudio y de trabajo para mejorar sus habilidades de escucha que implementarían?

JO bueno principalmente como lo dijo la lectura y lo que yo adapte para un mejor listening fue entender el vocabulario repasar el vocabulario y así entendía más lo que decía el audio y venir antes con el vocabulario y con el listening me ayudó a contestar bien las preguntas

PN bueno mi principal estrategia o lo que yo me llevo es más que todo lograr entender fijarme más que todo mirar las preguntas para ver más o menos de que es el tema y no quedarme exactamente mirando la respuesta por siento que me concentro en buscar la respuesta y no me contaba en el audio como tal pero ahora algo que hago más es concentrarme en el audio y concentrarme más y sacar mucho más fácil la idea principal de lo que se está hablando y eso lo hago en una primera escucha y ya la segunda trato de enfocarme más en lo que me están preguntando y así concentrarme en sacar la respuesta también lo que yo hago es vocabulario si hay que aprender bastante vocabulario y sobre todo saber cómo se escucha y por ejemplo yo me siento más cómodo si yo estoy escuchando y leo lo que estoy escuchando tengo una mayor comprensión de ellos o cuando ya quitas eso es más complicado por eso hay que practicar más el vocabulario en la escucha yo intento hacer más que todo con las páginas que usted nos dio de música ya que es un buen método para lograr que nosotros los jóvenes que hay que completar mediante la escucha entonces eso es algo muy bueno que te puede ir ayudando poco a poco a ganar esa habilidad de comprender más el inglés más naturalmente

Profesor: Bueno muchachos gracias por la información

APPENDIX 31 - SG GROUP 5 - PERCEPTION

esta es la entrevista al grupo numero 5 implementación del aprendizaje basado en equipos y metacognición para el desarrollo de habilidades de escucha en ingles en estudiantes de niveles básico A1 estoy reunido con 3 de los miembros del grupo XXXXXXXX XXXXXXXX, XXXXX XXXXXXXX y XXXX XXXXXXXX

¿Qué les gusto y que no les gusto de esta metodología? pueden responder libremente voy a empezar con valentina

S1: bueno a mí me gusto q teníamos la posibilidad de trabajar en grupos podíamos exponer nuestra opinión y absorber la opinión de otros

S2: a mí me parece lo mismo, me parece q trabajar en grupo nos trasmite más seguridad normalmente uno no tiene esa seguridad a la hora de hablar y de pensar con esto del inglés y al trabajar en grupo tenemos la posibilidad de hacerlo

S3: pienso también lo mismo la forma en q hacen primero el individual y luego el grupo así tú ves cómo estas en relación con los demás compañeros tuyos o con los q están en tu grupo

Profesor: bueno otra pregunta, ¿sienten q se beneficiaron de esta participación en grupo y q ustedes beneficiaron al grupo también?

S1: pues yo siento q si progresivamente cada resultado q veíamos íbamos mejorando más para mi mis compañeros fueron un apoyo para saber q dificultades tenían y cómo afrontarlas

S2: totalmente si a la hora primero nos tocaba inferir individualmente y al juntar las respuestas de cada uno nos dábamos cuenta los errores q teníamos y así nos complementamos los unos con los otros

S3: yo si pienso q mejore mucho al principio no era tan bueno, no es q sea tan bueno pero si yo pienso q ha sido muy bueno q hallamos trabajado en grupo con mis compañeros siempre que tenía un error con ellos me daba cuenta en q los tenia

Profesor: bueno muchachos q sugerencias harían para posteriores implementaciones de esta metodología

S1: bueno yo pienso q deberían haber más secciones como en cada clase de listening o speaking como de una hicieran equitativamente de metacognición y todo esto y así poder implementar la posibilidad de q las personas vean sus errores y los resuelva

S2: yo creo q sugerencias como tal no tengo parece q todo está perfecto me parece q debe haber más pero también no solo en estos cursos usted es el único profesor q lo está haciendo los otros profesores deberían adoptar esta manera de enseñanza por es bueno para nosotros

S3: viéndolo desde mi punto de vista una sugerencia es viéndolo desde un enfoque en el listening hay personas q por ejemplo yo no soy bueno reconociendo las palabras entonces como un mayor enfoque en esto

Profesor: bueno muchachos en base a estas implementaciones del listening y metacognición, ¿que se llevan ustedes de esta metodología q puedan implementar en niveles posteriores?

S1: bueno ya aprendí q no debo apresurarme tanto UE tengo q hacer una revisión previa antes de contestar porque todo esta ahí y lo que yo escucho se q va estar entonces debo darme cuenta y de revisar que lo q escuche no se me pase porque eso está mi mente y puedo revisar tamban en mi mente lo q ya escuche

S2: bueno pues la manera de administrar el tiempo de inferir primero de calificar y escoger una respuesta y también pues de socializar con mis compañeros q yo no sabía como

S3: yo me llevo el proceso los pasos para hacer la comprensión que primero era lo de hacer las inferencias los detalles la predicción de lo q íbamos a leer y lo q íbamos a escuchar

Profesor: Bueno muchachos gracias por la información por participar en este estudio

Appendix 32 – Informed Consent

CONSENTIMIENTO INFORMADO

Título del Proyecto

Intervención metodológica sobre metacognición y aprendizaje basado en equipos para el desarrollo de habilidades de escucha en estudiantes de inglés de nivel 1.

Consentimiento informado versión 01, 01/10/2016

Descripción del Proyecto

Usted ha sido invitado a participar en un estudio conducido por José Fernando Gallego Nicholls, de la Universidad del Norte, cuyo objetivo es determinar los beneficios de una Intervención metodológica sobre metacognición y aprendizaje basado en equipos para el desarrollo de habilidades de escucha en estudiantes de inglés de nivel 1. Como sujeto de la investigación a usted se le solicitará participar en las actividades que se especifican en la siguiente tabla.

Actividad	Tiempo de Duración (aproximado)	Rol como participante (tipo de participación)
Realización MALQ 1	15 minutos	Tomará una encuesta
Realización del Listening Diagnostic Test	1 hora	Tomará un test diagnóstico
Realización RAT 1, 2 y 3 – Individual y en equipo	3 horas	Tomará un test
Aplicación RAT 1, 2 y 3	3 horas	Participará en una actividad pedagógica grupal en clase
Entrevistas	1 hora	Será entrevistado para conocer su percepción frente a la intervención metodológica.

Una vez completada la investigación se destruirán todas las fuentes de datos, notas y otros documentos relacionados. Los datos de la investigación serán recogidos por José Fernando Gallego Nicholls, y serán utilizados únicamente en el contexto del proyecto previamente estipulado. La investigación se desarrollará en los predios de la Universidad.

Riesgos y Beneficios

Pueden existir riesgos asociados a la participación en este estudio. Puede llegar a sentir incomodidad y/o ansiedad frente a las actividades individuales y grupales De cualquier forma toda la información será confidencial. Su participación en este proyecto es voluntaria: tiene el derecho de retirarse en cualquier momento. Los beneficios de participar en este proyecto incluyen los siguientes: Contribuir al desarrollo de mejores metodologías para abordar los procesos de enseñanza-aprendizaje de la habilidad de escucha.

Remuneración

Elija un elemento. No tiene remuneración

Almacenamiento de datos para proteger la confidencialidad

Su identidad y cualquier otra información que lo pueda identificar no serán reveladas en ninguna presentación pública del estudio. La información es completamente Elija un elemento.y todas las fuentes de datos se mantendrán en un lugar seguro en las oficinas del CEDU.

Tiempo

El tiempo de participación de su parte que requiere el proyecto es de Señale el tiempo de duración total de las actividades. Por ejemplo, un (1) semestre académico.comprendido en el período Indique el período académico donde se recogerán los datos. Por ejemplo, 2013-30.2013-30. El tiempo aproximado para cada una de las actividades requeridas se especifica en el primer apartado de este documento.

Uso de los resultados

De los resultados de este proyecto se presentarán en forma de (a) informes a comisiones institucionales de la Universidad del Norte (b) ponencias a congresos, encuentros o reuniones nacionales e internacionales (c) artículos para revistas indexadas (d) capítulos de libros y/o (c) libros.

DERECHO DE LOS PARTICIPANTES

Investigadores principales

José Fernando Gallego Nicholls

Título del Proyecto

Intervención metodológica sobre metacognición y aprendizaje basado en equipos para el desarrollo de habilidades de escucha en estudiantes de inglés de nivel 1.

- He leído y comentado el documento titulado intervención metodológica sobre metacognición y aprendizaje basado en equipos para el desarrollo de habilidades de escucha en estudiantes de inglés de nivel 1, con los investigadores principales.
- He tenido la oportunidad de formular preguntas respecto a los propósitos y procedimientos del estudio.
- Mi participación en el estudio es voluntaria. Puedo decidir no participar o retirarme en cualquier momento sin perjuicio futuro alguno.
- Los investigadores principales pueden retirarme del estudio de acuerdo a su discreción profesional.
- Si durante el curso del estudio se da información nueva que se pueda relacionar con mi disposición para continuar mi participación, los investigadores principales me la harán saber.
- Cualquier información que se derive del estudio que me identifique personalmente no podrá ser divulgada sin mi consentimiento explícito.
- He recibido copia de los documentos *Descripción del Proyecto* y *Derecho de los participantes*.
- Con mi firma expreso mi decisión de participar en el proyecto.

Nombre del participante:

Firma del participante:

Fecha:

Firma del investigador:

Fecha:

Universidad del Norte

Si usted tiene alguna pregunta o duda respecto a este trabajo en que se le está invitando participar puede contactarse con José Fernando Gallego Nicholls Docente de Inglés de Instituto de Idiomas de la Universidad del Norte dirección Km 5 vía Puerto Colombia, en los siguientes números telefónicos: 3007079549.