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TESIS DOCTORAL

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**Metacognitive Strategies for the
Development of Oral Comprehension in
Primary Education Students: A Study based
on the use of English as an International
Language**

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Dedication

To all of those who make up my family, for teaching me that the best way to grow is by working tirelessly and surpassing oneself every day. Your values are my guide on life's journey.

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Abstract

This study examines the development of metacognitive strategies for oral comprehension in primary education students when using English as an International Language. It aims to define oral comprehension competence in English as an International Language, describe the implications of linguistic descriptors in the new Common European Framework of Reference for Languages, and review the literature related to measurement and evaluation instruments. The study emphasizes the importance of metacognitive strategies in developing oral comprehension skills in L2 learners and provides insights into the development of effective strategies for teaching and assessing oral comprehension competence.

The study aims to determine whether globalization-driven changes in the teaching and learning of non-native languages lead to changes or new uses of strategies related to listening comprehension and to identify the difficulties encountered by students in understanding spoken English. The research questions focus on whether study subjects will obtain higher scores in tests for the evaluation of listening strategies that are merely cognitive, and whether there will be a relationship between the improvement in the score obtained in the strategy evaluation test and the age ranges and gender of the subjects participating in the study. The experimental part of the study involves designing two listening tests, one for the control group and one for the experimental group, which were piloted in two schools in the province of Jaén with primary school students of primary education (ages 10-12) and then applied in seventeen different primary schools in Spain. Interventions were carried out with 1038 students from 5th and 6th grade, and statistical analysis of the data was performed.

Overall, the study emphasizes the importance of developing effective strategies for teaching and assessing oral comprehension competence, which can facilitate learner autonomy, strategic competence and efficiency in both learning and L2 acquisition. The research has a social commitment, seeking to produce results that can improve the educational system and foreign language teaching. It provides insights into the current role of listening comprehension among primary school students and identifies the difficulties encountered by students in understanding spoken English.

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Introduction

The existence of English as a global *lingua franca* has been acknowledged by many authors as providing a significant advantage to many Anglophone and non-Anglophone speakers. It has been noted that English can be used as a means of communication without necessarily being a language of identification, functioning as a code free from native culture and foreign to it in certain respects. In the past, English was considered to be something belonging only to the countries where it had the status of a mother tongue or first language for the majority of the population. It was these varieties of English (and in particular, the standard accents within these varieties) that were considered legitimate models for teaching English as a foreign language to students.

However, the landscape is changing, as it is now understood that English is the language of globalization, international communication, trade, media and pop culture, and it is in this way that different motivations come into play for learning it. It is no longer considered the property of the native English-speaking world, but an invaluable tool for international communication. While the traditional view was that English proficiency meant mastering a variety of native English, the second current of thought argues that speakers may wish to retain markers of their cultural identity through the way they speak English.

Jenkins (2012) emphasizes that many textbooks provide models for production based mostly or entirely on English as a native language, while there are few examples of textbooks that adopt a more English as an international language-oriented approach. Later, Jenkins (2015) emphasized that there are few examples of the use of English as a *lingua*

franca in the educational field at the lexical, grammatical, and pronunciation levels.

Similarly, Palfreyman and Van der Walt (2017) conclude that they had observed “a tendency by policymakers, students, and academics towards English, paradoxically resulting in an increase in multilingualism on campuses, as more and more students from different places use the lingua franca to access and develop knowledge and skills in a variety of languages.”

Regarding the importance and learning strategies of English as an international language for oral comprehension in Primary Education students, various research studies have shown that oral comprehension is a complex, eminently active and participatory process. Adults spend between 40% and 50% of communication time on oral comprehension (Gilman and Moody, 1984); however, its importance in the educational panorama did not become relevant until later periods (Oxford, 1993a; Tejada Molina and Pérez Cañado, 2004).

On the one hand, studies conducted in different countries have shed some light on the role of instruction in the use of metacognitive strategies for learning English as an international language and the development of listening comprehension (Nunan, 1997 Coşkun, 2010; Bozorgian, 2012). Therefore, it is necessary to obtain more empirical evidence about the optimal conditions that allow for taking advantage of instruction to develop competence in an L2 in general, and the use of metacognitive strategies in oral comprehension in particular, in diverse contexts (Goh, 2008).

It should be noted that learning strategies in an L2 can be defined as actions used by learners to facilitate their own L2 learning or use in various tasks carried out in the

communication process (Cohen, 2014). Various conclusions have been established in the scientific literature that evidence better L2 competence of learners with a greater variety or a larger number of strategies for language use and learning (Wharton, 2000; Anderson, 2002; García and Ferreira, 2010).

Therefore, metacognitive strategies allow learners to be active participants in their own L2 learning by planning, regulating and evaluating their performance in a communicative task. These strategies are considered essential for learning since they promote learner autonomy, strategic competence and efficiency in both learning (Anderson, 2002) and L2 acquisition (Hauck, 2005), especially in the development of oral comprehension.

On the other hand, we must highlight the importance of the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment* (henceforth CEFR). This document and its subsequent development constitute a key tool for comparing internationally the results of evolution and facilitating educational and professional mobility. In the CEFR (Council of Europe, 2001), it is established that despite its receptive character, listening comprehension is a language skill that requires active participation of the listener since it encompasses everything involved in discourse interpretation, from mere decoding and linguistic comprehension of the phonic chain (phonemes, syllables, words, etc.) to interpretation and personal evaluation of what is heard.

More recently, in 2020, a volume with new descriptors of the CEFR, the *Companion*, was published where the need for revision and change in the initial proposals from 2001 regarding listening comprehension is evident. For example, for phonological

control, in the 2001 version, the least successful scale developed by the original descriptors was phonology. The phonology scale was the only illustrative descriptive scale of the CEFR for which a native speaker norm was adopted. In the 2020 update, it seemed more appropriate to focus on intelligibility as the primary axis in phonological control, in line with current research, especially in the context of providing descriptors adapted to plurilingual/pluricultural repertoires.

Likewise, we can highlight that significant changes have occurred in the new descriptors of the CEFR regarding listening comprehension. For example, for level B2, the following was mentioned in 2001: “[the learner] is capable of understanding a fluent conversation between native speakers”, while in the 2020 version, it is emphasized that the student is capable of understanding a fluent conversation between speakers of the target language.

Traditionally, there are two models of listening comprehension that, in our opinion, are perfectly compatible, since they can function in a coordinated and simultaneous way: the synthetic processing model, or bottom-up, and the analytical processing model (top-down). In the first approach, the oral comprehension process begins with aspects related to linguistic units to arrive at a global understanding of the oral text, whereas in the second it starts with the more general aspects of discourse and only subsequently does the listener enter into the details and nuances of smaller linguistic units.

In addition to the strictly linguistic context in which the conversation takes place, factors such as the familiarity with the topic, the social and cultural references and the speaker’s tone and attitude can have a significant impact on the listener’s ability to

understand the conversation. Therefore, the use of metacognitive strategies in listening comprehension can help learners to monitor their own understanding of the conversation and to identify areas where they need to focus their attention in order to improve their comprehension. These strategies can include techniques such as predicting the content of the conversation based on contextual clues, activating prior knowledge on the topic and checking understanding by asking questions or summarizing the main points.

This research aims to investigate the development of metacognitive strategies for oral comprehension in primary education students when using English as an International Language. The study seeks to establish a comprehensive definition of oral comprehension competence in English as an International Language, describe the implications of linguistic descriptors in the new volume of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages, the *Companion* (Council of Europe, 2020), and delve into the skill of oral comprehension and its implications, taking into account the current situation of English as an International Language. The research also aims to review the literature related to measurement and evaluation instruments and to select and design a questionnaire that gathers information on cognitive and metacognitive strategies used by the study population.

The study employs a quantitative research design and uses a questionnaire to collect data from primary education students. The questionnaire is designed to gather information on the cognitive and metacognitive strategies used by the study population in oral comprehension. Data analysis is conducted to verify initial hypotheses and draw conclusions.

Overall, the research emphasizes the importance of metacognitive strategies in developing oral comprehension skills in L2 learners, especially in the context of English as an International Language. The study provides insights into the development of effective strategies for teaching and assessing oral comprehension competence, which can facilitate learner autonomy, strategic competence and efficiency in both learning and L2 acquisition.

Based on the wide and in-depth reading of specialized literature in the area, a quantitative study was proposed for which a control and an experimental group were selected, allowing for the selection of students who were truly comparable. Similarly, one of the proposals of the quantitative study led us to later decide that it would be a synchronous study, and the most appropriate materials were designed to carry it out. In this regard, it was mentioned that in the future, a material based on non-native international English would be designed to diagnose the strategies present in students in terms of their oral comprehension.

Therefore, some of the questions that the research process sought to answer were the following:

1. Will the study subjects obtain higher scores in tests for the evaluation of listening strategies in those that are merely cognitive?
2. When performing the specific listening strategy usage test, will the score obtained be clearly superior, and statistically significant, among female learners, as previous studies suggest in terms of the use of socio-affective strategies?

3. Will there be any relationship between the improvement in the score obtained in the strategy evaluation test and the age ranges of the subjects participating in the study?
4. Will there be any relationship between the improvement in the score obtained in the strategy evaluation test and the gender of the subjects participating in the study?

To carry out the experimental part of the study, two listening tests were designed, one for the control group and one for the experimental group. After validation by different judges, they were piloted in two schools in the province of Jaén with primary school students in the sixth grade. Likewise, the translation into Spanish of the questionnaire measuring the metacognitive listening skills perceived by the students was also piloted.

After piloting, contact was made with 17 primary education centres (public and private) to carry out the intervention with the students. Once confirmation was received from the different educational centres, interventions were carried out with the 5th and 6th grade students (a total of 1038 subjects), and after this, statistical analysis of the data was performed.

This study aims to examine the current role of listening comprehension among primary school students and to determine if the globalization-driven changes in the teaching and learning of non-native languages lead to changes or new uses of strategies related to listening comprehension. Our objective is to identify the difficulties encountered by students in understanding spoken English and, after analysing the results, to contribute to improving teaching materials and classroom methodology. Throughout the study, we assume that primary school students are being educated to participate in a globalised

society where communication is essential. Therefore, this project has a social commitment, seeking to produce results that can improve the educational system and foreign language teaching.

Chapter 1

The consolidation of English as a global language

1. Introduction

Across the last thirty years, the phenomenon of English as a global language has found adepts and detractors, who are not able to reach an agreement about its generalization and acceptance. As many authors claim, English is unquestionably the international language *par excellence*, the *lingua franca* or the global language. According to Phillipson (2001), we can say that several authors have actually devoted their academic research work to the description and the analysis of this phenomenon as such, from different academic perspectives. In this sense, Braj Kachru has exemplarily tried to describe this singularity; according to him:

English has acquired unprecedented sociological and ideological dimensions. It is now well-recognized that in linguistic history no language has touched the lives of so many people, in so many cultures and continents, in so many functional roles, and with so much prestige, as has the English language since the 1930s. And, equally important, across cultures English has been successful in creating a class of people who have greater intellectual power in multiple spheres of language use unsurpassed by any single language before... (Kachru, 1990, p.180)

This statement implies a perception, almost extensively settled among scholars, of the predominance and importance of English, sociologically, over other languages, and also about its main features, such as being a language of globalising and prestigious use in many realms. According to this idea, we may wonder if this perception presents a solid

foundation, or it is simply a reproduction of the dominant and globalised speech of Anglophone academic circles. For this reason, it becomes necessary to examine how English has achieved that global scope in a short period of time.

Certainly, it should be noted that the consolidation processes of *lingua francas* or global languages share an essential feature to become the preferred (or imposed) means of communication of the community: “a language has traditionally become an international language for one chief reason: the power of its people –especially their political and military power” (Crystal, 2003, p.9).

Although this may be true, it is remarkable that the geographical and colonial expansion of the British Empire, the emergence of the United States as a superpower, globalisation, technological expansion, the publishing market, its wide presence in the academic world and the linguistic and teaching policies of English to a global level have consequently influenced the positioning and consolidation of this language, and hence, the effects and influence it has had worldwide. For the purpose of understanding this phenomenon, a brief contextualization of English and the phenomenon of globalisation will be offered; in like manner, several ideas will be discussed on the issue of why English has become a *lingua franca*, and why it may be currently so-called a global language. These approaches will be examined in the light of the different perspectives provided by different authors on the expansion and consolidation of English as a global language, in which we will try to identify common postulates and points of divergence regarding how this process took place.

2. A brief historical account of English as a Global Language

As a starting point, it is paramount to mention that the English language is native to the British Isles, which evolved from Proto-Germanic languages brought by the Angles and Saxons, who came to Britain in their role of invaders during the 5th and 6th century CE. This language is now named by linguists as Old English, and its evolution was marked by the first contact with Latin and Celtic languages (Hoad, 2006; Irvine, 2006), the Scandinavian languages, and finally the French, due to the dominance of the Normans from 1066 CE (Oakland, 2013). It should be noted that the territories of Scotland, Wales, Ireland and even some regions in England kept their Celtic original languages such as Gaelic (Irish and Scottish), Welsh and Cornish thanks to the resistance of the settlers against the attempts of subjection and unification by the English before the 17th century. Despite this, the nobles contributed to the linguistic assimilation of these areas, since many of them were English speakers.

Consequently, from the 17th century onwards, English expands to new territories with the colonisation of Ireland, North America, some islands in the Caribbean, some areas of Central and South America, Australia, New Zealand, some South Atlantic islands and several Asian and African countries.

In the light of the above-mentioned facts, it could be established that English began its consolidation as a global language in 1815, this was the moment when the Napoleonic wars ended up with the triumph of the Seventh Coalition (including England) at the Battle of Waterloo. This year marks a milestone in the colonisation processes of the British Empire (Figure 1), called the imperial century from 1815 to 1914, and consequently, the

expansion of English in the so-called British colonies, as Parsons (1999, p.1) explains: “Although the widespread use of English is partly due to contemporary U.S. cultural dominance, it is also a legacy of the global empire that Britain created during what Ronald Hyam has termed ‘the imperial century’.”

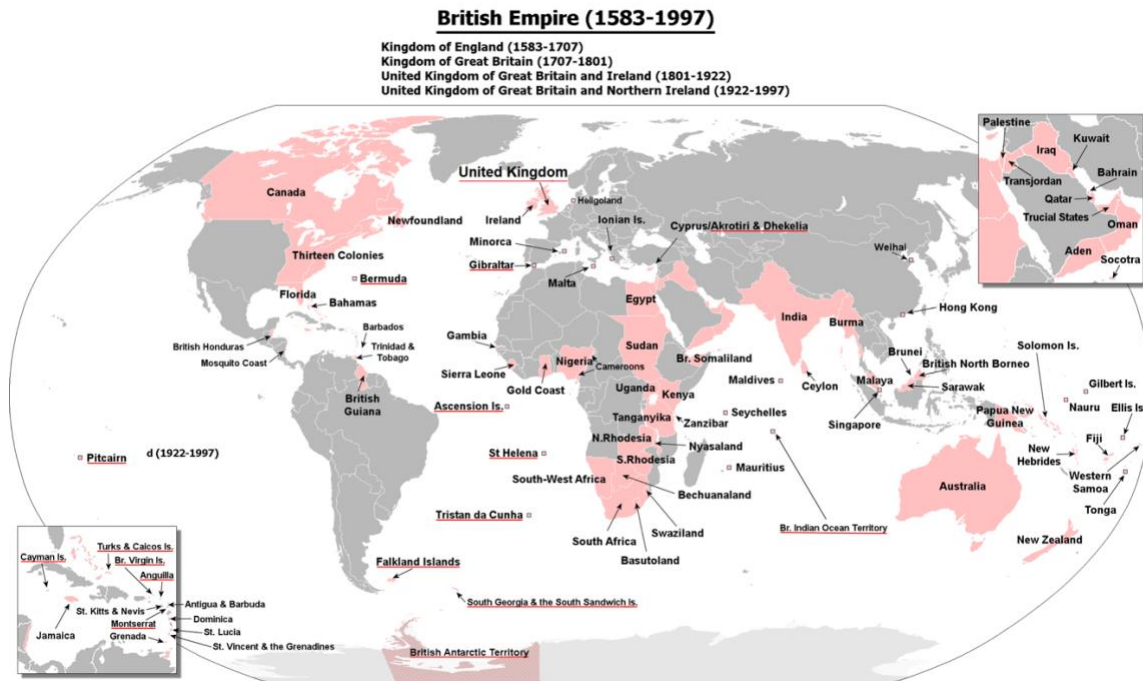


Figure 1. The territories that were at one time or another part of the British Empire. The United Kingdom and its accompanying British Overseas Territories are underlined in red. Retrieved from:

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/British_Empire#/media/File:The_British_Empire.png

With this in mind, it would be absurd to deny the role of British colonialism as a starting point for the geopolitical expansion of English. However, already in the 20th century, with the weakening of the British Empire and the emergence of the United States as an economic, political, academic, technological and military superpower after the two world wars, English reaches global language status in a relatively short period of time. This is mildly surprising if compared with Latin during the Roman Empire (27 BCE - 476 CE)

and Greek in the Empire Byzantine (330 BCE - 1204 CE) (McDonnell, 2006), obviously keeping the proportions about the meaning of the term 'global'. Conversely, this was not the only factor in this process: the phenomenon of globalisation gave English its consolidation as a *lingua franca* or global language in the 20th century and in the current 21st century. Indeed, globalisation has usually been associated to the economic aspect of free trade among countries, but this interpretation is just one component of this complex phenomenon as widely discussed and analysed from different branches of knowledge, such as from a sociolinguistic point of view (Coupland, 2003; Blommaert, 2010). We could actually state that language is not only crucial for the processes of globalisation but that it is its engine; besides, it may have become the basis of a world inextricably interconnected, and its development may have produced, reproduced and expanded its linguistic and cultural capital (Saxena & Omoniyi, 2010).

According to Phillipson (2001, p.187), however, "English is an integral aspect of the globalising processes of the post-Cold War phase, thanks to capitalism, economic restructuring, McDonaldization and militarisation on all continents." Likewise, Mufwene (2010) argues that globalisation has been a crucial factor for English to become a *lingua franca*, although this process is more related to the previous colonisation with which globalisation is obviously connected. In the following map (Figure 2), designed as a family tree of the expansion of English and its American and British varieties, we can observe this global expansion (Stevens, 1981).

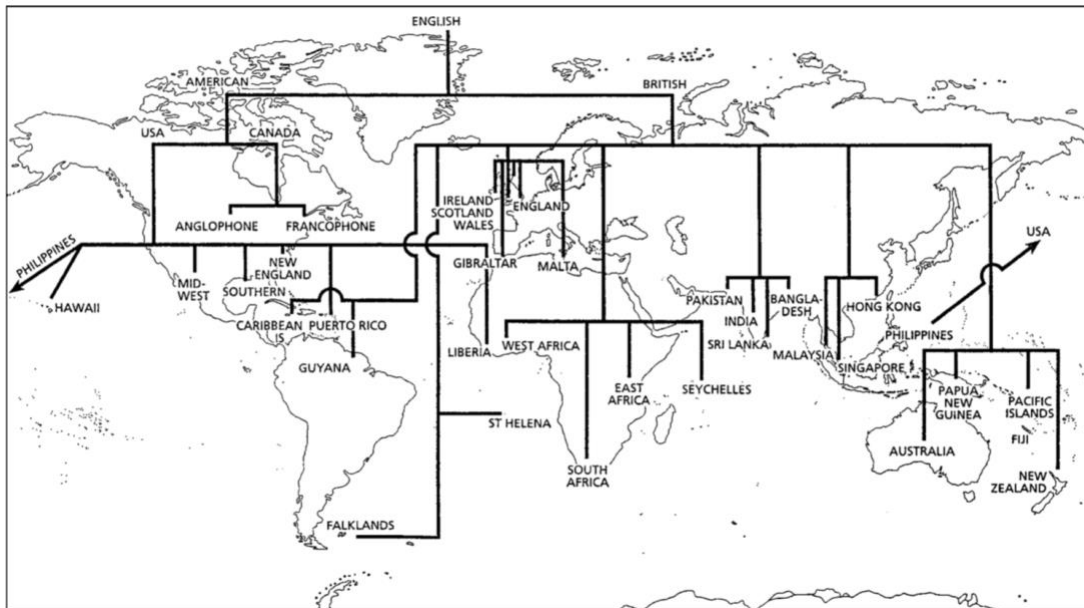


Figure 2. A family tree representation (based on a model by Peter Strevens) on the way English has spread around the world, showing the influence of the two main branches of American and British English (Crystal, 2003)

Globalisation started as an economic phenomenon of an interdependent system of production, reproduction and capitalist accumulation, but it already covers almost all aspects of human life (Pennycook, 2010). As such, it can be defined as “[a] social process in which the constraints of geography on economic, political, social and cultural arrangements recede, in which people become increasingly aware that they are receding and in which people act accordingly” (Waters, 2013, p.5). Based on this definition, geographic limitations are already overcome by means of technology thanks to synchronous and immediate communications, and this has been a factor in creating a much wider and more diverse need for communication. Bringing these different issues and receivers closer has led to the choice of a *lingua franca* with a global scope, which, in this

case, is English. As McKenzie (2010, p.1) states, “there are linguistic consequences of globalisation and economic interconnection, such as the increasing competition among languages at regional and global level, including winners and losers.” Steger (2003) also provides four basic features of globalisation, from a social perspective:

1. The creation of social networks and new activities and their reproduction overcoming the traditional political, economic, cultural and geographic limits.
2. The expansion and narrowing of social relationships and activities.
3. The intensification and hastening of social exchanges and activities through technology and the Internet.
4. A growth in people’s awareness of the new manifestations of social interdependence and the acceleration of social interactions, as well as the reduction of distances as well as the elimination of physical borders.

Considering the above-mentioned issues, if globalisation implies a change in social relations, language is one of its main components through which communities and identities are built and which also influences expansion, status, change, variation, and, in fact, it also has to do with the weakening and/or extinction of a language.

However, unfortunately, as James (2009, p.80) poses, “globalization theories as developed in the economic, political and social sciences are scarcely concerned with issues of language or linguistics, let alone the specifics of English, not even in the context of ‘cultural globalization’.” This results in the lack of a sociolinguistic approach to the phenomenon of globalisation, and specifically, of a unified theory that explains the expansion and consolidation of English, which would allow to understand the positioning

of English in such a short period of time, as has been evinced. Similarly, Coupland (2003) emphasizes the significance of comprehending globalization as a sociolinguistic phenomenon and its linguistic and cultural impact on local communities on a worldwide level. Pennycook (2010, p.21) acknowledges the undeniable connection between English and globalization, but also recognizes the importance of exploring its historical development through the lenses of nationalism and imperialism. Additionally, he points out the role of English in the unequal distribution of resources, the promotion of certain ideologies, and its potential to pose a threat to other languages and cultures.

3. Expansion and consolidation of English at a global level

The Ethnologue report (2021) provides information on the number of speakers of over 7,117 living languages. According to the report, English has approximately 1.5 billion native speakers, making it the third most widely spoken native language in the world. Additionally, English is widely used as a second language, with over 1 billion people speaking it as a non-native language. It is also estimated that over 2 billion people can speak English to some degree. Actually, in 2003, Crystal (p.69) spoke of “a total of c. 1,500 million speakers from all sources – approximately 750 million first- and second-language speakers, and an equivalent number of speakers of English as a foreign language”. However, as Mufwene (2010) states, the status of a world language is not determined merely by the number of speakers who share a language, but by the function as a *lingua franca* that it fulfils for diverse roles in society. In fact, David Crystal (2003) additionally

argues that a language becoming widely spoken does not depend on the intrinsic structure of the language or even the size of its lexis. Moreover, he also defends that a language spreading its culture or literature is not necessarily a reason for it to become international. Along this line, he states that “a language has traditionally become an international language for one chief reason: the power of its people –especially their political and military power” (Crystal, 2003, p.9). To complement this assumption, Crystal (2003, p.10) he also refers to the fact that “it takes an economically powerful [nation] to maintain and expand [a language]”. Thus, it is necessary to explore the various causes and processes by which English became a global *lingua franca*, and with regard to this, the different perspectives that have served as a basis to explain the phenomenon will be addressed. After that, we will describe the different approaches by several authors with respect to their academic positions on how English has expanded and consolidated worldwide.

3.1 Braj Kachru's World Englishes

Braj Kachru (1982, 1992a) was the first scholar to investigate the worldwide expansion of the English language and to propose an initial framework explaining the factors and causes behind this phenomenon. It should be noted that this approach has been the basis for later theories on the phenomenon. Initially, British colonisation serves as justification for the spread of English. In addition, it also provides some main reasons for the appropriation of English such as its literary heritage, the status that the speakers can acquire, and the access to technology, science, commerce and diplomacy (1992a, pp.4-6).

He even suggests that promoting the expansion of English by its non-native speakers and the contribution to its functional increase by political authorities have contributed to the consolidation of English in different parts of the globe.

Kachru proposes the Model of the Three Circles of English (Figure 3) to explain the process of expansion and evolution of English over time:

The current sociolinguistic profile of English may be viewed in terms of three concentric circles. These circles represent the types of spread, the patterns of acquisition, and the functional allocation of English in diverse cultural contexts. The Inner Circle refers to the traditional cultural and linguistic bases of English. The Outer Circle represents the institutionalized non-native varieties (ESL) in the regions that have passed through extended periods of colonization... The Expanding Circle includes the regions where the performance varieties of the language are used essentially in EFL contexts (Kachru, 1992b, pp.356-357).

The English language has different varieties that can be categorized into three circles. The Inner Circle refers to the English language used in regions where it originated, such as England. As described by Crystal (2003, p.60), there are around seventy-five territories where English holds a special position as a member of either the inner or outer circle. The Outer Circle is the result of the second Diaspora of English settlers that spread through Great Britain's imperial expansion in Asia and Africa, as noted by Jenkins (2003, pp.18, 20). On the other hand, the Expanding Circle includes countries where English does not have a historical or dominant role, but is widely used as a means of international communication. Estimating the number of English speakers in this circle is difficult since English is often used for specific purposes as a foreign language. Kachru (1992b)

developed this model based on the geopolitical expansion of the British Empire, distinguishing between native and non-native speakers and coining the term ‘World Englishes’ to refer to the varieties found in the Outer and Expanding Circles.

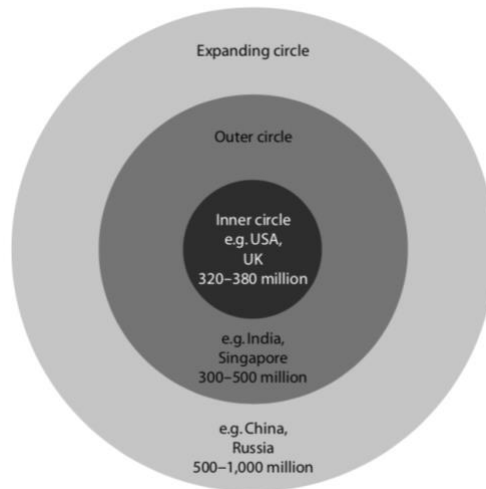


Figure 3. Braj Kachru's Three Circles of English (Crystal 2003, p.61)

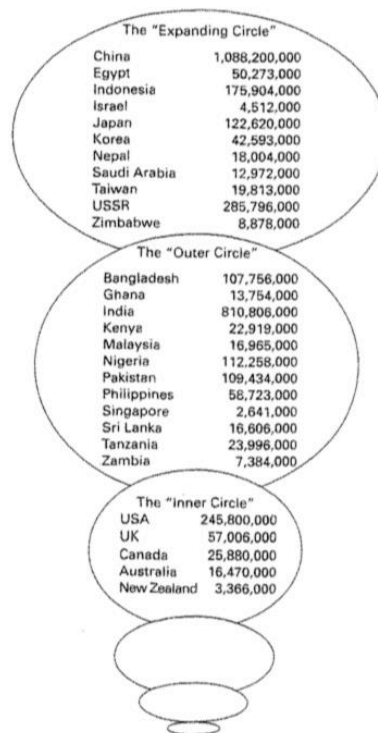


Figure 4. Kachru's (1992a, p.356) three concentric circles' model

In the following table, we can find a quite exemplary summary of these three circles and how they associate to why the language spread, the pattern of acquisition followed, its functional allocation and some representative countries where these phenomena occur.

Table 1. The three circles of English and their features (Sergeant, 2012, p.32)

	<i>Cause of spread</i>	<i>Pattern of acquisition</i>	<i>of Functional allocation</i>	<i>Countries</i>
The Inner Circle	Settlement by first language English speakers	As a native language	All functions	e.g.: UK, USA, Canada, Australia, New Zealand
The Outer Circle	Colonisation (by the British)	As a second language	Administration, education, literature	e.g.: India, Kenya, Singapore
The Expanding Circle	Globalisation	As a foreign language	Tourism, diplomacy, business	e.g.: China, Japan, most countries in Europe

However, there have been some criticisms to this model, for instance those posed and described by Kirkpatrick and Deterding:

[It] is historically and geographically based; it deals with countries rather than societies or individuals; and it fails to accommodate some places (such as Denmark and Argentina) that seem to be moving from Expanding-Circle to Outer-Circle status even though they have no colonial links with England or the United States (Jenkins, 2009, 20-1). Furthermore, Kachru's model does not allow for the possibility of the increasing number of speakers with English as their first language in places such as Singapore and India. (Kirkpatrick & Deterding, 2011, p.374)

The three arguments that Phillipson (1992) uses to explain how English has expanded and consolidated are: the dominant position of English in science; the publishing market; trade; its use in international organisations and diplomacy; the mass media and entertainment; the education systems and being one of the most widely learned foreign languages; communication between computers, that is, the Internet; and English Language Teaching. This all results in a strategy that he considers has been the most successful to expand and consolidate English as a *lingua franca*, which comes with an implicit (sometimes explicit) political and economic agenda, such as being an element of neo-colonialist domination towards the developing nations that need access to diverse economic, military, scientific and cultural sources to be able to fulfil the obligations acquired, mainly with the United States and other international organisations. In a more recent conceptualisation, his criticism even intensifies when he affirms that English can be seen as the neo-imperial capitalist language that serves the interests of the corporate world and the government that influences it (Phillipson, 2008).

3.2 David Crystal

This author appeals to the causes that could be considered with regard to why the English language has acquired the status of a global *lingua franca* since the 19th century: “the expansion of British colonial power, which took hold at the end of the 19th century, and the emergence of the United States as the leading economic power of the 20th century” (Crystal, 2003, p.59).

Crystal (2003) often uses the term *lingua franca* in his attempt to define how English became the global instrument for communication. The term 'global' justifies it by numerically describing the expansion of English in number of speakers, either as L1, L2 or foreign language, since according to the data provided, a quarter of the world population was proficient in English several years ago (Crystal, 2003, p.69), and for all we know these numbers are not decreasing. From the sociolinguistic perspective, the urgency for a 'global' language is dictated by the need of worldwide communication that originated in the 20th century and continues in the current century. In fact, the use of a *lingua franca* among nations, economic sectors and/or academics looks paramount, even among people of different origins and languages. If the costs of translation and interpreting services are considered for a diversity of 6,000 languages that according to Ethnologue exist on the planet today, it becomes even more necessary to use a *lingua franca*, but with global scope (Crystal, 2003).

Furthermore, Crystal (2003) provides two arguments to explain the reason why English became a global language: a geographical-historical argument and a socio-cultural one. The geographical-historical perspective explains how the dispersion of English through the different processes of colonisation and its adoption as an official language or second language in the territories, even after their independence, means that English has a significant representation worldwide. On the other hand, the sociocultural perspective has to do with the economic, social and cultural penetration of English in the different aspects of human life, and also with the convenience of a *lingua franca* that facilitates

communication processes in this new hyperconnected world. Thus, from a geographical-historical perspective, four milestones stand out that could be considered as the foundations for the consolidation of English as a *lingua franca* and later as a global language: the colonization process of North America in the 16th century by the English; the imperial century (1815-1914) of Great Britain with British colonisation that ended up dispersing English across the globe; the end of the Second World War (1945); and the consequent emergence of the United States as an economic and political power (Crystal, 2003). From the sociocultural perspective, he mentions three other major factors: the Industrial Revolution of the 19th century in Great Britain, with its technological advances; the creation of the first personal computer by IBM in 1973, the invention of the Internet (1982), with the phenomenon of globalisation and its economic, social and cultural consequences; and the linguistic and educational policies, with the dominance of academic and scientific publications in the English language. These three major factors, in combination, can be considered as the trigger for the consolidation and evolution of English as a global language.

3.3 Alastair Pennycook

Following Phillipson initially, Alastair Pennycook (1998) presents the efforts of the nations of the dominant discourse (United Kingdom, United States) to spread English through English Language Teaching, in addition to continuing to propagate the historical and cultural colonialist discourse immersed in the language (more than the economic or

political implications). He gives the following reasons: English is deeply connected to British colonialism; the cultural production of countries where English is native and in colonised countries is closely related to these colonialist processes; and colonialism still remains embedded in the cultural constructs of English-speaking communities (Pennycook, 1998, p. 8)

Pennycook states that English Language Teaching is not simply a tool at the service of the (British) Empire due to the colonialist policy of how to manage a colony, but a product of the Empire that assigned dichotomies (such as that of the native and non-native speaker) within the cultural constructions of the coloniser and colonised. So, his approach is, indeed, a reflection on the best way to teach English to those colonised subjects to maintain the status quo, and on other issues. Pennycook's postulate can be seen as follows:

ELT is a product of colonialism not because it is colonialism that produced the initial conditions for the global spread of English but because it was colonialism that produced many of the ways of thinking and behaving that are still part of Western cultures. European/Western culture not only produced colonialism but was also produced by it; ELT not only rode on the back of colonialism to the distant corners of the Empire but it was also in turn produced by that voyage (Pennycook, 1998, p.19).

3.4 Janina Brutt-Griffler

Brutt-Griffler (2002, pp.107-124) states that there is no unified theory about how English reached the levels of expansion and consolidation that we are able to see today, and she even criticises Phillipson's model of linguistic imperialism by including the

concept of “agency”. In it, she considers that the nations that were former British colonies and those countries where English has been adopted for certain administrative, educational and commercial roles have also contributed to the consolidation of English in their territories and, in fact, this process was not just a product of the linguistic imposition of the British Empire.

For this author, the process of growth of English as a world language occurred at a national or regional context and at a global context, and in two phases well differentiated: the first, with the development of English as the national language of England through the creation of a domestic market and the evolution of a language and culture of nation; the second, when English became an international *lingua franca* that is constantly evolving with the creation of the world and cultural market (globalisation) and which is also accompanied by socio-cultural circumstances.

In Figure 5, Brutt-Griffler presents her model of English expansion at a global level towards three different contexts. In the first context, English expanded through migration processes of native English speakers, thanks to colonialism, so England dominated the world market and language was extensively used. In the second, English expanded through social macro-acquisition of multilingual contexts (India, Singapore, South Africa) without having an important migration of native speakers to these geographical areas, and new varieties of English were developed (New English). In the third, English expanded through the macro-acquisition of linguistic contexts with a national language already consolidated, in the form of English as a foreign language.

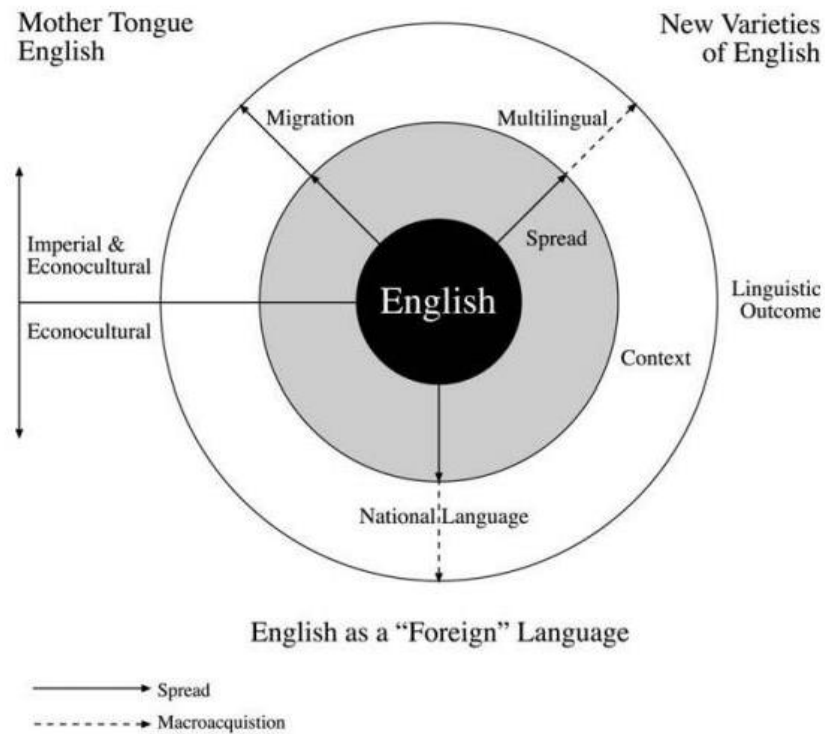


Figure 5. A model of English language spread and change (Brutt-Griffler, 2002, p.120)

3.5 Edgar Schneider

Edgar Schneider (2007) proposed the Dynamic Model as an alternative way to explain the expansion of English worldwide. This model, which was first presented at a conference in 2001, has been widely applied to various regions such as Southeast Asia, Africa, Oceania, North America, and the Caribbean to explain the processes of consolidating English as a postcolonial variety (Schneider, 2014). Schneider based his model on Sarah G. Thomason's (2001) theories of language contact, which consider the intensity of bilingual or multilingual contact in a speech community, social and historical conditions, social identity, second language acquisition, transfer, variation and interference, and creolization. Additionally, Thomason's theories account for contact

caused by colonialist events, voluntary or imposed individual or collective migration (Schneider, 2007; 2014).

In addition, she also takes advantage of the theory of the ecology of language evolution defended by Salikoko Mufwene (2001; 2005). Mufwene, on his part, compares the evolution of language and the emergence of varieties in contact situations to the situation of speakers who select from a set of linguistic variants available in the contact environment. In this environment, there exists a process of competition and selection that characterises most of the languages in their historical evolution; he also includes a contact component due to colonisation, which can be classified in commercial colonisation, colonial exploitation, and settlement colonisation of human groups (Schneider, 2007, pp.24–25).

As per Schneider's Dynamic Model, the emergence of Post-Colonial Englishes can be attributed to the process of English being uprooted and relocated in colonial and postcolonial history. This process can be categorised into five stages: foundation, exonormative stabilisation, nativisation, endonormative stabilisation, and differentiation.

These stages are unique to the emergence of Post-Colonial Englishes and depict the evolution of English in diverse regions of the world. The groups involved in this process experience it differently depending on whether they are colonisers or colonised. As the process progresses, the developmental strands of the colonisers and colonised become increasingly interwoven, and their linguistic features approximate each other in a continuous process of mutual linguistic accommodation. Ultimately, the stages and strands

of this process represent reconstructions of group identities for all communities involved, concerning the source society of the colonising group and the land they share. Thus, the emergence of Post-Colonial Englishes is the result of a complex interaction of historical, social, and cultural factors that have moulded the linguistic identities of these communities over time. (Schneider, 2007, pp.33-34).

In Figure 6, we can see the five different phases (foundation, exonormative stabilization, nativisation, endonormative stabilization and differentiation), with the manifestations of four variables that affect each phase: extralinguistic or socio-political factors (historical and political), identity constructions, sociolinguistic conditions, and linguistic effects; it also makes a distinction between the individuals who are agents of this process, such as the settlers (STL: settlers) and the native residents (IDG: indigenous).

STAGE	HISTORY AND POLITICS	IDENTITY CONSTRUCTION	SOCIOLINGUISTICS OF CONTACT/ USE/ATTITUDES	LINGUISTIC DEVELOPMENTS/ STRUCTURAL EFFECTS
1: Foundation	STL: colonial expansion: trade, military outposts, missionary activities, emigration/settlement IDG: occupation, loss/ sharing of territory, trade	STL: part of original nation IDG: indigenous	STL: cross-dialectal contact, limited exposure to local languages IDG: minority bilingualism (acquisition of English)	STL: koinéization; toponymic borrowing
2: Exonormative stabilization	stable colonial status	STL: outpost of original nation, 'English-plus-local' IDG: individually 'local-plus- English'	STL: acceptance of original norm; expanding contact IDG: spreading (elite) bilingualism	lexical borrowing (esp. fauna and flora, cultural terms); '-isms'
3: Nativization	weakening ties; often political independence but remaining cultural association	STL: permanent resident of English origin IDG: permanent resident of indigenous origin	widespread and regular contacts, accommodation IDG: common bilingualism, toward language shift STL: sociolinguistic cleavage between innovative speakers (approximating IDG) and conservative speakers (upholding external norm; 'complaint tradition')	heavy lexical borrowing; IDG: phonological innovations ('accent' possibly due to transfer); structural nativization (in word formation, phrases, prepositional usage, verb complementation), spreading from IDG to STL
4: Endonormative stabilization	postindependence, self- dependence (possibly after 'Event X')	(member of) new nation, territory-based, increasingly panethnic	acceptance of local norm, positive attitude to it (residual conservatism); literary creativity in new variety	stabilization of new variety, homogeneity, codification (dictionary writing)
5: Differentiation	stable young nation, internal sociopolitical differentiation	group-specific (as part of overarching new national identity)	network construction (increasingly dense group- internal interactions)	dialect birth: group-specific (ethnic, regional, social) varieties emerge (as L1 or L2)

Figure 6. The evolutionary cycle of New Englishes: Parameters of the developmental stages. Schneider (2003, p.255). Retrieved from: <http://urd.let.rug.nl/~nerbonne/teach/varieties-eng/papers/schneider-lang-2003.pdf>

4. A sociolinguistic conceptualisation of English: as *lingua franca*, as an international language, as global language and as World Englishes

One of the first considerations to start with the description and analysis of the phenomenon of English as a global language lies on the precision of the terms used to refer to it. Across literature, there are different meanings to refer to English as a means of communication (Seidlhofer, 2004, p.210), and for the purposes of this work, the following terms will be considered: English as an international language (EIL), English as a *lingua*

franca (ELF), English as a global language (EGL) and World Englishes (WE). In the academic world, the use of the above-mentioned terms seems to lack a theoretical differentiation, mainly because, as we will see later, they share common points. An example of this is the following statement by Jenkins (2006, p.160): “because of the potential for confusion of the word international [...], ELF researchers prefer the term English as a lingua franca to English as an international language, although to add to the confusion, both terms are currently in use.” Additionally, Seidlhofer (2009) compares the conceptualisations of ELF and WE, which, according to her, share the conception that English belongs to all those who use it; the phenomena of language contact, variation and change, linguistic norms and their acceptance; and the expression of social identities through language –all these aspects are fundamental for research in WE and ELF. Therefore, it is necessary to define these categories to clarify the concepts used.

4.1 English as an International Language

The term *English as an International Language* (EIL) defines English as a language of international and intercultural communication, which has many varieties although no particular variety is preferred (Sharifian, 2009). The EIL paradigm is associated to the recognition of varieties of English or World Englishes (WE) from a sociolinguistic and educational perspective, since it highlights its importance in the processes of teaching English as a second language, as a foreign language or as a variety, or varieties, of World Englishes (Matsuda, 2009). However, as discussed above, there is a problem with

sociolinguistic categorisation since authors such as Seidlhofer (2005) claim that English as an International Language is a macro-category that encompasses English as a *Lingua Franca*, English as a Global Language, English as a World Language and English as a medium of intercultural communication. She even states that the terms can be exchanged and even International English can be considered as a synonym of English as an International Language. Following this line of ideas, McKay exposes his definition of International English by referring to EIL:

International English is used by native speakers of English and bilingual users of English for cross-cultural communication. International English can be used both in a local sense between speakers of diverse cultures and languages within one country and in a global sense between speakers from different countries (McKay, 2002, p.132).

The key point about the EIL paradigm is the issue of pluricentricity (the recognition of all the sociolinguistic varieties of a language), and therefore, that English belongs to all speakers, whether native or non-native according to this classical dichotomy (Sharifian, 2009; Doan, 2013). As García (2013) claims, pluricentricity is an essential concept since it allows a focus on the selection of norms of many varieties of English instead of one or two (frequently the dominant varieties, such as American English or British English).

Another paramount component of EIL is the almost total exclusion, as norm provider, of the native speaker, a basic minority group in EIL (Brumfit, 2001). Actually, Jenkins (2003, p.90) proposes a reconceptualization of this idea of what a native speaker is by changing up the traditional terminology. Following Jenkins, we can state that those speakers of English who are not able to speak any other language can be described as

Monolingual English Speakers (MES); on the contrary, in the case of proficient speakers of English and at least another language, regardless the acquisition order, she offers the term Bilingual English Speakers (BES) and, last but not least, Jenkins describes as Non-bilingual English Speakers (NBES) those who are not bilingual in English but are however able to speak it with somehow reasonable competence. The EIL paradigm establishes that in this variety (or varieties) the Non-native Speaker (NNS) is more important since it is considered that the competence in English as their mother tongue does not necessarily allow native speakers to be proficient users of EIL, and even more so when it has been developed in a monolingual context (Sharifian, 2009). This position gives recognition to the large mass of non-native speakers that almost triples the mass of the natives and allows an empowerment to change the perspectives of teaching the language and the positive characterization of the population that uses EIL as a means of communication. Now, with reference to the role of the instructor of non-native English (Non-native-speaker teachers), Llurda (2004) recognises the advantage they have because they have gone through the experience of learning English, and according to him “[non]-native-speaker teachers are the ones who are inherently endowed with better expertise in guiding this process.” (Llurda, 2004, p.318).

In addition to prior conceptions, Smith, quoted by Brutt-Griffler (2002, p.5), describes three important characteristics of EIL:

EIL implies that there is no important relationship between speaking English and assimilating an associated culture. There is no need for second language speakers to internalise the cultural norms and behaviour of the native language to use it effectively. An

international language is denationalised. It is not owned by its native speakers. Brutt-Griffler (2002, p.5)

Since English as an International Language has a merely functional role, the objective of its teaching should be to facilitate the communication of ideas and culture to students in an Anglophone medium.

For his part, Talebinezhad (2001) identifies the following characteristics related to EIL:

1. EIL is descriptive. It is not prescribed or associated to any particular variety, its functions and forms are different and totally acceptable.
2. EIL is a reformer. It is given as a response and alternative to all the previous approaches (ESL, EFL), although it shares similar points with them.
3. The partners in EIL are unpredictable. Discarding the interlocutor called native speaker, the interlocutors can be of any nationality and they can use English for different reasons.
4. EIL is intervaried. Because of the several varieties of English, there is no ideal speaker with a standard variety since anyone can use it to communicate.
5. EIL is functional. It focuses more on communicative functions than on the formal structure of the language to achieve more effective communication.
6. EIL is not artificial. Compared to artificial languages such as Esperanto, English has evolved as a language of global communication that has managed to obtain its status as an international language.
7. EIL is cross-cultural. Another objective of EIL is to appropriate intercultural communication, where there are many varieties of English with their associated

cultural scheme. Being able to understand and accept these differences enriches the interlocutors and prepares them for diversity.

4.2 *English as a Lingua Franca (ELF)*

To be able to describe English as a *lingua franca* (ELF), we need to start from the definition of *lingua franca*, understood as a language that is used among people who speak different languages. In fact, many academics in the area prefer the term *English as a Lingua Franca*, since the term “international English” was used in the past in relation to “occidental” English (Jenkins, 2004).

To address the concept of English as a *lingua franca*, Firth (1996, p.240) defines it as “a ‘contact language’ between persons who share neither a common native tongue nor a common (national) culture, and for whom English is the chosen foreign language of communication.” Along the same line, House (1999, p.74) defines the interactions in ELF as “interactions between members of two or more different linguacultures in English, for none of whom English is the mother tongue.”

These definitions identify the first distinctive feature of ELF, which is, indeed, not having a common mother tongue or culture, but rather choosing English as a means of interaction and communication. House (2003, p.557) adds two premises of English as a *lingua franca*: “ELF talk cannot be conceived with a view to an ideal English norm, and the ELF speaker cannot be measured in his/her competence vis-à-vis ‘the native speaker’.” This assertion implies that the model of the Inner Circle of English, proposed by Kachru (1985), that is, the speakers who are considered “native,” are not the model to be followed

phonologically, grammatically, or pragmatically, although it recognises the linguistic variation and the tendency to reach a communicative end, not to the follow-up of what is considered standard.

According to Seidlhofer (2004), the factors to be taken into account in the conceptualisation of ELF are “the questioning of the deference of the hegemonic norms of the native speaker in all contexts, the emphasis on the legitimacy of the variation in the different speech communities, the emphasis on the need to probe the attitudinal and linguistic implications of the global expansion of English, and the recognition of the need for description and coding [of English as a Free Language]” (Seidlhofer, 2004, p.214).

McKay (2002, p.27) proposes the term “Bilingual User of English,” which includes a wide variety of proficiency levels in English, precisely because of the difficulty to draw a line between speakers with a very high level of competence and those who do not have it. Within this classification, the following sub-classes differ:

1. BILINGUAL USERS OF ENGLISH IN INNER CIRCLE COUNTRIES

This term usually refers to speakers who belong to a first or second generation of immigrants. In many cases, particularly among immigrants or their descendants, English is used in public and private domains, such as with family and friends. The differences between these speakers and those belonging to the other circles are clear, according to McKay. First, they acquire English through migration, instead of doing so through a macro-acquisition process that occurs in the countries of the other two circles. Secondly, for most of these speakers, English is the preferred language of all their repertoire and many of these speakers end up identifying themselves with the country’s culture and becoming speakers

of communities where only English is spoken. Finally, for some speakers, English ends up replacing the other languages they speak, especially in young speakers.

2. BILINGUAL USERS OF ENGLISH IN OUTER CIRCLE COUNTRIES

In this circle, speakers are beginning to use English in a greater number of contexts and domains. According to McKay (2002), it is used even in informal contexts, such as multicultural and multilingual schools in Singapore and South Africa, in addition to being used in the media. In the countries above-mentioned, the pattern of behaviour closely resembles that carried out in the Inner Circle countries by immigrants. However, there is a remarkable difference since while the bilingual speakers of the Inner Circle normally want to connect the learning and use of English with the culture of the country where they live, the bilingual speakers of the other circles do not share the same objective.

3. BILINGUAL USERS OF ENGLISH IN EXPANDING CIRCLE COUNTRIES

For the countries included in the Expanding Circle, English is used mainly as a means of international communication. McKay (2002) exposes examples like that of a Japanese businessman who may use English as a communication language with a Brazilian businessman to conduct negotiations. This and other examples illustrate the use of English for international purposes, however, there is great variation in this use, since there are countries, such as Denmark, Norway and Sweden, where the use of English within their own borders is so common that they are increasingly being considered countries of the Outer Circle.

As has been explained above, the definition of a native speaker is not currently clear, therefore, is this the model of perfection that we should follow? Who owns the

property of English, English people or the billions of people who use it even if it is not their mother tongue? This question has been a matter of debate for a long time, but recently it has become more evident due to the use of the Internet to communicate.

Likewise, there are linguists who propose to handle the term ‘expert’, instead of that of native speaker; in this case, they would refer more to the speaker’s proficiency level of English than to membership or identification with a particular social group. Such a state would be learned and not being innate and, therefore, can be judged by other people and qualified through certification processes (Rampton, 1990).

For instance, Crystal (2003, p.6) evinces the difficulty of defining the native speaker with a clear example:

In the Emirates a few years ago, for example, I met a couple –a German oil industrialist and a Malaysian– who had courted through their only common language, English, and decided to bring up their child with English as their primary language of the home. So there is a baby learning English as a foreign language as its mother tongue.

There are numerous cases like this, continues Crystal (2003), which raise the question of how these children will contribute in the future to the English language and, inevitably, they will do so in a different way from the so-called traditionally native speakers. The definition of a native speaker has been widely discussed, associating it in some cases with the identity of the speaker or belonging to a certain group of people. In this way, the person does not choose the social group where they are born, but they do decide throughout their life with what other social groups they are related, being able to thus become a native speaker of other languages (Davies, 1991).

In other cases, it has been associated to the idea of the level of competence of its use, but here is a variety of opinions as well. On the one hand, there are scholars who believe that the relationship between the language and competence in it is not accidental and that there may be a variety of situations. It may be the case that a person uses English as a mother tongue from childhood and does not acquire a high level of competence, even if it is the dominant language in the family environment. For this reason, some educators of the Inner Circle censure the lack of English proficiency in many of the so-called native speakers. And, on the contrary, an individual whose use of English is more restricted, can achieve a high level of competence through personal effort and motivation (McKay, 2002, p.29).

As stated above, Jenkins defends the idea that the distinction between Monolingual (MES), Bilingual (BES) and Non-bilingual (NBES) Speakers of English favours bilingual speakers, arguing that monolingualism is not the preferred condition at present. On the other hand, the use here of the term “bilingual” eliminates what, according to her, is an artificial distinction between L1 and L2 speakers (in an international context). On the other hand, Jenkins admits the disadvantages that such terminology may imply, particularly the difficulty of drawing a line between bilingual and non-bilingual competence and, above all, who should trace it.

According to Jenkins (2003), we can pinpoint some of the main features of ELF. Firstly, ELF is employed in contexts where speakers with different L1 (most of them, but not exclusively, belonging to the Expanding Circle) need it as a means of communication.

In fact, Jenkins considers ELF is an alternative to EFL (English as a Foreign Language), instead of a replacement which depends on the needs and preferences of the speaker.

If we consider the linguistic features of EFL, we can state that it implies some differences from ENL (English as a Native Language) which are shared by the majority of ELF speakers. In fact, ELF also includes the use of certain communication strategies, particularly accommodation and code change. This is due to the fact that the forms of ELF virtually depend on the specific communicative context.

In Figure 7, Pakir (2009) summarises the EFL paradigmatic axioms:

Approaches	Exponents	Objectives	Research and practice
(ELT/EFL) Focus: connectivity and communication minus the linguacultural aspects of IE Bodies: IAWA, College of World Englishes	House (1999); Seidlhofer (2001; 2004; 2006); Jenkins (2000; 2004; 2006);	To promote a new concept of English as a contact language, the chosen foreign language of communication 'for groups of English speakers having different first language backgrounds'	Definitions and parameter setting Description and codification Phonology Lexico-grammar Distinctive features of ELF Supra-features, e.g. pragmatics

Figure 7. EFL paradigmatic axioms (Pakir, 2009, p.228). Retrieved from http://www.homes.uni-bielefeld.de/sgramley/Pakir_ELF.pdf

After bearing in mind all the previous conceptions of what a so-called native speaker is, we can state that for the purpose of this research we can consider speakers of English all those corresponding to Jenkins's above-mentioned categories: MES, BES or NBES.

4.3 English as a Global Language

English as a Global Language (EGL) is a relatively recent term, used by Crystal (2003) and then by Gnutzmann (1999). Crystal's concept of a global language is

established when it develops a special role recognised in all countries, either because it becomes an official language in addition to the mother tongue of the country or because it is adopted as the language of instruction at school (Crystal, 2003, pp.3-4). As he states, “a language achieves a genuinely global status when it develops a special role that is recognized in every country” (Crystal, 2003, p.3). So we can assume that the special role that a language develops to be considered as a global language is not the fact that it is spoken as a mother tongue in a large number of countries, such as the United States, United Kingdom or Australia, among others but being used by speakers of other languages for communication, either with native speakers or with non-native speakers; that is, in a multicultural context. In fact, Crystal (2003) emphasises that this language can be granted a special status in various countries, for example, considering it as a Second Language (ESL) and, besides, considering it a priority when teaching it as a Foreign Language (EFL). Henceforth, we can state that all these characteristics are met in the case of the English language.

In the late 20th century, a growing global discourse emerged among scholars, educators and researchers regarding the use and characteristics of English, and its various designations: English as World Language, English as an International Language, World English, International English or Global English (McArthur, 1999). Since the 1970s, many linguists have used terms such as the Englishes, the New Englishes, and the World Englishes (WE) to refer to the new varieties of English that have emerged in combination with the native languages of the countries in which they are used. McArthur (1999) proposed the term “the English Languages” to encompass this group as a family, as is the

case with the Romance languages. Currently, different designations are used to describe the status of a language as global. Jennifer Jenkins (2006) describes two of these designations, World Englishes (WEs) and English as a *Lingua Franca* (ELF), with WEs referring to the indigenous varieties of spoken English in contexts of local use and ELF to English used by non-native speakers in different cultural contexts. Jenkins notes that the term WEs is sometimes replaced by similar terms such as World English, International English and Global English.

Some other scholars consider that denominations or labels such as Global, World or *Lingua Franca* mystify the English language but do not have functional or sociolinguistic validity (Kachru & Smith, 2009), and that a realistic social approach to the language must recognize that variation exists even within the same national borders, whether American, Australian or British. This statement can also be applied to varieties of English spoken in countries not considered native.

For example, Rohman (2005) gives the following description (very similar to those of EIL and ELF) of English as a Global Language:

English is not only used when people communicate with English speakers. English is used by people of different first languages. It is not only applied when people speak to English people, but also used when people from different nations meet. English is the most widely spoken language in very different contexts in the world. Therefore, English is not only an international language, but also a global language (2005, p.107).

And, for his part, Halliday (2003) makes a distinction between English considered international and global:

English has become a world language in both senses of the term, international and global: international, as a medium of literary and other forms of cultural life in (mainly) countries of the former British Empire; global, as the co-genitor of the new technological age, the age of information (2003, p.406).

And, finally, Brutt-Griffler (2002) extends the differentiation to that between a world language and a *lingua franca*:

Unlike an international lingua franca, such as Latin and later French represented in Europe at one time, a world language is more than an exclusive language of a socioeconomic and intellectual elite. It has an economic role in the world that induces its spread independently of the political and cultural hegemony of any one nation or nations. World language combines economic and cultural/intellectual roles (Brutt-Griffler, 2002, p.120).

These previous distinctions share a common feature: they all have to do with its use (in different domains), rather than with the phonological, grammatical or pragmatic characteristics of English in this category. In this sense, Crystal (2003) has recognised the use of English as a global language as “an obvious functional reality, but its linguistic nature has become considerably more difficult to define” (Crystal, 2003, p.177).

4.4 EuroEnglish

Numerous writings exploring the connection between English language and its global presence provide specific illustrations of how it operates in particular nations or regions. However, it is crucial to distinguish between situations affecting English in countries of the outer circle from those in countries of the expanding circle. This

differentiation highlights that countries where English holds a prominent position within institutions cannot be equated with those where it serves as a medium for communication between individuals who do not share a common language.

McArthur (in Graddol, Cheshire & Swann, 1999, p.5), by defining English as the dominant (though not the only) language of the electronic network (radio, TV, cinema, Internet), briefly exemplifies the role of English in different countries where it can be considered either as a second language (Singapore or Malaysia), a foreign language (China), or a mother tongue (USA and the influence of Spanish). This topic is also commented by Hoffer and Honna (1999), who present a study about the influence of English on Japanese, comparing the pros and cons of its inclusion in business and in educational fields.

On the other hand, Huang (1999) provides a more personal and particular view of the situation of the globalisation of the English language and its repercussions in China. As a professor of Business and Communication, he observes that globalisation in the economy and trade makes English assume a more important role as a *lingua franca* with the objectives of communicating and understanding, implementing regulations and conventions, as well as resolving conflicts. To this business world adds technology, specifically the new means of communication (fax, e-mail) that require an adequate knowledge of the English language. In addition, the particular Chinese situation of developing its foreign market causes this opening to be linked to a language of easier and faster understanding in other countries, so that only those people with competence in English can take charge of that expansion inside and outside the country. The immediate

results are that more people want to learn business English, that there is an increase of competent speakers, and that there is greater demand of English courses to be done in combination with other disciplines or subjects.

As we can see, these brief examples of the influence of the English language on other languages turn around its expansion and its globalising effect. It is also true that there exist some negative aspects that should be solved by each of the countries involved, in order to safeguard the integrity of their own language or languages. However, it is undeniable that languages evolve and change on many occasions through contact with other languages.

As we will see below, opinions on the role of English in Europe also raise conflicting opinions, as pointed out by Deneire and Goethals (1997) in their introduction to their monograph on World Englishes. It seems true that the European Union (EU) has in its agenda language policy, which they consider to be minimalist, and which points to a kind of equity among the 24 official languages (European Commission, 2022). Hartmann (1996) collects in his work diverse perspectives of analysis of the English language in Europe, although all of them coincide in the domain that this language has in continental communication. On the other hand, Hermans (1997) offers a historical perspective on the linguistic policy of the EU through the implementation of the LINGUA program (approved in 1989, and deriving in the SOCRATES and LEONARDO programs, at present). Through statistical data he shows how English is the most required language by teachers and students, in spite of the EU's claim that all European languages are promoted equally. An example of the relevance of English in Europe is the organisation NELLE (Networking

European Language Learning in English), which brings together different national and international associations of teachers of second languages and foreign languages, and which studies the role of European languages and the quality of language teaching, paying special attention to English as an international and main language (Goethals, 1997).

Among the pessimistic and negative views of the position of English in Europe, Phillipson and Skutnabb-Kangas (1999) express some criticism on the fact that, although the EU insists on proclaiming European cultural and linguistic diversity, the expansion of English occurs at the expense of other potential *lingua franca* languages (French or German), so the picture is far from being linguistically uniform. Phillipson and Skutnabb-Kangas (1999, p.31) add to their criticism the idea that Southern Europe countries are aware of the need “to counteract linguistic imperialism in the area of language teaching, enshrined in structures and ideologies, and educational discourses”.

In contrast to authors who view the prominence of English in Europe negatively, there are also those who take a more positive stance. Anderman (1999) emphasizes the language's importance as a means of international communication, while noting that the European Union strives to safeguard the other minority languages. Therefore, the expansion of English can be seen as an opportunity to widely disseminate translated literary works originally written in other European languages. Similarly, McArthur (1999) sees English as a “first second-language” or “second first-language” in EU countries. This author predicts that English will not only remain the working language of the European institutions but also become a language spoken by a vast majority of Europeans.

Graddol (1999) also has a positive outlook on the role of English in Europe, despite being a foreign language in all countries except the United Kingdom and Ireland. He argues that Europe is becoming a multilingual area where English plays a crucial role as a second language, rather than a foreign language, which is supported by Labrie and Quell (1997, p. 12). Graddol's projections (1996, p. 66) suggest that the percentage of EU citizens speaking English, which was 33% at the end of the twentieth century, will grow to two-thirds by 2050.

Crystal (1999) builds on McArthur's (1999) concept of hybrid languages and proposes the possibility of creating a new hybrid language in Europe, known as "Euro-English". This term refers to the English language that is emerging mainly in and around Brussels, where multiple nationalities intermingle and use English as a common language of communication. Crystal suggests that sociolinguistic accommodation can result in a hybrid language with its own accents, grammatical constructions and discursive structures.

Europe represents the Expanding Circle of English, with a long history of contact with the language, diverse uses of English in the continent and a variety of users in all social groups. This situation distinguishes Europe from the Inner or Outer Circles. The sociolinguistic profiles of English in Europe provide a more nuanced perspective on the sociolinguistic reality of English in this region than the idea that it solely serves as the primary *lingua franca* for most Europeans.

The sociolinguistic profiles of English in Europe illustrate that the language serves four primary functions. Firstly, English is instrumental in education, with it being used as a means of instruction at all educational levels. Secondly, it is widely used in interpersonal

communication between Europeans of all ages in various settings, indicating levels and quality of education and social status. Thirdly, English is one of the official languages used in all official and unofficial EU meetings. Lastly, it is increasingly used in the entertainment industry, particularly in music, film, and television, and serves as a source of cultural exchange and innovation.

Thus, the sociolinguistic profiles of English in Europe suggest that the language serves a complex and varied set of functions, including instructional, interpersonal, institutional, and cultural exchange. It is essential to recognise the diverse ways in which English is used and understood in Europe to develop a more nuanced understanding of its sociolinguistic reality in this context.

Despite the potential benefits, scholars researching English as a *Lingua Franca* (ELF) have not adopted the terms “European English” or “Euro-English” (Jenkins, Seidlhofer, and Modiano, 2001). However, the reality of English in Europe has been shaped by the rise of the European Union and the various roles assigned to English by Europeans. English is used as an additional language for communication within the multilingual community of the EU, and this usage is similar to that of other multilingual linguistic areas such as South Asia. Therefore, European English is an umbrella term encompassing various forms of English used in Europe and is part of the Expansive Circle in English. This view is supported by scholars such as Jenkins and Seidlhofer, who emphasize the importance of recognizing the diversity of norms and standards of English used in Europe, which are influenced by the linguistic, cultural, and social backgrounds of its speakers. Thus, English in Europe is a constantly evolving and diverse linguistic phenomenon that

scholars and educators must acknowledge and accommodate. Furthermore, Kirkpatrick (2007, p.164) notes that English is one of the working languages of the EU, and while it is considered a *lingua franca* among European countries, its position within individual countries differs substantially. In some countries, such as Scandinavian ones, English has a high profile and is widely used, while in southern Europe countries like Spain and Italy, its interior use is not as prevalent, despite its growing presence in recent years.

Even though most scholars consider the use of English in Europe will lead to different varieties of Euro-English (Kirkpatrick, 2007, p.165), there are several views, beliefs and predictions which differ from this initial assumption. In an article written by Jenkins, Modiano and Seidhoffer (2001), Modiano considers that a form of Euro-English will be “legitimised, codified, standardised” (p.13), whilst Seidhoffer adds that it will be possible to describe a case for English as the European *lingua franca* “to provide a codification which would allow it to be captured in dictionaries and grammars to be taught” (p.14). Conversely, it is Jenkins who offers a completely different vision and prefers to call “for a core of Euro-English features” (in Kirkpatrick, 2007, p.166) but permitting varieties of Euro-English according to the countries where it is used. In fact, Dollerup (1996) is unsure about whether Euro-English will be identified as one or more varieties.

Another key point comes from research carried out by Seidhoffer (2004, p.220) where she has made a list with the following common features of ELF which do not seem to impede communication among European speakers. These are the following:

- (i) dropping third person present tense ‘-s’

- (ii) confusing the relative pronouns 'who' and 'which'
- (iii) non-L1 use of the definite and indefinite pronouns
- (iv) inserting redundant prepositions
- (v) overuse of certain verbs of 'high semantic generality' ('do', 'have', 'make', etc.)
- (vi) replacing infinitive constructions with that-clauses
- (vii) overdoing explicitness (as in 'black colour')

(Kirkpatrick, 2007, p.167)

We can state that English in Europe has become the main *lingua franca* in the continent and, therefore, this may result in the appearance of different varieties of European Englishes or in a unique form of Euro-English. In this sense, according to Kirkpatrick (2007, p.169), further research is required to determine how it is expanding and which form it is nowadays taking.

4.4.1 Euro-English linguistic features

Various authors have explored the phenomenon of Euro-English, a type of International English or World English that has emerged due to the global spread of English as a *lingua franca* and its interaction with other languages. Euro-English is a variation of English that is used in multilingual and multicultural contexts and has distinctive linguistic features. In this section, we will briefly discuss the current state of research on Euro-English linguistic features, including pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, and

orthography, as described by different scholars. Among these features, pronunciation is one of the most salient. Kachru (1985) argues that the pronunciation of Euro-English is shaped by the native languages of non-native English speakers, resulting in the development of a distinctive accent known as an “International accent”. This accent is characterized by a reduction of the sounds in English words and a simplification of the vowel and consonant sounds. Kachru also notes that this accent is easily understood by other non-native English speakers, making it a useful tool for communication in international settings.

Vocabulary is another area where Euro-English has distinct linguistic features. According to Alptekin (2002), Euro-English has many loanwords from other languages, which are used to express specific cultural and social concepts. This results in a rich and diverse vocabulary that reflects the multinational and multilingual context in which Euro-English is used. Alptekin (2002) also notes that Euro-English often uses words in new ways, creating a unique and evolving vocabulary. Grammar is also a feature of Euro-English that has been the subject of research. According to Seidlhofer (2001), Euro-English is characterized by a simplified grammar structure, with a reduction in the use of complex sentence structures and a greater use of simple, direct language. This is thought to be the result of the need for non-native English speakers to communicate effectively in international settings, where a simplified grammar structure is easier to understand. Finally, orthography is another linguistic feature of Euro-English that has received attention from linguists. According to Spolsky (2004), Euro-English has a unique orthography that

reflects the multinational and multilingual context in which the language is used. This orthography may include the use of non-standard spellings, the use of diacritical marks, and a lack of consistency in the use of capitalization and punctuation. All these linguistic features of Euro-English have important implications for language teaching and learning, as well as for communication in international settings. As the use of English as a global *lingua franca* continues to grow, it is important to understand and recognize the unique features of Euro-English, and to incorporate this knowledge into language teaching and learning. By doing so, we can ensure that English language learners have the skills and knowledge they need to communicate effectively in a globalized world.

To incorporate the unique features of Euro-English into language teaching and learning, educators can take several pedagogical implications. First, they can introduce the concept of Euro-English to their students and provide them with resources and materials that expose them to this variety of English. This could include authentic texts, audio, and video materials, such as news broadcasts, podcasts, and social media posts.

Second, teachers can highlight the linguistic features of Euro-English during lessons and provide opportunities for students to practice using these features in context. For example, teachers could use role-playing activities or discussions to simulate real-world communication scenarios in which students must use Euro-English expressions and phrases.

Third, teachers can emphasize the importance of communicative competence in a globalized world, where English is often used as a *lingua franca*. This means teaching students not only the rules of grammar and syntax but also the cultural and pragmatic aspects of communication. For instance, teachers could discuss the role of nonverbal communication and cultural norms in Euro-English communication.

Fourth, teachers can use technology to expose students to different varieties of English, including Euro-English. This could include using language learning apps, online forums, or video conferencing tools to connect with English speakers from different parts of the world.

Finally, teachers can encourage their students to develop their own personal learning strategies, such as keeping a language learning journal or participating in language exchange programs. By doing so, students can take ownership of their language learning and become more independent and motivated learners.

In summary, incorporating the unique features of Euro-English into language teaching and learning can help prepare students for effective communication in a globalized world. By understanding and recognizing the linguistic and cultural nuances of this variety of English, students can become more confident and competent communicators, whether they are using English for academic, professional, or personal purposes.

The terms EIL and EFL refer to different aspects of English language learning, but they are used interchangeably in this research since both concepts recognize the importance of English as a global language, and both acknowledge the need for individuals to develop English language proficiency in order to participate in international communication.

Chapter 2

The CEFR (2001) and the Companion volume (2020)

1. Introduction

The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) is a comprehensive document that provides a framework for describing and assessing language proficiency, while the Companion Volume to the CEFR is a supplementary resource that offers further guidance and support for the implementation and use of the framework. Although the two documents are closely related, they differ in several ways.

One of the main differences between the CEFR and its Companion Volume is the level of detail they provide. While the CEFR presents a general framework for describing language proficiency, the Companion Volume offers more detailed explanations and examples of the language proficiency levels, as well as additional information on how to assess and teach language skills.

Another main difference between the CEFR and its Companion Volume is their focus. The CEFR is mainly concerned with providing a common reference tool for describing language proficiency across different contexts and languages, while the Companion Volume focuses on the practical applications of the framework in specific contexts, such as language teaching and learning, curriculum development, and assessment.

In addition, the CEFR and its Companion Volume differ in their approach to language learning and teaching. The CEFR is based on an action-oriented approach, which

emphasizes the communicative and functional aspects of language use, while the Companion Volume provides guidance on how to develop and assess specific language skills, such as reading, writing, listening, and speaking.

Despite these differences, the CEFR and its Companion Volume are complementary resources that provide a comprehensive and flexible framework for describing and assessing language proficiency. Together, they support language learners, teachers and employers in promoting transparency and consistency in the learning and teaching of modern languages, and contribute to the development of a shared language policy across Europe and beyond.

In this chapter, we will offer an in-depth analysis on both documents, focusing on the new approaches posed by the Companion Volume, its dimensions and descriptors, considering, especially, those related to oral comprehension.

2. The first step: the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (Council of Europe, 2001)

The Council of Europe designed the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (CEFR) to promote harmony in educational and cultural areas between European member states regarding foreign language learning. The aim was also to advance clarity and coherence in the instruction and evaluation of modern languages in Europe. The CEFR was officially released in 2001, and it endeavours to offer a comprehensive system that outlines what language learners must know to use a foreign language competently in real-world scenarios, considering both teaching and assessment. Several authors, such as

North and Schneider (2014), have emphasized the significance of the CEFR in the evaluation and recognition of language qualifications in Europe.

In this sense, the *Framework* initially served as a common basis for language learning programs or guidelines, textbooks, exams and curricula in all the European states. In fact, the CEFR is based on an action-oriented approach on how languages should be used and learnt.

As is well known, the *Framework* contains a rich infrastructure of descriptive scales for different types of discourse, each with its own conventions and sociopragmatic rules. Essentially, the CEFR adopts the language teaching approach for different drives to the general teaching of languages, but it is not instrumentalist in its vision; in fact, both its categories and the emphasis on the collaborative aspect of communication are inspired by the research on small group interaction carried out in the 1980s in the United Kingdom by Douglas Barnes, which combines linguistic and educational aspects.

The CEFR, which was published in 2001 by the Council of Europe, aimed to promote transparency and consistency in language learning and teaching across European member states. One of the main contributions of the CEFR, as identified by scholars such as Candlin, Brumfit, and Alderson, was the replacement of the traditional four-skills model of language learning (listening, reading, writing, and speaking) proposed by Robert Lado in 1961. This model was criticized for its artificial division of language learning tasks into production and reception, which was deemed unrealistic. In its place, the CEFR introduced four modes of communication, namely reception, interaction, production, and mediation. This shift in approach towards a co-construction of meaning, as opposed to a focus on

individual language skills, represents a significant departure from traditional language teaching and learning methods.

More precisely, the CEFR includes six levels of aptitude for learning foreign languages and tries to unify guidelines for learning and teaching languages within the European context. It also analysed and systematically collected the latest studies on learning and teaching foreign languages.

Conversely, another remarkable aspect represented in the CEFR is undoubtedly its concern for improving the quality of communication among Europeans who use different languages and have different cultural backgrounds.

All these common bases, collected today in a document that constitutes an essential work tool for European professionals connected to the teaching of languages, respond to an institution policy that seeks, fundamentally, the following (Council of Europe, 2001, pp.5-6):

- to promote and facilitate cooperation between educational institutions from different countries;
- to provide a solid basis for comparison and mutual recognition of programs, curricula and certificates of languages;
- to help students, teachers, responsible people for the design of courses, examination entities and educational administrators to coordinate their efforts and place their work in relation with that of others.

The reasons for carrying out an initiative of this type are clear. The contacts of all kinds between European education systems, mobility growing population and the idea that language learning is something that must be carried out throughout life, and not be limited to the period of school education, have made it necessary to facilitate understanding, comparison and coordination of the different national systems, particularly those of language levels accreditation certificates and qualifications.

One of the main features of the CEFR is its focus on language proficiency. The CEFR provides a comprehensive framework for the description of language proficiency that includes six levels, ranging from A1 for beginners to C2 for advanced learners. Each level is defined in terms of specific language tasks and activities, which learners should be able to perform at that level.

The CEFR is recognized for its action-oriented approach to language learning and teaching. This approach prioritizes the use of language in real-world contexts and centres on the development of learners' communicative ability in the language. In addition to outlining the language tasks and activities that learners should be able to perform at each level, the CEFR includes a series of can-do statements that detail the language skills and competencies learners should be able to demonstrate. These statements serve as a useful guide for both learners and teachers, providing a clear understanding of what is expected at each level and helping to motivate learners in their language learning journey.

Another key element of the CEFR is its emphasis on learner autonomy and lifelong learning. The framework is designed to support learners in developing their own language learning goals and strategies, and to encourage them to take responsibility for their own

learning. The CEFR also provides guidance on how to develop and assess specific language skills, such as reading, writing, listening and speaking, in order to support learners in achieving their language learning goals.

Overall, the CEFR is a comprehensive and flexible framework for the description and assessment of language proficiency that is widely recognized and used throughout the world. Its focus on language proficiency, action-oriented approach, can-do statements and emphasis on learner autonomy and lifelong learning make it a valuable resource for language learners, teachers and educational institutions.

The Council of Europe proposed the CEFR with the aim of promoting educational and cultural unity among European member states in the field of foreign language learning, and to encourage transparency and consistency in language teaching and learning. In conjunction with this, they also introduced the *European Portfolio of Languages*, a personal document that allows individuals to document their language competencies and learning experiences. Taking into account the foundations of the CEFR, we will now attempt to outline the main features of its initial version that gained widespread circulation.

2.1 A focus on action: the new approach on the CEFR

The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) incorporates an approach that is described as “focused on action”, which places a strong emphasis on the use of language in real-world situations. This approach considers language users and language learners as social agents who have specific tasks to carry out in a particular context, and who use language to accomplish those tasks. The focus is not just

on the language itself, but on how it is used in specific situations, and the meanings it conveys in those contexts.

In the action-focused approach, language users and learners are viewed as social agents with specific tasks to perform in different situations and contexts. This approach acknowledges the connection between language use and the social context, recognizing that speech acts have meaning beyond their linguistic form. It encompasses not only linguistic but also cognitive, emotional, and volitional resources and specific capabilities applied as social agents. The approach emphasizes the importance of individual competencies and the significance of the particular field of action and environment for communication.

In this approach, language activities are viewed as part of a broader social context where speech acts have meaning by themselves. Thus, language learners must be able to communicate effectively in a variety of real-world situations where language meaning is influenced by the context in which it is used. Additionally, the action-focused approach takes into account cognitive, emotional, and volitional resources, as well as specific capabilities that an individual applies as a social agent. This involves not only acquiring the rules and structures of a language but also developing the ability to use language in specific contexts and to understand the social and cultural factors that shape communication.

The CEFR's action-focused approach fully integrates the social use of language and recognizes the significance of both linguistic and extra-linguistic factors in communication, including individual competencies and characteristics of participants. By

emphasizing language use in specific contexts and promoting communicative competence development, the CEFR offers a framework for language learning grounded in real-world situations, encouraging the use of language as a tool for social interaction and communication.

2.2 The vertical dimension: common reference levels

The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages also includes a vertical dimension that describes a set of six common reference levels of proficiency in a language, from A1 (beginner) to C2 (proficient). These reference levels provide a common standard for the description of the language skills that learners should aim to achieve at each stage of their language learning journey, and they are used widely in language teaching, testing and assessment across Europe and beyond.

The six reference levels are based on a set of descriptors that describe what language learners can do at each level, in terms of their abilities to use the language for various purposes such as speaking, writing, reading, listening and interacting with others. For example, at the A1 level, learners are expected to be able to introduce themselves, ask and answer simple questions about personal information and understand basic phrases related to everyday life. At the other end of the scale, the C2 level, learners are expected to be able to use the language fluently and accurately in a wide range of contexts, including academic and professional settings.

The six reference levels are divided into three categories: basic user, independent user and proficient user. The basic user category includes the A1 and A2 levels, which

describe learners who can use the language in basic social situations, such as introducing themselves, ordering food in a restaurant and asking for directions. The independent user category includes the B1 and B2 levels, which describe learners who are able to use the language in a wide range of contexts, including work and study, and can express opinions, give reasons and engage in discussions. The proficient user category includes the C1 and C2 levels, which describe learners who have an advanced level of proficiency in the language and are able to use it in complex, abstract and academic contexts.

The common reference levels provide a clear and transparent way of measuring language proficiency, which makes it easier for learners, teachers, employers and others to compare language skills across different contexts and languages. They are used in a variety of ways, such as to set language learning objectives, design language teaching materials and curricula, assess language proficiency and recognize language qualifications and certificates.

Overall, the vertical dimension of the CEFR, which includes the common reference levels, provides a comprehensive and standardized framework for the description and assessment of language proficiency at different stages of the language learning process.

In fact, it seems possible to reduce or readapt the scale of levels according to the user's own needs of the CEFR without therefore losing the relationship with the common system, which allows diversifying the scale of six levels in as many sub-levels as needed to compose a program that requires specifications in more than the six original levels.

2.3 The horizontal dimension: descriptive categories of language use

The CEFR's horizontal dimension consists of general categories or parameters that describe the use of language and the ability of the user or student to implement it. These categories are interconnected in any common speech act and can be described with a taxonomic character for easy identification of their specific components. The document identifies the following categories:

- **Context:** This refers to the situational events and factors, both internal and external to the person within whose acts speech occurs. The areas of context refer to the broad sectors of social life in which all social agents intervene, including educational, professional, public, and personal.
- **Communicative activities:** These involve the use of communicative competence within a specific field to process one or more texts to perform a task. These activities include oral and written expression, listening comprehension, reading and audio-visual comprehension, oral and written interaction, and oral and written mediation.
- **Strategies:** These are any organized, intentional, and regulated actions chosen by anyone to perform a task.
- **Competences:** These refer to the gathering of knowledge, skills, and individual features that allow a person to perform actions. General competences are not directly related to language but can be used for any action, including language activities. Communicative competences enable a person to act using language specifically.

- Processes: These refer to the chain of neurological and physiological events involved in oral and written expression and comprehension.
- Texts: Any sequence of discourse, spoken or written, related to a specific field that constitutes the axis of a language activity during the performance of a task, either as support or as a goal, as a product or as a process.
- Tasks: Any intentional action that an individual considers necessary to achieve a concrete result in terms of the resolution of a problem, the fulfilment of an obligation, or the achievement of an objective.

In addition to the six common reference levels of proficiency, the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages also includes a horizontal dimension that describes a set of descriptive categories of language use. These categories are organized according to three main areas of language use: functions, domains and tasks.

Functions refer to the communicative purposes for which language is used, such as describing, narrating, explaining, persuading and expressing emotions. The CEFR includes a set of can-do statements that describe what learners should be able to do in each of these functions at each reference level. For example, at the B1 level, learners should be able to describe experiences, events and dreams, and give reasons and explanations for opinions and plans.

Secondly, domains refer to the social and professional contexts in which language is used, such as education, work, travel, and socializing. The CEFR includes a set of can-do statements that describe what learners should be able to do in each of these domains at each reference level. For example, at the B2 level, learners should be able to communicate

effectively in a wide range of work-related situations, such as giving presentations, participating in meetings and negotiating with clients.

Finally, tasks refer to the specific activities and actions that language users need to perform in order to achieve their communicative goals, such as filling out a form, writing a letter, making a phone call or ordering food in a restaurant. The CEFR includes a set of can-do statements that describe what learners should be able to do in each of these tasks at each reference level. For example, at the A2 level, learners should be able to fill out a simple form with personal details and understand basic written instructions.

The horizontal dimension of the CEFR, which includes the descriptive categories of language use, provides a comprehensive and detailed picture of the language skills and abilities that learners should aim to achieve at each reference level. It also helps to contextualize language learning within specific social and professional domains, and provides a clear understanding of the communicative purposes and tasks that language users are expected to perform in these contexts. This approach helps to make language learning more relevant, meaningful and motivating for learners, and provides a more accurate and nuanced way of assessing and measuring language proficiency.

In relation to these categories, it is worth mentioning that the communicative activities of the language, the strategies and the communicative competences serve to establish the system of illustrative descriptors that we will present in the following section and which constitute the axis of the conceptual system of the document.

The communicative competences (linguistic, sociolinguistic and pragmatic) of the language user are put into practice through the strategies to carry out the different

communicative activities, so that the articulation of these categories constitutes the basic core of the speech acts. In addition to the traditional linguistic skills, oral and written interaction and mediation are included among the communicative activities, which supposes an expanded vision of the language from a communicative perspective.

The so-called general competences provide a broad and systematic analysis of those aspects that, without being strictly linguistic, concur in any act of communication. These aspects include the following: declarative knowledge, derived from experience (empirical knowledge) and formal learning (academic knowledge); the knowledge of the world, that is, of the values and beliefs shared by social groups; the skills and abilities, both those of a practical nature (life and professional skills, sports, hobbies, arts, etc.) and intercultural skills (ability to relate, sensitivity, ability to overcome stereotyped relationships, etc.); existential competence, conceived as the sum of individual characteristics, traits and attitudes. Finally, the ability to learn, which mobilises all the previous aspects and constitutes the predisposition or the ability to discover what is different, whether it is another language, another culture, other people or new areas of knowledge, is also included. This analysis is particularly interesting from the perspective of teaching and learning languages, as it includes elements that go beyond the strictly linguistic approach in which language teaching programs have traditionally been placed. The taxonomic nature of the description of the categories allows those responsible for the design of programs, the examiners, the authors of didactic materials or the teachers to emphasise those aspects that are relevant to the program, the exam or the didactic unit.

2.4. The illustrative descriptors

By systematically relating the vertical dimension with the horizontal dimension the CEFR builds a system of descriptor scales that illustrate what a language user or student can do by using the language in each of the reference levels established. This combination allows the Framework to build a detailed and comprehensive system of descriptor scales that illustrate what a language user or student can do by using the language in each of the reference levels established.

By breaking down larger goals into smaller, more manageable ones and acknowledging the disparities among individuals and groups, it becomes possible to establish specific targets and evaluate progress in diverse educational systems and contexts. This approach allows for the comparison of goals, proficiency levels, materials, assessments, and usage patterns across various settings. In this way, it facilitates a more nuanced understanding of the complexities involved in language teaching and learning.

At any learning progression, students go through several levels at educational institutions that offer language teaching, so the existence of a system of common levels and categories may facilitate the recognition of the achieved levels of competence and the mobility and exchange at educational and professional fields.

Descriptors are based on the experiences of several and profuse institutions working on the field of linguistic competence levels and were objectively calibrated. They are brief, clear and transparent, all of them are formulated in positive terms and, actually, do not depend on the formulation of other descriptors for their interpretation. In addition, all of them permit diverse possible practical applications: they can be used for describing

curricular objectives, to guide on the development of the content of the teaching, to specify the content of exams or to establish evaluation criteria regarding the achievement of a learning objective. The descriptor scales are organized according to each of the reference levels, from A1 to C2. Each level includes a set of can-do statements that describe what a language user or student is able to do in terms of the functions, domains, and tasks of language use. These can-do statements are further broken down into more specific descriptors that provide more detailed information about the language skills and abilities required for each level.

To illustrate, when a language user or student reaches the A2 level, they possess the ability to carry out basic communication tasks that involve straightforward and uncomplicated exchanges of information on topics that are known and familiar. The descriptor scales for this level provide detailed information about the language skills and situations that a language user or student should be capable of handling, including activities like placing an order at a restaurant, requesting and giving directions, and conducting basic transactions in a shop. These descriptors help to establish clear and measurable goals for language learners and enable educators to design relevant and appropriate language learning activities and assessments.

Similarly, at the B2 level, a language user or student is able to communicate effectively in a range of work-related and social situations, and can understand and produce complex texts on a wide range of topics. The descriptor scales for this level include more advanced language tasks and situations, such as giving presentations, participating in meetings and negotiations, and expressing opinions and arguments on abstract topics.

The systematic combination of the vertical and horizontal dimensions of the CEFR provides a detailed and comprehensive framework for describing and measuring language proficiency. The descriptor scales enable language teachers, learners, and evaluators to understand and assess the specific language skills and abilities required at each level of proficiency, and to track progress and set goals for further language learning. As it can be seen in

OVERALL LISTENING COMPREHENSION	
C2	<i>Has no difficulty in understanding any kind of spoken language, whether live or broadcast, delivered at fast native speed.</i>
C1	<i>Can understand enough to follow extended speech on abstract and complex topics beyond his/her own field, though he/she may need to confirm occasional details, especially if the accent is unfamiliar. Can recognise a wide range of idiomatic expressions and colloquialisms, appreciating register shifts. Can follow extended speech even when it is not clearly structured and when relationships are only implied and not signalled explicitly.</i>
B2	<i>Can understand standard spoken language, live or broadcast, on both familiar and unfamiliar topics normally encountered in personal, social, academic or vocational life. Only extreme background noise, inadequate discourse structure and/or idiomatic usage influences the ability to understand.</i>
	<i>Can understand the main ideas of propositionally and linguistically complex speech on both concrete and abstract topics delivered in a standard dialect, including technical discussions in his/her field of specialisation. Can follow extended speech and complex lines of argument provided the topic is reasonably familiar, and the direction of the talk is sign-posted by explicit markers.</i>
B1	<i>Can understand straightforward factual information about common everyday or job related topics, identifying both general messages and specific details, provided speech is clearly articulated in a generally familiar accent.</i>
	<i>Can understand the main points of clear standard speech on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure etc., including short narratives.</i>
A2	<i>Can understand enough to be able to meet needs of a concrete type provided speech is clearly and slowly articulated.</i>
	<i>Can understand phrases and expressions related to areas of most immediate priority (e.g. very basic personal and family information, shopping, local geography, employment) provided speech is clearly and slowly articulated.</i>
A1	<i>Can follow speech which is very slow and carefully articulated, with long pauses for him/her to assimilate meaning.</i>

Figure 8. Overall Listening Comprehension illustrative scale. CEFR (Council of Europe, 2001, p.66)

They also allow describing the proficiency levels of the language in existing tests and exams, so that they facilitate the comparison among different certificate systems. And they also provide any student with information about the progress that is being made in the domain of language, which contributes to the acquisition of a greater autonomy when it comes to taking responsibility of their own learning processes.

Moreover, companies that are interested in hiring professionals with a given language proficiency may find in these scales clear and understandable descriptions of what a person is capable of by using the language.

2.5. Underlying values

The elements described in the previous sections are presented in the CEFR based on ideas and approaches that derive from the conclusions of projects, conferences and work groups which specify the contributions of the Member States of the Council of Europe, as well as the specific recommendations of governments in this matter. The CEFR is not only a practical tool for describing language proficiency, but also reflects a set of underlying values and principles that shape its design and implementation. These values are based on a humanistic and communicative approach to language learning and teaching, which emphasizes the importance of language as a means of communication and cultural exchange.

Among these ideas and approaches that guide the institutional role of the Council of Europe in the field of language learning, teaching and assessment, the concept of plurilingualism must be highlighted above all. This concept must be contrasted with

multilingualism, which is limited to knowledge of several languages or to the coexistence of different languages in a given society. The plurilingual approach, on the other hand, puts the emphasis on the fact that, as the linguistic experience of a person grows up, either through school learning or through contact with other languages and cultures, the linguistic knowledge acquired is not incorporated into your mind in sealed and separated compartments. In this sense, this plurilingual position suggests that this knowledge is constituted by a complex network of relationships established between linguistic knowledge and linguistic and cultural experiences that person is gradually acquiring.

Conversely, in the same way, as an individual can expand their own linguistic horizon, based on their knowledge and experience in different languages, they may also relate with different cultures (national, regional, social) to which they have access and can reach a broader understanding of each one of them, in what constitutes a type of complex multicultural nature.

Another basic idea that underlies the document is that of learning languages as something that must be carried out throughout life. The concept of “autonomy” of students with respect to learning is present in studies on language learning and teaching in recent decades and requires a broader and more complex approach to the work of teachers and educational managers.

The idea of “lifelong learning” advocated by the Council of Europe transcends the scope of the school curriculum to be placed in the broader perspective of the trajectory a person follows through a sequence of educational experiences. All citizens are aware of the importance of keeping alive the desire to learn languages and have access to new

cultures as an objective that should be encouraged from very early stages in educational centres and in public institutions in general. The recognition of partial or limited competences in one or the other language is a form of encouragement for adults who can feel that the learning of languages beyond the school stage is an excessive challenge for their abilities.

The *Framework* and, in general, the projects and conferences under the auspices of the Council of Europe in the field of linguistic education, are always based on the principles of transparency, understood as the intention to offer information expressed clearly and explicitly, in a manner that is accessible and easy to understand, and coherence, understood as the concern to avoid internal contradictions and offer instruments well articulated that are practical for the users of the document.

One of the key values underlying the CEFR is the idea of linguistic and cultural diversity, which recognizes the importance of multilingualism and intercultural communication in a globalized world. The Framework acknowledges the value of all languages and cultures, and promotes the development of language proficiency and intercultural competence as a means of fostering mutual understanding and respect across cultural boundaries.

Another important value reflected in the CEFR is the focus on learner-centred and task-based language learning. The Framework emphasizes the importance of the learner's needs, interests, and goals in language learning, and encourages the development of language proficiency through authentic and meaningful language use in real-life situations. The task-based approach to language learning, which is central to the CEFR, emphasizes

the development of language skills and strategies through the performance of communicative tasks, rather than through the memorization of isolated grammar rules and vocabulary.

The CEFR also promotes a holistic and integrated approach to language learning, which recognizes the interdependence of language skills and the importance of developing all four language skills (reading, writing, listening, and speaking) in an integrated and balanced way. The Framework acknowledges the importance of extra-linguistic factors, such as the learner's motivation, emotions, and cultural background, in language learning, and emphasizes the need to develop not only linguistic, but also social, cognitive, and affective competences.

Finally, the CEFR reflects a commitment to transparency and quality assurance in language education. The Framework provides a common reference point for language teaching and assessment, and promotes the development of clear and coherent language learning objectives, curricula, and assessment criteria. The Framework also encourages the use of valid and reliable language tests and assessments, and promotes the development of a common language proficiency scale for all European languages, based on the levels and descriptors established in the Framework.

In summary, the underlying values in the CEFR reflect a humanistic, communicative, learner-centred, holistic, and transparent approach to language learning and teaching, which emphasizes the importance of linguistic and cultural diversity, the development of language proficiency through meaningful and authentic language use, and the promotion of quality and transparency in language education.

3. The next step: the Companion Volume (2020)

The Companion Volume to the CEFR, which was provisionally made public in 2018 and published in its final version in 2020, is a detailed and extensive reference book that provides additional information and guidance on the practical application of the CEFR in different contexts. It aims to support language educators, curriculum developers, examination boards, and other stakeholders in the field of language learning and teaching. This complementary volume arose from the requests made to the Council to continue developing the illustrative descriptors presented in the CEFR and establishing those related to mediation.

In fact, this new version provides readers with a whole summary of changes present in this new version (*Companion*, 2020, pp.50-51). Among them, we can underline the following: a) presence of pre-A1 levels; b) a list of changes to 2001 descriptors; c) the introduction of the plus levels or sub-levels (e.g.: B1+, B1.2, etc.); d) all references to native-like development have been eliminated; e) the introduction of a broader approach to mediation; f) the presence of scales concerning pluriculturalism and plurilingualism; g) the introduction of three new scales relevant to creative texts; h) the presence of two new scales for online linguistic exchanges; i) the re-calibration of new descriptors for the CEFR levels; and j) the introduction of sign language with descriptors. The Companion Volume is divided into four main parts, each of which provides in-depth information on a specific aspect of the CEFR. Part I focuses on the theoretical and conceptual foundations of the CEFR, including its underlying principles and its place in the broader context of language

education. Part II provides detailed information on the CEFR's levels and descriptors, including an overview of the global scale and a detailed breakdown of the individual levels and sub-levels. Part III focuses on the practical application of the CEFR, including guidance on how to develop materials, assessments, and curricula that are aligned with the framework. Part IV provides a series of case studies and examples of how the CEFR has been implemented in different contexts, including language learning and teaching, assessment, and teacher education.

Overall, the Companion Volume is a valuable resource for anyone working in the field of language learning and teaching, providing both theoretical and practical guidance on the use and application of the CEFR.

3.1 The role of mediation in the Companion

Despite the popularity of the CEFR (2001) in the field of foreign language teaching, and although most language teachers handle their terminology with solvency –organising their lessons around the competencies described there and applying the descriptors of their reference levels for the evaluation of the learning of their students-, language curriculums continue to have fundamentally a linguistic character. Thus, North (2014), co-author of the CEFR, points out that most language teachers are still using Lado's 1961 model of four skills —listening, speaking, reading and writing— and three elements —grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation—. In 2001, however, the CEFR, in addition to the linguistic competence, includes also the sociolinguistic and pragmatic competence —saying what is meant and producing meaning in context—. To the best of our knowledge, the Framework

is the first reference document that virtually eliminates the four skills and replaces them with something more realistic, with the idea of language as a collaborative activity. This has been its greatest contribution, according to North (2014).

According to North (2018), the teaching of languages has evolved from the concept of “learners” to “social agents”. This evolution recognizes the social nature of language learning and use and emphasizes the importance of involving learners in the learning process. Learners are now viewed as social agents who interact with others in the process of learning and use their linguistic resources extensively both inside and outside the classroom. North (2018) emphasizes that social agents are established when learning means using the language and encouraging learners to see similarities and differences between languages and cultures. Teachers can create purposeful, collaborative tasks that focus on content rather than solely on language acquisition.

This evolution from user/learner to social agent is a key element in the *Companion*, as shown in figure 9. The *Companion* emphasizes the importance of learners as social agents, recognizing their role in shaping their own learning and engaging in social interactions to improve their language skills. This approach also highlights the importance of the teacher as a facilitator of learning and creating a classroom environment that encourages learners to become social agents. Overall, this shift towards a focus on social agents represents a significant change in language teaching and emphasizes the importance of social and collaborative learning for language acquisition.

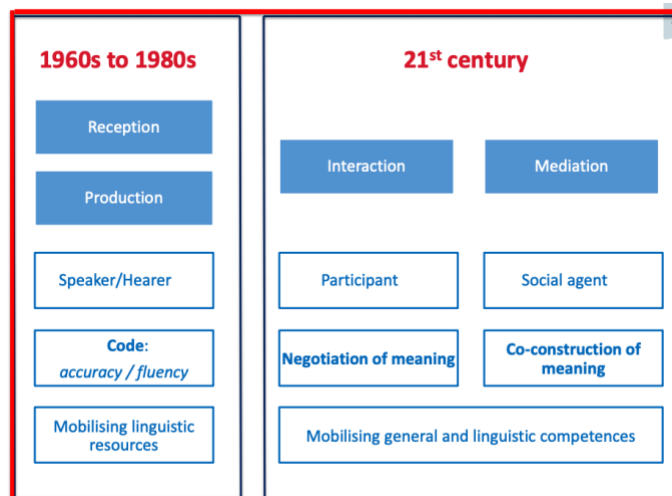


Figure 9. Evolution of the concept of language learner (North, 2018)

The CEFR (2001) defines mediation as a language activity that involves the reformulation of a text, whether orally or in writing, to facilitate mutual understanding among others. As the term “mediation” implies, speakers are positioned “in the middle”. Their focus is not on their own language expression but on creating a suitable environment that enables communication or learning, and working collaboratively with their interlocutors to construct meaning.

The role of the speaker as a mediator therefore involves encouraging others to construct meaning, transmit information, explain things to other people when they do not understand them, simplifying something that is too dense, summarize something that is too long and adapt their language in the process. Mediation can be social, cultural, pedagogical, linguistic or professional. But whatever form it takes, it means building bridges to overcome some type of gap or division. Therefore, the mediator summarises or paraphrases a text for the benefit of another user of the language who does not understand the message due to factors such as language register or the jargon of the original text. According to

Coste and Cavalli (2015), mediation can be defined as any procedure, organisation or action designed to reduce the distance between two —or more— poles of otherness.

The approach to mediation adopted for the text and the descriptors in the *Companion* (2020) extends this concept beyond that presented in the CEFR in 2001. In the CEFR, mediation is presented as conveying received meaning and is first introduced in the following way:

In both the receptive and productive modes, the written and/or oral activities of mediation make communication possible between persons who are unable, for whatever reason, to communicate with each other directly. Translation or interpretation, a paraphrase, summary or record, provides for a third-party a (re)formulation of a source text to which this third party does not have direct access. Mediation language activities, (re)processing an existing text, occupy an important place in the normal linguistic functioning of our societies (Council of Europe, 2001, p.14).

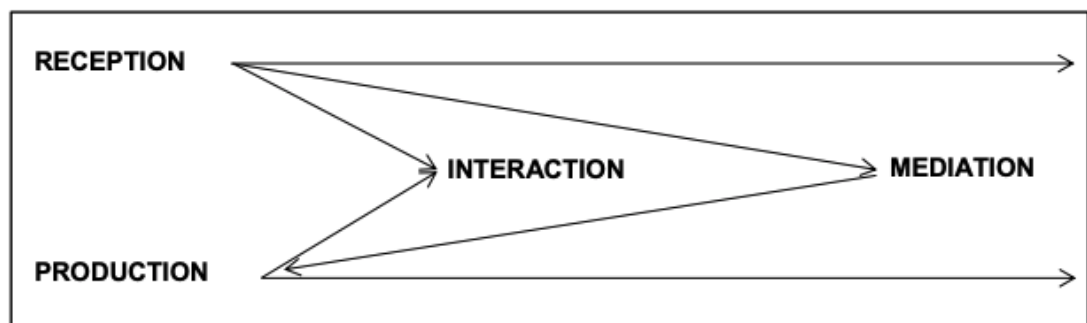


Figure 10. The relationship between reception, production, interaction and mediation. (North, 2018)

This concept of mediation is further developed in the CEFR (2001), in chapter 4, as follows:

In mediating activities, the language user is not concerned to express his/her own meanings, but simply to act as an intermediary between interlocutors who are unable to understand

each other directly, normally (but not exclusively) speakers of different languages. Examples of mediating activities include spoken interpretation and written translation as well as summarising and paraphrasing texts in the same language, when the language of the original text is not understandable to the intended recipient (Council of Europe, 2001, p.87).

The *Companion* introduces significant changes to the Framework, with mediation being one of the most noteworthy. It expands on the original set of descriptors and incorporates the concept of speakers as social agents. According to the Council of Europe (2020), social agents are autonomous individuals who act responsibly in various social contexts. Mediation is defined as the process where language users/learners function as social agents who facilitate the transmission and construction of meanings within the same language or across languages. Unlike the other language skills of reception, interaction and production, mediation does not involve the understanding or expression of a speaker. Instead, it focuses on the role of language in building communication spaces and learning conditions, creating new meanings, encouraging others to understand or create them, and transmitting information effectively. Mediation can take place in various contexts, including social, cultural, pedagogical, linguistic, and professional (Council of Europe, 2020, p.99). The CEFR (2001) acknowledged the crucial role of mediation in language use and learning, and the updated Framework builds on this by categorizing activities around two types of mediation: cognitive and relational. The former involves the transmission and assimilation of knowledge, while the latter emphasizes the importance of creating a positive atmosphere for communication and adopting empathetic attitudes towards

interlocutors. The revised *Companion* reflects a plurilingual model of language competence and removes any references to “native speakers”, replacing the original phonological control scale with two new scales that prioritize intelligibility over a native speaker ideal. This shift towards a more tolerant perspective on language users aligns with the emphasis on mediation and understanding among social agents of the language and represents a more inclusive approach to language teaching and learning.

3.2 The shift from linguistic skills to Communicative Language Strategies/Communicative Language Activities

The shift from linguistic skills to Communicative Language Strategies/Communicative Language Activities can be seen as a major development in language education, and it is reflected in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages and its Companion Volume. While traditional approaches to language teaching focused primarily on the acquisition of linguistic skills and knowledge, the CEFR (Council of Europe, 2001) emphasized the importance of developing communicative competence using Communicative Language Strategies (CLS's) and Communicative Language Activities (CLA's).

CLS's are defined as the different strategies that language learners use to overcome communication problems when interacting with others. These include, for example, circumlocution (using other words to describe an unknown word), paraphrasing (using different words to express the same idea), and clarification (asking for repetition or more information). The ability to use CLS's is an essential component of communicative

competence, as it allows language learners to participate in meaningful interactions even when their linguistic knowledge is limited.

CLA's, on the other hand, are activities that involve the use of language in authentic communicative situations, such as role-plays, discussions, debates, and problem-solving tasks. These activities are designed to promote the development of communicative competence by providing learners with opportunities to use language in a range of contexts and for a range of purposes.

Based on the Council of Europe's (CEFR) updated version in 2020, one of the areas where the CEFR has had a significant impact is in the recognition of course objectives and the structure of oral examinations by distinguishing between production and interaction. The CEFR distinguishes between production, which includes sustained monologue and long turns, and interaction, which involves conversational dialogue and short turns (Council of Europe, 2020, p.30). However, when the CEFR was initially published in 2001, there was no consensus on whether to split writing in the same way as oral production, as the difference between written production and interaction was not widely recognized. Consequently, the original version of the CEFR's Table 2, which is a self-test/evaluation grid, combined written interaction and written production back into 'writing'. As a result, some misconstrued the CEFR as a model based on five skills, which is not entirely accurate.

The *Companion* now recognizes this reality by incorporating a focus on communicative language strategies and activities. This shift reflects a view of language proficiency as a dynamic and context-specific phenomenon, rather than as a fixed set of linguistic forms. In this view, communicative language strategies refer to the flexible and

adaptive ways in which individuals use their linguistic knowledge to communicate in different situations and with different interlocutors. Communicative language activities refer to specific tasks or activities that provide opportunities for individuals to use their language skills in meaningful and communicative ways. In the CEFR (Council of Europe, 2001), communicative language strategies and activities were integrated into all levels of language proficiency, from beginner to advanced. This recognition of the importance of communicative competence was reflected in the CEFR's descriptors for each level of proficiency, which focus on the ability to use language for a range of communicative purposes and in a variety of contexts. The shift from linguistic skills to communicative language strategies and activities has important implications for language teaching and learning. It highlights the need for language education to go beyond simply teaching linguistic forms, and to focus instead on developing students' communicative competence. This can be achieved through communicative language activities and tasks, as well as through opportunities for students to engage in authentic language use and to practice their skills in real-life situations. In fact, the concept of mediation was already present in the first drafts of the CEFR between 1996 and 1998 and it demonstrates the connection between the four skills —receptive and productive, following the division between spoken and written—. In this sense, it was clear that interaction included both reception and production, although it is conceived as something else apart from the sum of those parts, and, in this sense, mediation includes both reception and production plus interaction.

In Figure 11, we can appreciate the different macro-functional bases of the *Companion* with reference to the communicative language activities.

	RECEPTION	PRODUCTION	INTERACTION	MEDIATION
Creative, Interpersonal Language Use	e.g. Reading as a leisure activity	e.g. Sustained monologue: Describing experience	e.g. Conversation	Mediating communication
Transactional Language Use	e.g. Reading for information and argument	e.g. Sustained monologue: Giving information	e.g. Obtaining goods and services Information exchange	Mediating a text
Evaluative, Problem-solving Language Use	<i>(Merged with reading for information and argument)</i>	e.g. Sustained monologue: Presenting a case	e.g. Discussion	Mediating concepts

Figure 11. Macro-functional basis of the *Companion*'s categories for communicative language activities.

(Council of Europe, 2020, p.31)

As we can see in the *Companion*, the descriptors at any particular level present the achievements that can be made, in a reasonable way, by any competent user in the language concerned attending the original CEFR level provided (*Companion*, 2020, p.108). Nevertheless, the language user needs also to present what the CEFR defines as “general competences”, such as cognitive maturity, experience knowledge and some specific personal features.

The different CEFR scales were designed to be employed so as to describe a profile ability. As was mentioned in the CEFR, it is not really feasible that every user who possesses globally a ‘B1’ level is able to carry out every feature which is described in all CEFR descriptor scales. In fact, it seems more probable that people with an overall ‘B1’ are, in fact, A2, A2+ or B1+ in different activities, depending on their own general competences —age, experience, etc.—.

This situation is applicable to many CEFR descriptor scales that are related to some activities such as listening and notetaking, reading for information and argument, formal discussion in meetings, sustained monologue, addressing audiences and producing reports

and essays. Conversely, all the processes related to mediation acts, such as mediating a text or all the issues concerned with mediation strategies that somehow require a degree of cognitive sophistication that may not be shared by all language users, are really demanding processes in terms of cognition.

Additionally, interpersonal skills are paramount for mediating communication, which is another element measured by the different scales; these skills are shared by users with ample experience and, in the same way, plurilingual/pluricultural repertoires are absolutely conditioned by individual trajectories, age and personal experiences acquired along life.

Thus, these factors mentioned are considered in the new descriptors as key, contributing to learners' profiles of communicative ability. By emphasizing the importance of CLS's and CLA's, the CEFR (Council of Europe, 2001) and its Companion Volume (Council of Europe, 2020) aim to provide a more comprehensive and effective framework for language education. Instead of focusing solely on linguistic knowledge and skills, the CEFR (Council of Europe, 2001) encouraged language educators to adopt a more communicative and interactive approach to language teaching and learning, which can lead to better outcomes for language learners in terms of their ability to use the language effectively in real-world situations.

3.3 Updated descriptors in the Companion Volume

The literature search identified several studies that examined the updated descriptors in the Companion Volume to the CEFR. The studies indicated that the updated

descriptors provide a more nuanced and fine-grained picture of the abilities of language users at each of the six proficiency levels defined by the CEFR (A1, A2, B1, B2, C1, and C2). The updates to the descriptors reflect the changing nature of language-teaching and language-assessment practices and provide a more comprehensive picture of the abilities of language users in the four macro-skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

One major change in the updated descriptors is the shift from a focus on linguistic skills to a focus on communicative language strategies/communicative language activities. The original CEFR focused primarily on the development of linguistic skills, such as grammar and vocabulary, in the target language. However, the updated descriptors recognize that language use is much more complex than simply knowing a set of linguistic rules and vocabulary. Communication involves using a range of strategies and activities to effectively convey meaning in different contexts.

The updated descriptors focus on how language learners use language to achieve a range of communicative purposes. For example, in the speaking skill, the updated descriptors recognize the importance of being able to use language to express opinions and feelings, negotiate and persuade, and engage in social interactions. These descriptors also highlight the importance of being able to use language in a range of contexts, such as academic, professional, and social settings. This approach recognizes that language use is highly context-dependent, and that language learners need to be able to use language in a range of situations. Another important update to the descriptors in the Companion Volume is the inclusion of a focus on plurilingual and pluricultural competence. Plurilingualism refers to the ability to use two or more languages for communication, while

pluriculturalism refers to the ability to understand and navigate different cultural perspectives. The updated descriptors recognize the increasing importance of these competencies in a globalized world and the need for language learners to develop these competencies in addition to linguistic skills.

The updated descriptors also provide a more comprehensive framework for language learning and teaching that considers the complex and diverse nature of language use in the 21st century. The descriptors are designed to be more flexible and adaptable to different contexts and learner needs. They provide a set of common reference points that can be used to assess and compare language proficiency across different languages and in different contexts. This is particularly important for language learners who need to demonstrate their language proficiency for academic or professional purposes.

In the listening skill, the updated descriptors focus on the importance of being able to understand a range of oral texts, from formal lectures to casual conversations. The descriptors also highlight the importance of being able to understand a range of accents and dialects, as well as different modes of communication, such as audio recordings and videos. This reflects the growing importance of digital communication and the need for language learners to be able to understand a range of audio and visual texts.

Concerning the update descriptors for the reading skill recognize the importance of being able to read a range of texts, from literary works to academic articles. They also highlight the importance of being able to read for different purposes, such as to gather information or to evaluate a text critically. The descriptors emphasize the need for language

learners to be able to read texts in a range of genres and to be able to use reading strategies to effectively comprehend and analyse texts.

In the speaking skill, the updated descriptors focus on the ability to use language to interact with others in a range of contexts. This includes being able to express opinions and feelings, negotiate and persuade, and engage in social interactions. The descriptors also emphasize the importance of being able to use language in a range of contexts, such as academic, professional, and social settings. This reflects the growing importance of communicative competence in a globalized world where language learners need to be able to communicate effectively with people from different cultural backgrounds.

In addition to the revision of descriptors, the Companion Volume introduces some new descriptors. For example, in the case of the reception of written texts, the new descriptors go beyond the traditional approach of assessing the comprehension of isolated sentences and paragraphs to a more comprehensive and practical view of reading. The new descriptors reflect the importance of being able to skim and scan texts, and to use reading strategies such as predicting content, inferencing, summarizing, and identifying implicit meaning. This wider perspective of reading comprehension is more relevant to real-world situations, and it can better contribute to the development of learners' communicative competence.

Similarly, the Companion Volume updates the descriptors for productive language skills. The descriptors for writing now reflect the growing importance of digital communication, as well as the need for effective communication in various domains such as social media, academic research, and professional communication. The descriptors for

speaking also recognize the importance of digital communication and include descriptors for effective communication in various settings such as presentations, interviews, debates, and negotiations. In addition, the descriptors for speaking and writing now include a stronger focus on interactional competence, which refers to the ability to use language appropriately in social situations, to manage turn-taking, to show interest and involvement in the conversation, and to use appropriate register and style.

One of the most widely used aspects of the CEFR, as per the 2001 version, are the descriptive scales that provide information on language tasks and situations that learners are expected to be able to handle at different proficiency levels. In the updated version of the *Companion*, the approach taken was to supplement the 2001 descriptors rather than change them entirely. However, there are slight changes to some descriptors in the scales of chapter 4 on language use and the language user/learner and chapter 5 on the user/learner's competences. These changes can be found in Appendix 7 and are mainly present at the C2 level. Unlike the 2001 version, the updated version does not take an idealized native speaker as a reference point for the competence of a C2 user.

Moreover, the updated version includes new scales in the descriptors related to reading as a leisure activity (written reception), using telecommunications (spoken interaction), and sustained monologue: giving information (spoken production). The *Companion Volume* also incorporates a new feature, which is the reclassification of some descriptors previously linked to information exchange into the scale of sustained monologue: giving information. Overall, the *Companion Volume* does not change the 2001 version's descriptors but complements them and adds new ones.

As we can see in Figure 12, here we present a summary of all the updates, additions in comparison with the initial presentation of 2001 illustrative descriptors. In fact, there were only seven descriptor scales added and twelve descriptor scales updated in this Companion Volume.

Activities		In 2001 descriptive scheme	In 2001 descriptor scales	Descriptor scales updated in this volume	Descriptor scales added in this volume
Reception (CEFR 4.4.2)	Spoken	√	√	√	
	Written	√	√	√	
	Strategies	√	√	√	
Production (CEFR 4.4.1)	Spoken	√	√	√	
	Written	√	√	√	
	Strategies	√	√	√	
Interaction (CEFR 4.4.3)	Spoken	√	√	√	
	Written	√	√	√	
	Strategies	√	√	√	
	Online				√
Mediation (CEFR 4.4.4)	Text	√			√
	Concepts	√			√
	Communication	√			√
Competences					
Communicative language competence (CEFR 5.2)	Linguistic	√	√	√	√ (Phonology)
	Pragmatic	√	√	√	
	Sociolinguistic	√	√	√	
Plurilingual & pluricultural competence (CEFR 6.1.3)	Pluricultural	√			√
	Plurilingual comprehension and repertoire	√			√

Figure 12. The CEFR descriptive scheme, the 2001 illustrative descriptors, the updates and additions.

(Council of Europe, 2020, p.48)

As can be seen in the previous chart, several descriptors have been updated and some changes have been introduced in this edition.

For instance, the presence of a Pre-A1 level is a milestone, incorporating now a band of language use at which the student has not yet gained a generative ability, however this learner can depend on a collection of words and expressions to communicate. Even so, the presence of a level beneath A1 is alluded to in the CEFR (Council of Europe, 2020, p.31).

A short rundown of descriptors is given that had been aligned beneath A1 in the Swiss National Science Research Council Survey. A better portrayal of the abilities of students at A1 and the incorporation of a level underneath A1 was significant for users, as confirmed by the quantity of descriptor projects which concentrated on these lower levels. Thus, a scale of capability named pre-A1 is incorporated into the framework.

The 2001 CEFR first introduced the concept of mediation, but it was further clarified in the 2013-2017 project. In fact, the 1996 pilot edition of the CEFR already included some classifications for illustrative descriptor scales for mediation to complement those for reception, production, and interaction. However, no project was established to implement them. Thus, a significant goal of the subsequent update was to finally provide descriptor scales for mediation, given its increasing importance in education. This approach aims to equip learners with the skills to act as mediators between different languages and cultures, building bridges and facilitating communication in various contexts. The Companion Volume also explains that mediation is not simply translation, but rather involves the ability to convey messages and meanings effectively and appropriately in different contexts. Mediation can occur between different languages or within the same

language, and it can be used to promote intercultural understanding and foster communication in various domains such as academic, professional, or personal.

The CEFR update included new descriptors for mediation, online interaction, reactions to literature, and building on plurilingual/pluricultural repertoires. These new descriptors were approved by the institutions listed in the Preface (Council of Europe, 2020, pp.13-20). At the same time, the phonology scale was identified as the least successful scale developed in the original descriptors. A new set of descriptors for phonological control was created in the update, as the existing CEFR scale had embraced an implicit native speaker standard. Current research highlighted the need to focus on comprehensibility as the essential construct in phonological control, particularly in relation to building on plurilingual/pluricultural repertoires. The Phonology project underwent three approval stages, with over 250 informants involved in each phase, as described in connection to other new scales.

The CEFR provides guidance on teaching and learning for young learners, but there is a clear need for instruments to better support this guidance. However, during the project, a decision was made to avoid designing and calibrating new descriptors for young learners. This is because the descriptors for young learners are largely adapted from the illustrative descriptors of the CEFR according to their age and context. Instead, the project focused on collecting and aligning existing descriptors for young learners into two main age groups—7-10 and 11-15—. This was done using materials from the ELP Bank of the Council of Europe, examples from the Council of Europe website, and young learners' assessment descriptors provided by Cambridge English Language Assessment.

The collected descriptors were then presented to a board of experts for peer-reviewing. The aim of this compilation was to develop portfolios, curricula, and assessment tools for young learners that raise awareness of lifelong learning and lead to the skills described in the CEFR. Additionally, the *Companion* includes some extended illustrative descriptors in a document for educators to consider as relevant for young learners' programs.

Furthermore, several professionals directly connected to the CEFR have been developing European Language Portfolios (ELP) for young learners. These portfolios are designed and validated to support the CEFR guidance for young learners. The approach taken for young learners focused on aligning the existing descriptors with the illustrative descriptors of the CEFR, identifying significant correspondences between them. This was done to ensure that the descriptors for young learners are consistent with the CEFR and to create a clear pathway for young learners to develop their language skills in line with the CEFR.

These conclusions were also endorsed by the sounding board through peer review, and in an unconnected advice-giving workshop. Two different documents include the descriptors, presenting one for each age group. These documents showing a similar structure present the descriptors by level, starting with Pre-A1 and eliminating non-relevant illustrative descriptors of the CEFR that have been evaluated as clearly beyond the cognitive, social or experiential capacity typical of the age group -mainly in the upper levels-. One of the most relevant aspects is related to the fact that these documents present a correlation between which CEFR descriptor is related to the young learner descriptor and,

if there is not a young learner descriptor available, it shows the relationship between the CEFR descriptors for the age group.

When examining the updated descriptors in the Companion Volume, it is crucial to consider the new scale for phonological control presented by Piccardo (2016a). The update of the CEFR illustrative scales was necessary because several authors attempted to revise which pronunciation features have an impact on communicative efficiency. Horner (2010, 2013, 2014) suggested establishing hierarchies and analysing which aspects of pronunciation are more or less important and difficult to acquire, as well as which aspects have a clear impact on intelligibility. Word stress and accurate reproduction of phonemes and sentence stress were identified as core characteristics for intelligibility, while intonation, rhythm, and phonetic reduction were considered more peripheral factors.

Piccardo (2016a) points out that there have been numerous studies calling for a reconsideration of the CEFR phonological scale. For example, Trofimovich and Isaacs (2012) argued that the combination of “descriptions of easily understandable speech and a noticeable foreign accent in the same band descriptor” can create difficulties and proposed separating accent from other aspects of communicative effectiveness, including comprehensibility. However, Harding (2016) criticized the CEFR scale for phonological control, citing its orientation towards a nativeness principle or a comprehensibility principle as problematic. Piccardo (2016a) suggests that researchers and practitioners in

the field of phonology need to work together to develop effective phonological assessment scales.

In addition, Derwing and Munro (2005) argued that pronunciation has been marginalized in applied linguistics, leaving teachers to rely on their own intuitions without much guidance. While more recent studies have focused on pronunciation, scholars such as Levis (2005), Cauldwell (2011), and Thomson & Derwing (2014) advocate for a pedagogical approach to teaching pronunciation that emphasizes real, spontaneous speech over isolated words or sentences. This approach recognizes the links between listening comprehension, chunking down, and sound recognition as preparation for effective pronunciation teaching. Levis (2005) notes that English learners need to be able to first understand authentic, fast, spontaneous speech and then speak rapidly with both fluency and accuracy.

Piccardo (2016b) highlights the need to reconsider the CEFR phonological scale, as several studies, such as Trofimovich & Isaacs (2012), have called for. They argue that the combination of “descriptions of easily understandable speech and a noticeable foreign accent in the same band descriptor” can be problematic and accent should be separated from other aspects of communicative effectiveness. Harding (2016) also criticized the CEFR scale for its orientation towards a nativeness principle or a comprehensibility principle. He employed mixed-methods research to investigate the assumption underlying the scale and its usability.

In recent years, there has been a growing tendency to distinguish between “intelligibility” and “nativeness” in the context of phonological classification, as advocated

by Levis (2005) and Munro & Derwing (2011), who argue that both are critical for successful communication in a second language. This approach challenges the Phonological Scale presented in the CEFR in 2001, which failed to adequately consider factors such as intelligibility and listener familiarity with accents, as pointed out by Piccardo (2016b). Consequently, there is a need to distinguish between functional proficiency and phonological competence, and to provide explicit and effective pronunciation instruction, as well as to develop valid assessment criteria that go beyond the native speaker standard.

However, the phonological scale presented in the CEFR also had other weaknesses, such as an unrealistic bias on accent, progression that echoes the native speaker bias, mixed and diverse factors without clear indication of progression, and an incomplete presentation of the scale in the C2 level, where it is equated with the C1 level. These weaknesses are illustrated in Figure 13.

	PHONOLOGICAL CONTROL
C2	As C1
C1	<i>Can vary intonation and place sentence stress correctly in order to express finer shades of meaning.</i>
B2	<i>Has acquired a clear, natural, pronunciation and intonation.</i>
B1	<i>Pronunciation is clearly intelligible even if a foreign accent is sometimes evident and occasional mispronunciations occur.</i>
A2	<i>Pronunciation is generally clear enough to be understood despite a noticeable foreign accent, but conversational partners will need to ask for repetition from time to time.</i>
A1	<i>Pronunciation of a very limited repertoire of learnt words and phrases can be understood with some effort by native speakers used to dealing with speakers of his/her language group.</i>

Figure 13. Phonological control summary. (Council of Europe, 2020, p. 117)

As Piccardo (2016b) states, the replacement of the 2001 phonological scale attempts to identify explicit categories that inform the scales based on the CEFR construct

and on recent developments in teaching and research; moreover, it also presents the internal progression of phonological competence and delicate relation between pronunciation and proficiency; and, finally, it pursues to provide both a general scale and specific ones so as to get a general overview of phonological competence while it also deals with the identification of areas for improvement.

Traditionally, language teaching has focused on achieving the phonological control of an idealized native speaker, with non-native accents being viewed as a marker of poor phonological control. However, this focus on accent and accuracy, rather than on intelligibility, has hindered the development of pronunciation teaching (Munro & Derwing, 2000, p.305). As Munro & Derwing argue, it makes little sense to assess pronunciation on a scale that ranges from not accented to difficult to understand, as this reinforces the idea that non-native accents are inherently inferior.

The Council of Europe addressed the issues related to phonological control in the CEFR by revising the scale in 2020 (Council of Europe, 2020, pp.47, 134-136). This updated scale features descriptors for overall phonological control, sound articulation, and prosodic features, and intends to offer a more nuanced understanding of language users' proficiency levels at each of the CEFR's six levels. Importantly, the new descriptors no longer refer to "native speakers", but instead to "interlocutors used to dealing with speakers of the language group concerned" (Council of Europe, 2020, p.46).

This new approach to phonological control not only aims to increase transparency and level discrimination across the CEFR but also guides teacher education, informs curricula, and breaks from the idealized notion of the native speaker (Piccardo, 2016a).

Additionally, the updated descriptors prioritize interactional competence and the ability to comprehend and analyse texts in the digital age, reflecting the evolving nature of language-teaching and assessment practices.

The Companion Volume to the CEFR represents a significant move toward the development of a more comprehensive and practical framework for language learning and teaching. The new and updated descriptors offer a better understanding of the communicative competence necessary for language learners to participate effectively in real-life situations. The shift from a linguistic skills approach to a communicative language strategies/activities approach, the introduction of plurilingual and pluricultural competences, and the emphasis on learner autonomy, reflect the current challenges and opportunities of language learning and teaching in a globalized and digitalized world. Therefore, educators and learners can benefit from using the Companion Volume as a guide for setting learning objectives, designing courses and materials, and assessing language learning outcomes (Council of Europe, 2020, p.4).

In conclusion, the revisions to the scale and descriptors for phonological control in the CEFR's Companion Volume provide a more comprehensive and accurate understanding of language learners' abilities, as well as the skills and competencies necessary for effective communication in the 21st century.

4. Oral reception in the 2020 Companion Volume

According to the Common European Framework (Council of Europe, 2001, pp.65-68), language users receive and process oral input from one or more speakers. The process

of reception involves taking in information through listening or reading and then building a representation of the meaning being expressed, as well as a hypothesis about the speaker's communicative intention, as highlighted in the Companion Volume (Council of Europe, 2020, p.54). The activation of appropriate schemata is emphasized as an essential aspect of this process, allowing learners to relate new information to their existing knowledge and experiences.

Understanding the cognitive processes involved in oral reception, including the activation of schemata and building mental representations of meaning, is crucial for effective language learning and communication. The Companion Volume provides detailed information and guidelines on developing and assessing this skill, with updated descriptors covering various aspects of oral reception, such as comprehending different accents and dialects and understanding speech spoken at different speeds and complexities. These descriptors are designed to help language learners and teachers identify and develop the specific skills required for effective oral reception.

Overall, the importance of oral reception in language learning and communication cannot be overlooked, and language teachers and learners can benefit from understanding the complexities of this process and developing strategies to improve their listening skills. The updated descriptors in the Companion Volume provide a comprehensive guide for language teaching and learning, highlighting the specific skills and competencies necessary for effective oral reception in real-world situations.

The Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) has undergone significant changes in the area of listening comprehension. In the previous version from 2001, the activities focused on comprehending public announcements, media, live audience events, and chance conversations. However, the updated 2020 version introduces a new approach that categorizes different types of one-way listening as part of reception, while interaction with the interlocutor is now a separate category.

The new version includes scales for understanding conversation as an overhearer, as well as for listening as a member of a live audience, with specific media-related scales, including announcements and instructions, audio media, and recordings. Moreover, a new scale for watching TV and film is now included in the category of audio-visual comprehension, as displayed in Figure 13. These changes reflect the evolving ways in which people engage with different media and their patterns of listening and comprehension. The updated CEFR aims to provide learners with more comprehensive and nuanced guidance to develop their listening skills in a wide range of contexts.

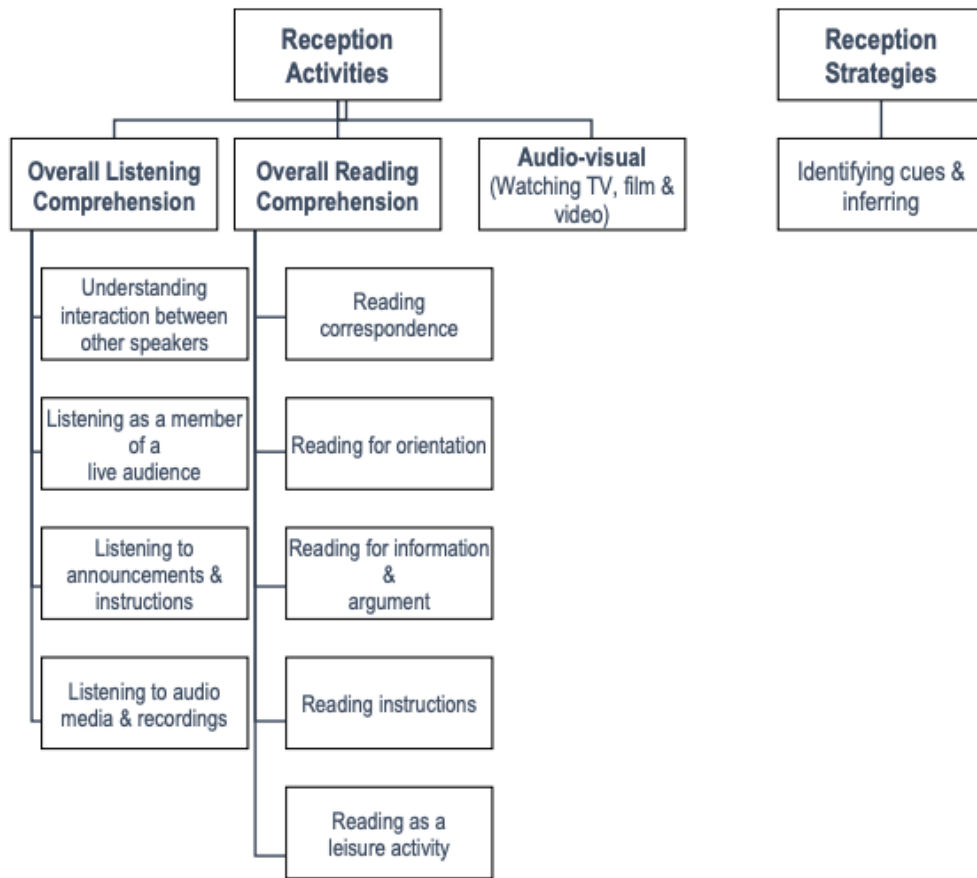


Figure 14. Reception activities and strategies. (Council of Europe, 2020, p.54)

4. 1 Descriptors for oral reception in the 2020 Companion Volume

In this section, we attempt to analyse the different descriptors and scales presented in relation to oral reception in the *Companion*. To do so, we will analyse those descriptors and their implications in the different levels referred to in the CEFR.

The updated Companion Volume to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) offers a more practical and comprehensive approach to language teaching and learning, particularly in relation to understanding conversation

between speakers. According to the updated Companion Volume, there are two different scenarios where the user/learner has to understand conversations between other speakers. The first is when speakers in a group interaction talk to each other, and the second is when the user/learner overhears a conversation between other people. Both situations can be challenging for the learner as the speakers may use idiomatic expressions, assumptions, and language variants unfamiliar to the learner. Additionally, since the speakers do not address the user/learner, they have no chance to ask for clarification or repetition. The updated descriptors highlight the importance of interactional competence and the ability to comprehend and analyse texts in the digital age. Figure 14 of the Companion Volume displays the key concepts of the scale for understanding conversation between other speakers. The original descriptors from the 2001 version are presented in blue font, while the updated descriptors include picking up and connecting words and phrases, identifying the topic and changes in it, recognizing chronological progression, identifying agreement and disagreement, identifying points made for and against an issue, and recognizing attitudes and sociocultural implications (C levels) (Council of Europe, 2020, p.56).

Interestingly, the updated descriptors incorporate the C2 and A1 descriptors which were not present in the previous version. The C2 level descriptors deal with sociocultural implications which seem essential for the mediation role. In the case of the A1 descriptors, it is paramount to include these descriptors to enhance conversation in speakers from the first levels of language learning as a way of promoting intercultural and interpersonal communication from the beginning (Council of Europe, 2020, p.56).

UNDERSTANDING CONVERSATION BETWEEN OTHER SPEAKERS		PROSIGN
C2	Can identify the sociocultural implications of most of the language used in colloquial discussions that take place at a natural speed.	
C1	Can easily follow complex interactions between third parties in group discussion and debate, even on abstract, complex unfamiliar topics.	
	Can identify the attitude of each speaker in an animated discussion characterised by overlapping turns, digressions and colloquialisms that is delivered at a natural speed in accents that are familiar to the listener.	
B2	Can keep up with an animated conversation between speakers of the target language.	
	Can with some effort catch much of what is said around him/her, but may find it difficult to participate effectively in discussion with several speakers of the target language who do not modify their speech in any way.	
	Can identify the main reasons for and against an argument or idea in a discussion conducted in clear standard speech. Can follow chronological sequence in extended informal speech, e.g. in a story or anecdote.	
B1	Can follow much of everyday conversation and discussion, provided it takes place in standard speech and is clearly articulated in a familiar accent.	
	Can generally follow the main points of extended discussion around him/her, provided speech is clearly articulated in standard speech.	
A2	Can generally identify the topic of discussion around him/her that is conducted slowly and clearly.	
	Can recognise when speakers agree and disagree in a conversation conducted slowly and clearly. Can follow in outline short, simple social exchanges, conducted very slowly and clearly.	
A1	Can understand some words and expressions when people are talking about him/herself, family, school, hobbies or surroundings, provided they are talking slowly and clearly.	
	Can understand words and short sentences when listening to a simple conversation (e.g. between a customer and a salesperson in a shop), provided that people talk very slowly and very clearly.	
Pre-A1	No descriptors available	

Figure 15. Understanding conversation between other speakers. (Council of Europe, 2020, p.56)

The next set of descriptors we will examine pertains to the skill of understanding a speaker while being a part of a live audience. According to the *Companion*, this skill involves the ability to comprehend any speaker addressing an audience in various situations such as a lecture, a meeting, or a guided tour, among others. Unlike understanding a conversation between speakers, being a listener in an audience is comparatively easier, as the listener is not an active participant in the interaction. This is because a monologue is easier to comprehend, and if the listener gets lost, they can still pick up the thread. Additionally, the register used by the speaker is usually more neutral and the voice is

projected, making it easier for the audience to follow the speech (Council of Europe, 2020, p.57).

As shown in Figure 15, which highlights the original descriptors in blue font, this scale identifies several key concepts, including following talk with real artifacts and visual aids on guided tours or presentations, adjusting to the audience's needs regarding the delivery speed and the use of simplified language, familiarity with the situation and the topic, and the ability to identify and follow the speaker's argument and distinguish main points (Council of Europe, 2020, p.57). Notably, this scale has incorporated new features in most levels, including descriptors for lower levels of language acquisition, such as A1 and A2.

It is worth noting that the ability to understand a speaker while being a part of a live audience is a vital skill in intercultural communication. It allows individuals to participate in various events, conferences, and public speeches where they can gain knowledge and insights into different cultures and perspectives. Therefore, including these descriptors in language learning can aid learners in acquiring the necessary skills to participate and engage in intercultural communication effectively.

LISTENING AS A MEMBER OF A LIVE AUDIENCE		PROSIGN
C2	<p>Can follow specialised lectures and presentations employing colloquialism, regional usage or unfamiliar terminology.</p> <p>Can make appropriate inferences when links or implications are not made explicit.</p> <p>Can get the point of jokes or allusions in a presentation.</p>	
C1	<p>Can follow most lectures, discussions and debates with relative ease.</p>	
B2	<p>Can follow the essentials of lectures, talks and reports and other forms of academic/professional presentation which are propositionally and linguistically complex.</p> <p>Can understand the speaker's point of view on topics that are of current interest or that relate to his/her specialised field, provided that the talk is delivered in standard spoken language.</p>	
	<p>Can follow complex lines of argument in a clearly articulated lecture provided the topic is reasonably familiar.</p> <p>Can distinguish main themes from asides, provided that the lecture or talk is delivered in standard spoken language.</p> <p>Can recognise the speaker's point of view and distinguish this from facts that he/she is reporting.</p>	
B1	<p>Can follow a lecture or talk within his/her own field, provided the subject matter is familiar and the presentation straightforward and clearly structured.</p> <p>Can distinguish between main ideas and supporting details in standard lectures on familiar subjects, provided these are delivered in clearly articulated standard speech.</p>	
	<p>Can follow in outline straightforward short talks on familiar topics, provided these are delivered in clearly articulated standard speech.</p> <p>Can follow a straightforward conference presentation or demonstration with visual support (e.g. slides, handouts) on a topic or product within his/her field, understanding explanations given.</p> <p>Can understand the main points of what is said in a straightforward monologue like a guided tour, provided the delivery is clear and relatively slow.</p>	
	<p>Can follow the general outline of a demonstration or presentation on a familiar or predictable topic, where the message is expressed slowly and clearly in simple language and there is visual support (e.g. slides, handouts).</p>	
A2	<p>Can follow a very simple, well-structured presentation or demonstration, provided that it is illustrated with slides, concrete examples or diagrams, it is delivered slowly and clearly with repetition and the topic is familiar.</p> <p>Can understand the outline of simple information given in a predictable situation, such as on a guided tour, e.g. 'This is where the President lives.'</p>	
	<p>Can understand in outline very simple information being explained in a predictable situation like a guided tour, provided that speech is very slow and clear and that there are long pauses from time to time.</p>	
A1	<p>Can understand in outline very simple information being explained in a predictable situation like a guided tour, provided that speech is very slow and clear and that there are long pauses from time to time.</p>	
Pre-A1	<p>No descriptors available</p>	

Figure 16. Scales for listening as a member of a live audience (Council of Europe, 2020, p.57)

The ability to listen to announcements and instructions needs also to be considered in this description. It deals with a different type of listening skill which has strictly to do with the aim of catching specific information. In this case, the ability can be affected by the presence of interferences by having used a public address system or by being called out by a speaker some considerable distance away.

In this scale, the key concepts included in descriptors have to do with understanding directions and detailed instructions; catching the main point of announcements; and degree of clarity, from slow and clear to normal speed with audio distortion. As can be seen in Figure 16, there are no descriptors available for the C2 level, since the C1 covers the whole understanding of this type of messages, and one descriptor has been introduced in the Pre-A1 level with reference to understanding short and simple instructions if those are presented slowly.

LISTENING TO ANNOUNCEMENTS AND INSTRUCTIONS		PROSIGN
C2	<i>No descriptors available; see C1</i>	
C1	<p>Can extract specific information from poor quality, audibly distorted public announcements e.g. in a station, sports stadium etc.</p> <p>Can understand complex technical information, such as operating instructions, specifications for familiar products and services.</p>	
B2	<p>Can understand announcements and messages on concrete and abstract topics spoken in standard speech at normal speed.</p> <p>Can understand detailed instructions well enough to be able to follow them successfully.</p>	
B1	<p>Can understand simple technical information, such as operating instructions for everyday equipment.</p> <p>Can follow detailed directions.</p> <p>Can understand public announcements at airports, stations and on planes, buses and trains, provided these are clearly articulated in standard speech with minimum interference from background noise.</p>	
A2	<p>Can understand and follow a series of instructions for familiar, everyday activities such as sports, cooking, etc. provided they are delivered slowly and clearly.</p> <p>Can understand straightforward announcements (e.g. a telephone recording or radio announcement of a cinema programme or sports event, an announcement that a train has been delayed, or messages announced by loudspeaker in a supermarket), provided the delivery is slow and clear.</p> <p>Can catch the main point in short, clear, simple messages and announcements.</p> <p>Can understand simple directions relating to how to get from X to Y, by foot or public transport.</p> <p>Can understand basic instructions on times, dates and numbers etc., and on routine tasks and assignments to be carried out.</p>	
A1	<p>Can understand instructions addressed carefully and slowly to him/her and follow short, simple directions.</p> <p>Can understand when someone tells him/her slowly and clearly where something is, provided the object is in the immediate environment.</p> <p>Can understand figures, prices and times given slowly and clearly in an announcement by loudspeaker, e.g. at a railway station or in a shop.</p>	
Pre-A1	<p>Can understand short, simple instructions for actions such as 'Stop,' 'Close the door,' etc., provided they are delivered slowly face-to-face, accompanied by pictures or manual gestures and repeated if necessary.</p>	

Figure 17. Scales for listening to announcements and instructions (Council of Europe, 2020, p.58)

Finally, we will deal with the last descriptors, related now to listening to audio media and recordings which have to do with understanding recordings, weather forecasts, narrated stories, news bulletins, interviews and documentaries. In this case, the concepts that we can find in the scale are the following: picking out concrete information; understanding main points, essential information; catching important information; and identifying speaker mood, attitudes and viewpoints. As also happened in the previous section, there are no descriptors available for the C2 level, since the C1 covers the whole understanding of this type of messages and, besides, a descriptor for the A1 level has been introduced in relation to the identification of words, names and numbers in simple and short recordings, as can be derived Figure 17.

LISTENING TO AUDIO MEDIA AND RECORDINGS		PROSIGN
C2	<i>No descriptors available; see C1</i>	
C1	Can understand a wide range of recorded and broadcast audio material, including some non-standard usage, and identify finer points of detail including implicit attitudes and relationships between speakers.	
B2	Can understand recordings in the standard form of the language likely to be encountered in social, professional or academic life and identify speaker viewpoints and attitudes as well as the information content.	
	Can understand most radio documentaries and most other recorded or broadcast audio material delivered in the standard form of the language and can identify the speaker's mood, tone etc.	
B1	Can understand the information content of the majority of recorded or broadcast audio material on topics of personal interest delivered in clear standard speech.	
	Can understand the main points of radio news bulletins and simpler recorded material about familiar subjects delivered relatively slowly and clearly.	
	Can understand the main points and important details in stories and other narratives (e.g. a description of a holiday), provided the speaker speaks slowly and clearly.	
A2	Can understand the most important information contained in short radio commercials concerning goods and services of interest (e.g. CDs, video games, travel, etc.).	
	Can understand in a radio interview what people say they do in their free time, what they particularly like doing and what they do not like doing, provided that they speak slowly and clearly.	
	Can understand and extract the essential information from short, recorded passages dealing with predictable everyday matters that are delivered slowly and clearly.	
	Can extract important information from short radio broadcasts, such as the weather forecast, concert announcements or sports results, provided that people talk clearly.	
A1	Can understand the important points of a story and manage to follow the plot, provided the story is told slowly and clearly.	
	Can pick out concrete information (e.g. places and times) from short audio recordings on familiar everyday topics, provided they are delivered very slowly and clearly.	
Pre-A1	Can recognise words, names and numbers that he/she already knows in simple, short recordings, provided that they are delivered very slowly and clearly	

Figure 18. Scales for listening to audio media and recordings (Council of Europe, 2020, p.59)

5. Conclusions

After having reviewed both CEFR versions, of 2001 and 2020, we can assert that the 2001 CEFR version lacked an accessible or user-friendly approach in many ways, accompanied by somehow vague and inaccurate descriptors in some of the levels of proficiency. In fact, it did not completely present intermediate levels and descriptors for this type of users and attempted to use what we could call a homogenisation of approaches to use. In this sense, this version was quite hard to apply for young learners and young

adults, since descriptors did not take them into consideration. Besides, in relation to the indications for materials design, it turned out to be somehow insufficient and little use of languages for specific purposes was addressed. On the other hand, the 2020 CEFR version addressed many of the issues that were present in the previous version. The descriptors in the levels of proficiency are now more specific, clear, and detailed, providing a more accurate representation of a learner's language proficiency. The language used in the descriptors is also more accessible, making it easier for learners, teachers, and other stakeholders to understand and use.

Moreover, the 2020 CEFR version introduced several new features, such as a more explicit focus on plurilingualism and the inclusion of digital literacy as a key component of language learning. This reflects the changing landscape of language learning in today's world and acknowledges the importance of being able to use language in a variety of contexts and through different mediums.

However, not all the descriptors present in the 2001 version were unchanged, we have seen how in the 2020 Companion Volume one of the most outstanding improvements was the banishment of the term "native-like" and its substitution by a reference to speakers of the target language. As we have pinpointed before, this shift is related to new approaches to the teaching of a foreign or second language (Houghton, Rivers & Hashimoto, 2018), but it may also somehow represent a troublesome appreciation of speakers of the target language, since in the *Companion* this means that these speakers are competent and fluent users of the language, although it does not make reference to the level of competence of those speakers of the target language. So it is not clear if this term refers to speakers at any

level of competence or, in contrast, to proficient users. Looking at the B2 descriptor, we can appreciate that it may be the second case (Deygers, 2019). Maybe in further versions there will be a clear need for reviewing this issue and defining a rationale which supports and describes this linguistic distinction.

Concerning oral comprehension, we can draw several conclusions about how they approach and describe this language skill. Firstly, the CEFR 2001 provides a general framework for describing oral comprehension, but its descriptions are often broad and lack specificity. The Companion Volume, on the other hand, provides more detailed and specific descriptors of oral comprehension at different levels of proficiency, which can be useful for teachers, learners, and other stakeholders.

Additionally, the Companion Volume includes a variety of examples of oral comprehension tasks, such as listening to conversations, lectures, and presentations, as well as understanding different types of accents and varieties of the language. These examples provide a more concrete understanding of what oral comprehension entails, which can be helpful in designing language courses and assessments.

Another conclusion is that the Companion Volume recognizes the importance of pragmatic and sociolinguistic aspects of oral comprehension, such as understanding non-verbal communication and cultural references. This reflects a broader understanding of language proficiency that goes beyond grammar and vocabulary to include other essential elements of communicative competence.

Overall, while the CEFR 2001 provides a general framework for oral comprehension, the Companion Volume provides a more detailed and concrete description

of this language skill. It highlights the importance of pragmatic and sociolinguistic aspects of oral comprehension and provides useful examples of different types of tasks that learners may encounter in different contexts.

Apart from that, the Companion Volume also offers the inclusion of common reference levels with descriptors alluding to online communication and mediation. The introduction of online interaction is presented by including online conversation and discussion descriptors, in fact, transactions and online collaborations are also measured and rated. In the case of mediation, there is broad approach to it where we can appreciate a major change in the focus of the *Companion*. Even if it is a term which had been previously mentioned in the CEFR, it is in the Companion Volume where it acquires a central role, listed as one of the four main strategies and activities for communicative language. In this sense, mediation is included alluding to the fact that its presentation together with production, reception and interaction represents a “closer to real-life language use” (Council of Europe, 2020, p.31).

In general, we can state that the Companion Volume attempts, in 2020, to focus on a more social use of languages and tries to be more applicable to several contexts by the introduction of mediation. However, following Deygers (2019, p.4), one of its drawbacks could be related to the fact that “no learner performances were involved in the construction or calibration of the new scales”, so for a document that is meant to be a pedagogical support for teachers it seems quite self-contradictory. Perhaps a new version will provide a broader vision of different performances according to different educational systems and scales, and descriptors will come closer to the pedagogical reality of teachers. Overall, the

2020 CEFR version is a significant improvement over its predecessor, and its more user-friendly and accessible approach makes it a valuable tool for language learners, teachers, and institutions alike.

Chapter 3

Listening comprehension in EFL (English as Foreign Language)

1. Introduction

Listening comprehension is one of the four traditional language skills in second language learning together with reading comprehension, oral expression and written expression. In fact, as was seen in chapter 1, English is a global language that has been widely used for communication among speakers from diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds. In the context of English as a *Lingua Franca* (ELF), listening comprehension is a vital component of communicative competence. As Kachru and Nelson (2006) explain, EIL refers to the use of English as a *lingua franca* among non-native speakers, and it is characterized by a variety of linguistic features and cultural norms that differ from those of native English speakers. Therefore, listening in ELF requires a set of specific skills that go beyond understanding exclusively native speakers.

Several researchers have investigated the nature of listening comprehension in the context of ELF. Among these, Jenkins (2000) argues that ELF listening comprehension is influenced by the listeners' familiarity with different accents and their ability to recognize a variety of grammatical structures and lexical items, as well as their understanding of the social and cultural context of the speaker. Similarly, Goh and Silver (2013) emphasize the importance of training EIL listeners to recognize and interpret global English accents and to develop intercultural communicative competence.

Overall, the research on listening comprehension in EIL highlights the need to develop appropriate pedagogical strategies and materials to enhance the learners' ability to understand English as it is used in international contexts. This topic is of great relevance to English language teaching and learning, as it can inform the design of effective listening instruction that prepares learners to communicate in diverse international settings.

Furthermore, mediation has been added relatively recently to these traditional skills, which specifically includes translation according to the Companion Volume to the Common European Framework of Reference (2020). Among these skills, listening comprehension seems to occupy a predominant place (Anderson and Lynch, 1988; Rost, 1990, 2002; Dunkel, 1991; Rubin, 1994), if not the first (Oxford, 1993b). In fact, there is a high degree of agreement in SLA literature supporting the idea that the mother tongue is acquired after a silent exposure to the input, which at first is usually oral. Thus, listening comprehension is paramount in the development of any individual on a personal and interpersonal basis.

Moreover, it is also defended that oral expression is strictly conditioned and affected by the degree of acquisition of listening comprehension. As J. Luo (2008, p.25) states, "as we know, we can speak sensibly only if we understand what is being said", and Brownell (2002, p.7) also declares that "unless you listen, you have no way of knowing what to say".

These statements reflect the importance of listening comprehension and can be applied to both first- and second-language acquisition. Lynch (2009) states that there may be considerable obstacles for any individual in understanding in the mother tongue

depending on the circumstances in which they listen and, moreover, this can even explain why some L2 learners state that they are able to understand some language but they are not able to create an oral answer.

Although listening comprehension may not have received the importance it deserved in the past, nobody could currently keep this vision after having reviewed the results of research in this field (Rubin, 1994; Rost, 2014). Likewise, the current advances experienced by this global society have had a real impact on the development of listening comprehension, especially regarding the media, where “today in parallel with the development of communication via mass media, people tend to attach as much importance to listening as to the other language skills” (Işık and Yılmaz, 2011, p.72).

The nature and development of listening comprehension in English as a *Lingua Franca* (ELF) have been extensively researched and discussed, with numerous authors contributing to our understanding of this field. Among the pioneers of ELF studies is Braj Kachru, who introduced the concept of English as an International Language in the 1980s. Kachru emphasized the need for new approaches to teaching and assessing English as a global language, including a focus on listening comprehension skills (Kachru, 1985). Kachru’s work has had a significant impact on the field of ELF studies and has helped shape our understanding of the importance of listening comprehension in this context.

Another influential author in the field of ELF is Alastair Pennycook, who has written extensively on the role of listening comprehension in international communication. In his book *English as a Lingua Franca: Attitude and Identity* (2007), Pennycook explores

the challenges of understanding a wide range of accents and varieties of English in international contexts.

Jennifer Jenkins, another well-known author in the field of ELF, has focused on the development of listening comprehension skills in ELF learners. In her book *The Phonology of English as an International Language* (2000), Jenkins highlights the importance of exposure to authentic English input and the need for pedagogical materials to reflect the diversity of English used in international contexts.

In recent years, the role of technology in listening comprehension has become a popular area of study. For example, Phil Benson and Fang Zhang's work on the use of multimedia and digital tools in ELF (Benson & Zhang, 2019) offers new insights into how these tools can help improve listening comprehension skills in ELF learners.

Overall, listening comprehension in ELF has been the subject of much research and discussion over the years, with several authors contributing valuable insights into its nature and development. Whether exploring the challenges of understanding a wide range of accents, the importance of exposure to authentic input or the impact of technology, these authors offer important perspectives on the field of ELF and listening comprehension.

2. Listening as a skill

Listening is a fundamental component of communication that involves at least two participants, a speaker and a listener. It is an interactive process that requires the listener to pay attention and comprehend the message being communicated by the speaker. Over the years, several authors have defined listening comprehension and contributed to our

understanding of its nature and development. Underwood (1989) defined it as the activity of paying attention and trying to get meaning from something heard, while Mendelsohn (1994) focused on the ability to understand the spoken language of native speakers. However, O'Malley, Chamot and Kupper (1989) provided a more comprehensive definition, emphasizing the active and conscious process of constructing meaning using contextual information, existing knowledge, and multiple strategic resources. Rost (2002) defined listening as a process of receiving, constructing, representing, and negotiating meaning with the speaker through involvement, imagination, and empathy. Listening involves decoding the message, applying a range of strategies, and responding to what is said in a variety of ways. The updated Companion Volume to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (2020) stresses the importance of interaction in listening comprehension and highlights the need to focus not only on oral comprehension but also on the interaction between the listener and the speaker. To improve listening comprehension, learners must develop various skills such as comprehension of linguistic forms, recognition of different genres, dealing with listening in interaction, among others. These definitions emphasize the complexity of the listening process and the importance of contextual information, existing knowledge, and interactive processes in constructing meaning. So, in the first place the reception of meaning adds the necessary attention that the receiver devotes to the message —showing willingness to listen—, separating it from other noises and recognising and identifying the linguistic code (Rivers, 1983; Coakley and Wolvin, 1986; Underwood, 1989; Council of Europe, 2020). This first phase is vital, since

the receiver needs to have some willingness to listen and, at the same time, the ideal circumstances must be given so that they receive the message clearly enough.

Secondly, for the listener to be able to construct meaning, semantic and cognitive factors such as inferencing —pragmatic interpretation— and the previous linguistic knowledge, as well as the contextual factors in which the communicative act takes place (Bostrom, 1997; Rost, 2002; C.P. Luo, 2008; Council of Europe, 2020) are involved. It is in this phase of construction of meaning at a cognitive level that the L2 learner may face more difficulties.

Finally, it is worth considering whether some kind of response occurs as a part of the process of listening comprehension or not. In fact, the listener's response can be considered as a part of the whole auditory comprehension process, which would culminate ideally with a total interpretation of the message —if the communication is unidirectional— or with effective communication —if it is bidirectional—. According to Rost (2011, p.178), “listener response is often considered part of the listening process, as it is interwoven with interpretation and adoption of a pragmatic perspective. Listener response generally involves display of uptake, backchannelling, and follow-up acts”.

Thus, the response can go beyond an oral production addressed to the sender of the message that waits for a response (Rost, 2002). This could include changes in the mental level of the recipient or, even, nonverbal actions that he or she may carry out because of the message received. For example, Ur (1999, pp.43-44) distinguishes four different types of activities in response to an oral comprehension activity: no answer required, short answers, longer answers and broad answers. The first type corresponds to listening to any

entertainment material such as movies, where body language may show whether such material is being followed or not. The second type includes tasks such as following instructions, selecting whether a statement is true or false and filling in gaps, among other tasks. The third type includes activities such as answering questions, paraphrasing, translating or summarising. Finally, broader response tasks require a greater involvement of the listener to perform problem-solving tasks or understanding and explaining any topic extracted from an oral material.

Taking into consideration all the above, it seems that the answer must be included in the process of listening comprehension as a part —construction of the meaning— and a closing —answer— of it, although sometimes it is not verbally outsourced.

Perhaps it is the allusion to verbal and/or nonverbal messages that raises the greatest concern. The oral understanding that some scholars would recognise as “pure” (Wolvin, 1989) would only be the message received orally, disconnected from visual aspects. However, nonverbal messages could refer to sign language, for example, so that their inclusion would be fully justified. On the other hand, cases in which oral comprehension occurs without visual or contextual support are minimal and even unnatural. Since processing verbal and nonverbal messages is essential (Bostrom, 1997), we could come to define an audio-visual comprehension, instead of an exclusively oral one, that encompasses both of them and does not disassociate the oral understanding from the visual one.

Finally, Rost (2002, pp.2-4) proposes defining oral comprehension from a wider perspective, trying to offer a more inclusive definition departing from a series of orientations. These orientations are the following: receptive —what the speaker says is

received—; constructive —the meaning is constructed and represented—; collaborative — the meaning is negotiated with the speaker and answered—; and transformer; —some meaning is created through implication, imagination and empathy—.

Alongside this chapter, oral comprehension will be considered from the most integrative perspective, considering all the elements presented in the above: reception, construction of the meaning that integrates the oral message and the circumstances surrounding it, and response in either a verbal, nonverbal or non-outsourced form.

3. Oral reception according to the CEFR (2001) and the Companion Volume (2020)

Reception is described as the process by which the user/learner receives a text from one or more speakers or writers, again often at a distance, and is not called upon to reply. In fact, the CEFR (Council of Europe, 2001) states that the user of a language receives and processes an oral input produced by one or more speakers —see Figure 18—, and regarding the fact that oral comprehension consists of several parts that are chained together to reach a result, it is possible to define it as a process.

2.1. Listening

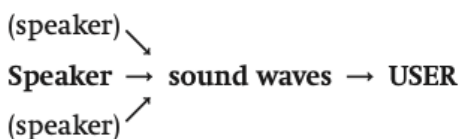


Figure 19. Reception in the Common European Framework (2001, p.99)

In the same direction, the CEFR (Council of Europe, 2001, p.65) offers different situations where the user can be listening, for example: listening to public announcements —information, instructions, warnings, etc.—, listening to media —radio, TV, recordings,

cinema—, listening as a member of a live audience —theatre, public meetings, public lectures, entertainments, etc.—; listening to overheard conversations, etc. Moreover, it also reflects on the different uses given to listening by users, such as listening for gist, listening for specific information, listening for detailed understanding and listening for implications (Council of Europe, 2001, p.65). Apart from these considerations, the Companion Volume (Council of Europe, 2020) adds different scales for overall listening comprehension, for understanding interaction between native speakers, for listening as a member of a live audience, for listening to announcements and instructions, and for listening to audio media and recordings.

Looking at the different steps offered by the CEFR (2001, p.90) with reference to listening comprehension, a good listener needs to deal with perceiving the utterance — auditory phonetic skills—, identifying the linguistic message —linguistic skills—, understanding the message —semantic skills— and interpreting the message —cognitive skills—. These steps occur in a linear sequence, but they are constantly updated and reinterpreted according to the receiver and their knowledge of the world, their schematic expectations and their own discursive understanding as an interactive subconscious process. In addition, throughout the process, different auditory, linguistic, semantic, and cognitive skills are employed, such as those related to perception, memory, decoding, inference, prediction, imagination and reference to what was listened to, among others.

The CEFR provides a comprehensive description of language proficiency, including listening as a complex process that involves understanding spoken language and making sense of spoken messages in different contexts. In the latest edition of the CEFR,

published in 2020 as the Companion Volume, the listening skill is described in detail, with an emphasis on the interactive and dynamic nature of the listening process. We will provide an overview of the listening skill in the Companion Volume, including its definition, components and assessment criteria, with a focus on the new developments in the 2020 edition of the Framework.

The Companion Volume defines listening as “the process of receiving, constructing meaning from, and responding to spoken and/or signed messages” (Council of Europe, 2020, p.203). The definition highlights the active and interactive nature of listening, which involves not only receiving and understanding but also responding to the message. It also acknowledges that listening can involve spoken and/or signed messages, recognizing the importance of sign language as a means of communication.

The Companion Volume to the CEFR identifies three main components of the listening skill: bottom-up processing, top-down processing and interaction. These components work together to enable the listener to understand and respond to the spoken and/or signed message.

Bottom-up processing involves the processing of sounds and recognizing individual words and phrases. It relies on the listener’s ability to decode the language and recognize the vocabulary and grammar. This component is particularly important for understanding the basic meaning of the message and relies on the listener’s knowledge of the language.

Top-down processing involves the use of context, knowledge and expectations to aid in understanding the message. It relies on the listener’s ability to draw on their prior

knowledge, use context cues and predict what is likely to come next. This component is particularly important for understanding the meaning beyond the surface level and relies on the listener's ability to use their knowledge and experiences to understand the message.

Interaction involves the active and interactive nature of listening, which involves responding to the message and negotiating meaning. It relies on the listener's ability to engage in the conversation, ask for clarification and negotiate meaning to ensure understanding. This component is particularly important for successful communication and relies on the listener's ability to engage with the speaker and actively participate in the conversation.

Concerning assessment, the Companion Volume provides a comprehensive framework for assessing the listening skill, with descriptors ranging from A1 (beginner) to C2 (proficient). The framework outlines the following five areas to be assessed: understanding, interaction, strategies, sociolinguistic competence and knowledge about language. In the first place, understanding refers to the ability to understand the main ideas, details and implied meanings in spoken and/or signed messages. This involves both bottom-up and top-down processing and it is essential for basic communication.

On the other hand, interaction refers to the ability to engage in conversation and negotiation, asking for clarification and responding appropriately. This involves interactional competence, such as turn-taking and using appropriate language and social norms, and it is essential for successful communication.

Sociolinguistic competence refers to the ability to use appropriate language and social norms in different contexts and situations. This involves an understanding of cultural

and social expectations, and it is essential for successful communication in different settings.

Finally, knowledge about language refers to the ability to recognize and understand the features of the language, such as grammar and vocabulary. This involves both implicit and explicit knowledge of the language, and it is essential for accurate communication.

In the 2020 edition, there have been some updates to the assessment criteria for listening, reflecting the evolving understanding of the listening skill. One of the most notable changes is the increased emphasis on the interactive nature of listening. The updated version acknowledges that listening is not a passive process, but rather an active and dynamic process that involves negotiation and interaction between the listener and the speaker.

The updated version also places more emphasis on the role of affective factors in listening. The 2020 edition acknowledges that emotions, motivation and attitudes can have a significant impact on a speaker's listening ability. The updated version also recognizes the importance of metacognitive strategies in listening. Metacognitive strategies refer to the processes by which listeners plan, monitor and evaluate their own listening processes.

We can finally state that the *Companion*, the updated version of the CEFR (2020) reflects the evolving understanding of the listening skill and places more emphasis on the interactive nature of listening, the role of affective factors and the importance of metacognitive strategies in listening.

4. Listening as a process

To deal with the identification and decoding of oral messages, we need to identify three different types of cognitive processes that were just mentioned before: bottom-up, top-down and parallel (Rubin, 1994; van Duzer, 1997; Nunan, 1998; Rost, 2002; Gilakjani & Ahmadi, 2011).

First of all, we will describe the bottom-up process. In it, new data is analysed, it is a linear process that implies building meaning, beginning with sounds and ending with the final speech meaning received through words, phrases, etc., and having into consideration suprasegmental elements such as intonation or rhythm. According to Nunan (1998), the bottom-up approach is text based, relying upon language aspects —i.e., sounds, vocabulary, and grammar—, and it conveys the whole process of decoding the sounds, from the smallest units to complete texts —e.g.: listening for specific details, recognising cognates, and recognising word order patterns—. In this type of process, the user gives meaning to the message, joining each phoneme to constitute words, as these serve to create phrases, which later shape sentences, and finally, in turn, come together to configure the text as a whole. Some examples of exercises involving bottom-up processes are those in which the student must discriminate between sounds or write the exact word in an exercise to fill in the blanks. In this case, the person who listens is seen as a recorder because we assume that they store the messages in a sequence, in the same way as a recorder (Anderson and Lynch, 1988).

On the contrary, the top-down process comes from an external source that leads the receiver to actively build or rebuild the meaning of the message by themselves, using their

knowledge of the language and their previous general knowledge, and analysing the situation. In fact, the receiver needs to consider who is sending the message, the relationship between sender and receiver, the moment in which the message is delivered and other similar aspects (Morley, 1991, p.87; Nunan, 1997, p.1). According to Anderson and Lynch (1988, p.139), the top-down cognitive process can be regarded as “a mental structure consisting of relevant individual knowledge, memory, and experience, which allows us to incorporate what we hear into what we know”, whereas previous knowledge, as we said before, turns out to be paramount to be able to understand the message when we are learning a second language. More precisely, Gilakjani and Ahmadi (2011, p. 977) state that “in the aural perception, the prior knowledge may facilitate [the listeners’] attempt to grasp the incoming information by relating the familiar with the new one, and significant lack of such knowledge can hamper their efforts to comprehend a particular utterance”. Different types of exercises to work on top-down cognitive processes include the development of abilities related to being able to identify the main idea of a message or determine the disposition of the person sending the message, etc.

Finally, we need to describe the parallel or interactive cognitive process by which the listener combines the two previous processes to be able to understand the message. Outside teaching and learning environments, when we listen, both processes generally occur together. The scope to which a user employs one or the other depends on the listener’s knowledge of the topic and on the contextualisation of the oral text, the quantity of information contained in the text, the text type and the listener’s purpose in listening to it. Furthermore, Beltrán-Palanques (2014, p.48), after having carried out a study on

listening activities and the cognitive processes implied in them, concluded that “by promoting exclusively bottom-up processing, learners’ opportunities for activating background knowledge and for obtaining contextual information are restricted”. In the same way, it is also mentioned that when both processing models —bottom-up and top-down— are combined, learners easily understand the receiving input and this “might benefit their listening comprehension” (2014, p.48).

It is widely recognised by several studies (Wolff, 1987; Field, 2001) that the use of both forms of processing, bottom-up and top-down, extends itself throughout all listening skill levels. In fact, Vandergrift (2004) found that all those listeners who seemed to be more skilled tended to use both forms of processing, whereas less-skilled listeners were unable to recognise relevant information and quickly forgot previous knowledge that they had understood.

Vandergrift (2004) also showed that “less-skilled listeners [tend] to segment what they [hear] on a word-by-word basis, using almost exclusively a bottom-up approach”. However, Norris (1995) employs listening activities to demonstrate that “if we require [our] students to use native speaker processing skills without first giving [them] a firm grounding in decoding the stream of sounds they hear, we run the risk of causing [them] more frustration and confusion than they can handle”. As he also mentions, it is clear that “in order to simulate the knowledge that native speakers bring to listening, learners are often provided with vocabulary lists prior to the task and told who the speakers are, what the situation is, and what the topic is about.” This denotes that students better master their

listening skills understanding from smallest units to bigger chunks of language, so implementing a bottom-up approach.

Other studies (Stanovich, 1980; Lund, 1991) discovered that listeners are not able to shift from a bottom-up processing to a top-down processing when they are confused by syntactic issues, or even when the amount of vocabulary they have acquired is somehow limited. According to them, in these situations all the attention paid by the listeners goes for translating or recalling either their known or unknown vocabulary; in this sense, there is no extra room to process more new information or the hidden meaning behind the listening passages.

In different research carried out by VanPatten (1989), the author evinced that listeners found distress when paying attention to both content and form. Actually, that attention paid to form even interfered with the comprehension of the content. Moreover, VanPatten's (1990) studies showed that low-proficiency listeners struggle when they need to cope with the processing of input when it refers to understand both grammar and semantics; so, it seems that it becomes a hard task to fulfil both tasks at the same time if you are a low-proficiency listener.

As a result of the number of real factors intervening in the listening comprehension process, this action seems to be a highly complex one —we just need to remember that sometimes there is not even a manifest response from the receiver—. In this sense, Vandergrift (2004) describes listening comprehension as the most difficult skill to observe.

The use of both bottom-up and top-down processing is critical for successful listening, and skilled listeners tend to employ both approaches. However, less-skilled

listeners may struggle to recognize relevant information and forget what they have understood if they rely solely on a bottom-up approach.

The importance of providing learners with a firm grounding in decoding the stream of sounds they hear before requiring them to use native speaker processing skills is also emphasized. It is clear that learners must master their listening skills from the smallest units of language to bigger chunks to enhance their understanding, indicating the use of a bottom-up approach.

Moreover, listeners may struggle to shift from a bottom-up processing to a top-down processing when they encounter confusion in syntactic issues or have limited vocabulary knowledge. Attention paid to the form of the language may interfere with comprehension of the content, and low-proficiency listeners may find it challenging to process input that requires an understanding of both grammar and semantics.

Given the various factors that can affect listening comprehension, it is not surprising that it is described as the most difficult skill to observe. Therefore, it is essential to assess listening skills using a range of criteria and measures that take into account the complexity of the process. The findings from the studies mentioned in this text should inform how listening skills are taught and assessed in language learning contexts, with a focus on both bottom-up and top-down processing, and the importance of providing a solid foundation in decoding the sounds of the language.

In conclusion, the research discussed in the previous paragraphs underscores the importance of understanding the complexity of the listening skill and the factors that affect a listener's ability to comprehend spoken language. It is crucial to employ both bottom-up

and top-down processing to enhance listening skills, provide learners with a firm grounding in decoding the sounds of the language and use a range of criteria and measures to assess listening comprehension accurately. By doing so, language learners can develop their listening skills to achieve greater proficiency in the language.

5. Situations, means and motivations for listening

The CEFR (2001) provides a taxonomic description of four domains of language use —public, personal, educational, and professional—, for each of which it specifies locations, institutions, persons, objects, events, operations and texts. As we will see in this section, listening comprehension can occur in different settings where these areas are interrelated, although it is in the personal area where we can clearly depict the individualisation or personalisation of the actions that take place in the other areas, as can be seen in the following definition:

[in] the personal domain, (...) the person concerned lives as a private individual, centred on home life with family and friends, and engages in individual practices such as reading for pleasure, keeping a personal diary, pursuing a special interest or hobby, etc. (Council of Europe, 2001, p.49)

It is surprising that both this volume and the new version of the CEFR make scarce reference to the practice of listening for pleasure, whereas there is a clear reference to the practice of reading for pleasure. The fact that listening for pleasure is vaguely considered an activity related to the personal domain turns out to be attention grabbing, since it is not so

clearly extended among learners. It should be more present among the types of activities presented, rather than only being mentioned as being a member of a live audience.

On the other hand, the *Companion* (2020) refers to the educational domain as the one “in which the person concerned is engaged in organised learning, especially (but not necessarily) within an educational institution” (2020, p.45). In this definition, we can appreciate how there is some room for including individual and autonomous learning and listening.

Regarding the types of activities presented in the *Companion* (2020) for listening comprehension, these include:

- listening to public announcements —information, instructions, warnings, etc.
- listening to media (radio, TV, recordings, cinema)
- listening as a member of a live audience —theatre, public meetings, public lectures, entertainments, etc.
- listening to overheard conversations, etc.

These activities also share a connection, which is the presence of a context or even the existence of visual support for listening comprehension. When the information is transmitted through the radio, the loudspeakers, the telephone or other devices to listen to music, it usually implies the absence of a visual support, and other elements could be commonly used instead. In a phone conversation, the receiver can negotiate the meaning with the interlocutor; likewise, you could choose to use a video call, which would be accompanied by the visual component and could facilitate communication.

Listening through loudspeakers can be also quite hard, since it usually occurs in open spaces, often relatively large and noisy, such as a train station, an airport, a shopping centre, etc.; in this case, the receiver can usually turn to other people to try to clarify the meaning of the oral message or go to some information point. Lastly, in the case of music, as the content depends on melodies, it is often necessary to resort to the written lyrics of the song in order to fully understand it.

Although all these previous activities are still valid today, they have been modified to some extent due to the emergence of new technologies, which have resulted in new listening comprehension activities. In this way, how we listen, when, where, why and to whom is constantly changing (Bentley, 2000), giving rise to new media such as serial asynchronous listening through mobile applications. This type of communication consists of sending voice messages through instant messaging programs, which until very recently only allowed for communication in writing.

Following Bentley's (2000) words, the professional domain for learning languages has also been affected by the rise of new technologies:

the challenge is to keep up with the ever-changing environment, technology, and variety of speakers. We will have to find ways to study listening when there is no face-to-face contact, when the conversation is not real-time, but conducted serially, when the speaker is someone whose native language is not the same as ours and whose cultural and business values are different. In addition, the perception of effective listening may need to be expanded to include the relationship aspect of the interchange in addition to the message component. In short, listening scholars in the 21st Century will have numerous challenging topics (Bentley, 2000, p.140).

In this sense, listening comprehension activities and the methodology to teach it should not only adapt to the learner and their circumstances, but also to consider all the new technological advances and the impact they have on society. Hence, these new forms of listening comprehension could be promoted for autonomous learning, in such a way that it is even transferred from the educational field to the personal one. As a result, it is not only reading that is considered as an activity that is carried out for pleasure, as Luo (2008, p.25) suggests: “with the development of high technology, we more and more rely on our ears to get information”.

Focusing now on the reasons that lead a person to focus their attention on listening, those are really varied. According to the CEFR (2001), users can listen to perceive the essence of what is said, to obtain specific information, to achieve a detailed understanding or to capture possible implications, among other motivations. These different ways of lending attention or listening respond to a common motive: to find out something. However, the nature of that something can be very diverse.

It seems difficult to narrow down the wide variety of purposes why people use listening comprehension, since these go beyond the functional or linguistic, because listening comprehension is also “a moral and relational activity, especially in education” (Baurain, 2011, p.162). In fact, people listen, among other reasons, to develop as individuals, to create interpersonal links, to form their own opinion, etc.

When listening is called for in discourse, it tends to be associated automatically to an understanding. This is because “comprehension is often considered to be the first-order goal of listening, the highest priority of the listener, and sometimes the sole purpose of

listening” (Rost, 2002). Especially for L2 learners who acquire a new language, the term ‘listening comprehension’ usually refers to all aspects of listening, since understanding through listening is considered as something basic to enable learners to process the new language.

Mills (1974) categorised listening into responsive listening —to agree with the speaker—, implicative listening —identify what not to say—, critical listening —evaluating oral messages— and nondirective listening —providing a sounding board for the speaker—. Another listening categorisation was suggested by Devine (1982), by which he established a parallelism between reading and listening instruction where listening could be built around critical listening, accurate listening, which needs a skill to pay attention, and purposeful listening, which needs a skill to follow spoken discourse.

Another well-known categorisation was introduced by Wolvin and Coakley (1993), who identified five types of listening functions correlated with the general purpose of the listener: (1) discriminative listening, (2) listening for comprehension, (3) therapeutic —empathic— listening, (4) critical listening, and (5) appreciative listening. Ur (1984), for her part, also classified listening functions by dividing them into listening for perception and listening for comprehension. This categorisation intends to help listeners in the development of listening strategies and to assist listeners to understand their own listening behaviours. It is documented by Wipf (1984) that listeners also need to discriminate between sounds, be able to understand vocabulary and grammatical structures, interpret stress and intonation, understand intention, and retain and interpret all this within the immediate as well as the larger socio-cultural context of the utterance.

Furthermore, Rost (2002) outlined listening comprehension as a process of trying to depict what spoken language is making reference to in one's experience or in the real world. To be able to understand the spoken language, various types of knowledge must be applied to decode and decipher the incoming information. Additionally, Buck (2001) determines that the information involved in the listening process can be categorised into two different types: linguistic knowledge —i.e. lexis, syntax, semantics and discourse structures— and non-linguistic knowledge —i.e. general knowledge of the world, knowledge of the listening context and personal experience—. In this sense, we can state that listening comprehension is consequently a multifaceted procedure mixing the distinct components of perception and linguistic knowledge. It is a dynamic process in which language learners focus on selected facets of auditory input, make meaning and use what they hear to complement existing knowledge.

6. Metacognitive strategies in listening skills

The term 'metacognition' was introduced in literature at the beginning of the 1970s by Flavell (1971) as a result of his studies on the development of memory processes. More precisely, we can define it as the fact that:

in any kind of cognitive transaction with the human or non-human environment, a variety of information processing activities may go on. Metacognition refers, among other things, to the active monitoring and consequent regulation and orchestration of these processes in relation to the cognitive objects or data on which they bear, usually in service of some concrete goal or objective. (Flavell, 1971, p.232)

According to Pintrich, Wolters and Baxter (2000), human beings are capable of providing solutions to different problems by associating their previously established knowledge system and by reflecting on the cognitive processes themselves.

To put it differently, metacognition involves monitoring and controlling information to achieve a particular goal, according to previous research. Flavell (1979) argued that metacognitive processes could be activated either consciously or unconsciously, with a range of variables involved in cognitive regulation. The ability to regulate one's own learning process involves two levels: metacognitive knowledge and cognitive regulation. The first level of the model describes metacognitive knowledge, which encompasses information about the individual's cognitive processes, including person, task, and strategy variables. Personal variables can include beliefs about one's interests, abilities, and preferences, as well as comparisons with others. Task variables relate to knowledge of the degree of difficulty or success one may encounter in completing a task. Strategy variables involve the identification and selection of cognitive processes to achieve a particular goal, including cognitive and metacognitive strategies and conditional knowledge of when and where to use them.

Schneider and Lockl (2008) indicate that metacognitive processes are divided into two sub-processes: 1) declarative, or knowledge about the cognitive processes themselves, and 2) procedural, or their regulation by the individual. In the first of them, declarative, the subject is aware of the knowledge about their own cognitive processes; in fact, this knowledge tends to be stable and it usually develops in a later stage in the subject. In the second process, called procedural, the cognitive activity is unstable since it depends on the

situations and learning task. It is not possible to verify that cognitive activity and, sometimes, it is not carried out at a conscious level.

Considering this distinction based on these processes, metacognitive strategies are incorporated as mechanisms to control those cognitive processes. To this respect, Flavell (1979, p.35) states that “a person with good metacognitive skills and awareness uses these processes to oversee his (*sic*) own learning process, plan and monitor ongoing cognitive activities and to compare cognitive outcomes with internal or external standards”.

There are many studies that include and, at the same time, attempt to classify metacognitive strategies (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990; Chamot, 2005; Oxford, 2003; Schraw, Crippen and Hartley, 2006). O'Malley and Chamot (1990) and Chamot (2005) suggest that metacognitive strategies such as planning, monitoring and evaluation are frequently used. Planning requires an organisation of the steps to be followed in the development of a task. Monitoring is the level of awareness that one has about what is being done, and evaluation refers to the action of judging what has been done. For her part, Oxford (2003) considers that metacognitive strategies include thinking and centralisation on the learning process, planning and organization, and monitoring and evaluation. The centralisation of learning requires an awareness of what is learned through the association between new information and previous knowledge. Planning and organisation involve establishing the goals and objectives of the task to be performed and being aware of the difficulty of the task, as well as the mechanisms required from the subject to execute it. Monitoring and evaluation help measuring what has been done at the end of a task.

A third classification is proposed by Schraw, Crippen and Hartley (2006), who establish that three types of strategies can be associated to listening: planning, monitoring and evaluation. In planning strategies, students can identify and select the information and resources necessary to fulfil a task. Follow-up strategies imply being alert and aware of the development of a task and, finally, assessment strategies allow the user to review their own performance in accomplishing a goal.

Studies by Liyanage et al. (2012) and Xu (2012) revealed findings on the preference for the use of metacognitive strategies and their positive influence on language learning. In China, Liyanage et al. (2012) showed that students between eighteen and twenty made use of a combination of metacognitive strategies, such as elective attention, organisational planning and self-management in communicative tasks of oral expression and listening comprehension. These students used both strategies outside and inside the classroom, despite the preference to use them primarily outside the classroom. Xu (2012), for his part, evaluated the use and way of developing metacognitive strategies for the improvement of oral competence in virtual environments of native Mandarin Chinese students. His findings determined that allowing learners to self-evaluate their performance generated positive results in communicative tasks based on the use of the internet.

In conclusion, listening comprehension is an essential skill for effective communication in English as an International Language (EIL). Therefore, EIL listening comprehension requires a set of specific skills that go beyond understanding native speakers. Researchers such as Jenkins and Goh and Silver have emphasized the importance

of training EIL listeners to recognize and interpret global English accents and to develop intercultural communicative competence.

Several authors have contributed to our understanding of the nature and development of listening comprehension in EIL, including Kachru, Pennycook, Jenkins and Benson and Zhang. The research on listening comprehension in EIL highlights the need to develop appropriate pedagogical strategies and materials to enhance learners' ability to understand English as it is used in international contexts. Furthermore, listening comprehension is a predominant skill among the traditional language skills, which affects the development of the other three skills, oral expression, reading comprehension and written expression. Overall, listening comprehension is paramount for effective communication in diverse international settings, and its development is crucial for both first- and second-language acquisition.

Chapter 4

Research on Metacognitive Instructional Strategies and Approaches for L2

Listening

1. Introduction

In this chapter, we will discuss those aspects concerning the metacognitive teaching of comprehensive listening in the L2. First, the concept of metacognitive strategy instruction will be defined, and all the metacognitive listening strategies will be conceptualized and categorised. After that, some of the most recognised metacognitive teaching models will be presented. As a revision of the state of the art, some of the most recent research works are reviewed since, due to their theoretical and practical contributions, they have had a great impact on trends in the teaching of metacognitive strategies for the development of comprehensive listening in the L2.

2. Learning strategies: an introduction and classification

In recent decades, research in the field of foreign language teaching-learning has increasingly focused on studying the way in which learners acquire the foreign language (L2), their individual differences and different learning styles; in short, the factors that make an individual successful in their learning. Thus, there has been a growing interest in studying how learners approach and manage their own learning and the type of strategies they use. The embryo of research on language learning strategies can be found in studies whose objective was to identify the most competent learners and study their characteristics

and behaviour. Ultimately, it was all about finding out what differentiated these from other learners who were not as successful or who were not so “good” at learning an L2. We could highlight the studies of Rubin (1975), Naiman et al. (1978), Reiss (1985) or Stevick (1989), among others.

According to Ellis (1994), from the results obtained from these studies on competent learners, five aspects can be highlighted that help language learning to be successful:

- Interest in linguistic forms
- Interest in interacting in communication
- Tackling tasks or activities in an active way
- Being aware of the learning process itself
- The ability to use different strategies flexibly depending on the task being carried out

Thus, when studying the behaviour and characteristics of competent learners, the strategies involved in learning an L2 were also investigated. In the last 30 years, the field of learning strategies has raised great interest, giving rise to many studies in contexts of English as a second or foreign language in different countries. In Spain, we can also find studies that have investigated the use of learning strategies by learners of English as a foreign language such as those by Franco, Bocanegra and Díaz (2003), Franco Naranjo (2004), Franco Naranjo, Pino Juste and Rodríguez López (2009), Corpas Arellano (2010), García Herrero (2013) or García Herrero and Jiménez Vivas (2014), among others.

Metacognitive strategy instruction, which is deeply based on metacognition, refers to those teaching strategies that the teacher uses to help students gain awareness of their own learning processes, and that, at the same time, facilitates the acquisition and use of metacognitive strategies to regulate and manage the learning process (Cross, 2011).

Early research on learning strategies focused primarily on identifying the strategies that learners used when learning an L2 and classifying them (Wenden and Rubin, 1987; Cohen, 1990; O'Malley and Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990). Many of these studies have also attempted to define the concept of strategy, but there is no single definition and the terminology used varies from one author to another. Thus, we find different terms to define strategy, such as operations, procedures, plans, behaviours, actions, techniques (Rubin, 1975; Wenden and Rubin, 1987; Oxford, 1990; García Herrero, 2013), cognitive processes, thoughts (Cohen, 1990), or a combination of behaviours and thoughts (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990; Chamot, 2004).

As we can see, this disparity in the terminology used when defining the concept of strategy raises different questions when considering its nature: Are they behaviours, actions, or are they mental processes? Are they planned and carried out on purpose, or do they occur spontaneously and are used subconsciously by learners? These questions are important because the answer will depend on whether these strategies can be observable or not and, therefore, classified, quantified and measurable. In this sense, Oxford (1993a) considers them as actions and behaviours that learners carry out, often consciously. Chamot (2004) considers them as a mixture of actions and thoughts, but he also asserts that this affects their conscious aspect. If the learners use the strategies consciously, as these authors

maintain, this aspect is crucial in the study of learning strategies, since this conscious knowledge allows the learner to make explicit the strategies they use and report on them, which allows them to control and improve their way of learning (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990; Chamot, 2004; Grenfell and Macaro, 2007).

Regarding the classification of these strategies, there is no single taxonomy either. From the first studies, where strategies were simply listed, we have moved into much more complete and systematic classifications based on different criteria, although most of the proposals are very similar and have many aspects in common. Next, we will have a look at some of them. Rubin (1987) identifies three types of strategies that contribute directly or indirectly to learning:

- Learning strategies. These strategies contribute directly to the development of the learner's linguistic system. This author divides them in two more specific types: cognitive and metacognitive. Cognitive strategies are those that are used to analyse, transform and synthesise information or learning materials, whereas metacognitive strategies are used to plan, control and direct the language learning process itself..
- Communication strategies. They are used when participating in a conversation. Speakers use them to keep the conversation going and avoid communication breakdowns, to convey the message or clarify a given aspect.
- Social strategies. These are strategies that learners use to interact with others and to seek opportunities to practice the language. According to Rubin, communication and social strategies are indirect, since they do not directly affect the construction of the linguistic system, although they are related to the learning process.

For their part, O'Malley and Chamot (1990) propose a similar classification, but they integrate Rubin's social and communication strategies into a single category called socio-affective:

- Metacognitive strategies
- Cognitive strategies
- Socio-affective strategies

Oxford's taxonomy (1990), however, is probably the most recognized and referenced. Her classification is considered the most detailed and systematic due to the variety of strategies that she describes (Hsiao and Oxford, 2002). Like Rubin, Oxford divides strategies into two broad types, direct and indirect, which in turn she divides into six categories (Oxford, 1990, p.17). The direct strategies are more focused on the language itself, such as memorization, practice and analysis. The indirect strategies, on the other hand, are more focused on the learner, such as socialization, affective strategies and compensation strategies.

Firstly, she divides direct strategies into the following kinds:

- Memorization strategies (used to store information and retrieve it when needed in communication): create mental associations, use images and sounds, review, use actions.
- Cognitive strategies (the mental strategies that learners use to understand their own learning): practice, strategies for receiving and communicating messages, analysing, and reasoning.

- Compensation strategies (the strategies that learners use to solve the problems they may have when communicating the message due to the lack of linguistic resources): guessing, overcoming limitations in oral and written production.

On the other hand, she refers to the following indirect strategies:

- Metacognitive strategies (they help the learner to control their learning): focus, organize, plan, evaluate learning.
- Affective strategies (those that enable the learner to control their feelings and emotions): reduce anxiety, have self-esteem, be aware of their own emotions.
- Social strategies (used in interaction with others): ask questions, cooperate with others, empathize with others.

The six categories of language learning strategies proposed by Oxford (1990) are widely used in the field of second language acquisition and provide a useful framework for understanding the various ways in which language learners approach the task of acquiring a new language. By recognising the different types of strategies that learners use, teachers and researchers can develop more effective language teaching methods and materials, and learners can identify the strategies that work best for them.

3. Metacognitive learning strategies for L2 Listening Comprehension

As part of the regulatory actions in metacognition, metacognitive strategies allow learners to control their L2 learning by planning, monitoring and evaluating their performance on a given task. For this reason, they are considered essential for learning, since they tend to make learners more autonomous, strategic, efficient and proactive, both

in their learning in general (Anderson, 2002; Goh, 2002) and in the acquisition of the L2 (Hauck, 2005), in particular about the development of listening comprehension (Vandergrift, 1999; Goh and Yusnita, 2006; Goh, 2008; Yang, 2009). In fact, in the last twenty years there has been a growing interest in integrating metacognitive strategies in explicit instruction for the development of listening comprehension.

One of the most influential contributions in this regard is that of Vandergrift (1999), who postulates the need to use a sequence of metacognitive strategies to improve listening comprehension, based on the intrinsic regulatory activities of metacognition, that is, planning, monitoring and evaluation. According to Vandergrift (1999), metacognitive strategies are used by learners to manage and regulate their listening processes, while cognitive strategies are used to process and understand the language itself.

In her study, she found that successful L2 listeners used both metacognitive and cognitive strategies in a flexible and strategic manner, adjusting their approach as needed depending on the task and the listening situation. She also found that metacognitive strategies were particularly important for L2 listeners, as they helped them to become more aware of their own listening processes and to monitor their comprehension effectively.

In the planning stage, pre-listening activities help the learner make decisions about what they are going to hear and focus their attention on the meaning. First, they must be aware of the topic as well as their knowledge of how the information is organized in the different texts and about any relevant cultural information. Next, the purpose of the text must be established so that the receiver activates their prior knowledge about the specific information for a successful understanding. By using all available information, the subject

can predict the content of the text. In the second stage, the learner is expected to monitor their understanding and make decisions about the use of various verification strategies between the audible input, their predictions and their mental models to establish textual coherence. Finally, the learner is expected to evaluate the results of the decisions made during the listening task. Self-evaluation and reflection can be developed through questions aimed at evaluating the effectiveness of the strategies used. A group discussion about the strategies used by different subjects can also stimulate reflection and evaluation.

Dealing with listening, learning strategies are defined as deliberate actions that learners take to improve understanding of spoken discourse in the language they are learning. Vandergrift (1997) identified the metacognitive and cognitive strategies used by L2 students so, according to his classification, metacognitive listening strategies are organised into four groups: planning, monitoring, evaluating and problem solving. Metacognitive strategies will help the student to become aware of the listening processes, to regulate and to supervise them.

In this sense, cognitive strategies help an individual to perform a task and achieve the proposed learning goals. Listening to a news podcast, for example, makes use of cognitive strategies, and asking questions about how much you understood from what you heard is a metacognitive strategy as well. In general, a cognitive activity is followed by a metacognitive activity that allows its development to be evaluated and monitored. Vandergrift (1997) classified the cognitive listening sub-strategies into the following groups: elaboration, inference, translation, repetition, transfer, deduction, summarisation, note-taking, substitution, resourcing and grouping.

Based on the proposal of Vandergrift (1999), and in tune with the strategic instruction approach (Mendelsohn, 1994, 2006), Rost (2005) developed a pedagogical approach that describes the actions that both the teacher and the student can perform to encourage, apply and develop metacognitive strategies in L2 learners in listening comprehension tasks. The planning stage includes instructions for developing strategies for anticipatory organization, directed attention, selective attention and self-direction; the monitoring stage includes activities for monitoring comprehension, listening and the task; and finally, the evaluation stage involves evaluating performance and identifying problems.

With the explicit or implicit teaching of metacognitive strategies, students are expected to: (1) develop a personalized strategy system; (2) develop autonomy and self-direction in learning; and (3) assume greater responsibility for their learning. Simply speaking, the teaching of strategies should aim to empower the student to take control over their learning processes (Cohen, 1998).

In the specific context of teaching comprehensive listening in the L2, the implicit or explicit teaching of metacognitive strategies helps students develop knowledge about learning to listen, which implies the use of strategies to control and self-regulate their comprehensive listening (Goh, 2008). Helping students to develop metacognitive awareness about the processes involved in effective listening is helping them improve their understanding and become more autonomous learners, to the extent that they can regulate and control their learning.

According to Vandergrift and Goh (2009), the teaching of comprehensive listening, based on a metacognitive approach, should aim to empower the listener to make the most of the input from spoken texts, or from discourse in an interaction, so that they can develop effective comprehensive listening in and out of class. These authors pinpoint that it is essential for language learners to develop the ability to understand spoken language in real-life situations. A metacognitive approach to listening comprehension focuses on the learner's own thoughts and processes as they listen, encouraging them to reflect on their understanding and adjust their strategies as needed. Vandergrift and Goh argue that this type of approach leads to a deeper level of comprehension and helps learners to become more autonomous in their listening practices.

The authors highlight several key components of a metacognitive approach to comprehensive listening, including the use of pre-listening activities to activate prior knowledge and set a purpose for listening, the use of during-listening strategies to monitor and adjust understanding, and the use of post-listening activities to reinforce understanding and provide opportunities for reflection and evaluation. In addition, Vandergrift and Goh argue that the teaching of listening comprehension should be integrated with the teaching of speaking, reading, and writing, as all four language skills are interrelated and interact in real-life communication. They also stress the importance of authentic and varied listening materials, as well as opportunities for learners to interact with native speakers of the language. Overall, Vandergrift and Goh's work underscores the importance of a metacognitive approach to the teaching of comprehensive listening and provides a useful framework for language teachers and researchers in this field. To facilitate this process,

instructors should develop teaching strategies that, on the one hand, integrate metacognitive strategies for comprehensive listening in the listening tasks in the classroom, and which also look for mechanisms so that the student can use these strategies out of class.

An effective metacognitive teaching model of comprehensive listening in the L2 includes, in addition to explicit or implicit training in the use of metacognitive strategies, the informed choice of listening media and materials that allow students to reduce anxiety and increase motivation towards the listening task, and that also allows them to work independently inside and outside of class. It should also promote the training of effective, reflective listeners, aware of their learning processes, and who can also take on the following challenges imposed by comprehensive listening in L2:

- Plan how to self-direct and self-regulate listening learning in L2
- Arrange and use listening strategies that allow solving the task appropriately
- Develop a greater sense of self-efficacy and greater motivation towards learning comprehensive listening in L2
- Improve their performance in comprehensive listening, inside and outside of class, and consequently, function with greater solvency in an interaction
- Apply the metacognitive strategies seen in class to listening situations outside of it
- Set yourself and successfully overcome listening challenges aimed at self-improvement of your listening comprehension in L2

Vandergrift's research has important implications for language teachers and researchers, as it highlights the importance of teaching L2 learners not only how to

understand spoken language, but also how to manage and regulate their own listening processes. By encouraging L2 listeners to develop effective metacognitive and cognitive strategies, teachers can help them become more autonomous in their listening practices and to be better able to comprehend spoken language in real-life situations.

In summary, metacognitive teaching seeks to help train self-regulated listeners, aware of their comprehension processes and the demands of the listening task. These listeners will have at their disposal a set of strategies that allow them to overcome the difficulties imposed by listening in an L2, and they can also take advantage of those materials and means that allow them to work autonomously in the development of their auditory comprehension processes.

The previous definitions and studies collect the current views and beliefs about metacognitive teaching and its impact on comprehensive listening in an L2. The teachable aspect of metacognitive teaching is related to metacognitive learning strategies.

So far, we have dealt with the concepts of metacognitive teaching and metacognitive listening strategies. As we can see, metacognitive teaching models developed in recent years have sought to empower L2 students with strategies that allow them to improve their skills on listening. Some of these models will be presented and compared below.

4. Research on the Effects of Metacognitive Strategy Instruction on L2 Listening Comprehension Performance

Based on available evidence, there is a growing trend towards using strategy training to improve L2 listening skills. However, there are differing opinions regarding the necessity of such training, with some experts arguing that strategies are innate and do not need to be taught (Ridgway, 2000; Renandya, 2012). By contrast, Mendelsohn (1994) argued that the transference of strategies from L1 to L2 listening is not automatic, and that L2 listening poses several challenges due to variations in prosodic features, vocabulary, grammar and listeners' decoding abilities.

One argument against strategy training is that listeners may not have enough cognitive space to use these techniques while engaging with the listening text, especially inexperienced listeners. However, research has shown that even inexperienced listeners can employ listening strategies and benefit from metacognitive strategy education (Goh and Taib, 2006; Vandergrift and Tafaghodtari, 2010; Bozorgian, 2015). Additionally, Field (2008) suggests that L2 listeners need to feel in control of their listening experiences, and pleasant encounters can significantly contribute to their learning commitment. To achieve this, listeners need to be taught how to respond to and deal with understanding breakdowns by employing appropriate listening strategies.

Various methods have been designed to provide metacognitive instruction for learners, using reflection on listening experiences as the primary guide. Although studies may use a range of overlapping methodologies, they can generally be classified as

retrospective and introspective, embedded (MPS), direct (CALLA) and eclectic. Vandergrift and Goh (2012) suggest that any educational process that raises learners' awareness of the listening process qualifies as metacognitive instruction. In the following sub-sections, we will focus on different studies that have used these approaches to teach L2 listening strategies.

4.1 Research using retrospective and introspective approaches

Studies show that guided reflection is a highly effective strategy for increasing metacognition, especially when employing introspective and retrospective approaches. This involves asking listeners to consider their listening experiences in depth, including challenges encountered, successful and unsuccessful usage of methods, reasons for future listening, aspirations for future listening, listening diaries, and the Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ). In this regard, we will discuss three different research studies that use these approaches.

Goh and Taib's (2006) study, involving ten young ESL listeners in Singapore, utilized instant reflection on how questions were answered for their listening assignments. The cognitive processes were then verbalized through group discussions and class sharing. Zeng (2014) used a similar strategy, but his Chinese EFL undergraduates were also given the opportunity to reflect using the MALQ before and after training. Listeners in all trials exhibited significant improvement in listening skills and confidence at the end of the training session, implying that the benefits of introspective and retrospective techniques were universal across language contexts and age groups.

According to Graham and Macaro's (2008) research, the study examined adolescent listeners who used French as a second language in England, and they were assessed twice to determine the long-term impact of strategy training. The first assessment was conducted immediately after the intervention, and the second assessment was conducted six months later. The high scaffolding group received additional reflection stimulation in the form of group discussions, listening diaries, and written comments to assist participants in seeing the link between technique use and task completion. Even when considering differences in their initial listening ability, both the high scaffolding group and the low scaffolding group outperformed the control group. The high scaffolding group outperformed the low scaffolding group when comparing the two intervention groups. Six months later, both intervention groups outperformed the control group, but the researchers discovered that the low scaffolding group outperformed the high scaffolding group when comparing the two intervention groups. The researchers concluded that strategy education that encourages learners to reflect on the connection between strategy use and good listening can be beneficial in improving listening performance and confidence, even with a modest level of reflection.

These studies have two significant implications for metacognitive strategy development. First, they emphasize the importance of introspection, regardless of the instructional methodologies or strategies used, and the long-term benefits of introspection on listening confidence. Second, they demonstrate that peer and group sharing creates a less intimidating environment for learners, which is more conducive to learning because there is no competition to achieve the highest number of correctly scored tasks. The

findings also suggest that increasing self-efficacy in listening through introspection and metacognitive training can assist learners in improving their listening comprehension and ultimately decreasing their listening anxiety.

4.2 Research using embedded approach: Metacognitive Pedagogical Sequence (MPS)

The Metacognitive Pedagogical Sequence (MPS) is a process-based approach to teaching listening that emphasizes the use of metacognitive processes to develop a strategic listener. MPS uses exercises such as dictogloss and text reconstruction to encourage learners to engage in planning, monitoring, evaluation, and problem-solving in their listening. MPS also uses a variety of training materials, including audio, video, and a combination of both, to encourage the use of metacognitive methods.

In addition to MPS, awareness-raising strategies were used to supplement instruction, such as the use of the Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ) to measure listening awareness and prompt listeners to reflect on their listening experiences. Results on listening comprehension varied across studies, with some showing significant improvements in the experimental group compared to the control group, while others showed only small improvements or no significant change.

Studies also found that less skilled listeners made more improvement than their more skilled colleagues, and that listeners in the less skilled category made more significant progress than those in the proficient category. Overall, the use of MPS and MALQ can help learners internalize metacognitive methods and promote autonomous learning and strategy

transfer, but the results on listening comprehension may vary depending on the context and the learners' skill level.

4.3 Research using direct approach (CALLA)

This section discusses the effectiveness of metacognitive strategy training utilizing the direct approach in improving listening performance in second language (L2) learners. The Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA) is an instructional strategy based on cognitive learning theory, which views learners as active participants in the learning process who continuously try to understand new knowledge. Unlike the Metacognitive Pedagogical Sequence (MPS), which was designed exclusively for L2 listening, CALLA was created for ESL language schools as a whole. The CALLA approach requires learners to reflect on their learning and problems so that they can be addressed through strategy use. CALLA employs diversified listening tasks that demand task-specific cognitive strategies, which must be consciously chosen, explained, modelled, practiced, and developed.

Metacognitive techniques are executive in nature and oversee the orchestration of other strategies when it comes to addressing learning tasks. Brown (1977) defined metacognitive actions as the ability to organize, monitor and assess solutions for resolving challenges encountered during a learning process. The Metacognitive Pedagogical Sequence (MPS) instructional approach involves planning, monitoring, problem-solving, and assessment, and the sets of ideal techniques for good L2 listening, as described in the MALQ factors, can be included within metacognitive strategies.

The studies reviewed in this section reflect variation in the quantity, types, and combinations of techniques chosen for education. Some studies used a total of fifteen methods, including metacognitive, cognitive, and social-affective strategies, while others opted exclusively for the MPS-recommended metacognitive processes. Reflective notebooks, peer and group conversations, the MALQ, and a listening performance checklist are tools that can be used to raise students' awareness of the listening process and assist them in reflecting on their listening and strategy use. In the studies evaluated, the MALQ and checklist were the most commonly employed tools.

Two previous studies on English as a foreign language (EFL) learners have not shown significant gains in listening skills. Chen (2010) evaluated the effect of strategy training on listening performance, perception of listening improvement, strategy use, and self-directed learning among Taiwanese EFL learners. The experimental group participated in weekly out-of-class listening exercises, and listeners reflected on their experiences using a reflective notebook. Chen found that the experimental group achieved greater listening progress than the control group at the end of the 14-week treatment period but not significantly higher. The use of reflective journals helped develop listeners' metacognition. Ahmadi et al. (2014) conducted another study and found no significant increases in listening performance after strategy teaching, despite positive results on the post-test listening scores of the experimental group. The researchers did not use any additional awareness-raising tools, and their instructional approach to metacognitive strategies was not as effective as Chen's.

In comparison with other studies, Chen's use of reflective journals and the addition of awareness-raising techniques have shown to be effective in increasing listening confidence and taking control of listening experiences. Selamat and Sidhu's (2013) study revealed that metacognitive strategy education can help Malaysian tertiary students improve their listening skills, regardless of gender disparities or learner types. Zarrabi (2017) also found that training can benefit all types of EFL learners, irrespective of whether they are auditory, kinaesthetic, tactile, or visual. Coşkun (2010) and Taghizadeh and Gholamy Saleh (2016) also found that the implementation of listening checklists can be an effective tool in developing listening skills. Therefore, it is evident that awareness-raising techniques, reflective journals, and the implementation of listening checklists can help develop listening skills and improve the confidence of EFL learners.

4.4 Research using eclectic approaches

This subsection presents an examination of various approaches that blend instructional methods and strategies discussed earlier. The Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA) and the strategies employed in its implementation are evaluated by the authors. The studies involve undergraduate students classified with lower intermediate (B1) to higher intermediate (B2) listening capacity and who speak English as a second language. The studies include Birjandi and Rahimi (2012), Malik et al. (2013), Rahimirad (2014), and Taguchi (2017). The primary objective of these studies is to enhance the metacognitive skills and listening comprehension performance of EFL learners.

In Birjandi and Rahimi's (2012) and Taguchi's (2017) studies, the direct instruction method was used. The selected strategies were demonstrated and explained to the students

before using them in text reconstruction listening tasks during training. Rahimirad (2014) adopted a different approach by focusing on one metacognitive strategy in each training session, followed by implementation using the MPS. The results of the studies indicated a significant improvement in listening comprehension skills of EFL learners in the experimental groups in Birjandi and Rahimi's (2012) and Rahimirad's (2014) studies. The experimental group outperformed the control group in these studies. However, in Taguchi's (2017) study, while both experimental and control groups improved their listening performance, there was no significant difference in post-test listening outcomes. This may have been due to the relatively short duration of metacognitive training in Taguchi's study.

Malik et al. (2013) conducted an ESL study in Malaysia, where a list of metacognitive methods, their descriptions, and a listening checklist were provided to assist listeners in planning, monitoring, and assessing their listening process. The experimental group received detailed explanations of the methods and how and when to use them. In contrast, the control group received no strategy description or listening checklist. Although the experimental group used significantly more planning and monitoring strategies than the control group, there was no significant difference in post-treatment listening scores between the experimental and control groups. The authors suggest that the absence of beneficial results was due to insufficient training.

In summary, the studies reveal that the use of CALLA and a combination of strategies are effective in enhancing EFL learners' metacognitive skills and listening comprehension performance. However, the duration of training and the specific methods

used in instruction play a crucial role in the effectiveness of the results (Birjandi & Rahimi, 2012; Malik et al., 2013; Rahimirad, 2014; Taguchi, 2017).

4.5 Research on the Effects of Metacognitive Strategy Instruction on Metacognitive Awareness in L2 Listening

This section aims to review the literature related to metacognitive awareness, which is one of the dependent variables in the upcoming study. The importance of metacognitive awareness for effective listening is emphasized as it impacts the control listeners have over their thought processes while listening (Goh, 2008).

Furthermore, research has shown that metacognitive awareness significantly affects L2 listening comprehension performance, as individuals with stronger metacognitive awareness have better control over their listening processes and are more capable of planning, monitoring, and analysing their listening (Vandergrift and Goh, 2012). However, since metacognitive awareness is not directly observable, verbal reports such as self-reports, journals, and think-alouds have been used to elicit data on listeners' metacognitive awareness (Cohen, 1996). Immediate and delayed retrospective verbalizations, group discussions, and questionnaires have been employed to assess metacognitive awareness in the context of L2 listening (Goh and Kaur, 2013). One standardized measurement tool that has been developed to evaluate L2 listeners' metacognitive awareness is the Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ) (Vandergrift et al., 2006). The MALQ assesses metacognitive awareness in five areas, including problem-solving, planning and evaluation, mental translation, person knowledge, and directed attention. The development

of the MALQ has been considered a significant step forward in advancing the study of L2 listening metacognition. Moreover, it has served as a precursor to the development of the Janusik-Keaton Metacognitive Listening Strategies Instrument for L1 listening (Janusik and Keaton, 2011, 2015).

Researchers have found the MALQ to be a reliable tool to assess the relationship between metacognitive awareness and listening performance. Vandergrift et al. (2006) reported a positive correlation between MALQ scores and listening test results and attributed 13% of the variance in L2 listening performance to metacognitive awareness. Two subsequent studies using the MALQ found that metacognitive knowledge was responsible for a variance of 22% and between 13% and 15% in listening performance in Chinese ESL and Chinese EFL learners, respectively (Goh and Hu, 2013; Zeng and Goh, 2015). Given the significance of metacognitive awareness in L2 listening, the following sub-sections will examine studies that investigate the impact of metacognitive strategy instruction on metacognitive awareness, as measured by retrospective verbalizations (Sub-section 4.5.1) and the MALQ (Sub-section 4.5.2).

4.5.1 Metacognitive awareness measured by retrospective verbalisations

Various methods have been employed by researchers to teach and measure metacognitive awareness in listening, including immediate and delayed retrospective verbalizations, think-alouds, listening diaries, interviews, and group discussions. Goh (1997, 1999) conducted one of the earliest studies on metacognitive awareness in ESL students in Singapore and found that guiding questions for reflection can enhance learners'

listening awareness. The study participants displayed a high level of metacognitive awareness, as evidenced by their listening diaries, in which they verbalized their thought processes in listening, reflected on their listening experiences, described potential measures to improve listening, and discussed actions taken to improve listening outside of the classroom. As a result, retrospective verbalizations can serve not only as a research tool but also as a teaching tool to develop listeners' metacognitive awareness.

Goh and Taib (2006) further employed retrospective verbalization to increase the metacognitive awareness of young ESL listeners. They incorporated guided self-reflection and group discussions led by the teacher after each listening session. The group discussions provided insight into other listeners' mental processes, which helped learners become aware of other listeners' methods and evaluate whether and how those strategies might be effective in their own listening situations. The researchers found that young learners were able to identify and describe many aspects of task knowledge that affect their listening comprehension based on their self-reports. They reported being more aware of the text, task, environment, speaker, and listener after receiving instruction. However, their reported strategy use was primarily limited to test-taking strategies. Therefore, in addition to individual reflections and group discussions, explicit strategy instruction is needed to develop greater metacognitive awareness across a variety of listening task types.

Subsequent exploratory studies on metacognitive awareness by Goh and Kaur (2013) and Kaur (2014) supported Goh and Taib's (2006) findings. Both studies used listening diaries to collect data on metacognitive awareness. The investigations discovered that both good and less proficient young listeners used a restricted variety of strategies,

even when excellent task and technique knowledge was reported. These strategies were limited to test-taking strategies and did not ensure successful listening comprehension across a range of listening tasks. Therefore, the researchers advocated for specific education to help students develop a deeper understanding of listening.

To summarize, retrospective verbalization is a useful tool for increasing metacognitive awareness. However, the strategies learned through this method are primarily limited to what is typically done in class- answering exam questions. Therefore, combining retrospective verbalizations with explicit training that incorporates strategy modelling and process-based practice is a more effective and comprehensive approach to developing listeners' processing skills.

4.5.2 Metacognitive awareness measured by means of the Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ)

Subsequent research on L2 listening, which investigated the impact of instruction on metacognitive awareness, has tended to explicitly teach metacognitive strategies using either embedded or direct approaches. The studies reviewed in this section responded to the call for explicit strategy instruction and used the Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ) to assess listeners' metacognitive awareness. Although the MALQ provides precise and standardized data, its scope is smaller than that of other introspective approaches such as think-alouds, interviews or listening diaries. However, it can be used as a teaching and research tool, and its five factors, namely, problem-solving, planning and evaluation, mental translation, person knowledge, and directed attention, are used to measure L2 listeners' metacognitive awareness (see Table 2).

Table 2. MALQ elements to measure L2 listeners' metacognitive awareness (Vandergrift et al., 2006)

MALQ factors	Description
Problem-Solving	Strategies for making and monitoring judgments while listening
Planning and Evaluation	Strategies for preparing for listening and assessing the outcomes of those efforts
Mental Translation	Unwanted listening tactics that assist listeners in translating what they hear into their native language
Person Knowledge	Listeners' perception of the difficulty of the listening assignment and their own listening abilities
Directed Attention	Strategies for remaining focused on the listening task

Numerous studies have used pre- and post-test research designs to explore the impact of metacognitive strategy instruction on the development of metacognitive awareness in L2 listeners in EFL environments in Iran and Taiwan. The results of these studies for lower intermediate to higher intermediate L2 learners showed a mixed impact on overall development and individual MALQ variables, similar to what was reported for listening comprehension performance. Most of these studies utilized Vandergrift's educational sequence and dialogic exchanges to prompt introspection of the listening process, except for one study that used direct strategy training. Among these studies, Vandergrift and Tafaghodtari (2010) and Bozorgian (2014) found significant improvements in metacognitive awareness and listening comprehension performance.

However, Bozorgian (2014) also found that metacognitive awareness decreased after treatment. To investigate variations in introspective approaches, Bozorgian and Alamdari (2017) established two intervention groups that received metacognitive teaching based on the pedagogical sequence of the MPS instructional method. One group focused on solo listening reflections, while the other group emphasized dialogic interactions. The study found that both treatment groups had significant increases in metacognitive

awareness. Studies have also explored the impact of metacognitive education on listening awareness from various perspectives, including learner and gender disparities. Some studies have found that learner variations can influence the development of listening awareness, while others observed no difference between male and female listeners after metacognitive teaching. Explicit strategy education has also been shown to lead to increased metacognitive awareness. However, not all types of metacognitive education were successful in improving listeners' awareness, as shown in Chen and Tseng's (2017) study. Despite conflicting results on the development of MALQ factors, planning and assessment, problem solving, and mental translation were indicated to have changed significantly. The rise in mental translation was likely attributable to participants' improved vocabulary range and ability to identify words.

4.6 The connection between L2 Listening Comprehension Performance and Metacognitive Awareness

To comprehend spoken language successfully, listeners need to engage in active planning, assessment, identification, and problem-solving. It is unclear to what extent mental translation plays a role in this process. Vandergrift and Tafaghodtari (2010) found that students may interpret items in the Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ) differently than intended, indicating a need for interview data to assess changes in mental translation. Baleghizadeh and Rahimi (2011), Tavakoli, Shahraki and Rezazadeh (2012), Goh and Hu (2013), and Li (2013) have also investigated the importance of the five characteristics measured by the MALQ in relation to listening skills.

Goh and Hu (2013) discovered that person knowledge and problem-solving were significant predictors of listening performance, accounting for 22% of the variance in learners' listening skills. Person knowledge refers to individuals' knowledge about others, while problem-solving ability enables individuals to solve complex problems encountered during the listening process. Badri and Aziz (2016) found a moderate positive association between metacognitive awareness and language proficiency among 280 Malaysian ESL students. Problem-solving and planning and assessment were the two most frequently used methods among the five MALQ components, with Malaysian listeners typically using a translation approach to translate important concepts.

Cognitive methods deal with how listeners utilize inference and past knowledge to estimate and predict words and content, while metacognitive strategies deal with how listeners monitor and evaluate what they are hearing. Mental translation, planning, and evaluation were not significant predictors of listening performance in Goh and Hu's (2013) study of ESL students. Tavakoli, Shahraki and Rezazadeh (2012) study of Iranian EFL students found that directed attention, problem-solving, and planning and evaluation had a strong positive correlation with listening performance, while mental translation showed a strong negative correlation. Person knowledge showed no correlation. Both studies suggest that in order for problem-solving strategies to be effective, listeners must be able to control internal and external interference.

Finally, Zhang and Goh's (2006) study highlights the interdependence and reciprocal link between perceived strategy use and strategy understanding.

5. Teaching models for Listening Comprehension including metacognitive strategies

In recent years, efforts have been made to integrate comprehensive listening teaching into foreign and second language education programs gradually (Devine, 1978; Brown, 1987; Dunkel, 1999). However, the methodological approaches generally used have continued to be, in many cases, influenced by the teaching methodologies of reading and writing, and by the traditional behavioural tasks of listening and repetition (Goh, 2008).

Thanks to the advent of developments in linguistic theories and cognitive psychology, new teaching approaches have emerged seeking to empower students to make effective use of language in real communication situations. It is perhaps due to this new interest from teachers and researchers that traditional approaches to teaching comprehensive listening in an L2, centred on the teacher and based on mechanical repetition exercises, have gradually given way to methodological proposals more focused on the student and the development of listening comprehension processes (Vandergrift, 2007; Goh, 2008).

The strategies-focused teaching models described below are based on the concept of metacognition and constitute paths that the teacher can follow to help the student develop metacognitive knowledge and awareness about their learning processes. The models are applied both to the teaching of comprehensive listening and to other L2 competencies (Chamot, 2005).

5.1 Chamot's model (1994)

Chamot (1994) proposes a teaching model that integrates four metacognitive processes: planning, monitoring, evaluation and problem solving. In this model, strategies are not taught sequentially but the teacher selects the most appropriate ones to help students to solve difficulties at a certain point in the task they are developing. An example of an application would be teaching monitoring strategies to help students who seem to have stuck at one point in a listening task.

The model can work as a permanent support activity carried out by the teacher to help students overcome specific problems on a listening task. However, the lack of sequentiality and a structure for integrating the class task makes it an implausible choice.

5.2 Anderson's model (2002)

The second model, proposed by Anderson (2002), is made up by five processes that interact with each other, and that include preparing and planning for learning, selecting and using learning strategies, monitoring strategy use, orchestrating various strategies, and evaluating strategy use and learning. With the explicit or implicit teaching of these strategies, the teacher helps the student to regulate and control their learning processes. Anderson (2002) suggests that usually teachers model strategies in front of students to help them become aware of their learning processes.

This model includes, unlike the previous one, the sequenced instruction of strategies that allows the student to combine or orchestrate the strategies, and since then, modelling has emerged as an effective instructional means for teaching strategies.

However, and like its predecessor, no means or tools are listed here that would allow the practice of strategies outside the classroom.

5.3 NCRLC's Model (2003)

The National Capital Language Resource Center, NCLRC (2003) presents a metacognitive teaching model in which the problem-solving goals expressed by students are prioritized. As a support framework for the realization of these goals, there are the strategies of planning, monitoring, regulation of learning and evaluation of the strategies used. This model incorporates a group of task-based learning strategies, which reinforce metacognitive strategies and include using what is known, using imagination, using organizational skills, and using various resources.

5.4 Vandergrift's model (2004)

The fourth model, developed by Vandergrift (2004), consists of a sequenced teaching cycle of metacognitive strategies for the development of metacognitive awareness of the processes involved in comprehensive listening in an L2. The model is based on four metacognitive processes: planning, monitoring, evaluation and problem solving, which, as will be seen later, are taught by following a cycle of steps that are developed during a listening task.

The model guides the student step by step, and in a cyclical way, using the four groups of metacognitive strategies. However, its constant use can become repetitive and monotonous for students.

5.5 Rubin's model (2005)

Rubin (2005), in his profile of the expert learner, proposes a model in which the students' self-control mechanism, made up of the metacognitive strategies of planning, monitoring, evaluation, identification/solution of problems and implementation, interacts with the students' knowledge and beliefs to help them achieve their learning goals and perform specific tasks.

5.6 Goh's model (2008)

Goh (2008) proposes a model based on aspects of metacognition such as metacognitive knowledge and metacognitive strategies for planning, monitoring and evaluation. Furthermore, the model is supported by a socio-cognitive framework that highlights the affective and cognitive benefits of collaborative work in which students explore ways of learning together.

Goh proposes that the learning activities that are implemented in class seek in students a development of a better knowledge about the internal and external factors that influence their comprehensive listening processes. These activities should also help students use strategies that allow them to control and direct these processes. The model integrates two types of teaching strategies: 1) the use of diaries in which the students reflect on their comprehensive listening processes, and 2) the implementation of activities that allow the student to systematically use strategies to achieve comprehension of the text.

All the models mentioned so far aim to empower the L2 student with metacognitive strategies that allow them to develop awareness of their learning processes. However, these

methodological proposals lack direct allusions to innovations in listening materials and means that allow the student to practice comprehensive listening strategies autonomously, outside the classroom.

The metacognitive teaching models presented in this section have marked a clear route to follow for the integration of the teaching of metacognitive strategies in the regular teaching and learning tasks of comprehensive listening in an L2.

6. Conclusion

So far, the concepts of metacognitive teaching and metacognitive listening strategies have been defined. They are based on these conceptualisations that some metacognitive teaching models have been developed attempting to seek to empower the students of an L2 with the strategies that allow them to improve their comprehensive listening. Metacognitive teaching and metacognitive listening strategies have gained a lot of attention in the field of second language acquisition in recent years. This is due to the recognition of the crucial role that metacognition plays in language learning and the need to equip L2 students with the skills and strategies necessary to process spoken language effectively.

Metacognitive teaching models have been developed based on these conceptualizations to empower L2 students with the strategies that allow them to improve their comprehensive listening. These models aim to promote learner autonomy and to encourage L2 learners to take an active role in their own listening development.

We have presented and compared some of these models and have seen some differences and innovations that will be integrated into the model designed for the present research work. In the same way, the cognitive processes involved in listening have been described in this chapter, as well as how the cognitive viewpoint of skill learning informs L2 listening training. The cognitive processes involved in listening are complex and multifaceted. Listening comprehension requires not only the ability to decode the linguistic input, but also the ability to attend to, understand and retain the meaning of the spoken language. This involves the use of a range of cognitive processes, including attention, perception, memory and higher-order thinking skills such as problem-solving, analysis and evaluation.

The cognitive viewpoint of skill learning provides a useful framework for understanding the learning and development of L2 listening skills. According to this viewpoint, L2 listening skills are not innate, but are developed and refined through deliberate practice and experience. To develop listening skills, L2 learners need to engage in activities that challenge their cognitive abilities and allow them to build on their existing knowledge and experience.

Therefore, it is important to provide L2 learners with a rich learning environment that includes opportunities for active listening, interaction and reflection. This can be done through the use of authentic materials, task-based activities and meaningful feedback, among other things. Additionally, L2 learners can be encouraged to engage in self-reflection and self-evaluation to enhance their metacognitive awareness and to support their continued growth and development as listeners.

In conclusion, the cognitive viewpoint of skill learning informs L2 listening training by highlighting the importance of providing learners with opportunities to engage in deliberate and meaningful listening practice, and to reflect on their own learning processes. This can help to develop the cognitive processes involved in listening and to build a solid foundation of listening skills that can be drawn upon in real-life situations.

The teaching approaches used to teach metacognitive processes reflect these impacts. The outcomes of L2 listening research, both in terms of listening comprehension performance and metacognitive awareness, were mixed. These approaches play a critical role in shaping the outcomes of L2 listening research. By focusing on the development of metacognitive skills, these approaches aim to empower L2 learners with the strategies and skills they need to engage in the listening process actively and to improve their comprehension.

The teaching approaches used to teach metacognitive processes can have a significant impact on the outcomes of L2 listening research. By focusing on the development of metacognitive skills, these approaches can help to empower L2 learners with the strategies and skills they need to actively engage in the listening process and to improve their comprehension. Further research is needed to fully understand the impacts of different teaching approaches on L2 listening skills. Overall, the outcomes of L2 listening research suggest that the teaching of metacognitive strategies can have a positive impact on L2 listening skills, particularly when combined with other effective teaching approaches such as task-based language teaching. However, it is important to note that the

effectiveness of these approaches may vary depending on the context, the learner population and other factors.

The following chapter will describe how the current study was conducted, including the research design, research tools, data collecting, and quantitative and qualitative data analysis.

Chapter 5

Methodology, findings and discussion

1. Introduction

We presented the theoretical framework for listening and metacognitive methods in the previous chapter because these are the notions that underpin the current investigation. The research questions will be presented in this chapter. We will also consider here the academic research, research techniques, research paradigms and inquiry strategies. The type of study, who the participants are, and the ethical implications for protecting their privacy will also be presented in this chapter. Finally, the data collection instruments, data collection instrument design, application and analysis, and the intervention type produced will be included.

This research was conducted during the second half of 2022 in seventeen different primary schools in Spain. Participants in the present study consisted of 1038 primary students who were between ten and thirteen years old belonging to different schools which were selected in Andalusia (Spain) according to different criteria such as level of proficiency in EFL, availability or nearby location.

A group of Spanish-speaking ESL learners (N=1038) participated in a study that aimed to explore the relationship between listening strategies and listening comprehension. The study utilized a listening comprehension test that consisted of three videos followed by multiple choice, fill-in-the-gaps, ordering and matching questions. Additionally, participants were asked to complete a Likert-scale questionnaire that consisted of twenty-

one items relating to the use of cognitive, metacognitive and socioaffective strategies. The purpose of the questionnaire was to prompt participants to reflect on the strategies they used while completing the listening comprehension test. The participants were randomly assigned to one of two groups: control and experimental. The control group was presented with native English videos and a corresponding test, while the experimental group was presented with EIL videos and subsequent questions. The videos in both groups were authentic materials featuring native speakers of English. The collected data were subjected to various statistical analyses, including factor analysis, multiple regression and t-tests, to identify the strategies used by the participants and to explain the relationship between strategy use and listening comprehension.

2. Aims and research questions

The aim of the present study is to establish whether there is a correlation between EFL learners' listening comprehension performance and metacognitive awareness in listening. The research addresses the following questions:

1. What is EFL learners' level of metacognitive listening strategies awareness?
2. Is there a correlation between EFL learners' level of metacognitive listening strategies and listening comprehension test results?
3. Is there a correlation between EFL learners' level of metacognitive listening strategies and listening comprehension test results considering the language employed in the videos (ENL vs. EIL)?

4. Is there a correlation between EFL learners' level of metacognitive listening strategies awareness and sex?
5. Is there a correlation between EFL learners' level of metacognitive listening strategies awareness and age?

The hypothesis is that learners with a higher level of listening metacognitive awareness will do better in the listening comprehension test. They are more conscious of monitoring inferences through problem solving, as well as planning and evaluating their own effort when they have a higher level of metacognitive listening awareness. This also entails a better awareness of what should be avoided when listening, a more accurate sense of the difficulty of a task, and a greater ability to focus and sustain focus on the work despite potential distractions.

3. Research design

Comprehending research principles is essential to understand research methodology. Generally, research begins by identifying a problem or issue that needs investigation for a solution (Fraenkel, Wallen & Hyun, 2012). In the field of education, teachers observe difficulties related to teaching and learning in the classroom. However, they often fail to conduct a systematic analysis of the facts surrounding the issues (Holmes, 1986, pp.3-4). Holmes categorizes research into two types: informal and academic. The former is conducted by teachers with little understanding of the research process or data organization, while the latter is a structured technique that follows a path. Teachers play a vital role in finding solutions to teaching foreign languages. They need to act as researchers

and reflect on their roles in the teaching and learning process to identify the most appropriate research for their classroom needs (Allwright & Bailey, 1992). To design an effective research plan, researchers must consider the philosophy, inquiry tactics and methods underlying the study (Creswell, 2009). Research is defined by Hatch and Farhady (1982) as “a systematic strategy to obtaining answers to problems” (p.3) and by Fraenkel, Wallen & Hyun (2012) as “a careful, systematic, patient study and investigation in some field of knowledge” (p.27). This study focuses on developing foreign language listening skills. The researcher must consider different philosophical worldviews, such as post-positive, social-construction, advocacy-participatory and pragmatic worldviews, and use qualitative, quantitative, or mixed methods methodologies. The inquiry tactics used will depend on the chosen methodology (O’Leary, 2004; Ary et al., 2010). Philosophical assumptions are categorized as positive and post-positive or post-modernist by other authors (O’Leary, 2004; Ary et al., 2010). The diagram below, adapted from O’Leary (2004), provides an overview of the research design’s philosophy assumptions and research techniques.

Table 3. Overview of the research design’s assumptions (O’Leary, 2004, p.85)

Paradigm	Positivism	Post-Positivism
Goal	Describe what we experience through observation and measurement in order to predict and control the forces that surround us.	The world may not be ‘knowable’. They see the world as infinitely complex and open to interpretation.
Nature of Research	Purely scientific endeavour that needs to follow set rules and procedures.	Reflexive research demands that understandings of the

		scientific endeavour begin to shift.
Main Characteristics	Empirical, reductionist	Intuitive, holistic, subjective
Methodology	Scientific method, hypothesis-driven, deductive, reliable, valid, reproducible, objective, generalizable	Inductive, dependable, auditable, subjective, idiographic, intuitive, Ethnomethodology, phenomenology, ethnography, action research
Research Method	Quantitative	Qualitative
Methods	Large-scale, generally surveying	Small-scale, interviewing, observation, document analysis
Data type	Quantitative	Quantitative
Analysis	Analysis	Thematic exploration

In educational research, there are two main research models: quantitative and qualitative. Recently, mixed methods research has emerged as a new methodology that combines both approaches, promising a more comprehensive understanding of research problems (Ary et al., 2010).

To determine the appropriate research approach for this study, we refer to Dawson's (2002) distinction between qualitative and quantitative research. Qualitative research aims to elicit detailed responses from participants by analysing attitudes, behaviour and experiences using methods like interviews or focus groups. Quantitative research, on the other hand, generates statistics through large-scale survey research, using methods such as questionnaires or structured interviews.

Given the study's focus on exploring the different metacognitive listening strategies employed by primary school students in Spain for learning English as a Foreign Language,

a predominantly quantitative research approach would be the most suitable research method. Data collection would be based on a specially designed listening test and the use of MALQ after the listening test.

This section has provided an overview of the definition of research, educational research, paradigm assumptions, research methodologies and methodological approaches used to develop the most appropriate plan for the research setting.

4. Type of study

According to O'Leary (2004, p.10), there are several methodological approaches used to gather and analyse data in quantitative research. These include the scientific method, ethnography, phenomenology, ethnomethodology, and action research. Each approach has its own unique characteristics and goals.

Denscombe (2007) provides a detailed overview of these methodological techniques and offers a checklist to help researchers select the appropriate method for their study. After considering the questions posed in the checklist, the most appropriate methodological technique for this study is action research, which is a participatory and cyclical type of research that aims to connect action and knowledge.

It is important to note that the selection of a methodological approach for a study should be based on the research questions, objectives, and context. A thorough understanding of the available methodological techniques and their strengths and weaknesses is crucial for selecting the appropriate approach. By choosing the right approach, researchers can improve the accuracy and relevance of their findings and make

a more significant contribution to their field. Denscombe's (2007) checklist, presented in Table 4, was useful in deciding on action research as the most suitable method for this study.

Table 4. Checklist for action research. Based on Denscombe (2007, p.132)

When undertaking action-research you should feel confident about answering “yes” to the following questions:

1. Does the research project address a concrete issue or practical problem?
 2. Is there participation by the practitioner in all stages of the research project?
 3. Have the grounds for the partnerships between practitioner and any outside expert been explicitly negotiated and agreed?
 4. Is the research part of a continuous cycle of development (rather than a one-off project)?
 5. Is there a clear view of how the research findings will feed back directly into practice?
 6. Is it clear what kind of action research is being used: “technical”, “practical” or “emancipatory”?
 7. Has insider knowledge been acknowledged as having disadvantages as well as advantages for the research?
 8. Is the research sufficiently small-scale to be combined with a routine workload?
 9. Have ethical matters been taken into consideration?
-

The methodology known as action research allows participants to reflect on their educational or social practices, leading to improvements in rationality and justice. This approach involves the detailed evaluation of the effects of small-scale interventions on the real world. There are several different approaches to action research, including practical, collaborative, critical, and participatory. The process involves reflective cycles that include planning, acting, observing the process and consequences of the change, reflecting on these processes and consequences, and then re-planning, acting, and observing.

The current study aims to determine the extent to which elementary students adopt various tactics by reviewing the results of the Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire

(MALQ) and listening tests submitted by pupils. The MALQ is a reliable tool used to measure the use of metacognitive strategies by learners when listening. Many studies have investigated the effectiveness of metacognitive strategy training on the listening performance of novice and intermediate level EFL learners.

Ratebi and Amirian (2013) found that Iranian students lack sufficient understanding of planning-evaluation and person knowledge categories and require special teaching to build strategy awareness. Their study also discovered that more skilled listeners used metacognitive methods more frequently than less skilled listeners. Bozorgian (2012) used a strategy-based approach of advance organization, directed attention, selective attention, and self-management to improve listeners' comprehension of IELTS listening texts. Similarly, Coşkun (2010) reported that metacognitive listening strategy training improved the listening performance of a group of novice preparatory school students at a Turkish university.

It is important to note that the research design chosen can impact the methodological approach used to gather and analyse data. The MALQ is a good tool for measuring the use of metacognitive strategies by learners when listening. Furthermore, the current study reviews various studies that have been conducted in other contexts related to the research issue.

The findings of the study indicate that providing metacognitive strategy training can significantly enhance L2 listening comprehension and facilitate overall improvement in L2 listening skills. This research employed a training program that utilized Vandergift's (1997) strategy training phases, the CALLA model, and the Metacognitive Awareness

Listening Questionnaire (MALQ) integrated into the listening course book. The results indicated that this training program had a positive effect on the listening performance of EFL students.

In a similar vein, Janusik (2011) examined the usefulness of the metacognitive approach in enhancing the listening skills of second language learners. This author employed the revised and adapted Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ-R) to assess the effectiveness of this approach. The preliminary results showed that the MALQ-R was a suitable tool to measure the impact of metacognitive training on L2 listening skills. However, Janusik noted that the MALQ might require some modifications, as it can be used to measure two distinct but related phenomena.

Another study by Rodríguez and Rias (2008) aimed to develop effective strategies for enhancing the learning experience of intermediate level EFL students. The researchers used “A Journey to Britannia”, a software program designed to promote individual and collaborative learning among students. The program was based on constructivism and cognitive theory and it integrated pedagogical and didactic principles to enhance the educational potential of the interactive game. The authors highlighted the importance of understanding oral texts, using learning strategies, and gaining knowledge of a culture’s elements and products, such as legends, for effective language learning. Rodríguez and Rias (2008) piloted the game with a group of seventeen intermediate-level English students at university and contributed to technological improvements. The same number of students experimented with the enhanced version of the game the following semester. The authors

concluded that the program had a positive impact on the development of their students' listening skills.

Overall, the studies reviewed above indicate that metacognitive strategy training can significantly enhance L2 listening comprehension and improve overall L2 listening skills. The research suggests that providing opportunities for learners to engage in critical thinking activities can also be effective in improving listening skills. The Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ) has proven to be a reliable tool for measuring the use of metacognitive strategies by learners when listening. Additionally, the use of technological tools such as interactive gaming and hypermedia-based methods can be beneficial for promoting independent learning and facilitating second-language acquisition. These findings provide valuable insights for educators and language learners interested in improving their listening skills.

5. Participants and ethical considerations

The data for the present study were gathered from 43 groups of 5th and 6th year of primary school, gathering a total of 1038 (n) Spanish EFL primary students selected from seventeen different schools in the Andalusian region (Spain). The learners were male and female between ten and thirteen years of age. Most of them were native speakers of Spanish. These primary students were selected as participants of this study because they are at the last level of primary education; in it, they need to be relatively competent in English, particularly in listening skills, if compared to lower levels. They were also selected to ensure that they would be able to cope with the listening test designed and able to

understand the MALQ questions. Spanish primary education students are limited to three hours learning English at schools in a week. They are not commonly exposed to English outside the classroom, so the researcher applied the designed listening comprehension test to identify the learners' listening proficiency levels; data about school grades on the English subject were also collected from the teachers.

Table 5 includes the descriptive statistics for the students' class; as can be observed, out of a total of 1038 students, 47.2% were in the 5th year of primary education whereas 52.8% were in the 6th year. Out of these 1038 students, 56.1 % were assigned to the control group, who were exposed to native English videos and exercises, whereas 43.9% were classed in the experimental group; in this latter case, these students listened to English as an International Language videos and exercises, as can be seen in Table 6.

Table 5. Students' class

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	5th	490	47.2	47.2	47.2
	6th	548	52.8	52.8	100
	Total	1038	100	100	

Table 6. Group type

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Control group	582	56.1	56.1	56.1
	Experimental group	456	43.9	43.9	100
	Total	1038	100	100	

Concerning the descriptive statistics related to age and sex, 26.7% were 10-year-old students, 49.2% were 11-year-old students, 22.4% were 12-year-old students and only

1.7% were 13-year-old students. This last group was formed by students who were in the 6th year of primary education and had not been naturally promoted to the following course due to some recession in their learning; therefore, it is not a numerous group, as can be appreciated in Table 7.

If we pay attention to Table 8, we can also grasp that out of 1038 students, 46.7% were female whereas 53.3% were male. This distribution of sexes is just made by schools at the beginning of the school year and administrations try to make an equal distribution of boys and girls in the different classes and groups.

Table 7. Age

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	10	277	26.7	26.7	26.7
	11	511	49.2	49.2	75.9
	12	232	22.4	22.4	98.3
	13	18	1.7	1.7	100
	Total	1038	100	100	

Table 8. Sex

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Female	485	46.7	46.7	46.7
	Male	553	53.3	53.3	100
	Total	1038	100	100	

Concerning the academic development of students, 81 out of 1038 were made to repeat one academic year. As can be seen in Table 9, 7.8% of students were repeating the year or had repeated course in the past. This is not a significant cipher, but it will be

analysed if this condition affects their development in the test or their use of metacognitive listening strategies.

Table 9. Demographic question 1. Did you repeat any school year?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	NO	957	92.2	92.2	92.2
	YES	81	7.8	7.8	100
	Total	1038	100	100	

After having described all the socio-demographic data of the sample, it is important to take into consideration that in a quantitative study, authors such as Ary et al. (2010) outlined certain ethical factors to keep in mind. These are the ethical considerations:

- Kind of information gathered: researchers are required to report any evidence gathered from their findings.
- Anonymity and confidentiality should govern the researcher’s contact with participants. Individuals are not identifiable unless it is essential.
- Researchers can use fictitious names or codes.
- Reciprocity: the researcher would return something to the study participants. A written report, advice or support in other research projects are some examples of reciprocity recommendations.
- Obtaining permission to do research, particularly if minors are involved.

We took these ethical factors into account as researchers to avoid legal issues that might prevent the findings from being released.

6. Instruments

The importance of language learning strategies for young learners is a topic that has received increasing attention in recent years. While there has been considerable research on Language Learning Strategies (LLS), most studies have focused on university and high school students. Consequently, there is a need to understand how younger learners use LLS and how these strategies can help them achieve language mastery early in the language acquisition process. In this context, this section explores the significance of investigating LLS among young learners and correlating their use with gender differences. The article also highlights the importance of teachers guiding and coaching their students in the use of LLS.

In order to investigate the effectiveness of using authentic video materials in developing listening comprehension skills among young learners, a listening comprehension test was designed for this study. The test was designed for primary students at the A2 level of language proficiency and included multiple-choice, true/false, gap-filling, and ordering tasks related to the topic of food. This section will also provide some details about the test, including its design, validation and the different tasks it included. It will also explain how the test was used to assess the impact of using authentic video materials in developing listening comprehension skills among young learners.

6.1 The Importance of Language Learning Strategies for Young Learners

Over the past few decades, Language Learning Strategies (LLS) have been the focus of various studies on language acquisition (Wong & Nunan, 2011). However, recent

research has primarily examined the use of LLS among university and high school students, with limited attention paid to younger learners (Habok & Magyar, 2018). To address this gap, the present study aims to investigate the use of LLS among young ESL learners and explore gender differences in this regard. This investigation is important because it can shed light on how to facilitate early language mastery. Notably, not all learning strategies are suitable for young learners (Wong & Nunan, 2011), and learners' knowledge of appropriate LLS is critical for effective language learning and improved autonomy (Lee, 2010).

Wong and Nunan (2011) emphasized the significance of identifying learning strategies for language learners, as it helps students to use all classroom activities and enhances their cognitive awareness of learning procedures. This leads to a desire to learn, which empowers students to take control of their language learning and view it as a personal development opportunity. Consequently, students become more effective learners (Lessard-Clouston, 1997) and can assess their learning approach and efficacy through increased awareness of learning strategies (Yunus et al., 2013). Therefore, it is the teacher's responsibility to guide and coach young learners in the use of appropriate learning strategies.

6.2 Listening test

To assess the listening comprehension of primary school students, two different tests were used in this study. The first test, referred to as Listening Test A, was administered to the experimental group and utilized EIL videos as listening input. The second test,

named Listening Test B, was given to the control group and featured English as a Native Language videos as listening sources. Both tests included three tasks, which comprised multiple choice, true/false, gap filling, and ordering, designed to measure one-way listening skills. All tasks were developed for this research and evaluated by three English language teachers who are familiar with the primary students' level and attitudes. The validation report from the teachers can be found in Appendix 1. The tasks were designed for A2 level learners, in accordance with the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages and its Companion Volume (2020). The chosen topic for both tests was “food”, which is included in the Andalusian Curricular Design, as illustrated in Table 10. Although this law is no longer in force when this dissertation is being closed, in 2023, it was the one in effect at the time of the design and implementation of the research (2022).

Table 10. Andalusian legal framework for English as a Foreign Language (2015). Courtesy translation into English by the author

CONTENTS
1.5. Knowledge and understanding of common vocabulary related to personal identification, housing, home and environment; daily life activities; family and friends; work and occupations; free time, leisure and sports; travel and vacations; health and physical care; education and study; shopping and commercial activities; food and catering; transportation; language and communication; environment, climate and weather; new information and communication technologies. F.L.03.01., F.L.03.02., F.L.03.03
CRITERIA
F.L.03.01. Understand the general meaning of oral texts, clearly articulated in different media, related to topics connected to their own experience, needs and interests, being able to identify simple structures and common vocabulary, using basic strategies and their knowledge of sociocultural and sociolinguistic aspects to improve understanding.
LEARNING STANDARDS

F.L.03.01.04. The student identifies the topic of a predictable everyday conversation that takes place in their presence (e.g. in a store, on a train).

F.L.03.02.01. The student understands the essential information in short and simple conversations in which they participate. Those conversations deal with familiar topics, for example oneself, family, school, free time, description of an object or a place.

F.L.03.02.02. The student understands the main ideas of simple, well-structured presentations on topics that are familiar or of interest to them (for example music, sports, etc.), if they include images and illustrations and are spoken slowly and clearly.

F.L.03.03.01. The student understands the general meaning and distinguishes changes in the topic of TV programs or other audio-visual material within their area of interest (e.g., in which young people or well-known characters are interviewed about everyday topics); for example what they like to do in their free time; or in which information is given about leisure activities (theatre, cinema, sporting event, etc.).

The audio track of the test was taken from Ello website (<https://www.ello.org>), this site includes both native and non-native English speakers' conversations about topics of personal interest to them. This site gathers an online collection of free listening, reading and vocabulary practices for English language learning. The resources on the website are Creative Commons —teachers and students can use the audio, videos, lessons, games and quizzes for free, so the audios and videos taken for this research were under Creative Commons license—. In fact, all conversations include audio, a transcript and notes about slang phrases or unusual vocabulary.

For Listening Test A, designed for the experimental group, four videos whose speakers were not native English speakers, but EIL speakers, were used; as can be seen in table 11, for every video there is specific information on the participants, on their first language and on its duration. In fact, exercises 5, 6 and 7 were taken from the same video clip but it was divided into two sections to facilitate comprehension and to give some more time to students to complete the fill-in-the-gaps task.

Table 11. Listening A videos' description (Experimental group)

VIDEO EXERCISE	PARTICIPANTS	LANGUAGE	DURATION
EXERCISES 1 & 2	1- Lucille	French	01.22
EXERCISES 3 & 4	2- Aiste and Chris	Lithuanian and French	00.49
EXERCISE 5	1- Florencia	Spanish	00.20
EXERCISES 6 & 7	1- Florencia	Spanish	00.41

For Listening Test B, designed for the control group, four videos whose speakers were native English speakers were used; as can be seen in table 12, information on the participants, their language variety and duration of the video is included. In fact, exercises 6 and 7 were taken from the same video clip but it was divided into two sections, in order to facilitate comprehension and to give some more time to students to complete the fill-in-the-gaps task.

The selected audio and video texts had been checked by experts and they caught the students' attention and helped maintain their interest while practising their listening skills and engaging in metacognitive activities. Both tests, Listening A and B, can be found in Appendix 2, as well as QR codes and links for the videos the students listened to.

Table 12. Listening B videos' description (Control group)

VIDEO EXERCISE	PARTICIPANTS	LANGUAGE	DURATION
EXERCISES 1, 2 & 3	1- Nydja	US English	00.41
EXERCISES 4 & 5	1- Adam	US English	01.08
EXERCISE 6	2- Tom and Jess	UK English	00.30
EXERCISE 7	2- Tom and Jess	UK English	00.29

6.3 MALQ. *The Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire*

MALQ was designed to allow teachers and researchers to assess the extent to which L2 learners are aware of, and to what extent they can regulate, the processes involved in

listening comprehension. Similarly, the questionnaire can serve as an instrument for students to reflect on the use they make of metacognitive strategies while listening to texts in the L2. This questionnaire has been already validated and tested (Vandergrift et al., 2006), it focuses on strategies for listening comprehension (concentration, assessment of difficulty, level of anxiety, use of translation, etc.). The MALQ is made up of 21 questions with great psychometric properties presented on a Likert-type scale. The questions are grouped into five factors directly related to metacognitive awareness processes involved in comprehensive listening in an L2: planning and evaluation, problem solving, knowledge of the person, directed attention, and mental translation. Each one of these categories refers to each of the listening strategies according to Vandergrift et al. (2006), where the following are found:

- Planning-evaluation corresponds to preparation and self-evaluation
- Directed attention is focused on concentrating and staying on tasks
- Person knowledge refers to self-efficacy
- Mental translation refers to translating
- Problem-solving is related to inferencing and monitoring

In Vandergrift et al. (2006), these factors were identified after an exploratory factorial analysis carried out on the answers given by 966 students of French as a foreign language, and a subsequent confirmatory factorial analysis carried out on the answers of 512 students belonging to a sample different from the first. It is made up of statements with which the learner agrees to a degree ranging from 1 —totally disagree— to 6 —totally agree— (gradation is not an odd number to prevent respondents from systematically opting

for the central number), and it includes the items included in table 13 (Vandergrift and Tafaghodtari, 2010, p.497).

Table 13. Items included in MALQ. Vandergrift and Tafaghodtari (2010, p.497)

Type scale	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.
Directed attention	2. I focus harder on the text when I have trouble understanding.
Person knowledge	3. I find that listening in French is more difficult than reading, speaking, or writing in French.
Mental translation	4. I translate in my head as I listen.
Problem-solving	5. I use the words I understand to guess the meaning of the words I don't understand.
Directed attention	6. When my mind wanders, I recover my concentration right away.
Problem-solving	7. As I listen, I compare what I understand with what I know about the topic.
Person knowledge	8. I feel that listening comprehension in French is a challenge for me.
Problem-solving	9. I use my experience and knowledge to help me understand.
Planning/evaluation	10. Before listening, I think of similar texts that I may have listened to.
Mental translation	11. I translate key words as I listen.
Directed attention	12. I try to get back on track when I lose concentration.
Problem-solving	13. As I listen, I quickly adjust my interpretation if I realize that it is not correct.
Planning/evaluation	14. After listening, I think back to how I listened, and about what I might do differently next time.
Person knowledge	15. I don't feel nervous when I listen to French.
Directed attention	16. When I have difficulty understanding what I hear, I give up and stop listening.
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.
Mental translation	18. I translate word by word, as I listen.
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.
Planning/evaluation	20. As I listen, I periodically ask myself if I am satisfied with my level of comprehension.

The participants' scores for the items on the MALQ questionnaire were coded based on the Likert scale points they chose. Following this, scores were calculated for each of the five dimensions of the questionnaire as well as for the overall MALQ scale. The scores obtained for each participant for each dimension were averaged, and an overall MALQ scale was obtained by averaging each participant's scores across the five dimensions. This composite score was a measure of the students' metacognitive awareness of L2 listening, as suggested by previous studies (Vandergrift et al., 2006; Goh, 2017).

For its use in this research, the instrument did not undergo substantial changes in form or content, only the rubric and heading were adapted to suit the primary context in which it was applied. The instrument in its original version was used with students of French as a second language. Therefore, all references to French have been changed to English to suit our context. Considering the level of English of primary school students, the instrument was administered in Spanish after having been translated for better understanding (See Appendix X).

The MALQ has been successfully validated and tested in various foreign language and second language learning contexts. To pilot the administration procedure with students of English as a foreign language, the instrument was applied to 40 students in the sixth grade of two different primary schools. Difficulties encountered during piloting were noted and used to refine the logistical procedure for administering the test.

Both the experimental group and the control group answered the MALQ after having completed the listening test and the viewing of the videos. The results of the control group and the experimental group were then compared to measure the use of different metacognitive strategies during listening tasks in the foreign language depending on the type of language to which the listener is exposed: native English vs. English as an International Language.

7. Procedure

All the exercises in the listening test were presented so as to promote the fact that students make predictions based on questions/tasks in the materials (i.e. Multiple choice, True/False, matching, ordering task, information transfer, short answer, and fill in the gaps), with the researcher assisting with some vocabulary presentation before the test. During the activities, students would listen three times for repeated input to monitor, evaluate and learn to solve any problems encountered.

The application of the listening test lasted for 45 minutes in every group, approximately. As we mentioned before, both tests and exercises were validated by experts in the subject matter; in fact, some changes were made after collecting all the validation commentaries made by experts. Once it was ready, the researcher contacted two nearby schools to check the reliability of the tests. After that, both listening tests and the MALQ were applied to two groups of students (5th and 6th year), and some modifications were made after that.

After the listening test was prepared, the researcher contacted all the different schools participating by sending them a formal email explaining all the details related to the intervention including dates, duration, ethical considerations and personal data protection procedures. Once schools were determined to participate, the listening test and the MALQ were carried out in the classroom. This stage of research lasted three months and the procedure of intervention in every school was the same. First, the researcher introduced the topic of food to students, explained the dynamics of the listening test, agreed with the teacher in charge on the number of repetitions available for every exercise and carried out the listening test. After that, the MALQ was explained in Spanish and students were encouraged to answer it; to do so, the researcher read aloud and clarified every item of the questionnaire so that students had no doubts about how to answer them.

8. Results and discussion

The purpose of this section is to thoroughly analyse the statistical data collected in relation to the objectives and research questions outlined in the research proposal. This data was analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) 26.0 for MacOS. The descriptive statistics such as cumulative percentages, means and standard deviations were utilized to categorize the preferred listening strategies and to examine the differences between various demographic factors such as sex, group, age, family origin, first language, and proficiency in the listening test.

Throughout the section, the results obtained from the data analysis will be presented in an effort to address the research objectives and to evaluate the hypotheses that have

motivated this research. The descriptive statistics of the variables will include the mean, standard deviation and frequencies, as well as the percentages of responses for each item related to the use of different metacognitive listening strategies.

The second objective of this section is to present the findings and results obtained from the data analysis and to delve into a discussion of the research questions posed. The results will be presented and discussed in light of the research questions and the objectives outlined in the proposal. The findings will be used to answer the research questions, to provide insights into the role of metacognitive listening strategies in language learning and to draw conclusions about the significance of these findings in terms of the field of second language acquisition.

To check data and parametric assumptions, preliminary and exploratory analyses were conducted. The parametric assumption of normality was not met for some variables (Kolmogorof-Smirnov test $p \leq 0.05$). Hence, parametric tests were run. Specifically, descriptive analyses, ANOVAs and t-tests for mean differences.

8.1 Descriptive statistics

In this section, we will analyse the data frequency found in the statistical analysis. We will first analyse the different scores obtained by students in the exercises presented in the listening test. So far, we will not compare these results to any other categories such as age or sex, since that will be done later, in the parametric description section. In fact, we will later add all the scores in the different exercises to obtain a general score in the test that will be named as Total Listening (TL).

Exercise 1 consisted of a set of pictures that students need to circle as they listen. It was just a basic vocabulary activity used as a pre-listening exercise. As can be gathered from Table 14, 85% of the students got 3 or more points, out of 5, in this exercise. So, most students were quite accurate in the exercise and got good scores.

Table 14. Exercise 1. Listening test

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	18	1.7	1.7	1.7
	1	19	1.8	1.8	3.6
	2	116	11.2	11.2	14.7
	3	323	31.1	31.1	45.9
	4	559	53.9	53.9	99.7
	5	3	0.3	0.3	100
Total		1038	100	100	

In the case of Exercise 2, students had to decide if the sentences presented were true or false. To do so, they were required to read all the sentences carefully and to check if they had understood the vocabulary. After that, the video was played at least three times and later they selected the correct answer. By looking at Table 15, we can state that 85% of the students got 3 or more points, out of 5, in this exercise.

Table 15. Exercise 2. Listening test

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	25	2.4	2.4	2.4
	1	65	6.3	6.3	8.7
	2	145	14	14	22.6
	3	220	21.2	21.2	43.8
	4	376	36.2	36.2	80.1

5	207	19.9	19.9	99.9
Total	1038	100	100	

In Exercise 3, students needed to watch the video, and, after that, they were required to complete the text with the words from the box. The researcher included an extra word in the box to eliminate a possible random selection from the participants. By looking at Table 16, we can appreciate that 77.3% of the students got 3 or more points, out of 5, in this exercise.

Table 16. Exercise 3. Listening test

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	131	12.6	12.6	12.6
	1	197	19	19	31.6
	2	182	17.5	17.5	49.1
	3	154	14.8	14.8	64.
	4	226	21.8	21.8	85.7
	5	18	1.7	1.7	87.5
	6	130	12.5	12.5	100
Total		1038	100	100	

In the case of exercise 4, as can be seen in Table 17, 50.8% of the students got 3 or more points, out of 5, in this exercise. In fact, something similar happened in the case of exercise 5. If we pay attention to Table 18, 36.7% of students scored three whereas 31% scored four points.

Table 17. Exercise 4. Listening test

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	56	5.4	5.4	5.4
	1	157	15.1	15.1	20.5
	2	226	21.8	21.8	42.3
	3	278	26.8	26.8	69.1

4	321	30.9	30.9	100
Total	1038	100	100	

Table 18. Exercise 5. Listening test

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	40	3.9	3.9	3.9
	1	44	4.2	4.2	8.1
	2	251	24.2	24.2	32.3
	3	381	36.7	36.7	69
	4	322	31.0	31.0	100
	Total	1038	100	100	

In the case of exercise 6, by looking at Table 19, we can observe that 72.8% scored 2, 3 or 4 points. Few students obtained either 5 or 6 points in this exercise. As can be appreciated, exercise 6 was about ordering and selecting the correct answers. In this case, the exercise turned out to be somehow difficult for some students, since they were not able to decide on the correct answer. Something similar occurs in exercise 7; as can be seen in Table 20, this exercise was for both tests a fill-in-the-gaps task. Results show that 25,7% of students scored 0, 29% scored 1 or 2 points and 29.3% only scored 3 or 4 points. In this case, most students lost concentration or abandoned after not understanding the first two or three words; as will be later analysed, this loss of attention will condition the development of the exercise and their performance in it.

Table 19. Exercise 6. Listening test

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid		102	9.8	9.8	9.8
	1	173	16.7	16.7	26.5
	2	232	22.4	22.4	48.8
	3	193	18.6	18.6	67.4
	4	330	31.8	31.8	99.2

5	1	0.1	0.1	99.3
6	7	0.7	0.7	100
Total	1038	100	100	

Table 20. Exercise 7. Listening test

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	267	25.7	25.7	25.7
	1	159	15.3	15.3	41
	2	142	13.7	13.7	54.7
	3	150	14.5	14.5	69.2
	4	155	14.9	14.9	84.1
	5	93	9	9	93.1
	6	32	3.1	3.1	96.1
	7	40	3.9	3.9	100
Total		1038	100	100	

After analysing the results in the test, now we pay attention to some demographic questions to know about the environment of learners, especially, we asked them about the place of birth of their families and themselves to know if their mother tongue was Spanish or if they had grown up in a bilingual environment. As can be appreciated in Table 21, only 10.1% of students answered that their parents were born abroad. If students answered affirmatively, they were asked about the place of birth of their parents. By looking at their answers, we can see that most parents were born in African countries and their mother tongue was either Arab or French. We will later analyse if this condition can be related to a different use of metacognitive listening strategies.

Table 21. Demographic question 2. Were your parents born abroad?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	933	89.9	89.9	89.9
	Yes	105	10.1	10.1	100
Total		1038	100	100	

By looking at Table 22, we can analyse if learners were born abroad. Only 2.3% were born abroad, so this datum seems not to be significant for a broader analysis to know if this will have some effect on their use of metacognitive listening strategies.

Table 22. Demographic question 3. Were you born abroad?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	1014	97.7	97.7	97.7
	Yes	24	2.3	2.3	100
Total		1038	100	100	

Before introducing all the MALQ questions, students were asked about their preferences concerning language learning and the appeal that exercises in the English class had for them. First, we asked them about those exercises that turned out to be more difficult in English. As can be seen in Table 23, 39.2% indicated listening as the most difficult activity in class whereas 30.5% described writing exercises as those where they found more difficulties. In this sense, we will later analyse if there is a connection between their considerations and the use made of metacognitive listening strategies.

Table 23. Demographic question 4. What type of exercises do you usually find more difficult?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	Writing	317	30.5	30.5
	Reading	126	12.1	12.1
	Speaking	188	18.1	18.1
	Listening	407	39.2	39.2
	Total	1038	100	100

On the contrary, students also expressed the appeal that the different types of exercises to be done in class had for them. In this case, we asked about those they liked most. In this case, as can be seen in Table 24, 18.8% students indicated they liked most reading activities whereas 23.7% inclined for listening activities, concerning writing only

21% showed some appealing for writing whereas most students, 36.5% of them, indicated that speaking exercises were their favourite ones. Later on, we will try to analyse if there is a connection between those indicating the appeal that listening activities had for them and their development of the use of metacognitive listening strategies.

Table 24. Demographic question 5. What type of exercises do you like the most?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	Writing	218	21	21
	Reading	195	18.8	18.8
	Speaking	379	36.5	36.5
	Listening	246	23.7	23.7
	Total	1038	100	100

As a final question on this issue, students were also questioned on the general appeal that English as a subject has for them. There were 6 different options to be marked in the questionnaire, 1-2, 3-4 and 5-6, where 1-2 indicated little appreciation for the subject and 5-6 indicated that they really liked it. We have grouped the answers into 3 groups, where 1 means little like for the subject, 2 means some appealing for it, and 3 indicates they really like the subject. If we look now at Table 25, only 12.4% indicated they did not like English at all whereas 49.9% of students indicated they really liked the subject. Later, we will analyse if these results can be compared to the level shown in the use of metacognitive listening strategies.

Table 25. Demographic question 6. How much do you like learning English?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	129	12.4	12.4	12.4
	2	391	37.7	37.7	50.1
	3	518	49.9	49.9	100
	Total	1038	100	100	

Next, we will analyse the descriptive results presented for the questions belonging to the MALQ questionnaire. As has been previously mentioned, the MALQ is made up of

21 questions with great psychometric properties presented in a Likert-type scale. The questions are grouped into five factors directly related to metacognitive awareness processes involved in comprehensive listening in an L2: planning and evaluation, problem-solving, knowledge of the person, directed attention, and mental translation. To analyse them, we will group the questions into the five factors mentioned so to facilitate the description of the data.

In the first place, we will analyse the questions related to planning-evaluation, these questions were 1, 10, 14, 20 and 21. If we look at Table 26, most students (over 70%) agree somehow on the fact that they plan what they will listen. In Table 19, we can appreciate that most students (nearly 80%) agree on the fact that they focus harder when they have trouble understanding.

Table 26. MALQ. Question 1. Before I start to listen, I have a plan in my head for how I am going to listen

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	75	7.2	7.2	7.2
	Disagree	78	7.5	7.5	14.7
	Slightly disagree	139	13.4	13.4	28.1
	Slightly agree	267	25.7	25.7	53.9
	Agree	306	29.5	29.5	83.3
	Strongly agree	173	16.7	16.7	100
	Total	1038	100	100	

It is quite interesting to see that not such a great number of students agree on question 10. As can be observed in Table 27, 33.9% disagree with the fact that they think about similar texts they have listened to before listening to the audio. Only 21.4% either agree or strongly agree with this assumption, so in this sense they do not think about similar texts before listening to the audio.

Table 27. MALQ. Question 10. Before listening, I think of similar texts that I may have listened to

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	352	33.9	33.9	33.9
	Disagree	150	14.5	14.5	48.4
	Slightly disagree	155	14.9	14.9	63.3
	Slightly agree	159	15.3	15.3	78.6
	Agree	145	14	14	92.6
	Strongly agree	77	7.4	7.4	100
Total		1038	100	100	

If we look now at question 14, concerning planning-evaluation, a great number of students indicate that they agree on the fact that after listening they think back to how they listened and about what they might do differently the next time they listen to an audio. By looking at Table 28, we can see that 48.1% either slightly agree or agree with this assumption whereas only 16.1% strongly agree on it.

Table 28. MALQ. Question 14. After listening, I think back to how I listened, and about what I might do differently next time

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	120	11.6	11.6	11.6
	Disagree	95	9.2	9.2	20.7
	Slightly disagree	157	15.1	15.1	35.8
	Slightly agree	241	23.2	23.2	59.1
	Agree	258	24.9	24.9	83.9
	Strongly agree	167	16.1	16.1	100
Total		1038	100	100	

In question 21, students were asked about whether they felt satisfied as they listen. In Table 29, we can see how 36.5%% either agree or strongly agree with this assumption. In this sense, concerning evaluation, 64.4% agree somehow with the fact of feeling satisfied with the level of comprehension on the audio.

Table 29. MALQ. Question 20. As I listen, I periodically ask myself if I am satisfied with my level of comprehension

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	126	12.1	12.1	12.1
	Disagree	85	8.2	8.2	20.3
	Slightly disagree	158	15.2	15.2	35.5
	Slightly agree	290	27.9	27.9	63.5
	Agree	210	20.2	20.2	83.7
	Strongly agree	169	16.3	16.3	100
	Total	1038	100	100	

The final question related to planning-evaluation has to do with having a goal in their minds while listening. It is interesting to note that 38% either agree or strongly agree on having a goal in mind as they listen. Looking at Table 30, we can assume that nearly 75% agree somehow with this fact and they have some goals in mind as they are listening to an audio.

Table 30. MALQ. Question 21. I have a goal in mind as I listen

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	106	10.2	10.2	10.2
	Disagree	62	6	6	16.2
	Slightly disagree	94	9.1	9.1	25.2
	Slightly agree	162	15.6	15.6	40.8
	Agree	237	22.8	22.8	63.7
	Strongly agree	377	36.3	36.3	100
	Total	1038	100	100	

Next, we will analyse the problem-solving factor. To do so, we will need to analyse the answers to questions 5, 7, 9, 13, 17 and 19. With these strategies, we refer to a group of strategies used by listeners to make inferences –such as strategic guessing– and to monitoring these inferences.

The first question belonging to this category was question 5. In this case, students were questioned on using the words they were able to understand to guess the meaning of those words they were not able to understand. Looking at Table 31, we can appreciate that over 55% either agreed or strongly agreed on the fact that they try to discover the meaning of unknown words by using those words they understand.

Table 31. MALQ. Question 5. I use the words I understand to guess the meaning of the words I don't understand

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	88	8.5	8.5	8.5
	Disagree	53	5.1	5.1	13.6
	Slightly disagree	124	11.9	11.9	25.5
	Slightly agree	186	17.9	17.9	43.4
	Agree	248	23.9	23.9	67.3
	Strongly agree	339	32.7	32.7	100
Total		1038	100	100	

In question 7, students were asked if, while listening, they compared what they understood to the knowledge they had on the topic. In this case, less than 30% disagreed somehow on this whereas more than 70% marked slightly agree, agree or strongly agree on this. By looking at Table 32, we can see the answers given by students in relation to this problem-solving question.

Table 32. MALQ. Question 7. As I listen, I compare what I understand with what I know about the topic

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	85	8.2	8.2	8.2
	Disagree	80	7.7	7.7	15.9
	Slightly disagree	134	12.9	12.9	28.8
	Slightly agree	205	19.7	19.7	48.6
	Agree	255	24.6	24.6	73.1
	Strongly agree	279	26.9	26.9	100
Total		1038	100	100	

Concerning question 9, students were asked about the use they made of their experience to help themselves understand. In this case, over 42% strongly agreed on this whereas more than 43% either agreed or slightly agreed on this item.

Table 33. MALQ. Question 9. I use my experience and knowledge to help me understand

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	41	3.9	3.9	3.9
	Disagree	31	3	3	6.9
	Slightly disagree	78	7.5	7.5	14.5
	Slightly agree	171	16.5	16.5	30.9
	Agree	278	26.8	26.8	57.7
	Strongly agree	439	42.3	42.3	100
	Total	1038	100	100	

If now we pay attention to question 13, in Table 34 we can appreciate that over 44% of students strongly agreed on the fact that, as they were listening, they were adapting their interpretations if they had realized that they were not adequate. In fact, more than 37% either agreed or slightly agreed on this item as well; so most students coincided on adjusting their interpretation of an audio if they realized that it was not being correct.

Table 34. MALQ. Question 13. As I listen, I quickly adjust my interpretation if I realize that it is not correct

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	60	5.8	5.8	5.8
	Disagree	52	5.	5	10.8
	Slightly disagree	81	7.8	7.8	18.6
	Slightly agree	131	12.6	12.6	31.2
	Agree	256	24.7	24.7	55.9
	Strongly agree	458	44.1	44.1	100
	Total	1038	100	100	

On the other hand, question 17 was related to using the general idea of the text to guess the meaning of those words students do not understand. As can be appreciated in Table 35, over 50% either strongly agreed or agreed with this item. Less than 26% of the students disagreed with this assertion.

Table 35. MALQ. Question 17. I use the general idea of the text to help me guess the meaning of the words that I don't understand

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	62	6	6	6
	Disagree	67	6.5	6.5	12.4
	Slightly disagree	138	13.3	13.3	25.7
	Slightly agree	250	24.1	24.1	49.8
	Agree	267	25.7	25.7	75.5
	Strongly agree	254	24.5	24.5	100
	Total	1038	100	100	

Finally, in question 19, students were asked about the process of guessing the meaning of a word and if they checked whether the meaning guessed made some sense. If we look at Table 36, we can see that nearly 78% agreed with this assertion, whereas approximately 22% of students did not agree with this assumption.

Table 36. MALQ. Question 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

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	63	6.1	6.1	6.1
	Disagree	62	6	6	12
	Slightly disagree	105	10.1	10.1	22.2
	Slightly agree	227	21.9	21.9	44
	Agree	300	28.9	28.9	72.9
	Strongly agree	281	27.1	27.1	100
	Total	1038	100	100	

The third factor that will be analysed in the questionnaire is related to the person's own knowledge. These strategies include the listeners' judgments of the difficulty presented by L2 listening, as well as their self-efficacy in L2 listening. In this case, the questions related to this factor are 3, 8 and 15.

If we look now at question 3, we can appreciate that students were asked to show their agreement with the fact of finding listening in English more difficult than reading, speaking or writing. In this case, over 58% do not consider listening more difficult than the rest of skills.

Table 37. MALQ. Question 3. I find that listening in English is more difficult than reading, speaking, or writing in English

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	263	25.3	25.3	25.3
	Disagree	171	16.5	16.5	41.8
	Slightly disagree	172	16.6	16.6	58.4
	Slightly agree	139	13.4	13.4	71.8
	Agree	114	11	11	82.8
	Strongly agree	179	17.2	17.2	100
	Total	1038	100	100	

By looking at Table 38, we can see the results related to the question on the feeling shown by students concerning the fact that listening comprehension is a challenge for them. In this sense, over 53% agreed with this assumption whereas less than 47% disagreed with it. In this sense, about half of the students felt that listening comprehension is a kind of challenge for them.

Table 38. MALQ. Question 8. I feel that listening comprehension in English is a challenge for me

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	148	14.3	14.3	14.3
	Disagree	139	13.4	13.4	27.6

Slightly disagree	197	19	19	46.6
Slightly agree	182	17.5	17.5	64.2
Agree	171	16.5	16.5	80.6
Strongly agree	201	19.4	19.4	100
Total	1038	100	100	

The last question related to the person's self-knowledge had to do with feeling nervous when students had to listen to English. As can be gathered from Table 39, nearly 30% strongly disagreed with this assertion, whereas about 19% strongly agreed with it. We will later analyse the different variables that could affect the answers provided by students.

Table 39. MALQ. Question 15. I don't feel nervous when I listen to English

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	308	29.7	29.7	29.7
	Disagree	157	15.1	15.1	44.8
	Slightly disagree	120	11.6	11.6	56.4
	Slightly agree	138	13.3	13.3	69.7
	Agree	115	11.1	11.1	80.7
	Strongly agree	200	19.3	19.3	100
	Total	1038	100	100	

The next factor to be analysed is related to directed attention. This can be defined as the strategies that students use to maintain concentration and remain focused on listening, such as pause and repeat, when they tend to lose concentration or concentrate more intensely when facing difficulty. The questions presented in the MALQ related to this factor are 2, 6, 12 and 16. We will now analyse them in depth so as to describe the results found.

Concerning the first question regarding this factor, as we can see in Table 40, students were asked if they focused harder when they found trouble in understanding a listening text. In this case, over 88% of students agreed with this assertion, so most of them coincided on concentrating harder on the text when finding trouble to understand.

Table 40. MALQ. Question 2. I focus harder on the text when I have trouble understanding

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	28	2.7	2.7	2.7
	Disagree	26	2.5	2.5	5.2
	Slightly disagree	64	6.2	6.2	11.4
	Slightly agree	97	9.3	9.3	20.7
	Agree	257	24.8	24.8	45.5
	Strongly agree	566	54.5	54.5	100
	Total	1038	100	100	

Concerning concentration, in question 6 students were asked about recovering concentration when their minds wandered. In this question, over 64% agreed with this assumption.

Table 41. MALQ. Question 6. When my mind wanders, I recover my concentration right away

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	142	13.7	13.7	13.7
	Disagree	89	8.6	8.6	22.3
	Slightly disagree	142	13.7	13.7	35.9
	Slightly agree	208	20	20	56
	Agree	227	21.9	21.9	77.8
	Strongly agree	230	22.2	22.2	100
	Total	1038	100	100	

As can be appreciated in Table 42, students were later asked if they tried to get back on track when they lost concentration. In this case, over 70% either strongly agreed or agreed that they get back when that concentration is lost.

Table 42. MALQ. Question 12. I try to get back on track when I lose concentration

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	49	4.7	4.7	4.7
	Disagree	39	3.8	3.8	8.5
	Slightly disagree	78	7.5	7.5	16
	Slightly agree	137	13.2	13.2	29.2
	Agree	285	27.5	27.5	56.6
	Strongly agree	450	43.4	43.4	100
	Total	1038	100	100	

The last question presented in the MALQ concerning directed attention had to do with abandoning and stopping listening when students face any kind of difficulty. If we look now at Table 43, we can appreciate that nearly 60% of students strongly agreed that they lose attention and stop listening when they find difficulties. Moreover, an additional 25% either agreed or slightly agreed on this, so we can state that almost 85% of students abandon listening when they face some kind of complication.

Table 43. MALQ. Question 16. When I have difficulty understanding what I hear, I give up and stop listening

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	60	5.8	5.8	5.8
	Disagree	40	3.9	3.9	9.6
	Slightly disagree	58	5.6	5.6	15.2
	Slightly agree	108	10.4	10.4	25.6
	Agree	154	14.8	14.8	40.5
	Strongly agree	618	59.5	59.5	100
	Total	1038	100	100	

Finally, the last factor found in MALQ had to do with mental translation. In this case, as we will see in the analysis, a higher agreement on questions on the part of students is not considered as positive, since mental translation should be little employed to develop

an efficient listening comprehension. In fact, when we refer to mental translation we think of those listening strategies that students use to avoid mental translation if they want to become qualified listeners. Questions related to this factor were 4, 11 and 18.

As can be observed by analysing Table 44, almost 37% of students agreed that they translated in their heads as they were listening; on the contrary, we can say that over 63% disagreed with this assumption.

Table 44. MALQ. Question 4. I translate in my head as I listen

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	274	26.4	26.4	26.4
	Disagree	200	19.3	19.3	45.7
	Slightly disagree	182	17.5	17.5	63.2
	Slightly agree	143	13.8	13.8	77
	Agree	93	9	9	85.9
	Strongly agree	146	14.1	14.1	100
Total		1038	100	100	

In relation to question 11 (Table 45), students were asked about translating key words as they listened. In this case, over 67% did not agree with this, whereas 10.5% strongly agreed that they mentally translated some key words. We will later analyse the connection between this and their development in the listening test.

Table 45. MALQ. Question 11. I translate key words as I listen

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	277	26.7	26.7	26.7
	Disagree	235	22.6	22.6	49.3
	Slightly disagree	187	18.0	18.0	67.3
	Slightly agree	132	12.7	12.7	80.1
	Agree	98	9.4	9.4	89.5
	Strongly agree	109	10.5	10.5	100
Total		1038	100	100	

The last question related to mental translation was the one concerning translation word by word as they were listening to the audio. In this case, we can appreciate that slightly over 54% of students agree with the fact that they translate word by word while they listen. On the contrary, nearly 46% did not agree with this, so we can appreciate here that more than half of the interviewed population use word-by-word translation as they are listening.

Table 46. MALQ. Question 18. I translate word by word, as I listen

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	137	13.2	13.2	13.2
	Disagree	139	13.4	13.4	26.6
	Slightly disagree	200	19.3	19.3	45.9
	Slightly agree	188	18.1	18.1	64.0
	Agree	167	16.1	16.1	80.1
	Strongly agree	207	19.9	19.9	100
	Total	1038	100	100	

After having reviewed all the descriptive statistics and guided by preliminary analyses conducted to check data and parametric assumptions, we decided to run parametric statistical tests. In the following pages, we will analyse the relation between different variables and the use of metacognitive listening strategies.

OVERALL USE: GROUPS, SEX, COURSE, PLACE OF BIRTH

Table 47 represents the overall statistics that aimed to investigate the use of metacognitive listening strategies among a sample of participants. The study included five different categories of metacognitive listening strategies: Planning-Evaluation, Directed Attention, Person Knowledge, Mental Translation, and Problem Solving.

In terms of sample size, N = 1037 participants were included in the analysis. The minimum and maximum scores for each category of metacognitive listening strategies are provided, with Planning and Evaluation having a minimum score of 5 and a maximum

score of 30. Directed Attention had a minimum score of 4 and a maximum score of 77, while Person Knowledge had a minimum score of 3 and a maximum score of 18. Mental Translation had a minimum score of 3 and a maximum score of 62, and Problem Solving had a minimum score of 6 and a maximum score of 36.

The mean and standard deviation of each category of metacognitive listening strategies are also provided. In round numbers, the mean score for Planning and Evaluation was 19, with a standard deviation of 5. In similar terms, Directed Attention had a mean score of 19, with a standard deviation of 4.5. The mean score for Person Knowledge was of approximately 10, with a standard deviation of 3. Mental Translation had a mean score of slightly over 9.5, with a standard deviation of nearly 4.5. Finally, the mean score for Problem Solving was of about 27, with a standard deviation of almost 6.

In terms of overall use of metacognitive listening strategies, the mean score was nearly 17, with a standard deviation of over 4.5. This table provides descriptive information about the use of metacognitive listening strategies among the sample of participants and can be used to inform future studies and educational practices related to metacognitive listening strategies.

Table 47. Overall Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
PLANNING EVALUATION	1037	5	30	19.1601	5.22278
DIRECTED ATTENTION	1037	4	77	19.0357	4.49492
PERSON KNOWLEDGE	1037	3	18	10.0588	3.04969
MENTALTRANSLATION	1035	3	62	9.6396	4.35719
PROBLEM SOLVING	1036	6	36	27.0598	5.94128
OVERALL USE				16.9908	4.613172

The following data (Table 48) compares metacognitive listening strategies in two groups: the control group and the experimental group. The results are presented in terms of mean and standard deviation for several different measures.

The Total Listening measure showed a significantly higher mean score for the control group compared to the experimental group (about 20 and 18.5, respectively). This difference was found to be statistically significant, with a p-value of 0.000, which is less than 0.01. This suggests that the control group had a higher average performance in terms of total listening compared to the experimental group.

The Planning-Evaluation measure showed a higher mean score for the control group as well (nearly 19.5), but the difference was not found to be statistically significant, with a p-value of 0.131, which is greater than 0.05. This suggests that the difference between the two groups in terms of planning and evaluation strategies was not significant. On the other hand, the Directed Attention measure showed a higher mean score for the control group (almost 19.5), and this difference was found to be statistically significant, with a p-value of 0.002, which is less than 0.05. This suggests that the control group had a higher average performance in terms of directed attention compared to the experimental group.

In particular, the Person Knowledge measure showed similar mean scores for both groups (slightly over 10 both for the control group and for the experimental group), and the difference was not found to be statistically significant, with a p-value of 0.649, which is greater than 0.05. This suggests that there was no significant difference between the two groups in terms of personal knowledge.

Likewise, the Mental Translation measure showed a similar mean score for both groups (nearly 9.5 for the control group and almost 10 for the experimental group), but the difference was found to be close to being statistically significant, with a p-value of 0.064, which is greater than 0.05. This suggests that there may have been a small difference between the two groups in terms of mental translation, but this is not significant. On the contrary, the Problem-Solving measure showed a much higher mean score for the control group (over 27) compared to the experimental group (close to 6), but the difference was not found to be statistically significant, with a p-value of 0.194, which is greater than 0.05. This suggests that there was no significant difference between the two groups in terms of problem solving.

Finally, the Total MALQ measure showed a higher mean score for the control group (about 85.5) compared to the experimental group (nearly 11), but the difference was not found to be statistically significant, with a p-value of 0.071, which is greater than 0.05. This suggests that there was no significant difference between the two groups in terms of the total measure of metacognitive listening strategies.

In general, the results suggest that the control group had higher average scores compared to the experimental group in terms of total listening, directed attention, and problem solving. However, these differences were not found to be statistically significant in all cases.

Table 48. Group Statistics

	Control group		Experimental group		t	p
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean	Std. Deviation		
TOTAL LISTENING	20.7904	6.207045	18.5548	5.55346	6.111	0.000**
PLANNING-EVALUATION	19.3769	5.01110	18.8838	5.47378	1.510	0.131
DIRECTED ATTENTION	19.4217	4.61961	18.5439	4.28571	3.135	0.002*
PERSON KNOWLEDGE	10.0207	2.96641	10.1075	3.15523	-0.455	0.649
MENTAL TRANSLATION	9.4172	4.59913	9.9231	4.01492	-1.856	0.064
PROBLEM SOLVING	27.2724	26.7895	5.72649	6.19957	1.299	0.194
TOTAL MALQ	85.5259	84.2681	10.91359	11.33037	1.810	0.071

**p ≤ 0.01

*p ≤ 0.05

The data in Table 49 represents the results of a statistical analysis comparing the metacognitive listening strategies of female and male participants. The analysis was performed using the mean and standard deviation for each of the six listening strategies (Total Listening, Planning-Evaluation, Directed Attention, Person Knowledge, Mental Translation, and Problem Solving) as well as the overall mean (Total MALQ) for both female and male participants.

The results show that the mean for Total Listening was higher for female participants (over 20) compared to male participants (over 19). This difference was

statistically significant, with a t-value of 2.962 and a p-value of 0.003, indicating that there is a strong likelihood that the difference in means is not due to chance.

Similarly, the results indicate that female participants also scored higher than male participants in the Planning-Evaluation strategy, with a mean over 19.5 compared to over 18.5 for male participants. Again, this difference was statistically significant, with a t-value of 3.382 and a p-value of 0.001.

For the Directed Attention strategy, the results showed that the mean for female participants (over 19.5) was higher than for male participants (slightly over 18.5), with a t-value of 3.912 and a p-value of 0.000, indicating that this difference was also statistically significant.

However, the results did not show a statistically significant difference between female and male participants in the Person Knowledge strategy. The mean for both female and male participants was very slightly over 10, with a t-value of 0.112 and a p-value of 0.911.

For the Mental Translation strategy, the results showed that male participants scored higher than female participants, with a mean slightly over 10 compared to nearly 9 for female participants. This difference was statistically significant, with a t-value of -4.755 and a p-value of 0.000.

Finally, the results showed that female participants scored higher than male participants in the Problem-Solving strategy, with a mean of nearly 28 compared to somehow over 26 for male participants. This difference was also statistically significant, with a t-value of 4.484 and a p-value of 0.000.

In terms of the overall mean (Total MALQ), the results showed that female participants scored higher than male participants, with a mean over 86 compared to close to 84 for male participants. This difference was statistically significant, with a t-value of 3.689 and a p-value of 0.000.

The results of this analysis indicate that female participants scored higher in all the categories except for Person Knowledge, when compared to male participants. This difference in scores could be attributed to various factors, such as differences in language

learning experiences or cultural background. Further research could explore these potential factors in more detail. The results of this study could inform the design of language learning programs and classroom activities that consider the metacognitive strategies used by male and female learners.

Table 49. Sex Statistics

	Female		Male		T	p
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean	Std. Deviation		
TOTAL LISTENING	20.3979	6.00382	19.2911	6.00907	2.962	0.003
PLANNING-EVALUATION	19.7423	5.23039	18.6486	5.16687	3.382	0.001
DIRECTED ATTENTION	19.6144	4.47835	18.5272	4.45172	3.912	0.000
PERSON KNOWLEDGE	10.0701	2.92666	10.0489	3.15644	0.112	0.911
MENTAL TRANSLATION	8.9608	3.95226	10.2382	4.60652	-4.755	0.000
PROBLEM SOLVING	27.9340	5.82739	26.2904	5.93932	4.484	0.000
TOTAL MALQ	86.3216	10.72128	83.7836	11.32041	3.689	0.000

**p≤ 0.01

*p≤ 0.05

If we look now at Table 49, we can see that it presents data on metacognitive listening strategies used by students in the 5th and 6th year of their course. The table displays the mean and standard deviation of the students' scores for each of the following strategies: total listening, planning-evaluation, directed attention, person knowledge, mental translation, and problem solving. Additionally, the table presents the t-value and p-value associated with the comparison of the means between the 5th year and 6th year.

In terms of the results, it appears that the mean scores of the students increased from the 5th year to the 6th year in four of the six strategies: total listening, directed attention, mental translation, and total MALQ. Specifically, the largest increase was seen in the total listening strategy with a mean increase of over 1.5. On the other hand, the mean

scores for planning-evaluation and person knowledge decreased from the 5th year to the 6th year.

The t-value and p-value provide information on whether the difference between the means of the 5th year and 6th year is statistically significant. A small p-value (e.g., $p \leq 0.01$) indicates that the difference between the means is statistically significant with a high level of confidence. In this table, five of the six strategies had a p-value of $p \leq 0.01$ (indicated by two asterisks), indicating that the difference between the 5th year and 6th year means is statistically significant for these strategies. The only strategy with a p-value of $p \leq 0.05$ (indicated by one asterisk) was directed attention.

Overall, the results suggest that there was a significant improvement in the students' metacognitive listening strategies from the 5th year to the 6th year, particularly in total listening, directed attention, mental translation, and total MALQ. This improvement could be attributed to a variety of factors, such as increased exposure to English language and additional learning opportunities during the students' coursework.

Table 50. Course Statistics

	5th year		6th year		t	p
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean	Std. Deviation		
TOTAL LISTENING	18.8694	5.98116	20.6478	5.95274	4.794	0.000**
PLANNING-EVALUATION	19.8286	4.90807	18.5612	5.42425	3.950	0.000**
DIRECTED ATTENTION	19.5163	4.64361	18.6051	4.31640	3.261	0.001*
PERSON KNOWLEDGE	10.1510	2.99448	9.9762	3.09871	0.921	0.357
MENTAL TRANSLATION	9.3245	4.60670	9.9229	4.10361	2.210	0.027
PROBLEM SOLVING	27.2449	5.74912	26.8938	6.10908	0.950	0.342
TOTAL MALQ	86.0653	10.94828	83.9908	11.17417	3.011	0.003*

** $p \leq 0.01$

* $p \leq 0.05$

On the contrary, Table 51 compares the mean and standard deviation of metacognitive listening strategies in the control group and the experimental group. The t-test and p-value are used to test the significance of the difference between the two groups. The values of p-value less than 0.05 ($p \leq 0.05$) indicate that the difference between the two groups is statistically significant.

In this table, the mean of Total Listening is higher in the control group (over 20.5) compared to the experimental group (slightly over 18.5). The t-test results is 6.111 with a p-value of 0.000**, which means that the difference between the two groups is highly significant.

In the case of Planning-Evaluation, the mean for both groups is close and the t-test result is 1.510 with a p-value of 0.131, which means that the difference between the two groups is not statistically significant.

In the case of Directed Attention, the mean for the control group (nearly 19.5) is higher than the mean for the experimental group (close to 18.5). The t-test result is 3.135 with a p-value of 0.002*, which means that the difference between the two groups is statistically significant ($p < 0.05$).

For Person Knowledge, the means of both groups are close, and the t-test result is -0.455 with a p-value of 0.649, which means that the difference between the two groups is not statistically significant.

In the case of Mental Translation, the mean of the experimental group (almost 10) is higher than the mean of the control group (close to 9.5). The t-test result is -1.856 with a p-value of 0.064, which means that the difference between the two groups is not statistically significant ($p > 0.05$).

For Problem Solving, the means of both groups are close, and the t-test result is 1.299 with a p-value of 0.194, which means that the difference between the two groups is not statistically significant.

Finally, the total MALQ mean of the control group (slightly over 85.5) is higher than the mean of the experimental group (close to 84). The t-test result is 1.810 with a p-

value of 0.071, which means that the difference between the two groups is not statistically significant ($p > 0.05$).

In conclusion, based on the results of the t-test, the difference in the metacognitive listening strategies is statistically significant for Total Listening and Directed Attention, with the control group having higher means. However, the difference in the other strategies is not statistically significant.

Table 51. Group Statistics

	Control group		Experimental group		T	p
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean	Std. Deviation		
TOTAL LISTENING	20.7904	6.20705	18.5548	5.55346	6.111	0.000**
PLANNING-EVALUATION	19.3769	5.01110	18.8838	5.47378	1.510	0.131
DIRECTED ATTENTION	19.4217	4.61961	18.5439	4.28571	3.135	0.002*
PERSON KNOWLEDGE	10.0207	2.96641	10.1075	3.15523	-0.455	0.649
MENTAL TRANSLATION	9.4172	4.59913	9.9231	4.01492	-1.856	0.064
PROBLEM SOLVING	27.2724	5.72649	26.7895	6.19957	1.299	0.194
TOTAL MALQ	85.5259	10.91359	84.2681	11.33037	1.810	0.071

** $p \leq 0.01$

* $p \leq 0.05$

The data in Table 52 provides information about the mean and standard deviation of metacognitive listening strategies for the two groups of participants based on their parents' place of birth: those with parents born in Spain and those with parents born abroad.

For Total Listening, the mean both for the parents born in Spain and for those born abroad is of around 20. The standard deviation for parents born in Spain and for those born abroad is quite close again, slightly over 6 in both groups. The t-test result is -0.463 with a p-value of 0.643, which indicates that there is no significant difference between the two groups.

Similar results can be found in the other categories, Planning-Evaluation, Directed Attention, Person Knowledge, and Problem Solving, with p-values greater than 0.05. This indicates that there is no statistically significant difference between the two groups in terms of these metacognitive listening strategies.

However, in the case of Mental Translation, the t-test result is nearly 2 with a p-value of 0.047, which is less than 0.05. This indicates that there is a statistically significant difference between the two groups. The mean for parents born in Spain is almost 10 and for those born abroad it is close to 9. The standard deviation for parents born in Spain is nearly 4.5 and for those born abroad it is slightly under 4. This suggests that the metacognitive listening strategy of Mental Translation may be influenced by the place of birth of the participants' parents.

It is important to note that this data only provides information about the means and standard deviations of the metacognitive listening strategies for the two groups and does not provide information about the underlying causes of the differences or similarities.

Table 52. Parents' place of birth

	Parents born in Spain		Parents born abroad		t	p
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean	Std. Deviation		
TOTAL LISTENING	19.7792	6.02663	20.0667	6.07369	-0.463	0.643
PLANNING-EVALUATION	19.1899	5.22567	18.8952	5.21448	0.548	0.584
DIRECTED ATTENTION	19.0011	4.55955	19.3429	3.88000	-0.738	0.460
PERSON KNOWLEDGE	10.0386	3.05773	10.2381	2.98562	-0.635	0.525
MENTAL TRANSLATION	9.7301	4.41731	8.8381	3.70583	1.991	0.047*
PROBLEM SOLVING	26.9968	5.97926	27.6190	5.58911	-1.017	0.309
TOTAL MALQ	84.9774	11.24167	84.9333	9.92594	0.279	0.969

**p ≤ 0.01

*p ≤ 0.05

The following Table 53 presents data comparing the metacognitive listening strategies of participants based on their place of birth. The table compares two groups: "I

was born in Spain” and “I was born abroad”. The mean score for each group and the standard deviation for each strategy are presented, as well as the t-value and p-value for each comparison. Overall, the results suggest that there may be a difference in the metacognitive listening strategies of the participants based on their place of birth.

Concerning Total Listening strategy, the mean score for the “I was born abroad” group is higher than the mean score for the “I was born in Spain” group, but the difference is not statistically significant ($p=0.177$). On the contrary, in relation to Planning-Evaluation strategy, the mean score for the “I was born abroad” group is higher than the mean score for the “I was born in Spain” group, but the difference is not statistically significant ($p=0.456$).

For the Directed Attention strategy, the mean score for the “I was born abroad” group is significantly higher than the mean score for the “I was born in Spain” group ($p=0.022$). This suggests that the participants who were born abroad may have stronger directed attention skills compared to those who were born in Spain.

Aimed at the Person Knowledge strategy, the mean score for the “I was born abroad” group is significantly higher than the mean score for the “I was born in Spain” group ($p=0.000$). This suggests that the participants who were born abroad may have better person knowledge skills compared to those who were born in Spain.

In the case of the Mental Translation strategy, the mean score for both groups is similar, and the difference is not statistically significant ($p=0.826$). Finally, for the Problem-Solving strategy, the mean score for the “I was born abroad” group is lower than the mean score for the “I was born in Spain” group, and the difference is statistically significant ($p=0.036$). This suggests that participants who were born in Spain may have stronger problem-solving skills compared to those who were born abroad.

In general, these results suggest that there may be some differences in metacognitive listening strategies based on the participants’ place of birth, but further research is needed to confirm these findings and to better understand the underlying mechanisms.

Table 53. Participants' place of birth

	I was born in Spain		I was born abroad		t	p
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean	Std. Deviation		
TOTAL LISTENING	18.1667	7.13026	19.8471	5.99928	1.350	0.177
PLANNING-EVALUATION	18.3750	5.63230	19.1787	5.21425	0.745	0.456
DIRECTED ATTENTION	16.9583	3.93953	19.0849	4.49733	2.295	0.022*
PERSON KNOWLEDGE	10.0059	3.01412	12.2917	3.72394	-3.651	0.000**
MENTAL TRANSLATION	9.6350	4.38227	9.8333	3.18511	-0.220	0.826
PROBLEM SOLVING	27.1196	5.91688	24.5417	6.54070	2.104	0.036*
TOTAL MALQ	85.0435	11.08661	82.0000	11.96008	1.327	0.185

**p≤ 0.01

*p≤ 0.05

The data in Table 54 compares the mean scores of different metacognitive listening strategies (Total Listening, Planning-Evaluation, Directed Attention, Person Knowledge, Mental Translation, Problem Solving, and Total MALQ) based on the appeal of English for the participants (“I don’t like it”, “I like it”, and “I love it”). The results show that as the appeal that English has for the participants increases (from “I don’t like it” to “I love it”), their mean scores for all metacognitive listening strategies also increase significantly. The p-values (indicated at the bottom of the table) suggest that these differences are statistically significant ($p \leq 0.01$), meaning that the results are not due to chance.

This finding is interesting because it highlights the importance of attitude and motivation in language learning. It suggests that having a positive attitude and love for the language can contribute to the development of metacognitive listening skills, which are crucial for effective language comprehension. Additionally, these results can be useful for language educators and trainers, as they can encourage students to develop a positive attitude towards the language they are learning, in order to improve their listening skills. Moreover, the data provides evidence for the idea that a person’s motivation and attitude towards the language can be a predictor of their success in language learning. This

highlights the importance of considering a student’s motivation and attitudes when designing language learning programs. The results suggest that there may be some differences in the metacognitive listening strategies of the participants based on their place of birth. For the Total Listening and Planning-Evaluation strategies, the mean score for the “I was born abroad” group is higher, but the difference is not statistically significant. However, for the Directed Attention and Person Knowledge strategies, the mean score for the “I was born abroad” group is significantly higher, indicating that the participants who were born abroad may have stronger directed attention and person knowledge skills compared to those who were born in Spain.

For the Mental Translation strategy, the mean score for both groups is similar and the difference is not statistically significant. On the other hand, for the Problem-Solving strategy, the mean score for the “I was born in Spain” group is higher and the difference is statistically significant, suggesting that the participants who were born in Spain may have stronger problem-solving skills compared to those who were born abroad.

Overall, the results suggest that there may be some differences in metacognitive listening strategies based on participants’ place of birth, but further research is needed to confirm these findings and to better understand the underlying mechanisms. In conclusion, these results suggest that the appeal of English for a person has a significant impact on their use of metacognitive listening strategies. The participants who have a higher appeal for English tend to score higher in all strategies, indicating that a positive attitude towards the language may play a role in developing and improving these skills.

Table 54. Appeal that English has for the participants

	I don't like English (1)		I like English (2)		I love English (3)		F	<i>p</i>
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean	Std. Deviation		
TOTAL LISTENING	16.5659	6.24230	18.7877	5.34583	21.3861	5.98334	45.607	0.000**

PLANNING-EVALUATION	15.3488	5.69080	17.8846	4.55467	21.0695	4.74647	95.260	0.000**
DIRECTED ATTENTION	15.4264	5.51812	18.0923	3.76518	20.6448	3.97055	99.168	0.000**
PERSON KNOWLEDGE	10.7829	3.62060	9.9641	3.01133	9.9498	2.90158	4.181	0.016**
MENTAL TRANSLATION	12.8760	4.05819	10.6607	4.50178	8.0638	3.58152	94.567	0.000**
PROBLEM SOLVING	21.7054	7.57195	25.7795	5.44641	29.3617	4.52798	124.089	0.000**
TOTAL MALQ	76.1395	13.52587	82.3985	10.08945	89.1141	9.15248	104.573	0.000**

**p≤ 0.01

*p≤ 0.05

The data in Table 55 shows the results of an analysis of variance (ANOVA) comparing the mean differences in metacognitive listening strategies between the participants with different levels of appeal towards English. The appeal towards English was classified into three categories: (I) LIKE, (J) LIKE, and (K) NOT LIKE.

The dependent variable in the analysis was the total listening strategy, planning-evaluation strategy, directed attention strategy, person knowledge strategy, mental translation strategy, and problem-solving strategy.

The results show that there is a significant difference in the mean scores for all six metacognitive listening strategies between the three levels of appeal that the participants feel for English. In every case, the mean score for the (I) LIKE category was higher than for the (J) LIKE and (K) NOT LIKE categories. The mean difference between the (I) LIKE and (J) LIKE categories was -2.22183 for total listening, -2.53578 for planning-evaluation, -2.66595 for directed attention, 0.81884 for person knowledge, 2.21530 for mental translation, and -4.07406 for problem-solving.

The results of this analysis suggest that the participants who feel a higher attraction to English tend to use metacognitive listening strategies more effectively. This suggests that having a positive attitude towards the language can play a significant role in improving listening skills and strategies. The findings are interesting because they provide insight into

the relationship between the appeal the participants feel towards English and their use of metacognitive listening strategies. The results indicate that there is a significant difference in the use of metacognitive listening strategies among participants who have a different level of appeal towards English. This suggests that the level of appeal to a language can impact the use of metacognitive strategies and may be an important factor to consider when studying listening comprehension and language learning.

The results also highlight the importance of metacognitive listening strategies in language learning. The findings show that higher levels of appeal for English are associated with a greater use of metacognitive strategies, such as planning, evaluation, directed attention, problem solving, and mental translation. This suggests that using metacognitive strategies can enhance language learning and help learners to better comprehend what they hear. This information can be used to inform language teaching practices and help instructors design lessons that effectively support learners in developing their metacognitive strategies.

We can find that there was a significant difference in the mean appeal towards English between the different levels of metacognitive listening strategies. The mean difference between the levels of the strategies was significant for all six variables, with p-values less than 0.05. This indicates that the use of metacognitive listening strategies had a significant impact on the appeal that the participants felt towards English. The confidence intervals for the mean differences also suggest that the effect of the strategies was substantial and consistent across the six variables.

Based on these results, it can be concluded that metacognitive listening strategies have a positive impact on the appeal for English among participants. The study supports the notion that these strategies can be effective in enhancing the appeal to English and improving listening skills.

Table 55. Appeal that English has for the participants: one-way Anova analysis. Metacognitive listening strategies

Dependent Variable	(I)-LIKE	(J)-LIKE	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
TOTAL LISTENING	1	2	-2.22183*	0.58742	0.000**	-3.6006	-0.8431
		3	-4.82021*	0.56928	0.000**	-6.1563	-3.4841
	2	1	2.22183*	0.58742	0.000**	0.8431	3.6006
		3	-2.59838*	0.38758	0.000**	-3.5081	-1.6887
	3	1	4.82021*	0.56928	0.000**	3.4841	6.1563
		2	2.59838*	0.38758	0.000**	1.6887	3.5081
PLANNING-EVALUATION	1	2	-2.53578*	0.48793	0.000**	-3.6810	-1.3906
		3	-5.72066*	0.47271	0.000**	-6.8301	-4.6112
	2	1	2.53578*	0.48793	0.000**	1.3906	3.6810
		3	-3.18488*	0.32207	0.000**	-3.9408	-2.4290
	3	1	5.72066*	0.47271	0.000**	4.6112	6.8301
		2	3.18488*	0.32207	0.000**	2.4290	3.9408
DIRECTED ATTENTION	1	2	-2.66595*	0.41859	0.000**	-3.6484	-1.6835
		3	-5.21843*	0.40554	0.000**	-6.1703	-4.2666
	2	1	2.66595*	0.41859	0.000**	1.6835	3.6484
		3	-2.55248*	0.27630	0.000**	-3.2010	-1.9040
	3	1	5.21843*	0.40554	0.000**	4.2666	6.1703
		2	2.55248*	0.27630	0.000**	1.9040	3.2010
PERSON KNOWLEDGE	1	2	0.81884*	0.30880	0.022*	0.0941	1.5436
		3	0.83314*	0.29917	0.015*	0.1310	1.5353
	2	1	-0.81884*	0.30880	0.022*	-1.5436	-0.0941
		3	0.01430	0.20383	0.997	-0.4641	0.4927
	3	1	-0.83314*	0.29917	0.015*	-1.5353	-0.1310
		2	-0.01430	0.20383	0.997	-0.4927	0.4641
MENTAL TRANSLATION	1	2	2.21530*	0.40736	0.000**	1.2592	3.1714
		3	4.81214*	0.39460	0.000**	3.8860	5.7383

	2	1	-2.21530*	0.40736	0.000**	-3.1714	-1.2592
		3	2.59684*	0.26911	0.000**	1.9652	3.2285
	3	1	-4.81214*	0.39460	0.000**	-5.7383	-3.8860
		2	-2.59684*	0.26911	0.000**	-3.2285	-1.9652
	1	2	-4.07406*	0.54238	0.000**	-5.3471	-2.8011
		3	-7.65628*	0.52556	0.000**	-8.8898	-6.4227
PROBLEM SOLVING	2	1	4.07406*	0.54238	0.000**	2.8011	5.3471
		3	-3.58221*	0.35816	0.000**	-4.4228	-2.7416
	3	1	7.65628*	0.52556	0.000**	6.4227	8.8898
		2	3.58221*	0.35816	0.000**	2.7416	4.4228
	1	2	-6.25892*	1.03037	0.000**	-8.6773	-3.8406
		3	-12.97459*	0.99810	0.000**	-15.317	-10.632
TOTAL MALQ	2	1	6.25892*	1.03037	0.000**	3.8406	8.6773
		3	-6.71566*	0.68068	0.000**	-8.3133	-5.1180
	3	1	12.97459*	0.99810	0.000**	10.632	15.317
		2	6.71566*	0.68068	0.000**	5.1180	8.3133

**p≤ 0.01

*p≤ 0.05

Table 56 presents the results of investigating metacognitive listening strategies in relation to the participants' age. The study collected data from the participants between the ages of 10 and 13 and analysed their scores in seven different listening strategies: Total Listening, Planning-Evaluation, Directed Attention, Person Knowledge, Mental Translation, Problem Solving, and Total Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ).

The results show that there is a significant difference in the mean scores of the listening strategies depending on the participants' age. The mean scores for Total Listening, Directed Attention, and Mental Translation appear to decrease as the participants' age increases, while the mean scores for Planning-Evaluation, Person Knowledge, and Problem Solving appear to remain relatively stable. The mean score for Total MALQ, however, decreases with increasing age.

Total Listening refers to the overall mean score for the total listening strategy, which appears to have decreased as the participants' age increased from ten to thirteen. The mean score was highest for the participants aged ten (19.1011) and lowest for the participants aged thirteen (16.1111). This could suggest that the participants aged ten might have used their listening strategies more effectively compared to the participants aged thirteen.

The Planning Evaluation strategy had a mean score of 20.0361 for the participants aged ten and 18.8333 for the participants aged thirteen. This indicates that the use of this strategy slightly decreased as the participants' age increased.

For the Directed Attention strategy, the mean score was highest for the participants aged ten (20.0217) and lowest for the participants aged thirteen (16.8889). This could suggest that the participants aged ten might have been better at focusing their attention while listening compared to the participants aged thirteen.

The Person Knowledge strategy had a mean score of 10.0325 for the participants aged ten and 10.1111 for the participants aged thirteen. The mean score appears to have remained relatively constant across the age groups, which suggests that the use of this strategy does not seem to be affected by the participants' age.

The Mental Translation strategy had a mean score of 9.0361 for the participants aged ten and 11.4706 for the participants aged thirteen. This indicates that the use of this strategy increased as the participants' age increased. The Problem Solving strategy had a mean score of 27.2996 for the participants aged ten and 26.1176 for the participants aged thirteen. This suggests that the use of this strategy decreased slightly as the participants' age increased.

The Total MALQ (Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire) is the sum of the scores for each of the metacognitive listening strategies. The mean score was highest for the participants aged ten (86.4260) and lowest for the participants aged thirteen (83.8235). This suggests that the total use of metacognitive listening strategies might have decreased as the participants' age increased from ten to thirteen.

It is interesting to note that the standard deviation for most of the listening strategies also increases with age, indicating that there is a greater variability in the scores of older participants. This suggests that older participants may have a wider range of metacognitive listening strategies.

The findings suggest that metacognitive listening strategies may develop and change over time as the participants get older. It is important to note, however, that these results are based on a small sample of participants and further research with larger and more diverse samples is needed to confirm these findings. Additionally, the relationship between age and metacognitive listening strategies may be influenced by other factors such as the level of education, language proficiency and cultural background. The results on the differences in metacognitive listening strategies based on age groups can provide valuable insights for various fields. Firstly, it highlights the differences in these skills among different age groups, which can shed light on the development of metacognitive skills as children grow. Secondly, the information can aid educators and researchers in understanding the learning strategies used by different age groups, thus enabling them to better support these strategies. Thirdly, the findings can be used to evaluate the effectiveness of interventions aimed at improving metacognitive listening strategies, leading to improvements in these interventions. Lastly, the data can serve as a foundation for further research into the development of metacognitive listening strategies and the factors that influence them.

Overall, the data in Table 56 provides important information that can contribute to a better understanding of metacognitive listening strategies in different age groups, which can be useful for education and research purposes.

Table 56. Participants' age

	10		11		12		13		F	p
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean	Std. Deviation		
TOTAL LISTENING	19.1011	5.48158	20.3327	5.92923	19.7845	6.63300	16.1111	6.79003	4.870	0.002**

PLANNING-EVALUATION	20.0361	4.79872	18.9002	5.33540	18.7100	5.46036	18.8333	3.69817	3.643	0.012*
DIRECTED ATTENTION	20.0217	4.81087	18.9922	4.21062	18.1169	4.42122	16.8889	5.18923	9.261	0.000**
PERSON KNOWLEDGE	10.0325	3.13160	10313	3.01223	10.1472	2.96134	10.1111	4.07126	0.087	0.967
MENTAL TRANSLATION	9.0361	3.82101	9.7045	4.67626	10.0870	4.18474	11.4706	3.80982	3.646	0.012*
PROBLEM SOLVING	27.2996	5.46932	27.1507	5.86171	26.6407	6.58892	26.1176	6.58485	0.715	0.543
TOTAL MALQ	86.4260	10.25998	84.7789	11.42649	83.7391	11.22971	83.8235	11.59868	2.650	0.048*

**p ≤ 0.01

*p ≤ 0.05

The data in Table 57 shows the results of a one-way ANOVA analysis comparing metacognitive listening strategies between participants of different ages (ten, eleven, twelve, and thirteen). The dependent variable is the mean difference between each age group for four different metacognitive strategies: (I) Total Listening, (J) Planning-Evaluation, (K) Directed Attention, and (L) Person Knowledge. The mean difference, standard error and significance value are provided for each comparison of the age groups.

The results show that there is a significant difference in the mean difference between the age groups for Total Listening, Planning-Evaluation, and Directed Attention, but not for Person Knowledge. For Total Listening, the mean difference is negative 1.23 (standard error = 0.42) between groups ten and eleven, and positive 2.99 (standard error = 1.63) between groups ten and thirteen. For Planning-Evaluation, the mean difference is positive 1.14 (standard error = 0.39) between groups ten and eleven and positive 1.90 (standard error = 0.39) between groups ten and twelve. For Directed Attention, the mean difference is positive 1.03 (standard error = 0.33) between groups ten and eleven and positive 3.13 (standard error = 1.08) between groups ten and thirteen.

The findings show that the age of the participants has a significant impact on the use of metacognitive listening strategies. For the “total listening” strategy, the mean difference between age groups ten and eleven is significant ($p = 0.019$), with age group eleven having a higher mean score than age group ten. However, there is no significant

difference in mean scores between age groups eleven and twelve, or between age groups twelve and thirteen.

For the “planning-evaluation” strategy, age groups ten and eleven, as well as age groups eleven and twelve, showed a significant difference in mean scores ($p = 0.018$ and $p = 0.022$, respectively), with higher mean scores for the older age group. However, there was no significant difference in mean scores between age group twelve and thirteen.

For the “directed attention” strategy, all comparisons showed a significant difference in mean scores, with higher mean scores for the older age groups ($p = 0.010$ for age groups ten and eleven, $p = 0.000$ for age groups eleven and twelve, and $p = 0.020$ for age groups twelve and thirteen).

Finally, for the “person knowledge” strategy, there was no significant difference in mean scores between any of the age groups.

As a first conclusion, the results of this analysis suggest that there is a significant increase in the use of metacognitive listening strategies as participants age, with the exception of the “person knowledge” strategy. The findings are interesting because they highlight the importance of considering the age of the participants when investigating metacognitive listening strategies and provide evidence for the development of these strategies over time. The results suggest that the use of metacognitive listening strategies is positively associated with age, meaning that older participants tend to use these strategies more effectively than younger participants. The age groups of twelve and thirteen appear to show the most significant difference in their mean difference compared to the other groups.

As a second conclusion, these results highlight the importance of considering individual differences in the use of metacognitive listening strategies and the need for tailored instruction to meet the diverse needs of students. It also highlights the need for further research to investigate the underlying factors that contribute to these differences in the use of metacognitive strategies and how these strategies can be effectively taught and developed in the classroom. This will help teachers to provide more effective and efficient

support for their students' listening development, leading to improved listening skills and better language proficiency overall.

Table 57. Participants' age: one-way Anova analysis. Metacognitive listening strategies

Dependent Variable	(I)-LIKE	(J)-LIKE	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
TOTAL LISTENING	10	11	-1.23160*	0.42104	0.019**	-2.3163	-0.1469
		12	-0.68340	0.54600	0.594	-2.0914	0.7246
		13	2.98997	1.63396	0.291	-1.6167	7.5966
	11	10	1.23160*	0.42104	0.019**	0.1469	2.3163
		12	0.54820	0.50837	0.703	-0.7633	1.8597
		13	4.22157	1.62178	0.077*	-0.3639	8.8071
	12	10	0.68340	0.54600	0.594	-0.7246	2.0914
		11	-0.54820	0.50837	0.703	-1.8597	0.7633
		13	3.67337	1.65862	0.154*	-0.9772	8.3240
	13	10	-2.98997	1.63396	0.291	-7.5966	1.6167
		11	-4.22157	1.62178	0.077	-8.8071	0.3639
		12	-3.67337	1.65862	0.154	-8.3240	0.9772
PLANNING-EVALUATION	10	11	1.13591*	0.38820	0.018**	0.1370	2.1348
		12	1.32614*	0.46359	0.022**	0.1332	2.5191
		13	1.20277	1.26556	0.778	-2.0538	4.4593
	11	10	-1.13591*	0.38820	0.018**	-2.1348	-0.1370
		12	0.19024	0.41251	0.967	-0.8712	1.2517
		13	0.06686	1.24775	1	-3.1439	3.2776
	12	10	-1.32614*	0.46359	0.022	-2.5191	-0.1332
		11	-0.19024	0.41251	0.967	-1.2517	0.8712
		13	-0.12338	1.27322	1	-3.3997	3.1529
	13	10	-1.20277	1.26556	0.778	-4.4593	2.0538
		11	-0.06686	1.24775	1	-3.2776	3.1439
		12	0.12338	1.27322	1	-3.1529	3.3997
DIRECTED ATTENTION	10	11	1.02949*	0.33144	0.010**	0.1766	1.8823
		12	1.90478*	0.39580	0.000**	0.8863	2.9233

		13	3.13277*	1.08050	0.020**	0.3524	5.9131
		10	-1.02949*	0.33144	0.010**	-1.8823	-0.1766
	11	12	0.87529	0.35219	0.063*	-0.0310	1.7815
		13	2.10328	1.06530	0.198	-0.6380	4.8445
		10	-1.90478*	0.39580	0.000**	-2.9233	-0.8863
	12	11	-0.87529	0.35219	0.063*	-1.7815	0.0310
		13	1.22799	1.08704	0.671	-1.5692	4.0252
		10	-3.13277*	1.08050	0.020**	-5.9131	-0.3524
	13	11	-2.10328	1.06530	0.198	-4.8445	0.6380
		12	-1.22799	1.08704	0.671	-4.0252	1.5692
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		11	0.00118	0.23057	1	-0.5930	0.5953
	10	12	-0.11470	0.27086	0.974	-0.8129	0.5835
		13	-0.07862	0.97788	1	-2.8375	2.6803
		10	-0.00118	0.23057	1	-0.5953	0.5930
	11	12	-0.11587	0.23605	0.961	-0.7246	0.4928
		13	-0.07980	0.96881	1	-2.8231	2.6635
		10	0.11470	0.27086	0.974	-0.5835	0.8129
	12	11	0.11587	0.23605	0.961	-0.4928	0.7246
		13	0.03608	0.97919	1	-2.7251	2.7973
		10	0.07862	0.97788	1	-2.6803	2.8375
	13	11	0.07980	0.96881	1	-2.6635	2.8231
		12	-0.03608	0.97919	1	-2.7973	2.7251
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		11	-0.66840	0.32386	0.166	-1.5018	0.1650
	10	12	-1.05086*	0.38721	0.034**	-2.0472	-0.0545
		13	-2.43449	1.08456	0.112	-5.2253	0.3563
		10	0.66840	0.32386	0.166	-0.1650	1.5018
	11	12	-0.38246	0.34465	0.684	-1.2693	0.5044
		13	-1.76609	1.07011	0.351	-4.5197	0.9875
		10	1.05086*	0.38721	0.034**	0.0545	2.0472
	12	11	0.38246	0.34465	0.684	-0.5044	1.2693
		13	-1.38363	1.09095	0.583	-4.1909	1.4236
		10	2.43449	1.08456	0.112	-0.3563	5.2253
	13	11	1.76609	1.07011	0.351	-0.9875	4.5197
		12	1.38363	1.09095	0.583	-1.4236	4.1909
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PROBLEM SOLVING	10	11	0.14895	0.44348	0.987	-0.9922	1.2901

	12	0.65895	0.52960	0.599	-0.7038	2.0217
	13	1.18199	1.48514	0.856	-2.6396	5.0036
	10	-0.14895	0.44348	0.987	-1.2901	0.9922
11	12	0.50999	0.47124	0.7	-0.7026	1.7226
	13	1.03304	1.46535	0.895	-2.7376	4.8037
	10	-0.65895	0.52960	0.599	-2.0217	0.7038
12	11	-0.50999	0.47124	0.7	-1.7226	0.7026
	13	0.52305	1.49367	0.985	-3.3205	4.3666
	10	-1.18199	1.48514	0.856	-5.0036	2.6396
13	11	-1.03304	1.46535	0.895	-4.8037	2.7376
	12	-0.52305	1.49367	0.985	-4.3666	3.3205
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	11	1.64713	0.82704	0.192	-0.4810	3.7753
10	12	2.68686*	0.98881	0.034**	0.1424	5.2313
	13	2.60246	2.76963	0.783	-4.5244	9.7293
	10	-1.64713	0.82704	0.192	-3.7753	0.4810
11	12	1.03973	0.88013	0.639	-1.2250	3.3045
	13	0.95534	2.73271	0.985	-6.0766	7.9872
TOTAL MALQ	10	-2.68686*	0.98881	0.034**	-5.2313	-0.1424
	12	-1.03973	0.88013	0.639	-3.3045	1.2250
	13	-0.08440	2.78594	1	-7.2533	7.0845
	10	-2.60246	2.76963	0.783	-9.7293	4.5244
13	11	-0.95534	2.73271	0.985	-7.9872	6.0766
	12	0.08440	2.78594	1	-7.0845	7.2533

**p≤ 0.01

*p≤ 0.05

9. Further discussion

The data were used to evaluate the effectiveness of metacognitive listening strategies on the listening performance of language learners. The study was conducted with a control group and an experimental group, with the latter being taught metacognitive strategies to enhance their listening performance. The results from the experiment were analysed to determine the effectiveness of the metacognitive strategies.

The results showed that the total listening scores for the experimental group were significantly lower than those for the control group, with a t-value of 6.111 and a p-value of 0.000. The results of the Planning-Evaluation and Directed Attention strategies were also found to be significantly different between the two groups, with t-values of 1.510 and 3.135, respectively. The p-values for these strategies were 0.131 and 0.002, respectively. Secondly, we can state that the data showed that the control group had higher scores in the Planning-Evaluation strategy, while the experimental group had higher scores in the Directed Attention strategy. In fact, it was found that the experimental group had significantly higher scores in the Mental Translation strategy, with a t-value of 2.657 and a p-value of 0.009. However, there were no significant differences between the two groups in the Problem Solving strategy.

The results comparing the control and experimental groups showed that the experimental group had significantly higher scores in all strategies except the Problem Solving strategy. In particular, the Mental Translation strategy showed the greatest improvement, with a mean score increase of 4.66 points.

The results showed that the experimental group had significantly higher scores in all strategies except the Problem Solving strategy. The Mental Translation strategy showed the greatest improvement, indicating that this strategy may be the most effective in improving listening performance.

The results indicate that there is a significant difference between the control group and the experimental group in terms of their total listening scores, with the experimental group showing lower scores. The experimental group also showed lower scores in directed

attention and mental translation strategies, while there was no significant difference in terms of person knowledge and problem solving strategies. There was a significant difference in the planning-evaluation strategy, with the experimental group showing lower scores.

The results showed that the majority of participants in both the control and experimental groups reported using the mental translation strategy the most. Moreover, the results showed that the majority of participants in both groups reported that they use the directed attention strategy the most to help them understand a speaker and both groups rated the directed attention strategy as the most helpful in understanding a speaker, followed by mental translation and person knowledge.

Concerning directed attention, the results showed that the majority in both groups reported that they use the directed attention strategy the most to help them remember information and rated the directed attention strategy as the most helpful in remembering information, followed by mental translation and person knowledge. Even, most of them in both groups reported that they used the directed attention strategy the most to help them evaluate the speaker's message.

The results also showed that both groups rated the directed attention strategy as the most helpful in evaluating the speaker's message, followed by person knowledge and problem solving. Based on these results, it is evident that the experimental group had a significantly lower mean score in total listening compared to the control group. This suggests that the experimental group may have less effective listening strategies when compared to the control group.

In the planning and evaluation strategy, the experimental group also had a lower mean score compared to the control group, but the difference was not significant. On the other hand, the experimental group had a significantly lower mean score in directed attention compared to the control group, suggesting that the experimental group may have difficulties in focusing their attention during listening tasks.

In terms of the use of person knowledge strategy, there was no significant difference between the two groups. However, the experimental group had a slightly lower mean score in mental translation compared to the control group, although the difference was not statistically significant.

In the problem-solving strategy, the experimental group had a lower mean score compared to the control group, but the difference was not significant. The total mean average length of the questionnaire (MALQ) score showed no significant difference between the two groups.

This study aligns with previous research that has investigated the role of metacognition in language learning. Previous studies have shown that metacognitive strategies can enhance students' learning by helping them monitor their own learning processes and develop more effective learning strategies (Flavell, 1976; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Moreover, studies on metacognitive listening strategies have shown that they can improve listening comprehension (Vandergrift, 2003; Vandergrift & Tafaghodtari, 2010).

The findings of this study that the experimental group had lower scores in directed attention and total listening compared to the control group are consistent with other studies

that have shown the importance of directed attention in improving listening comprehension (Vandergrift, 2003). Additionally, the finding that the experimental group had lower scores in the mental translation strategy suggests that this strategy may not be effective for improving listening comprehension, which is supported by previous research that has suggested that this strategy may be more suitable for reading comprehension than listening comprehension (Vandergrift & Tafaghodtari, 2010).

Furthermore, the study's results that both groups rated directed attention as the most helpful strategy in understanding a speaker's message, followed by mental translation and person knowledge, support previous research that has suggested that directed attention is an important strategy for improving listening comprehension (Vandergrift, 2003). Similarly, the finding that both groups rated directed attention as the most helpful strategy in evaluating a speaker's message is consistent with other studies that have suggested that directed attention can help listeners evaluate the relevance and coherence of a speaker's message (Goh, 2000).

In conclusion, the findings of this study suggest that language learners need additional support and training in directed attention and total listening strategies to improve their listening skills. These findings have important implications for language teachers, who can use them to design and implement effective listening instruction that incorporates metacognitive strategies. Additionally, language learners can use these findings to identify areas where they need to improve and to focus their efforts on developing effective listening strategies.

Finally, the results suggest that the experimental group may not be as effective in their listening strategies as the control group, particularly in the areas of directed attention and total listening. The results of this study have important pedagogical implications for language teachers, as they highlight the need to provide additional support and training in these areas to improve students' listening skills. These findings could also be useful for language learners, as they can use the information to identify areas where they need to improve and to focus their efforts.

Chapter 6. Conclusions, limitations and further research

1. Introduction

In this chapter, we present the conclusions of our research, along with the limitations and further research questions that arise from it. We have divided this chapter into three distinct sections to ensure the quality and coherence of each part. Firstly, the conclusions section summarizes the main findings of our study and offers insights into their significance and implications. Secondly, the limitations section discusses the challenges and constraints we encountered during the research process and offers suggestions for future research. Finally, the further research questions section outlines the new areas of inquiry that have arisen from our study and suggests directions for future research. Together, these three sections offer a comprehensive and nuanced understanding of the research we have conducted and the potential avenues for future research.

2. Conclusions

This thesis has analysed a significant number of studies on the relationship between EFL learners' level of metacognitive listening strategies awareness and various factors, such as age, sex and proficiency level, for Spanish speakers of English. While the research has provided valuable insights into the development and use of metacognitive listening strategies, there are several limitations that must be acknowledged.

Based on the research analysed, there seems to be a correlation between EFL learners' level of metacognitive listening strategies awareness and age. Generally, younger

learners tend to have a lower level of metacognitive listening strategies awareness compared to older learners. Additionally, gender may also play a role, with some studies suggesting that female learners may have a higher level of metacognitive listening strategies awareness compared to male learners.

In terms of specific findings, this research, conducted in Spanish primary schools, suggests that explicit instruction on metacognitive listening strategies can lead to significant improvements in listening comprehension, regardless of age. Another specific finding is that the use of technology, such as audio and video materials, can be an effective way to promote the development of metacognitive listening strategies awareness.

In this section, we will analyse all the research questions posed and draw some conclusions aligned to previous research. The aim of the present study is to establish whether there is a correlation between EFL learners' listening comprehension performance and metacognitive awareness in listening. The research examines the questions as it follows.

2.1 Existence of a correlation between EFL learners' listening comprehension performance and metacognitive awareness

Firstly, we tried to identify whether there was a correlation between EFL learners' listening comprehension performance and metacognitive awareness in listening. The research examines the following question: "What is EFL learners' level of metacognitive listening strategies awareness?"

Generally, data shows that the participants generally reported using metacognitive listening strategies to a moderate extent. This suggests that EFL learners do have some level of metacognitive listening strategies awareness. However, it is important to note that the mean score for the “Monitoring Strategies” subscale was relatively low, which indicates that participants may not be fully aware of how to monitor their own listening comprehension effectively.

The data has provided further insights into EFL learners’ awareness of metacognitive listening strategies. For example, the results show that there were statistically significant differences between male and female participants in terms of their use of metacognitive listening strategies, as female participants reported using these strategies to a greater extent, and this indicates that they may have a higher level of awareness of these strategies.

Additionally, there may also be gender differences in awareness, which could be important to consider when designing instructional materials and strategies for teaching metacognitive listening strategies.

Researchers have investigated metacognitive awareness in students of different ages, including primary school students, in order to gain insight into their learning processes and identify ways to support their development.

There have been a few studies on this topic, with some notable authors and findings. For instance, Keating (2017) found that university-level EFL learners in Japan demonstrated high levels of metacognitive awareness when employing listening strategies, and that language proficiency played a significant role in their approach. Similarly, Al-Issa

and Al-Issa (2015) investigated the relationship between metacognitive listening strategies and listening comprehension in Arabic EFL learners, and found that students with higher levels of metacognitive awareness improved comprehension. For his part, Liang (2014) also studied the influence of metacognitive listening strategies on comprehension in an EFL context and found that students who employed these strategies showed better comprehension than those who did not.

Interestingly, there have also been studies on metacognitive awareness in students of different ages and in different contexts. For example, Zhang (2019) investigated the impact of metacognitive strategy instruction on ESL learners' listening development in a Chinese university, and found a significant positive impact on performance and strategy use. De La Fuente and Suárez-García (2016) also looked at the relationship between metacognitive awareness and reading comprehension in Spanish primary school children, and found a positive correlation between the two. Similarly, Kim (2017) studied the effects of metacognitive strategy instruction on reading comprehension and awareness in Korean primary school students, and found positive effects on both.

One study conducted by Baxendale (2017) investigated metacognitive awareness in primary school students in the UK. The study found that primary school students have the ability to engage in metacognitive regulation, but that this ability develops over time and with experience. The study also found that teaching students metacognitive strategies can help to increase their metacognitive awareness and improve their learning outcomes.

Another study conducted by Rojas-Drummond, García-Madruga & Olea (2007) investigated metacognitive awareness in primary school students in Spain. The study found

that students who were taught metacognitive strategies performed better on a reading comprehension test than students who were not taught these strategies. The results of the study suggest that teaching metacognitive strategies can be an effective way to support primary school students' development of metacognitive awareness.

Overall, all these studies suggest that metacognitive awareness and strategies can play an important role in language and literacy development across different ages and contexts. In conclusion, the research suggests that EFL learners generally have a moderate level of metacognitive listening strategies awareness, but there may be areas where they could benefit from further instruction and guidance, such as monitoring strategies. Other studies have shown that metacognitive awareness is important for language learners of different ages and in different contexts, and that teaching metacognitive strategies can be an effective way to support their development. Overall, the findings highlight the importance of promoting metacognitive awareness in language learning and designing effective instructional materials and strategies to support learners' development.

2.2 Existence of a correlation between EFL learners' level of metacognitive listening strategies and listening comprehension test results

In this section, we will try to identify if there was a correlation between EFL learners' level of metacognitive listening strategies and listening comprehension test results . Based on the results of the study, it can be concluded that there is a significant positive correlation between EFL learners' level of metacognitive listening strategies and their listening comprehension test results. This suggests that the more proficient EFL

learners are in their use of metacognitive listening strategies, the better their performance in listening comprehension tasks will be.

This finding is consistent with previous studies that have also reported a positive relationship between the use of metacognitive listening strategies and listening comprehension proficiency in EFL learners (e.g. Goh & Taib, 2006; Vandergrift & Tafaghodtari, 2010). Moreover, the current study's findings add to the existing literature by highlighting the importance of metacognitive listening strategies in the context of EFL learners' listening comprehension, particularly in relation to total listening test scores. One study by Vandergrift and Goh (2012) found that metacognitive strategies were highly effective in improving listening comprehension among EFL learners. Another study by Zhang (2018) also found that metacognitive strategies were positively correlated with EFL learners' listening comprehension. Similarly, a study by Cohen and Apeh (1980) found that the use of metacognitive strategies significantly improved EFL learners' listening comprehension. Another study by O'Malley and Chamot (1990) found that the use of metacognitive strategies was highly effective in improving second language learners' overall language proficiency, including listening comprehension. Furthermore, a meta-analysis by Oxford and Crookall (1989) showed that the use of metacognitive strategies was highly effective in improving language learners' listening comprehension, reading comprehension and overall language proficiency.

Other research has shown a correlation between EFL learners' level of metacognitive listening strategies and their listening comprehension test results, so that diverse studies have found that EFL learners who have a high level of metacognitive

listening strategies awareness tend to perform better on listening comprehension tests than those who have a low level of metacognitive awareness. One study that investigated this relationship was conducted by Lee and VanPatten (2003). The study found a significant positive correlation between EFL learners' use of metacognitive listening strategies and their scores on a listening comprehension test. The results of the study suggest that teaching EFL learners metacognitive listening strategies can help to improve their listening comprehension skills. Another study that investigated the relationship between metacognitive listening strategies and listening comprehension was conducted by Kim (2011). The study found that EFL learners who reported using metacognitive listening strategies had a higher level of listening comprehension than those who did not use these strategies. The results of the study support the importance of teaching metacognitive listening strategies to EFL learners. Additionally, a study conducted by Sajjadi and Ghanizadeh (2013) investigated the relationship between metacognitive listening strategies and listening comprehension among Iranian EFL learners. The study found that there was a positive correlation between the use of metacognitive listening strategies and the scores on a listening comprehension test. The results of the study suggest that teaching metacognitive listening strategies to EFL learners can help to improve their listening comprehension skills.

Closer to the Spanish situation, García-Madrid and Mur-Dueñas (2017) conducted a study examining the relationship between metacognitive listening strategies and listening comprehension in EFL students. The study used a self-reported questionnaire to gather data on the participants' use of metacognitive listening strategies, and their listening

comprehension was measured through a listening test. The results of the study showed a positive correlation between the use of metacognitive listening strategies and listening comprehension in EFL students.

For their part, Lu and Anderson (2017) also investigated the impact of metacognitive strategies on listening comprehension in a foreign language. The study used a pretest-posttest design to measure the effect of metacognitive strategies on listening comprehension. The results showed that participants who used metacognitive strategies had significantly higher scores on the listening comprehension test compared to those who did not use metacognitive strategies. Huang (2015) also conducted a study on the effect of metacognitive strategies on listening comprehension of EFL learners. This study, like the one previously mentioned, used a pre- and post-test design to measure the effect of metacognitive strategies on listening comprehension. The results of the study showed that the use of metacognitive strategies had a positive effect on the listening comprehension of EFL learners, leading the author to conclude that metacognitive strategies can be an effective tool for improving listening comprehension in a foreign language.

All these studies support the conclusion that metacognitive listening strategies are positively associated with listening comprehension in EFL learners. Additionally, they suggest that the use of metacognitive strategies can be an effective way to improve listening comprehension in a foreign language.

Generally, the current study adds to a growing body of research that emphasizes the importance of metacognitive strategies in language learning, particularly in improving listening comprehension. These findings suggest that language instructors should

emphasize the teaching and development of metacognitive strategies as part of their language teaching curriculum.

Overall, these results suggest that incorporating metacognitive listening strategies into EFL instruction may be beneficial for improving learners' listening comprehension abilities. It is recommended that EFL instructors provide explicit instruction and practice opportunities for learners to develop their metacognitive listening skills, such as setting goals, monitoring comprehension and evaluating understanding.

2.3 Existence of a correlation between EFL learners' level of metacognitive listening strategies and listening comprehension test results considering the language employed in the videos (NL vs. EIL)

Based on the given data, we can see that there is a significant difference in the Total Listening scores between the control group (videos with native speakers) and the experimental group (videos with EIL speakers). However, there is no significant difference in the Planning-Evaluation, Person Knowledge and Problem Solving subscales between the two groups. The Directed Attention subscale shows a significant difference between the two groups, while the Mental Translation subscale shows a marginally significant difference.

Although there is no direct measurement of metacognitive listening strategies in the data provided, we can infer that the different subscales measured in the study could be considered as indicators of different aspects of metacognitive listening strategies.

However, it is important to note that the subscales do not necessarily align perfectly with the definition and scope of metacognitive listening strategies as a construct.

The positive correlation between the level of metacognitive listening strategies and listening comprehension test results suggests that learners who use more metacognitive listening strategies tend to perform better on listening comprehension tests. This finding is consistent with previous research that suggests that metacognitive listening strategies can enhance learners' listening comprehension skills.

Furthermore, it is paramount to pinpoint that the correlation between metacognitive listening strategies and listening comprehension test results is stronger for the control group (NL videos) than for the experimental group (EIL videos). This may suggest that learners in the control group found it easier to understand the native speakers in the videos and thus were able to use their metacognitive listening strategies more effectively. On the other hand, learners in the experimental group may have had more difficulty understanding the EIL speakers, which may have affected their ability to use their metacognitive listening strategies effectively.

The finding that there is a positive correlation between metacognitive listening strategies and listening comprehension test results is consistent with previous research in the field. For example, a study by Vandergrift and Goh (2012) found that the use of metacognitive strategies was positively related to listening comprehension in a group of EFL learners. Another study by Zhang (2013) also found a positive correlation between metacognitive listening strategies and listening comprehension in Chinese university students.

However, the finding that the correlation is stronger for the control group (NL videos) than for the experimental group (EIL videos) is somewhat unexpected and

counterintuitive. Previous research has suggested that the use of EIL videos can be beneficial for developing listening comprehension skills in EFL learners. For example, a study by Derakhshan and Eslami-Rasekh (2016) found that using EIL videos in listening classes improved Iranian EFL learners' listening comprehension performance.

It is possible that the weaker correlation between metacognitive listening strategies and listening comprehension in the experimental group may be due to the fact that the EIL speakers used in the videos may have been more difficult for the learners to understand. Additionally, it is possible that the learners in the experimental group were less familiar with the language varieties of the EIL speakers, making it more difficult for them to use their metacognitive strategies effectively.

Along this line, another study, by Kormos and Dörnyei (2000), found that EFL learners were more likely to use metacognitive strategies when listening to native-like speech, compared to non-native-like speech. They concluded that exposure to native-like speech may help EFL learners to better understand the language and develop their metacognitive awareness. In fact, some research previously carried out by Canale and Swain (1980) had investigated the impact of exposure to native and non-native English speech on EFL learners' listening comprehension. They found that exposure to native English speech improved listening comprehension, but exposure to non-native English speech did not have a significant impact. In a more recent study, Peng and Dunkel (2017) investigated the impact of different language varieties (British English, American English, and English as a *Lingua Franca*) on EFL learners' listening comprehension and use of metacognitive strategies. They found that the learners selected for their study performed

better on a listening comprehension test and used more metacognitive strategies when listening to British English, compared to American English and English as a *Lingua Franca*.

All these studies suggest that exposure to native-like speech, and specifically British English, can have a positive impact on EFL learners' listening comprehension and use of metacognitive strategies. However, further research is needed to fully understand the impact of different language varieties on EFL learners' listening abilities, possibly including other factors, such as sustained exposure to the different varieties through the years.

We will focus now on different research where scholars aimed to understand the impact of metacognitive listening strategies and the type of language used in the listening materials on the listening comprehension of EFL learners in Spain. The studies analysed the relationship between the level of metacognitive listening strategies employed by EFL learners and their performance on listening comprehension tests. The results of these studies can provide valuable insight into the effectiveness of metacognitive listening strategies and the type of language used in listening materials for improving the listening comprehension of EFL learners in Spain.

One such study conducted by García-Madrid and Mur-Dueñas (2017) investigated the relationship between metacognitive listening strategies and listening comprehension in EFL students in Spain. The study found that the use of metacognitive listening strategies was positively related to listening comprehension test results. The results of this study suggest that teaching metacognitive listening strategies can be an effective way to support

the development of EFL learners' listening comprehension skills in Spain. Another study by Lu and Anderson (2017) investigated the impact of metacognitive strategies on listening comprehension in a foreign language in Spain. The study found that the use of metacognitive strategies had a significant positive impact on the listening comprehension of EFL learners. This study highlights the importance of teaching metacognitive listening strategies to EFL learners in Spain in order to support their listening comprehension development. Additionally, another study by Huang (2015) investigated the effect of metacognitive strategies on the listening comprehension of EFL learners in Spain, taking into consideration the type of language used in the listening materials. The study found that EFL learners who used metacognitive strategies had better listening comprehension results compared to those who did not. The study also found that the type of language used (EFL or native English) in the listening materials had a significant impact on the listening comprehension of EFL learners. These studies provide evidence for the importance of teaching metacognitive listening strategies and considering the type of language used in the listening materials for EFL learners in Spain. The results of these studies suggest that the use of metacognitive listening strategies can significantly improve the listening comprehension of EFL learners and support their language development.

In conclusion, while there is a positive correlation between metacognitive listening strategies and listening comprehension test results for both the control and experimental groups, the correlation is stronger for the control group. Further research is needed to better understand the relationship between metacognitive strategies and listening comprehension in EFL learners exposed to different types of input.

These findings have important implications for language teachers and curriculum designers. Language teachers may need to provide additional support and instruction on how to use metacognitive listening strategies when exposing learners to non-native speaker varieties. Curriculum designers may also need to consider incorporating more diverse listening materials into language courses to help learners develop their listening comprehension skills in a range of contexts.

2.4 Existence of a correlation between EFL learners' level of metacognitive listening strategies awareness and sex

The data shows that there are significant differences between males and females in terms of their listening strategies and comprehension performance. Specifically, females scored higher on all measures compared to males. The difference was statistically significant for Total Listening, Planning-Evaluation, Directed Attention, Mental Translation, Problem Solving, and Total MALQ (all $p < .05$).

The findings suggest that females may be more effective listeners and employ a more comprehensive set of listening strategies compared to males. These results are consistent with previous research on gender differences in language learning, which has shown that females tend to outperform males in various language learning tasks, including listening comprehension.

Based on the given data, we can conclude that there is a significant correlation between EFL learners' level of metacognitive listening strategies and sex. Females have a higher level of metacognitive listening strategies awareness than males, as indicated by the higher mean score for Total MALQ and all subcategories except for Person Knowledge.

For example, a study by Buck (2001) found that female ESL learners outperformed male ESL learners in listening comprehension tasks. Similarly, another study by Morrell and Whittaker (2019) found that female EFL learners in Saudi Arabia reported using more listening strategies compared to their male counterparts. This finding is consistent with previous research that has also reported that females have a higher level of metacognitive awareness in language learning than males. For example, a study by Khodabakhshzadeh and Ghonsooly (2016) found that female EFL learners had a higher level of metacognitive awareness than males. Similarly, a study by Rahimi and Abedini (2018) reported that female students showed higher levels of metacognitive knowledge and regulation than male students.

Other studies have also found a significant correlation between sex and metacognitive strategies in language learning. For instance, a study by Goh and Hu (2013) found that female learners had a higher level of metacognitive strategy use than male learners in an English language classroom in Singapore. Likewise, a study by Zhang (2017) found that female Chinese EFL learners had a higher level of metacognitive strategy use than their male counterparts. These studies provide a glimpse into the relationship between gender and the use of metacognitive listening strategies among EFL learners, but more research is needed to fully understand the impact of gender on the use of these strategies and their effect on listening comprehension.

In the case of Spain, several studies have shown that there may exist a relationship between the level of metacognitive listening strategy awareness and the gender of English as a Foreign Language learners. These studies aim to understand the differences, if any,

between male and female EFL learners in their use of metacognitive listening strategies, and their impact on listening comprehension. One such study was conducted by Martínez-Arbelaiz (2019) who investigated the relationship between metacognitive listening strategies, gender and listening comprehension in EFL learners in Spain. The results of the study showed that there was no significant difference between male and female EFL learners in their use of metacognitive listening strategies. However, the study did find that the use of metacognitive listening strategies was positively related to listening comprehension test results for both male and female EFL learners. In another study, Fernández-Toro, Ruiz-Garrido & García-Madrid (2018) explored the relationship between metacognitive listening strategy awareness and gender in EFL learners in Spain. The study found that male EFL learners had a higher level of metacognitive listening strategy awareness compared to female EFL learners. However, the study did not find a significant relationship between the level of metacognitive listening strategy awareness and listening comprehension test results. The results of all these studies provide evidence that there may be differences in the level of metacognitive listening strategy awareness between male and female EFL learners in Spain, but these differences do not necessarily impact their listening comprehension test results. Further research is needed to fully understand the relationship between gender, metacognitive listening strategies and listening comprehension in EFL learners in Spain.

In summary, the given data suggests that there is a significant correlation between EFL learners' level of metacognitive listening strategies awareness and sex, with females exhibiting, in general, a higher level of awareness.

2.5 Existence of a correlation between EFL learners' level of metacognitive listening strategies awareness and age

The study analysed the scores of participants between the ages of ten and thirteen in seven different listening strategies, including Total Listening, Planning-Evaluation, Directed Attention, Person Knowledge, Mental Translation, Problem Solving, and Total Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ). The results show that there is a significant difference in the mean scores of the listening strategies depending on the participants' age.

Total Listening, Directed Attention and Mental Translation appear to decrease as the participants' age increases, while the mean scores for Planning-Evaluation, Person Knowledge and Problem Solving appear to remain relatively stable. The mean score for Total MALQ, however, decreases with increasing age. The study also found that the standard deviation for most of the listening strategies increases with age, indicating that there is a greater variability in the scores of older participants.

The findings of this study suggest that metacognitive listening strategies may develop and change over time as participants get older. The decrease in Total Listening, Directed Attention, Mental Translation and Total MALQ scores as participants' age increases could suggest that these strategies are more effective in younger age groups, whereas the stability of Planning-Evaluation, Person Knowledge and Problem-Solving scores across age groups suggests that these strategies may be more consistent and reliable across different ages.

Previous research supports this finding, indicating that the development of metacognitive listening strategies is positively associated with age. For example, studies by Zhang and Zhang (2014) and Moskovsky, Alrabai & Paolini (2013) found that older EFL learners reported higher levels of metacognitive strategy use in listening than younger learners. One such study conducted by Kim and Anderson (2011) found that age had a significant effect on the use of metacognitive listening strategies. The study found that older EFL learners were more likely to use metacognitive strategies compared to younger EFL learners. In another study, Huang and Anderson (2009) found that older EFL learners had a higher level of metacognitive strategy awareness compared to younger EFL learners. The results of this study suggest that age may play a role in the development of metacognitive listening strategies in EFL learners. Another study, by Wang and Anderson (2013), also investigated the relationship between age and metacognitive listening strategies. The study found that age had a significant effect on the use of metacognitive strategies in EFL learners. Older learners were found to use metacognitive strategies more effectively than younger learners. A different study, by Yasin (2010), investigated the relationship between age and metacognitive strategies in foreign language learning. The study also found that older foreign language learners used more metacognitive strategies compared to younger learners. In a final case within the international panorama, García and O'Malley (1994) examined the relationship between age, language proficiency and the use of metacognitive strategies among EFL learners. The study found that older learners used more metacognitive strategies compared to younger learners, but there was no significant difference in the use of metacognitive strategies based on language proficiency.

Research studies have shown that metacognitive listening strategies may develop and change over time among Spanish students. Pérez (2015) investigated the development of metacognitive listening strategies among Spanish EFL learners of different ages and found that younger learners tended to use more global strategies, while older learners used more selective strategies. For their part, García-Sánchez and Martínez-Arbelaiz (2012) found that older learners used more metacognitive strategies and had better listening comprehension, indicating that age may play a role in the use of these strategies. Similarly, Díaz Moreno and Llinares García (2018) found that age was a significant predictor of strategy use, with older learners using more metacognitive strategies.

The decrease in Total Listening, Directed Attention, Mental Translation and Total MALQ scores as participants' age increases could suggest that these strategies are more effective in younger age groups, while the stability of Planning-Evaluation, Person Knowledge, and Problem-Solving scores across age groups suggests that these strategies may be more consistent and reliable across different ages (García-Sánchez & Martínez-Arbelaiz, 2012; Pérez, 2015; Díaz Moreno & Llinares García, 2018). These findings are important for educators and curriculum designers who aim to help Spanish students develop effective listening skills.

In conclusion, previous research suggests that metacognitive listening strategies may develop and change over time among Spanish students, with age playing a role in the use of these strategies. These findings provide insights into the effectiveness of different strategies across different age groups, which can inform educational practices for teaching listening skills to Spanish learners.

All these studies provide evidence for the relationship between the level of metacognitive listening strategy awareness and the age of EFL learners. The results suggest that older EFL learners tend to have a higher level of metacognitive strategy awareness and use metacognitive strategies more effectively than younger learners.

The hypothesis is that learners with a higher level of listening metacognitive awareness will do better on the listening comprehension test. They are more conscious of monitoring inferences throughout problem solving, as well as planning and evaluating their own effort, if they have a higher level of metacognitive listening awareness. It also entails a better awareness of what should be avoided when listening, a more accurate sense of the difficulty of a task and a greater ability to focus and sustain focus on their work despite potential distractions.

The study's results have implications for educators and researchers working in the field of language learning and teaching. The findings suggest that there is a need for targeted instruction and support for the development of metacognitive listening strategies in learners of different ages. Educators may need to provide younger learners with more guidance in developing listening skills such as Directed Attention and Mental Translation, which appear to be more effective in younger age groups. Meanwhile, older learners may need more support in developing strategies related to Total Listening and Total MALQ scores, as these strategies appear to be less effective in older age groups.

Despite limitations, the findings of this study can provide valuable insights for various fields. Firstly, it highlights the differences in these skills among different age groups, which can shed light on the development of metacognitive skills as children grow.

Secondly, the information can aid educators and researchers in understanding the learning strategies used by different age groups, thus enabling them to better support these strategies. Thirdly, the findings can be used to evaluate the effectiveness of interventions aimed at improving metacognitive listening strategies, leading to improvements in these interventions. Lastly, the data can serve as a foundation for further research into the development of metacognitive listening strategies and the factors that influence them.

3. Limitations

After conducting a thorough analysis of previous research on EFL learners' level of metacognitive listening strategies awareness, several limitations were identified. These limitations must be considered when interpreting the results and drawing conclusions from the research.

One of the main limitations of previous research is the relatively small sample sizes used in some studies. Small sample sizes can lead to less reliable and less generalizable results. Therefore, the findings from these studies may not accurately represent the wider EFL learner population. Additionally, some studies used convenience sampling methods, which may introduce bias into the sample selection process.

Another limitation of previous research is the use of self-report measures to assess metacognitive listening strategies awareness. Self-report measures rely on participants' subjective responses, which may be influenced by social desirability bias or lack of self-awareness. Furthermore, some participants may not have a complete understanding of metacognitive listening strategies, which can result in inaccurate responses.

The use of cross-sectional research designs is also a limitation of previous research. Cross-sectional research designs do not allow for the investigation of causal relationships, and thus, it is difficult to determine whether age or other demographic factors affect the level of metacognitive listening strategies awareness or if there are other factors at play.

The lack of consistency in the definitions and operationalization of metacognitive listening strategies is another limitation. Different studies use different measures of metacognitive listening strategies, making it difficult to compare findings across studies. This makes it challenging to determine which strategies are most effective in improving EFL learners' listening comprehension.

Finally, research has mostly focused on the level of metacognitive listening strategies awareness, but it does not explore the effectiveness of the implementation of these strategies. It is essential to examine whether learners who are aware of these strategies can apply them effectively in their listening comprehension tasks.

In conclusion, the limitations of previous research on EFL learners' level of metacognitive listening strategies awareness highlight the need for more comprehensive studies that address these limitations. The use of larger sample sizes, multiple measures of metacognitive listening strategies and longitudinal research designs can help to overcome some of the limitations identified in this study. Moreover, studies that investigate the effectiveness of applying these strategies to listening comprehension tasks can provide more insight into their practical applications in the EFL classroom.

4. Further research

The development of effective listening skills is a crucial component of language learning, and research has shown that the use of metacognitive listening strategies can play an important role in enhancing listening comprehension among Spanish learners. However, further research is needed to explore the effectiveness of different metacognitive listening strategies across different age groups of Spanish learners.

Investigating the effectiveness of different metacognitive listening strategies across different age groups of Spanish learners, including children, adolescents and adults, is an important area for future research. Previous studies have suggested that younger learners tend to use more global strategies, while older learners use more selective strategies. Examining the effectiveness of different strategies across different age groups can provide insights into the most appropriate strategies for different learner populations.

In addition to age, examining how the use of metacognitive listening strategies varies across different proficiency levels of Spanish learners, from beginners to advanced learners, is also important. This can help to identify the strategies that are most effective at different stages of language learning and inform the design of more targeted language teaching materials and curricula.

Furthermore, investigating the relationship between metacognitive listening strategies and other factors that may impact listening comprehension, such as motivation, anxiety and language learning aptitude, can provide a deeper understanding of the complex interplay between these factors and the use of metacognitive listening strategies.

Explicit instruction can also play a significant role in the development and use of metacognitive listening strategies among Spanish learners. Therefore, exploring the impact of explicit instruction on the development and use of these strategies is another important area for future research.

Moreover, examining how the use of metacognitive listening strategies varies across different types of listening tasks, such as listening for gist versus listening for detail, can also provide insights into the most effective strategies for different types of listening tasks.

The transferability of metacognitive listening strategies to other language skills, such as speaking, reading and writing, is another important area for future research. Investigating how metacognitive listening strategies can be transferred to other language skills can help to develop more comprehensive and integrated language teaching practices.

Cultural and individual factors also play a significant role in the use of metacognitive listening strategies among Spanish learners. Therefore, investigating the role of cultural and individual factors, such as learning style, educational background and cultural beliefs about learning, is another important area for future research.

Furthermore, examining how metacognitive listening strategies can be integrated into language teaching materials and curricula for Spanish learners at different proficiency levels is important. This can help to develop more effective and targeted language teaching practices that promote the use of metacognitive listening strategies.

Finally, investigating the impact of technology on the development and use of metacognitive listening strategies, such as the use of online resources, computer-assisted

language learning and mobile applications, is another important area for future research. Technology can provide new opportunities for the development and use of metacognitive listening strategies, and exploring the impact of technology on these strategies can inform the design of more effective language teaching practices.

In conclusion, using these and other similar research questions as a basis for reflection and analysis can provide a deeper understanding of the role of metacognitive listening strategies in the development of effective listening skills among Spanish learners and inform the design of more effective language teaching practices.

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Appendix I

Listening Test validation report by judges

CERTIFICADO DE VALIDEZ DE CONTENIDO DEL INSTRUMENTO (LISTENING TEST).

Para certificar la validez del instrumento presentado, es necesario que se valore de 5 a 10 las siguientes dimensiones que a continuación señalamos.

Dimensión	5	6	7	8	9	10
Pertinencia del Instrumento						X
Relevancia del Instrumento						X
Claridad de Instrumento					X	
Suficiencia						X
Aplicable						X
Aplicable después de corregir						X
No aplicable						

Observación: (precisar si hay suficiencia y si es aplicable):

En el test A, en el ejercicio 3 de la tarea 3 sería interesante cambiar algunas palabras de los huecos para que el alumnado tenga más tiempo para poder escribir.

En el test B, no se ve claramente el dibujo de pepperoni y se sugiere eliminarlo.

Apellidos y nombre del Juez Validador: Martínez Hidalgo, Eva

DNI: 75....03T

Especialidad del Validador: Maestra en Lengua Extranjera (Inglés)



Úbeda, 19 de octubre 2021.

CERTIFICADO DE VALIDEZ DE CONTENIDO DEL INSTRUMENTO (LISTENING TEST).

Para certificar la validez del instrumento presentado, es necesario que se valore de 5 a 10 las siguientes dimensiones que a continuación señalamos.

Dimensión	5	6	7	8	9	10
Pertinencia del Instrumento						X
Relevancia del Instrumento					X	
Claridad de Instrumento						X
Suficiencia						X
Aplicable						X
Aplicable después de corregir					X	
No aplicable						

Observación: (precisar si hay suficiencia y si es aplicable):

Se sugiere para el test A, añadir una opción extra en la caja para que puedan tener más variedad de opciones.

Se sugiere para el test B, dividir el último video en dos clips para facilitar la comprensión del ejercicio 1 (tarea 3) y de los ejercicios 2 y 3 (tarea 3).

Apellidos y nombre del Juez Validador: Rodríguez Aguilar, Ana Rocío

DNI: 26...75M

Especialidad del Validador: Maestra en Lengua Extranjera (Inglés)



Úbeda, 15 de octubre 2021.

CERTIFICADO DE VALIDEZ DE CONTENIDO DEL INSTRUMENTO (LISTENING TEST).

Para certificar la validez del instrumento presentado, es necesario que se valore de 5 a 10 las siguientes dimensiones que a continuación señalamos.

Dimensión	5	6	7	8	9	10
Pertinencia del Instrumento				x		
Relevancia del Instrumento						x
Claridad de Instrumento					x	
Suficiencia						x
Aplicable					x	
Aplicable después de corregir						x
No aplicable						

Observación: (precisar si hay suficiencia y si es aplicable):

En el ejercicio 2 de la tarea 1 del test B, sería interesante ordenar las frases tal y como van apareciendo en el video para que no se pierdan al escuchar.

Para el ejercicio 2 de la tarea 3 del test B, es muy importante subir el volumen del audio y eliminar ruido del video si fuera posible. El alumnado no está acostumbrado a un sonido que no sea limpio.

En el test B, se sugiere cambiar el ejercicio 2 de la tarea 3 de rellenar huecos por un ejercicio de ordenar donde aparezcan imágenes. Resulta bastante complicado para el alumnado.

Apellidos y nombre del Juez Validador: Orcera Expósito, Estefanía

DNI: 26...40C

Especialidad del Validador: Maestra en Lengua Extranjera (Inglés)



Úbeda, 15 de octubre 2021.

Appendix II

LISTENING TESTS A & B



LISTENING TEST A

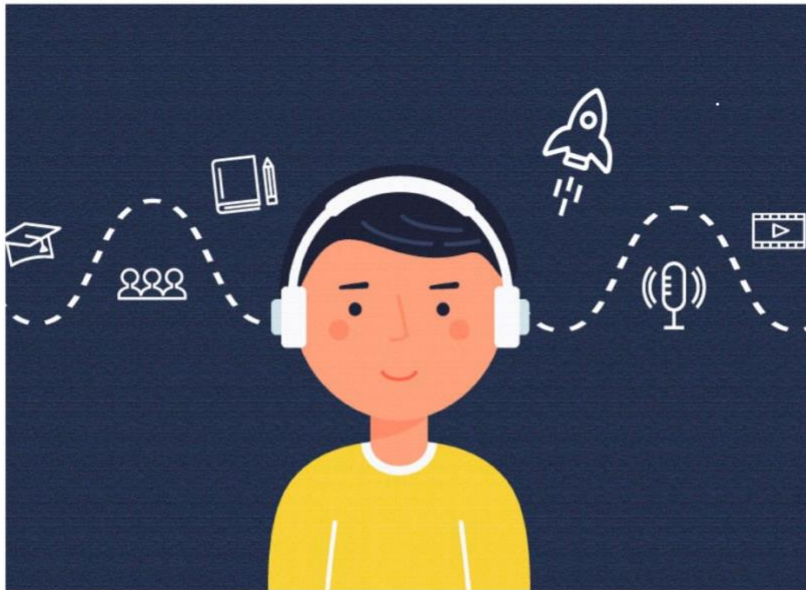
COLEGIO: _____

CURSO: 5° ____/6° ____

NÚMERO DE LISTA: _____

EDAD: _____

SEXO:  



GRUPO EXPERIMENTAL

1

LISTENING 1: What foods do you love?

EXERCISE 1. Watch the video. Circle all the foods Lucille mentions.



EXERCISE 2. Watch the video. Read the sentences and then write TRUE (T) or FALSE (F)

	T/F
1. Lucille loves salty food.	
2. Lucille likes to end a meal with tea.	
3. In France, you always finish your lunch with a coffee and a little chocolate or some sweet.	
4. Lucille loves breakfast.	
5. Breakfast in France is sweet.	

LISTENING 2: What's for Lunch?

EXERCISE 1. Watch the video. Complete the text with the words from the box. There is an extra word.

POTATOES MEAT SALAD SOMETHING LUNCH EXAMS FISH

I am making some 1) _____. We are very busy now because we have to study for
 2) _____ so I am making 3) _____ very quick. It's just some
 4) _____ with 5) _____ and 6) _____ that are even not peeled if
 you look at it.

EXERCISE 2. Watch the video. Answer the following questions about the interview. Choose the correct option.

1) Aiste is cooking _____.

- a) breakfast
- b) dinner
- c) lunch

2) She does not like to eat _____ in hot weather.

- a) meat
- b) soup
- c) potatoes

3) Her reason is because it is _____.

- a) easy to gain weight
- b) too hot to eat it
- c) hard to digest

LISTENING 3: What do you eat for breakfast?

EXERCISE 1. Watch the video. Answer the following questions about the interview. Choose the correct option. **VIDEO 1.**

1) Florencia is from _____.

- a) Algeria
- b) Australia
- c) Argentina

2) She eats _____.

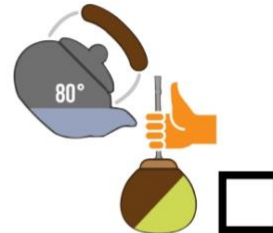
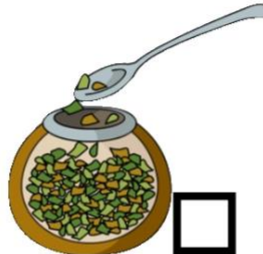
- a) eggs
- b) bacon
- c) cereal

3) She drinks _____.

- a) tea
- b) mate
- c) coffee



EXERCISE 2. Watch the video. Order the pictures with numbers. VIDEO 2.



EXERCISE 3. Watch the video. Fill in the gaps with the words you hear. VIDEO 2.

Mate is a 1) _____ from Argentina. It's a typical drink. I have one here, right here. This is a cup with a straw and you fill this is with "hierba" mate and I rather drink it with 2) _____ but most people drink it without. And you put hot 3) _____ in it and you drink it. And put hot water and drink it. And I drink this with butter 4) _____ or pastries. That's what I like the best. Well, you can tell that I'm not on a 5) _____.


LISTENING TEST B

COLEGIO: _____

CURSO: 5° ____ /6° ____

NÚMERO DE LISTA: _____

EDAD: _____

SEXO:  



LISTENING 1: What are your favorite pizza toppings?

EXERCISE 1. Watch the video. Circle all the toppings Nydja mentions.



EXERCISE 2. Watch the video. Read the sentences and then write TRUE (T) or FALSE (F).

	T/F
1. Nydja likes pizza with pepperoni.	
2. Nydja does not like pizza with onions.	
3. In the States, they like Supreme pizza.	
4. The cheese is not very important in pizza.	

EXERCISE 3. Watch the video. Complete the text with the words from the box. There is an extra word.

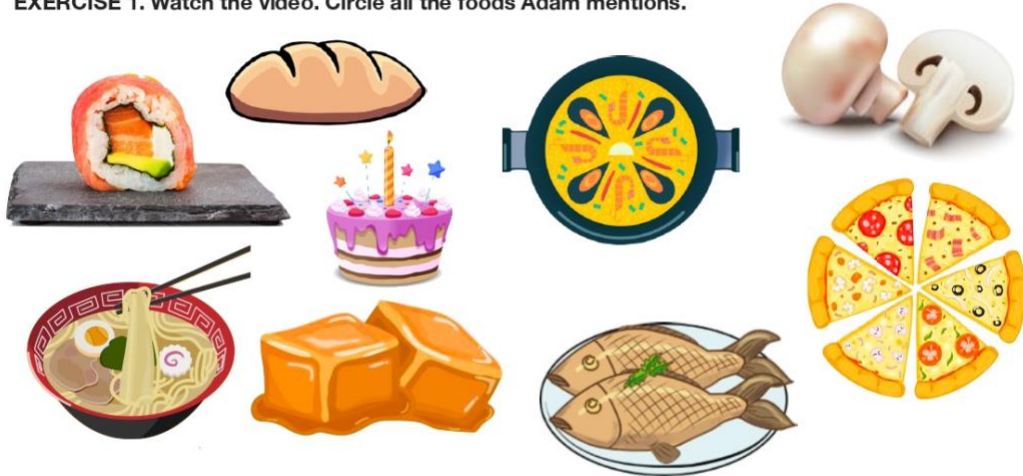
PIZZA VEGETABLES SUPREME GIRL FOOD

I am definitely a pizza 1)_____ and I love my
 2)_____ pizza. That's what we call it in the States.
 With that many toppings, that many 3)_____, it's
 usually referred to as a supreme 4)_____, and I love
 to get them, and I also like to have the soft crust.



LISTENING 2: What foods could you eat every day?

EXERCISE 1. Watch the video. Circle all the foods Adam mentions.



EXERCISE 2. Watch the video. Answer the following questions about the interview. Choose the correct option.

1) Adam is from ____.

- a) UK
- b) US
- c) Russia

2) He likes to eat ____.

- a) pasta
- b) pizza
- c) fish

3) He also likes ____ soup.

- a) miso
- b) minestrone
- c) milk

4) For dessert he likes ____.

- a) caramel
- b) chocolate
- c) cake



LISTENING 3: What is your favorite cuisine?

EXERCISE 1. Watch the video. Choose who says each sentence. VIDEO 1.

TOM	JESS	
		1. _____ is from the UK.
		2. _____ says the UK is not famous for food.
		3. _____ likes Spanish tapas.
		4. _____ doesn't eat big meals.

EXERCISE 2. Watch the video. Complete the text with the words missing. VIDEO 2.

Jess: I know you've travelled a lot, Tom. How about you? What's your 1) _____ cuisine?

Tom: I like 2) _____ for the 3) _____ flavours, but spicy food really gets me:
 4) _____ in Thailand and in 5) _____, that strong ... and also sour flavours of
 lime and 6) _____ grass. Give me a spicy 7) _____ and that hot food and I'm
 in heaven.



Appendix III

LISTENING TEST A & B- VIDEOS

LISTENING TEST A

VIDEO EXERCISE	PARTICIPANTS	LANGUAGE	DURATION
EXERCISES 1 & 2	1- Lucille	French	01.22
LINK	https://drive.google.com/file/d/18VY0rPnioHVWEKD3eubyJm3h3jp-TI8V/view?usp=sharing		



VIDEO EXERCISE	PARTICIPANTS	LANGUAGE	DURATION
EXERCISE S 3 & 4	2- Aiste and Chris	Lithuanian and French	00.49
LINK	https://drive.google.com/file/d/18X3TpVvhoeTC2Nh5FZsPlgv_yjU6BI9F/view?usp=sharing		



VIDEO EXERCISE	PARTICIPANTS	LANGUAGE	DURATION
EXERCISE 5	1- Florencia https://drive.google.com/file/d/18Lu-25ZKd10Ix1Wk-sbYQQKt_5mCywrv/view?usp=sharing	Spanish	00.20



VIDEO EXERCISE	PARTICIPANTS	LANGUAGE	DURATION
EXERCISES 6 & 7	1- Florencia https://drive.google.com/file/d/18VTYKBj3Xgwe__peKFDrCmFyP03fjFYC/view?usp=sharing	Spanish	00.41



LISTENING TEST B

VIDEO EXERCISE	PARTICIPANTS	LANGUAGE	DURATION
EXERCISES 1, 2 & 3 LINK	1- Nydja https://drive.google.com/file/d/18Xh6qH7ArBe6gKqMF4y1zZOtaInBmGXq/view?usp=sharing	US English	00.41



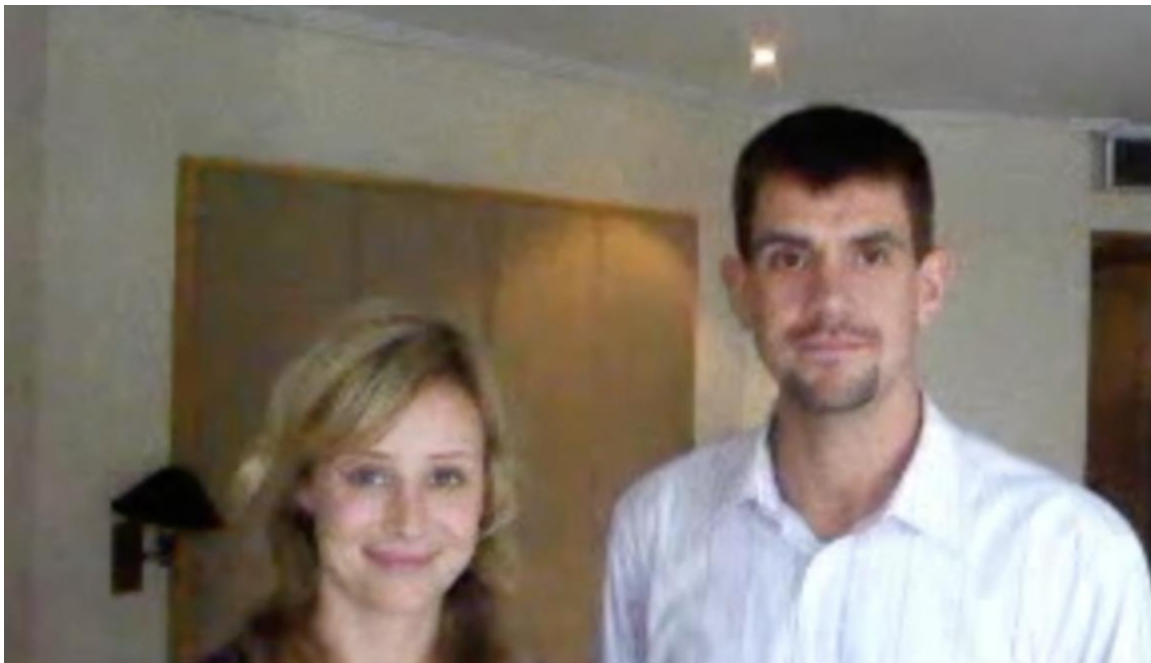
VIDEO EXERCISE	PARTICIPANTS	LANGUAGE	DURATION
EXERCISES 4 & 5 LINK	1- Adam https://drive.google.com/file/d/18aCZCI4UL14jkFOyx5oNswL0Mt7mIrQ3/view?usp=sharing	US English	01.08



VIDEO EXERCISE	PARTICIPANTS	LANGUAGE	DURATION
EXERCISE 6 LINK	2- Tom and Jess https://drive.google.com/file/d/18h8Ps4HAm7c5x_2oW_njTQqxxlR55-8E/view?usp=sharing	UK English	00.30



VIDEO EXERCISE	PARTICIPANTS	LANGUAGE	DURATION
EXERCISE 7 LINK	2- Tom and Jess https://drive.google.com/file/d/18hrI9u5ozYCArluAPt0CN6ij8OtEdhd/view?usp=sharing	UK English	00.29



Appendix IV

DATOS ANTES DEL CUESTIONARIO



GRUPO: 6°A/6°B/6°C/6°D LOCALIDAD: NÚMERO DE EDAD: SEXO:
LISTA: GRUPO: 5°A/5°B/5°C/5°D

- A. ¿HAS REPETIDO ALGÚN CURSO? SI/NO. SI TU RESPUESTA ES SÍ, INDICA CUÁNTAS VECES HAS REPETIDO: _____ veces
- B. ¿HAN NACIDO TUS PADRES FUERA DE ESPAÑA? ¿SÍ? ¿NO? ¿DÓNDE? Padre/madre _____ /
- C. ¿HAS NACIDO TÚ FUERA DE ESPAÑA? ¿SÍ? ¿NO? ¿DÓNDE? _____
- D. ¿QUÉ NOTA HAS SACADO EN LA ÚLTIMA EVALUACIÓN EN LA ASIGNATURA DE INGLÉS? _____
- E. ¿QUÉ TIPOS DE EJERCICIOS SON LOS QUE MÁS TE CUESTAN EN INGLÉS? MARCA SOLO 1 OPCIÓN



Reading



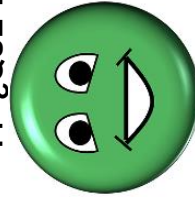
Listening



Speaking



Writing



Reading



Listening



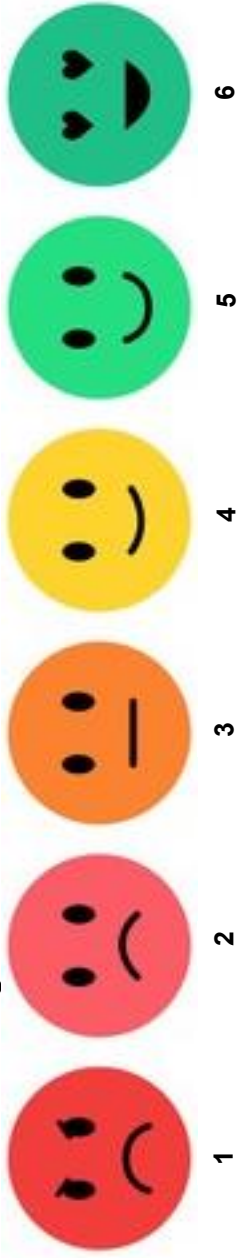
Speaking



Writing

- F. ¿QUÉ TIPOS DE EJERCICIOS SON TUS FAVORITOS EN LA CLASE DE INGLÉS? MARCA SOLO 1 OPCIÓN







G. DEL 1 AL 6. ¿CUÁNTO TE GUSTA LA ASIGNATURA DE INGLÉS?



CUESTIONARIO

		1	2	3	4	5	6
EJEMPLO		Muy en desacuerdo	En desacuerdo	Parcialmente en desacuerdo	Parcialmente de acuerdo	De acuerdo	Muy de acuerdo
0	Me gusta aprender otro idioma						
1	Antes de comenzar a escuchar un audio, tengo en la cabeza cómo lo voy a escuchar.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	Cuando se me hace difícil entender el audio intento concentrarme más en él.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	Pienso que entender un audio es más difícil que leer, hablar o escribir en inglés.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	Mientras escucho voy traduciendo mentalmente.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	Uso las palabras que entiendo	1	2	3	4	5	6

	para descubrir el significado de las palabras que no comprendo.								
6	Cuando me desconcentro, puedo volver a concentrarme rápidamente.	1	2	3	4	5	6		
7	Mientras escucho un audio, comparo lo que entiendo con lo que sé del tema.	1	2	3	4	5	6		

	 1	 2	 3	 4	 5	 6
	Muy en desacuerdo	En desacuerdo	Parcialmente en desacuerdo	Parcialmente de acuerdo	De acuerdo	Muy de acuerdo
8	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	1	2	3	4	5	6

Creo que entender un audio en inglés es difícil para mí.

Uso todo lo que sé en inglés para intentar comprender.

Antes de escuchar un audio, pienso en audios parecidos que ya he escuchado.

Traduzco las palabras clave mientras las escucho.

Intento volver al audio cuando me desconcentro.

Mientras voy escuchando, corrijo lo que estoy entendiendo si me doy cuenta de que lo estoy haciendo mal.

Después de escuchar, pienso en cómo escuché



	1	2	3	4	5	6
	Muy en desacuerdo	En desacuerdo	Parcialmente en desacuerdo	Parcialmente de acuerdo	De acuerdo	Muy de acuerdo
16	1	2	3	4	5	6
17	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	1	2	3	4	5	6
19	1	2	3	4	5	6

16 Cuando me cuesta entender lo que estoy escuchando, me rindo y dejo de prestar atención.

17 Uso lo que se de la idea principal del texto para descubrir el significado de las palabras que no entiendo.

18 Traduzco palabra por palabra mientras escucho un audio.

19 Cuando creo que conozco el significado de una palabra, trato de recordar el resto del audio para comprobar si lo que estoy entiendo tiene sentido.

20	A medida que escucho el audio, me paro a pensar si estoy satisfecho/a con lo que voy entendiendo.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21	Cuando escucho un audio, lo hago con un objetivo en mente.	1	2	3	4	5	6

