T.C.

DOKUZ EYLÜL UNIVERSITY

INSTITUTE OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES

DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES TEACHING

ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING PROGRAMME

MA THESIS

AN EXPLORATORY STUDY ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MOTIVATION TYPES, METACOGNITIVE AWARENESS, AND EFL LISTENING PROFICIENCY

Eda CEYLAN

İzmir

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Eda CEYLAN

Supervisor

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İzmir

2016

YEMİN METNİ

Yüksek Lisans Tezi olarak sunduğum “An Exploratory Study on the Relationship Between Motivation Types, Metacognitive Awareness, and EFL Listening Proficiency” adlı çalışmanın, tarafımdan, bilimsel ahlak ve geleneklere aykırı düşecek bir yardıma başvurmaksızın yazıldığını ve yararlandığım eserlerin kaynakçada gösterilenlerden oluştuğunu, bunlara atıf yapılarak yararlanılmış olduğunu belirtir ve bunu onurumla doğrularım.

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Tezin Özgün Adı	An Exploratory Study on the Relationship between Motivation Types, Metacognitive Awareness, and EFL Listening Proficiency
Tezin Tercümesi	Güdülenme Türleri, Üstbilişsel Farkındalık ve İngilizce Yabancı Dil Dinleme Yeterliliği Arasındaki İlişki Üzerine Bir Çalışma
Konu	Eğitim ve Öğretim = Education and Training
Üniversite	Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi
Enstitü / Hastane	Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü
Anabilim Dalı	Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı
Bilim Dalı	İngilizce Öğretmenliği Bilim Dalı
Tez Türü	Yüksek Lisans
Yılı	2016
Sayfa	169
Tez Danışmanları	PROF. DR. LEYLA HARPUTLU 21091861110
Dizin Terimleri	
Önerilen Dizin Terimleri	
Kısıtlama	12 ay süre ile kısıtlı

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17.05.2016

İmza:.....

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First of all, I would like to thank to my advisor Prof. Dr. Leyla HARPUTLU for her invaluable guidance and support throughout the preparation of this thesis. I am very grateful to her for her continuous encouragement throughout my research study. This dissertation could not have been completed properly without her great support and professional assistance.

I am also very thankful to the Prof. Dr. Fatma Feryal ÇUBUKÇU, who has encouraged and inspired me in my academic education. Moreover, I would like to thank her for her insightful comments and helpful suggestions.

I am deeply gratitude to the participants of this study. I could not have accomplished my thesis without their participation, collaboration and effort.

I also would like to extend my sincere thanks and appreciation to my friends, Sevgi AYDIN, Seçil YILDIZ, and Hatice ÇOŞKUN, who show me that true friendship is not diminished by distance or time.

Finally, I would like to express my deepest gratitude to my parents, Necibe CEYLAN and Abdulbaki CEYLAN, who supported me through this journey from start to finish. I am really thankful to them both for the inspiration, encouragement, love, support, and patience. And my beloved brothers, Emre CEYLAN, Eren CEYLAN, and Erkan CEYLAN…They always were always there for me, to listen to my complaints and to make me feel better. I am so lucky to have such amazing parents and brothers.

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ABSTRACT

Even if listening plays a crucial role in both daily life and language learning process, it is generally underestimated by language teachers. It is usually considered as a means to be used while grammar and other language skills are taught. Thus, language learners do not receive enough support about how to control the process of listening. That is why it is significant to focus on listening skill and provide insight into it. This study explores the relationships between the motivation types, the metacognitive awareness and the listening proficiency of English as a foreign language (EFL) learners. Additionally, the study examines whether gender and year in school (freshmen, sophomores, juniors, and seniors) affect the motivation types, the metacognitive awareness and the listening proficiency of EFL learners. The participants were 240 Turkish undergraduate students majoring in English Language Teaching (ELT) at Dokuz Eylül University. They completed two scales and a listening proficiency test: The Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ) (Vandergrift, Goh, Mareschal, and Tafaghodtari, 2006), the Language Learning Orientations Scale (LLOS) (Noels, Pelletier, Clément, and Vallerand, 2000), and the listening section of the TOEFL. First, the listening section of TOEFL was applied to the participants in group sessions at classrooms by the researcher. Immediately after the administration of the listening test, the MALQ and the LLOS were conducted. The analysis revealed a significant positive relationship between learners' metacognitive awareness scores and listening performance. Moreover, listening performance was associated positively with more self-determined forms of motivation (intrinsic motivation and its types), but negatively with less self-determined forms of motivation (amotivation, external regulation, and introjected regulation). Although correlations were not as high as expected, intrinsically motivated students had more tendency to utilize problem solving, directed attention, and planning and evaluation strategies than extrinsically motivated and amotivated learners.

Key words: Listening, metacognitive awareness, metacognitive strategies, motivation types, self-determination theory.

ÖZET

Dinleme becerisi hem günlük yaşamda hem de dil edinim sürecinde önemli bir yere sahip olmasına rağmen öğretmenler ve araştırmacılar tarafından genellikle göz ardı edilmektedir. Genellikle dilbilgisini veya diğer dil becerilerini öğretmek için kullanılan bir araç olarak algılanmaktadır. Bu algıdan dolayı yabancı dil öğrencileri dinleme sürecini nasıl kontrol edeceklerine dair yeterli yardımı alamamaktadır. Bu yüzden dinleme becerisi üzerine çalışmak ve onunla ilgili daha çok bilgi sahibi olmak oldukça önemlidir. Bu çalışma yabancı dil olarak İngilizce öğrenen öğrencilerin güdülenme türleri, üstbilişsel farkındalıkları ve dinleme yeterlikleri arasındaki ilişkiyi incelemektedir. Ayrıca bu çalışma cinsiyet ve sınıf gibi değişkenlerin öğrencilerin güdülenme türlerini, üstbilişsel farkındalıklarını ve dinleme yeterliklerini etkileyip etkilemediğini araştırmaktadır. Çalışmanın katılımcılarını Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi İngiliz Dili Eğitimi bölümünden 240 öğrenci oluşturmaktadır. Katılımcılara iki ölçek ve bir dinleme yeterlik testi uygulanmıştır: Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ) (Vandergrift, Goh, Mareschal ve Tafaghodtari, 2006), Language Learning Orientations Scale (LLOS) (Noels, Pelletier, Clément ve Vallerand, 2000) ve TOEFL'ın dinleme bölümü. İlk olarak dinleme testi uygulanmış hemen sonrasında öğrencilerden ölçekleri tamamlamaları istenmiştir. Analizler, öğrencilerin üst bilişsel farkındalık puanlarıyla dinleme performansları arasında pozitif yönde anlamlı bir ilişki olduğunu göstermiştir. Ayrıca sonuçlar dinleme performansı ile güdülenmenin daha özerk formları (içsel güdülenme ve türleri) arasında olumlu bir ilişki olduğunu gösterirken dinleme performansı ile güdülenmenin daha az özerk formları (amotivasyon, dışsal düzenleme ve dışa yansıtılmış düzenleme) arasında olumsuz bir ilişki olduğunu göstermiştir. Bunun dışında çalışma, ilişki beklendiği kadar kuvvetli olmasa da içsel güdülenen bireylerin, güdülenmeyen veya dışsal güdülenen bireylere oranla daha fazla problem çözme, dikkatini verme, planlama ve değerlendirme stratejilerini kullanmakta olduğunu göstermiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Dinleme, üstbilişsel farkındalık, üstbilişsel stratejiler, güdülenme türleri, öz yeterlik teorisi.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

The starting point of this study is that listening is the least understood, taught and researched skill (Vandergrift, 2007, 2010) even if it is the most widely used language skill in second language acquisition (SLA) (Nunan, 2003). In language classrooms, it is like Cinderella which has been often disregarded by its half-sister, speaking (Nunan, 2002). It is usually considered as a passive activity in which the listener soaks up what the speaker sent like a sponge (Lucas, 2007). Most of language teachers and researchers are not generally concerned with listening because of its implicit and complex nature. Although listening is neglected, it has a crucial role in SLA and merits more attention. Therefore, this study predominantly focuses on second language (L2) listening and two factors related to it, namely metacognitive awareness and motivation.

The term 'metacognition' was coined by Flavell (1976). He defined it as "one's knowledge concerning one's own cognitive processes and products or anything related to them" (p.232). Metacognition plays a crucial role in language learning. The learners using metacognition have knowledge of their own and others' cognitive processes. They are aware of what they know and what they do not know (Dunlosky and Metcalfe, 2009). Paris and Winograd (1990) state that the learners using metacognition can monitor their own learning, thus shifting part of the responsibility from teacher to student. According to Anderson (2008), "metacognition results in critical but healthy reflection and evaluation of thinking

that may result in making specific changes in how learning is managed, and in the strategies chosen for this purpose" (p.99). Paris and Winograd (1990) also claim that the students utilizing metacognition develop positive self-perceptions and become motivated. Therefore, it is significant to measure language learners' metacognitive awareness with regard to listening strategies, to detect how they feel about listening skill and to seek their relationship with listening performance.

Other factor that are related to listening skill is motivation, which refers to "the choices people make as to what experiences or goals they will approach or avoid, and the degree of effort they will exert in that respects" (Keller, 1983, p. 389). "Until today, many theories have attempted to explain the basis of motivation in L2 learning including socio-educational model, self-determination theory, goal theories, and attribution theory" (Harputlu and Ceylan, 2014, p.126). However, little research has focused on whether L2 listening and motivation are related with each other (Vandergrift, 2005). This study examined the relationship between L2 listening and motivation in terms of self-determination theory (SDT) developed by Deci and Ryan (1985). The theory can be described as a predominantly social psychology theory since its main focus is on need satisfaction, interpersonal interactions and social environments (Olesen, 2011). One of the main focuses of the theory is motivation types, namely intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. It proposes that intrinsic and extrinsic motivation lie along a continuum of self-determination. In other words, in this continuum, the types of motivation are ordered in accordance with the degree to which motivation is originated from self. In this regard, self-determination theory differs from other motivation theories that have attempted to explain the basis of motivation in L2 learning. Therefore, it is essential to explore the relationship between L2 listening performance and the motivation types.

Taking all these into account, it can be assumed that a study which examines the relationship between motivation types, metacognitive awareness and L2 listening proficiency may provide valuable insight into how to improve to learn and teach listening skill.

1.2 The Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to explore the relationships between motivation types, metacognitive awareness, and EFL listening proficiency. This study also aims to examine whether gender and year in school affect motivation types, metacognitive awareness and EFL listening proficiency.

1.3 Significance of the Study

This study could be regarded as significant in several ways. First of all, even if listening is a crucial element in both daily life and education, it is generally underestimated by language teachers and researchers. Listening is usually considered as a means to be used while grammar and other skills are taught. It is the least understood, taught and researched skill (Vandergrift, 2007, 2010). Moreover, most of language teachers have a misunderstanding about listening activities and consider that listening activities consist of listening to a passage and then answering the questions about the passage. In other words, the teachers only test the students in listening, and they do not teach how to listen. Hence, language learners do not receive enough support about how to control the process of listening. Besides, they feel anxious and stressful about listening because they are put in activities where they have to show how much they have understood (Vandergrift and Goh, 2012). So, it is significant to focus on listening skill and provide insight into it.

Secondly, this study is one of the initial attempts to extend SDT to the investigation of L2 listening motivation. There have been several studies that adapt SDT to L2 motivation (Noels, Clement and Pelletier, 1999; Noels, Pelletier, Clement and Vallerand, 2000; McIntosh and Noels, 2004, Pae, 2008; Comanaru and Noels, 2009). However, little of research has focused on whether the theory can be applied to L2 listening (Vandergrift, 2005). Vandergrift (2005) investigated the relationship between motivation orientations proposed by SDT and listening proficiency, and studied with the high school students. Yet, this study's participants are the university students, thus it aims to fill the gap in the field.

In addition, several studies have aimed to explore the relationship between motivation and language learning strategies (Oxford and Nyikos, 1989; MacIntyre and Noels, 1996; Schmidt and Watanabe, 2001). Yet, limited research has aimed to investigate whether motivation and metacognitive listening strategies are related (Vandergrift, 2005). Hence, this study may help language teachers notice that these factors are connected. They can utilize them together to enhance the effectiveness of listening courses.

Briefly, this study may guide language teachers as it presents important variables connected with listening skill. If language teachers take its findings into account, the listening activities can be more properly designed and applied in EFL classes, thus it is most likely for the students to be successful in improving their listening. Accordingly, they reach a considerable level in oral communication.

1.4 The Statement of the Problem

Is there a relationship between motivation types, metacognitive awareness, and EFL listening proficiency?

1.5 Research Questions

This study aims to answer the following research questions:

1. Is there a relationship between the metacognitive awareness and the listening proficiency of EFL students?
2. Is there a relationship between the motivation types and the listening proficiency of EFL students?
3. Is there a relationship between the motivation types and the metacognitive awareness of EFL students?
4. Is there a gender difference in the listening proficiency of EFL students?
5. Is there a gender difference in the metacognitive awareness of EFL students?

6. Is there a gender difference in the motivation types of EFL students?
7. Does the listening proficiency of EFL students differ depending on the year in school?
8. Does the metacognitive awareness of EFL students differ depending on the year in school?
9. Does the motivation types of EFL students differ depending on the year in school?

1.6 Delimitations of the Study

This study includes the following delimitations:

1. Participants in this study were delimited to young adult undergraduate EFL learners of Dokuz Eylül University, in Izmir, Turkey.
2. Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ), Language Learning Orientations Scale (LLOS) and the listening section of the TOEFL were all administered in English, which is not the first language (L1) of the participants.
3. The instruments in the study were two questionnaires and a proficiency test.

1.7 Limitations of the Study

This study includes the following limitations:

1. The listening section of the TOEFL was not administered in an internet-based exam format, but a paper-based format due to the lack of computers and internet at English Language Teaching (ELT) Department.
2. Regarding the age of the participants, the results of the present study may not necessarily generalize to young, middle-aged, or elderly learners.
3. Regarding the setting and the participants of the present study, the results may not necessarily generalize to students in different contexts of various countries with divergent cultures.

1.8 Assumptions of the Study

The assumptions of this study are:

1. The participants honestly responded to the instruments, MALQ and LLOS.
2. The participants answered the questions in the listening comprehension test faithfully and sincerely.
3. The listening comprehension test is valid and reliable as it has been taken from a TOEFL test, which is a standardized test.

1.9 Definition of Terms

The terms that are frequently used throughout this study are defined as follows:

Listening is an active and dynamic process in which the listener receives oral and/or the visual input, attends to it, assigns it to literal meaning, interprets and evaluates it through his or her background knowledge and finally responds to the speaker depending on the purpose for listening, socio-cultural context of listening, and needs of the speaker (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990; Purdy, 1997; Rost, 2002; Wolvin, 2009).

Metacognition refers to "one's knowledge concerning one's own cognitive processes and products or anything related to them…the active monitoring and consequent regulation and orchestration of these processes in relation to the cognitive objects on which they bear, usually in the service of some concrete goals or objectives" (Flavell, 1976, p. 232).

Metacognitive awareness refers to "a state of consciousness of our own thoughts as we focus on a particular cognitive or learning situation" (Vandergrift and Goh, 2012, p. 84).

Metacognitive strategies are "executive processes associated with the regulation and management of learning, and include strategies used to plan a task, to monitor a task in progress, and evaluate the success of a task after its completion" (Chamot, 1995, p.15).

Metacognitive listening strategies are the strategies by which listeners consciously attend to spoken text and check their comprehension through monitoring and evaluation (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990).

Problem-solving strategies are "localized, focused problem-solving or repair strategies used when problems develop in understanding textual information" (Mokhtari and Reichard, 2002, p. 252).

Planning and evaluation strategies are the strategies that require students to develop an awareness of what needs to be done to accomplish a listening task, have an appropriate action plan and/or appropriate contingency plan to overcome difficulties and also check the outcomes of their listening comprehension against an internal measure of completeness and accuracy (Vandergrift, 1997b).

Directed attention strategies are the strategies that require "listeners concentrate, stay on task, and focus their listening efforts" (Vandergrift and Tafaghodtari, 2010, p. 477).

Mental translation refers to "the ability to use mental translation parsimoniously" (Vandergrift and Tafaghodtari, 2010, p. 477).

Person knowledge refers to "learner perceptions concerning how they learn best, the difficulty presented by L2 listening, and their self-efficacy in L2 listening" Vandergrift and Tafaghodtari, 2010, p. 477).

Motivation is "the dynamically changing cumulative arousal in a person that initiates, directs, coordinates, amplifies, terminates, and evaluates the cognitive and

motor processes whereby initial wishes and desires are selected, prioritised, operationalised, and (successfully or unsuccessfully) acted out" (Dörnyei and Otto, 1998, p. 64).

Self-determination theory is "a macro-theory of human motivation which addresses such basic issues as personality development, self-regulation, self-determined behavior, universal psychological needs, life goals and aspirations, motivation types, energy and vitality, nonconscious processes, the relations of culture to motivation, and the impact of social environments on motivation, affect, behavior, and wellbeing" (Deci and Ryan, 2008b, p. 182).

Extrinsic Motivation refers to doing an activity in order to attain some separable outcome rather than for taking pleasure in the activity itself (Deci, Vallerand, Pelletier and Ryan, 1991). There are four different types of extrinsic motivation: external regulation, introjected regulation, identified regulation, and integrated regulation (Ryan and Deci, 2000c).

External regulation is "the least self-determined form of extrinsic motivation" (Deci, Vallerand, Pelletier and Ryan, 1991, p. 329). When people are externally regulated, they perform activities due to external factors such as attaining a reward or avoiding a punishment.

Introjected regulation refers to "a relatively controlled form of regulation in which behaviors are performed to avoid guilt or anxiety or to attain ego enhancements such as pride" (Ryan and Deci, 2000b, p.72). It is a more self-determined type of extrinsic motivation than external regulation.

Identified regulation is a more self-determined type of extrinsic motivation in which people engage in activities since they find them personally valuable, important, beneficial, and useful (Ryan and Deci, 2000b).

Integrated regulation is the most self-determined form of extrinsic motivation in which regulations are fully assimilated to the self (Ryan and Deci, 2000a).

Intrinsic Motivation is "the innate tendency to engage in an activity for the sole pleasure and satisfaction derived from its practice" (Pelletier, Tuson, Green-Demers, Noels, and Beaton, 1998, p. 441).

Intrinsic motivation to know refers to "performing an activity for the pleasure and the satisfaction that one experiences while learning, exploring, or trying to understand something new" (Vallerand, et al., 1992, p. 1005).

Intrinsic motivation to accomplish is defined as "engaging in an activity for the pleasure and satisfaction experienced when one attempts to accomplish or create something" (Vallerand, et al., 1992, p. 1005).

Intrinsic motivation to stimulation is defined as participating in an activity for "stimulating sensations (e.g., sensory pleasure, aesthetic experiences, as well as fun and excitement) derived from one's engagement in the activity" (Vallerand, et al., 1992, p. 1006).

Amotivation refers to "the state of lacking an intention to act" (Ryan and Deci, 2000a, p.61). Amotivated people do not see a relationship between their behavior and the consequence of the behavior (Ratelle, Guay, Vallerand, Larose, and Senecal, 2007).

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

In the forthcoming sections in this chapter, a theoretical framework for L2 listening skill, metacognitive awareness, and motivation from perspective of self-determination theory are presented. The first section includes a definition of listening, significance of listening, processes of listening, factors related to listening. The second section contains a definition of metacognition and metacognitive awareness, components of metacognitive awareness, namely metacognitive knowledge, metacognitive experience and strategy use. The final section of this chapter focuses on motivation, self-determination theory, and self-determination theory in SLA.

2.2 Listening

A great number of researchers have attempted to define listening, but there is no consensus on its definition due to the implicit and unobservable nature of listening (Brownell and Wolvin, 2008; Lynch, 2011). The earliest definitions of listening are mainly rooted in the idea that listening is a process of comprehending oral input (Lundsteen, 1971; Littlewood, 1981; Goss, 1989; Underwood, 1989). Lundsteen (1971) defines listening as “the process by which spoken language is converted to meaning in the mind” (p.9). Littlewood (1981) points out that listening is a complex activity in which listeners reconstruct the message that speakers intend by using both linguistic and non-linguistic sources. According to Goss (1989), listening is “the process of taking what you hear and organizing it into verbal units to which you can

apply meaning" (p.121). Underwood (1989) simply defines listening as "the activity of paying attention to and trying to get meaning from something we hear" (p. 1).

More recently, researchers have posited that listening is more than comprehending or getting meaning from what one hears (Thomlison, 1984; O'Malley and Chamot, 1990; Purdy, 1997; Rost, 2002; Wolvin, 2009). Thomlison (1984) defines listening as an active process in which listeners not only comprehend what they hear but also empathize with the speaker and understand his or her inner states. O'Malley and Chamot (1990) define listening as a dynamic and conscious activity that meaning is constructed by drawing on both contextual information and prior knowledge as well as by using a variety of strategies to carry out the listening task at hand. According to the International Listening Association, listening is "the process of receiving, constructing meaning from, and responding to spoken and/or nonverbal messages" (An ILA Definition of Listening, 1995, p. 4). Purdy (1997) states that "listening is the active and dynamic process of attending, perceiving, interpreting, remembering, and responding to the expressed (verbal and nonverbal) needs, concerns, and information offered by other human beings" (p.8). Rost (2002) identifies listening in terms of four orientations: it is a process in which the listener catches what the speaker says or decodes the message of the speaker (receptive orientation); constructs and represents meaning (constructive orientation); cooperates with the speaker and responds to him or her (collaborative orientation); and, creates meaning in the speaker and shows empathy (transformative orientation). Wolvin (2009) also defines listening as a dynamic process where listeners engage in a sequence of behaviors including receiving, attending, perceiving, interpreting, and responding. According to Wood (2014), listening is an active and complex process in which listeners become mindful, receive messages, select and organize information, interpret communication, respond, and remember.

When the definitions of listening in the literature are examined, it is obvious that researchers put their emphasis on a few key concepts: Receiving, attending, perceiving, interpreting, and responding. These concepts are interconnected components of listening (Purdy, 1997). Thereby, it is important to identify these

components for the understanding of listening better. Receiving refers to sensing or physically processing auditory and visual stimuli from the environment (O'Rourke and Collins, 2009). The listener utilizes auditory and visual sensory receptors during reception (Wolvin, 2009). In other words, the listener receives input through his /her eyes and ears. Attending refers to focusing on this auditory and visual stimulus. While attending, the listener blocks out distractions and concentrates on the message. Perceiving refers to becoming aware of the message, the speaker and the context (Purdy, 1997). One's background knowledge, role and, mental and physical states have a crucial effect on one's perception process (Wolvin, 2009). Interpreting is defined as making sense of the message depending on one's linguistic knowledge, background knowledge, culture, role, education, expectations, etc. Finally, in responding, the listeners give a verbal response to the message or react to it in a nonverbal fashion. Wolvin (2013) asserts that the components of listening do not work in a linear way. The sequence of the components may change according to the purpose and the context of the listening event. Hence, identifying the purpose and the context of listening is also important in understanding the act of listening better.

Wolvin and Coakley (2009) provide five types of listening based on different purposes: discriminative, comprehensive, appreciative, empathetic (therapeutic), and critical. Discriminative listening allows the listeners to "distinguish the auditory and/or visual stimuli at the sensory level" (Wolvin, 2010, p. 20). It forms the underlying basis for the other types of listening (Ford, Wolvin and Chung, 2000). Comprehensive or efferent (Roseblatt, 1995) listening enables a listener to understand a message. People listen to news, lectures, conferences, panels, and documentaries to understand the information provided by the speaker. Critical listening allows a listener to analyze and evaluate the acceptability of the speaker's message (Wolvin, 2010). Critical listeners accept or reject the message in accordance with the credibility of the speaker (Wolvin, 2009). Empathetic or therapeutic listening enables the listener to understand the speaker's feelings without evaluating or judging the message (Kushal, 2010). Appreciative or aesthetic (Roseblatt, 1995) listening is engaged in for enjoyment or pleasure (Kingen, 2000). Listening to music

or watching television sitcom or movie can be listed as examples of appreciative listening.

Anderson and Lynch (2003) also provide two types of listening which depend upon the context of the listening: reciprocal listening and non-reciprocal listening. Reciprocal listening is defined as two-way listening in which a listener and a speaker have an opportunity to interact with each other and to make an exchange (Anderson and Lynch, 2003). It basically refers to interactive listening. On the other hand, non-reciprocal listening refers to one-way listening in which information is transferred only from the speaker to the listener (Nunan, 1989). Listening at a conference or watching a television program are examples of non-reciprocal listening. Vandergrift and Goh (2012) list similarities and differences between interactive (reciprocal) and one-way (non-reciprocal) listening. In both contexts, the listeners engage in receiving, attending, perceiving, interpreting, and responding to the verbal and nonverbal messages of the speaker. However, only in interactive listening, can people have the opportunity to be both the listener and the speaker. Interactive listeners can control oral input by asking the speaker to slow down or by asking for clarification. One-way listeners can only generally give nonverbal responses such as nodding, smiling, eye contact, and other facial expressions.

One of the listening types commonly identified in second language literature is strategic listening (Schwartz, 1998; Field, 2002). Field (2002) emphasizes that listening to a second language is a strategic activity. While some second language learners are good at listening strategically, some have more difficulty. Schwartz (1998) lists features of the strategic listener: (1) being aware of listening processes, (2) having a repertoire of listening strategies, and knowing which work best with which listening tasks, (3) using various listening strategies in combination and varying the combination with the listening task, (4) being flexible in the use of strategies, (5) using both bottom-up and top-down strategies, and (6) planning, monitoring, and evaluating before, during and after listening (p.7). Field (2002) also states that L2 learners need to be guided and trained to be strategic listeners.

In conclusion, listening is not a simple process that can be defined in one sentence or examined from one perspective. Listening is a complex process which integrates many factors such as the listener, the speaker, the message, and the socio-cultural context, etc. Further, listening is an implicit process in which most of the activities occur inside of the head of the listener. The complex and implicit nature of listening impedes the researchers' attempts to provide a precise definition. Therefore, there are a great variety of listening definitions in the literature. In this study, however, listening is defined as an active and dynamic process in which the listener receives oral and/or visual input, attends to it, assigns literal meaning to it, interprets and evaluates it through his or her background knowledge, and finally responds to the speaker (Thomlison, 1984; O'Malley and Chamot, 1990; Purdy, 1997; Rost, 2002; Wolvin, 2009). The response will depend upon the purpose for listening, the socio-cultural context of listening, and the needs of the speaker. We use this definition for this study because it includes the most commonly employed concepts in the literature such as receiving, attending, understanding, interpreting, and responding. It also stresses the importance of the purpose and socio-cultural context of listening which have a considerable impact on listening process.

2.2.1 Importance of Listening

Oral communication is a basic, primary and intrinsic process for human beings (Merh-Ashraf, 2004, p.214). It is a prior condition for academic, personal, and professional success in life (Morreale, Osborn and Pearson, 2000, p.1). It requires at least two people, the speaker and the listener (Chastain, 1988). The speakers basically encode or put their thoughts or feeling into words and the listeners decode the message sent by the speaker. Speaking and listening work together in this process. They are the essential elements of oral communication, and they are intimately connected to one another. "There is never listening without reference to speaking or a speaking without reference of listening" (O'Connell and Kowal, 2012, p. 26). Thus, we can state that effective oral communication depends on both speaking and listening. However, the implicit nature of listening causes its importance in communication to be underestimated. Listening is usually regarded as

‘the sleeping partner in the business of oral communication’ (Vandergrift and Goh, 2012, p.9). Listening is considered to be a passive activity in which the listener soaks up what the speaker sent like a sponge (Rodman and Adler, 2003). Therefore, most communication theories focus mainly on the speaker or the sender of the messages and they show very little interest in the listener or the receiver of the messages (Wolvin, 2010).

Even if listening is underestimated in oral communication, research has shown that adults spend approximately 50 percent of their communication time engaged in the process of listening, 25 percent in speaking, 15 percent in reading, and 10 percent in writing (Morley, 1984). It is obvious that listening is the most frequently used form of communication. Purdy (1997) asserts that “there is no meaningful communication without listening” (p.4). No matter how experienced or skilled the sender is, if the receiver does not actively listen to the message, communication will eventually break down. Frankly, unless there is a listener, speech becomes nothing but noise (Lacey, 2013). Rivers (1981) asserts that speaking is not the main problem for travelers in foreign countries. They can make themselves understood by using gesture and/or writing; however, they cannot generally understand what is being said to them. Rizvi (2005) emphasizes that if someone wants to be an effective communicator, he or she needs to be effective listener. Thus, we can say that listening is a prerequisite to communication and that communication is, ultimately, a prerequisite for a meaningful life.

Listening is an essential factor not only in communication but also in SLA. Approximately fifty percent of the time that learners spend for a second language is devoted to listening (Nunan, 2003). However, there have been many misconceptions about second language listening. Namely, it has often been viewed as passive; listening is the same as reading (Adler and Doren, 1972); listening cannot be taught (Palmatier and McNinch, 1972); and L2 listening is effortlessly acquired like L1 listening. All of these misconceptions have caused SLA researchers to overlook the importance of listening. Thus, listening has been regarded as the Cinderella skill in SLA for a long time (Nunan, 2002; Vandergrift, 1997a).

First of all, listening is not a passive activity, but an active and complex process which includes multiple sub-processes such as focusing on selected aspects of aural input, constructing meaning from them, relating what is heard to prior knowledge (O'Malley, Chamot and Küpper, 1989), and responding appropriately. Even if people are quiet during the act of listening, this does not mean that they are passive. They engage in a number of cognitive activities such as receiving, attending, perceiving, interpreting, and remembering. In other words, listeners do not absorb the incoming data like a sponge (Lim, 2014) or a tape recorder (Anderson and Lynch, 1988).

Secondly, "listening is not merely an auditory version of reading, just as speech is not simply a spoken version of writing" (Lynch and Mendelsohn, 2010, p. 180). Listening has several unique features. People rarely have the opportunity to listen to the same passage a second time (Alderson, 2005). That is to say, listening has a one-shot nature which is not the case for reading (Lynch and Mendelsohn, 2010). "A listener cannot go back and recheck what he has heard; hence, he needs to rely solely on their memories" (Olejnik, 1978, p.278). Further, listeners cannot usually control the speed of a spoken text, whereas readers can control (Davies and Pearse, 2002). A spoken text contains a continuous stream of sound that is not segmented like it is in written texts (Alderson, 2005). Spoken texts can have false starts, hesitations, interruptions, overlaps, incomplete clauses (Eggins, 2004). In addition, they have rich prosody such as stress, intonation, rhythm, and loudness (Lynch and Mendelshon, 2010). Thus, we can conclude that listening is not the same as reading. It is a more demanding activity than reading. Language teachers should apply a different approach to teaching listening from what they do while teaching reading.

Thirdly, L2 listening performance can be developed by instruction. Many studies assert that L2 listening can be taught (Benoit and Lee, 1988, Rost, 1990; Vandergrift, 1997b; Buck, 2001). L2 listening is not naturally acquired like L1 listening (Brown, 2011). When L2 learners listen to a foreigner, they employ their

native languages' phonological system to understand the message. In other words, their listening is often hindered by L1 interference. Hence, L2 listeners need to be instructed how to listen to a second language. They also need to improve their listening strategies and their sub-skills. Briefly, listening skills and strategies should be taught in language classrooms.

Along with all of these misconceptions, the theories in linguistics and psychology have also had an impact on the role of listening in L2 acquisition. Until late 1960s, listening was neglected due to the fact that the behaviorist theory (Skinner, 1957) was dominant in SLA research. Behaviorists posited that learning a language was a mechanical process based on a stimulus-response pattern like any other kind of learning. They emphasized that the environment had a vital role in learning; however, they rejected the existence of internal mental processes (Usó-Juan and Martínez-Flor, 2006). Therefore, listening, which is predominantly a cognitive process, was de-emphasized in language learning for a long time. Repetition, imitation and memorization of oral input were considered listening practice. In the Audiolingual method, which is based on behaviorism, listening was mainly regarded as training in the discrimination of basic sounds patterns and pronunciation aspects such as intonation, stress, and rhythm (Richards and Rogers, 2001; Usó-Juan and Martínez-Flor 2006).

By the late 1960s and early 1970s, the status of listening started to change in SLA. Behaviorism was challenged by Noam Chomsky's innatist theory (1959, 1965). Innatists claim that people do not learn sentences through imitation. Instead, they generate them by employing their Language Acquisition Device (LAD) (Richards and Rogers, 2001) which refers to an innate mechanism that allows children to infer linguistic rules from the language they are exposed to. Innatist theory emphasizes unobservable mental processes unlike behaviorism. Moreover, innatists view listening as a primary channel in acquiring a language (Asher, 1969; Krashen, 1982).

James Asher (1969), who developed Total Physical Response, posits that L2 acquisition is a parallel process to L1 acquisition. L2 learners need to spend enough time listening to the teacher using the target language before they start to speak like a baby spending many months listening to people around it before speaking (Larsen-Freeman, 2003). L2 learners need time to figure out the sounds they hear before they are able to produce them. Further, Asher notes that a silent period reduces stress in language classrooms. “Without the pressure of early oral production there is less potential embarrassment about producing sounds that are difficult to master, especially for adults and teenagers” (Vandergrift, 1999, p.169). In other words, after people build enough competence in a second language through listening, they can start to produce sounds, thus they do not feel stressed or embarrassed in language classrooms.

Another researcher who has emphasized the importance of listening in SLA is Stephen Krashen. In his Input Hypothesis, Krashen (1982) claims that L2 is acquired by being exposed to comprehensible input, which refers to meaningful language that slightly beyond the learners’ present level of mastery. Comprehensible input can be an intake through listening, that is to say, listening serves as a basis for comprehensible input (Vandergrift and Goh, 2012). More precisely, learners are exposed to comprehensible input while listening. Thus, they have the opportunity to recognize and learn how vocabulary, grammar, intonation, etc. are utilized in the L2. Like Asher (1981), Krashen also asserts that a silent period reduces stress in language classrooms. In his Affective Filter Hypothesis, Krashen supports that language teachers can keep the level of anxiety and stress low in the classroom by not insisting on production too-early. Krashen (1982) states that “forcing early production, before the student has built up enough competence through comprehensible input, is perhaps the single most anxiety-provoking thing about language classes” (p.74). It is obvious that listening provides both cognitive and affective advantages for the language learners.

Apart from Asher and Krashen, the essential role of listening in L2 acquisition has been noted by many researchers since then (Richards, 1983; Ur,

1984; Anderson and Lynch, 1988; Dunkel, 1991; Feyten, 1991; Rost, 1994; Rubin, 1994; Vandergrift, 1996; Flowerdew and Miller, 2005; Field, 2010; Vandergrift and Goh, 2012).

Feyten (1991) provided some notable research evidence for the significance of listening in L2 acquisition. She sought the relationship between listening ability and overall foreign language (FL) proficiency. The study also explored which independent variable (listening, gender, length of previous language exposure, the language exposed to, and last contact with that language) best predicts overall FL proficiency. The participants were 36 students of French and 54 students of Spanish. The results revealed that there was a significantly positive correlation between listening and overall FL proficiency. Findings further revealed that for the French students, 17% of the variance in FL proficiency was attributable to listening and for the Spanish students it was 15%. In addition, the study showed that listening predicted FL proficiency more than the other identified variables such as gender, length of previous language exposure, language exposed to, last contact with that language. Feyten (1991) concluded that listening is an essential component in the process of FL acquisition.

Rost (1994) has asserted that listening is a requirement in language classrooms in the following ways:

1. Listening is vital in the language classroom because it provides input for the learner. Without understanding input at the right level, any learning simply cannot begin.
2. Spoken language provides a means of interaction for the learner. Because learners must interact to achieve understanding, Access to speakers of the language is essential. Moreover, learners' failure to understand the language they hear is an impetus, not an obstacle, to interaction and learning.
3. Authentic spoken language presents a challenge for the learner to understand language as native speakers actually use it.

4. Listening exercises provide teachers with a means for drawing learners' attention to new forms (vocabulary, grammar, new interaction patterns) in the language (p. 141-142).

The research also has shown that listening has an important effect on other language skills (Zhang, 2009; Al-Mansour and Al-Shorman, 2010; Van Zeeland and Schmitt, 2013). One of the studies supporting the critical role of listening in L2 acquisition belongs to Zhang (2009) who tested the effect of listening instruction on speaking. The participants of the study were 50 second-year university students. The experimental group (N= 25) was given a methodology that focused on listening, whereas the control group (N=25) was given a traditional methodology that de-emphasized listening. The experiment was done over a one-year period. The results showed that listening has positive effects on speaking. The researcher suggested that if language teachers integrate more listening materials into their English classes, learners can develop their speaking skills.

Another study that focuses on the importance of listening belongs to Al-Mansour and Al-Shorman (2010). Seeking the impact of storytelling on the reading comprehension of Saudi elementary students, Al-Mansour and Al-Shorman randomly assigned 40 students into treatment group (n=20) and control group (n=20). The researchers developed a 25-item-multiple choice test on reading passages. The treatment group listened to stories while the control group read the story silently. The analyses indicated that the treatment group performed better than the control group in the post-test. This supports that listening to stories may have a significantly positive effect on elementary students' reading comprehension.

Investigating to what extent L2 listening enables students to acquire incidental vocabulary, Van Zeeland and Schmitt (2013) found that L2 listening is a good predictor of incidental vocabulary acquisition. The participants in the study were 30 postgraduate students at a British university. The instruments of the study were four listening passages and three vocabulary tests (form recognition, grammatical knowledge, and meaning recall). Participants listened to the passages

and completed the three vocabulary tests immediately (n= 20) or two weeks (n= 10) after listening. The results showed that learners acquired about 29% of the target words immediately after listening, and gained 19% of the words two weeks later.

It is clear that listening is the gasoline which fuels the second language acquisition process (Nunan, 2003). There are many benefits of listening practice for L2 learners. It facilitates the emergence of other language skills (Vandergrift, 1999). Listening practice also improves the learners' pronunciation. The more they listen to spoken English; the more they learn the appropriate intonation, pitch, and stress of English (Harmer, 2007). The instruction of three other language skills, namely speaking, reading and writing is mostly given orally, thus the learners who know how to listen effectively have an advantage over the learners who do not (Berry, 1954). Briefly, it is indisputable that listening is a fundamental factor in SLA. Therefore, it merits much more consideration by the teachers and researchers.

2.2.2 Processes of Listening

One of the important issues in listening comprehension is how the listener perceives speech sounds in the message of the speaker. There are two dominant views about the nature of speech perception: bottom-up processing and top-down processing (Nunan, 2002; Field, 2004; Kintsch, 2005; Rost, 2006; Richards, 2008; Vandergrift, 2010). These processes basically indicate the distinction between perceptual sources and contextual sources (Field, 2004). Understanding these processes enables us to gain deep insight into both the nature of listening and listening strategies.

Many researchers have attempted to define bottom-up processing and top-down processing. There is a general consensus on what these processes are. Bottom-up processing can be simply defined as a decoding process (Richards, 2008). In this process, listeners decode phonemic units and connect them together to form words, they connect words together to form phrases, and phrases together to form utterances, and finally utterances together to form a meaningful text (Nunan, 2002).

Bottom-up processing is a rather mechanical process where people decode the speech sounds and construct meaning by using their knowledge of the segmentals (phonemes or individual sounds) and the suprasegmentals (stress, tone, rhythm, etc.) of the language (Vandergrift and Goh, 2012). In bottom-up processing, the smallest units of language, namely phonemes, are the starting point followed by words, phrases, utterances and texts (Nunan, 2005). Field (2004) regards bottom-up processing as lower-level process in which small units are combined into larger units in an accumulative way. According to Richards (2008), it refers to utilizing the incoming data itself by analyzing sounds, words, clauses, sentences, and finally texts. Hence, we can say that bottom-up processing draws upon linguistic knowledge that consists of phonological knowledge (phoneme, stress, intonation, etc.), lexical knowledge, and syntactic knowledge (grammar) of the language (Vandergrift and Goh, 2012).

Rost (2006) divides bottom-up processing into two complementary processes, feature detection and metrical segmentation. Feature detection is the basic part in which listeners employ "phonetic feature detectors (specialized synaptic networks) in auditory cortex" (p.59). Phonetic feature detectors are sensitive to specific frequencies of sounds, that is, they can recognize the 30 or 40 phonemes in a native language. This means that people can have difficulties in perceiving the sounds in their second language because their feature detectors are sensitive to the sounds in their native language, but not in their L2. In this way, L2 learners have problems in segmenting the speech into phonemes and words.

The other process in bottom-up processing is metrical segmentation in which listeners use stress and timing rules to decode incoming data. Metrical segmentation is based on the phono-lexical system and the phonotactic rules. While the phono-lexical system focuses on how content words receive stress, the phonotactic rules fundamentally keep track of which phonemes occur together. Phonotactic rules refer to "the probability that specific phoneme sequences occur or are permissible in a language" (Gottardo, Gu, Mueller, Baciu, and Pauchulo, 2011, p.148). Therefore, Rost (2006) posits that L2 listeners, especially those whose first language does not

share similar metrical segmentation with second language, need to be instructed in the phonological and phonotactic system of the target language.

Peterson (2001), in his study, provides a list of bottom-up processing goals including (1) discriminating between intonation contours in sentences (2) discriminating phonemes (3) listening to morphological endings (4) recognizing syllable patterns, numbers of syllables, and word stress (5) noticing sentence fillers in informal speech such as “well”, “you know”, etc. (6) selecting the details from the spoken message. All of these goals indicate that bottom-up processing strictly depends upon a spoken text or message, thus it can be identified as text-based processing (Carrell, 1998).

The other dominant view in the process of listening is top-down processing, which is also called knowledge-based processing (Carrell, 1998) or interpretation processing (Vandergrift and Goh, 2012). Top-down processing is “the use of background knowledge in understanding the meaning of a message” (Richards, 1990, p.51). Top-down processing starts with a concept and coordinates it with the incoming data. The listener utilizes prior knowledge of context and situation to comprehend the spoken text (Nunan, 2002). Nunan (1989) states that “we do not simply take language in like a tape-recorder, but interpret what we hear according to our purpose in listening and our background knowledge” (p.23). When the people are engaged in a listening activity, they activate their background knowledge and expectations, and thus they guide and facilitate the process to reconstruct the meaning of a spoken message (Rost, 2006). To interpret the message, the listeners use different kinds of knowledge such as “prior (world or experiential) knowledge, pragmatic knowledge, cultural knowledge about the target language, and discourse knowledge (types of texts and how information is organized in these texts)” (Vandergrift and Goh, 2012, p.18).

Rost (2006) defines top-down processing as “the use of expectations in order to infer what the speaker may have or intended to say” (p.54). The expectations, which come from schema or scripts, interact and influence the linguistic knowledge

that helps to interpret a spoken message (Graham, 2006). Hence, the schema which refer to pre-packaged patterns of background knowledge stored in long-term memory through prior experiences have an important role to play in top-down processing. Schema theory supports that texts, either spoken or written, do not by themselves carry meaning (Buck, 2001; Carrel and Eisterhold, 1983). Thus, it can be inferred that meaning is constructed with the interaction between a listener's schema and the text at hand. Anderson (1977), in his study, asserts that schema affects what a person learns and remembers from discourse. Listeners generally use their schema to compensate or guide incomplete bottom-up processing (Field, 2004; Vandergrift, 2004). Schemata inform the listeners about what the next word is going to be prior to hearing it.

Although bottom-up and top-down processes are considered as alternatives, many researchers posit that they are interdependent and compensatory processes (Field, 2004; Nunan, 2002; Richards, 2008; Stanovich, 1980; Tsui and Fullilove, 1998). Stanovich (1980), in his study about reading, stresses an interactive-compensatory model instead of using strictly bottom-up or top-down processes. The model claims that these processes interact and affect each other. Richards (2008) also states that real-world listening generally includes both bottom-up and top-down processes.

The degree to which bottom-up and top-down process dominate is related to a number of factors including the listener's purpose and familiarity with the content of a text, the text type, the density of information in a text, listener's characteristics, etc (Richards, 2008; Vandergrift, 2007). To exemplify, a listener who wants to learn the specific details from the text will employ more bottom-up processes, but a listener who wants to get the gist of the text will use more top-down processes (Vandergrift, 2007).

Another dominant perspective on how listening comprehension occurs belongs to Anderson (1990). According to Anderson, language comprehension

consists of three stages: perceptual processing, parsing, and utilization. Figure 1 shows the three stages and how they are interconnected.

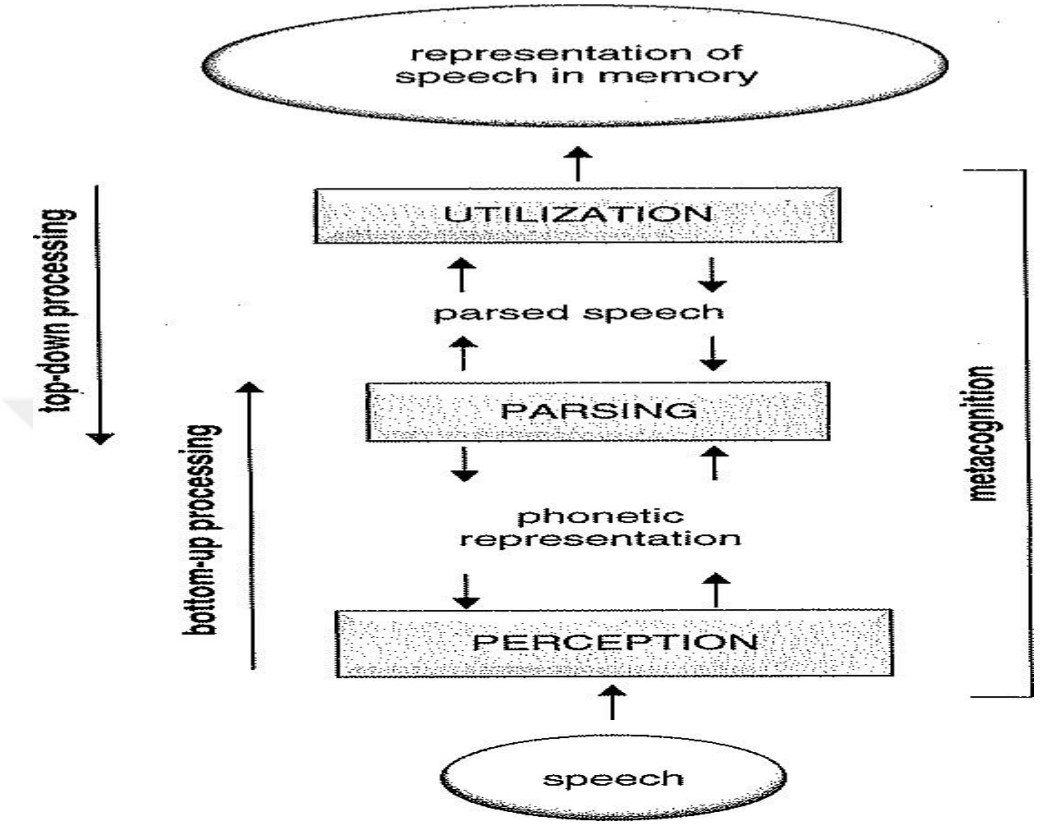


Figure 1: Cognitive Processes in L2 Listening and Their Interrelationships (Vandergrift and Goh, 2012, p.17)

According to this model, the perception stage mainly includes decoding processing, namely bottom-up processing (Vandergrift, 2010). During this stage, listeners recognize phonemes, pauses, and acoustic emphases in oral input, and keep them in working memory for a short time (Vandergrift and Goh, 2012). Listeners cognitively engage in some activities such as attending to the oral input, realizing similarities, pauses, and acoustic emphasis and also grouping them in accordance with categories of the language (Vandergrift, 2010). At the end of perception, a phonetic representation is sent for parsing. At the second stage, namely parsing, listeners segment the phonetic representation and start to activate potential word candidates by retrieving them from their long-term memory based on phonotactic rules (Vandergrift and Goh, 2012) which refer to "the probability that specific

phoneme sequences occur or are permissible in a language" (Gottardo et al., 2011, p.148). In the utilization process, parsed speech is associated with prior and pragmatic knowledge to interpret the implied meanings (Vandergrift, 2010). Listeners check whether their interpretation is consistent with their existing knowledge. This stage mainly consists of top-down processes.

The three-stage model of Anderson (1990) does not work linearly but in a parallel way. In other words, cognitive processes at each stage may affect and be affected by the outcome of cognitive processes preceding or following (Vandergrift and Goh, 2012). All of these processes in listening occur in milliseconds and automatically in the first language; however, second language listeners have difficulties in these processes because of their lack of language knowledge (Vandergrift, 2010).

2.2.3 The Factors Related to L2 Listening

There are a great number of factors related to L2 listening due to its complex nature. Several researchers have attempted to identify which factors are related to listening process (Boyle, 1984; Samuels, 1984; Rubin, 1994; Bloomfield et al., 2010; Vandergrift and Goh, 2012). However, there is no general agreement on the categorization of the factors.

Samuels (1984) divides the factors related to listening skill into two main categories: inside-the-head factors and outside-the-head factors. Inside-the-head factors consist of intelligence, background knowledge, metacognitive strategies, language facility (vocabulary, syntax, dialect and idiolect, accuracy, and automaticity), motivation, kinesics, and awareness of contextual influences. Outside-the-head factors comprise speaker awareness of audience needs, clarity, speaker effectiveness, and context.

Boyle (1984) lists the factors that have been given the most emphasis in books and articles about listening comprehension under three major groups: listener factors, speaker factors, and factors in the material and medium. Listener factors are grouped into two sub-categories: general factors (intelligence, practice, background knowledge) and more specific factors (age, sex, educational background, physical health, and knowledge of target language - phonology, lexis, syntax, and cohesion-memory, motivation, attitude, attention). The second group, namely speaker factors, includes the language ability of the speaker, the speaker's pronunciation, and the speaker's accent, and the prestige and personality of the speaker, etc. The third group, that is, factors in the material and medium, can be listed as the level of difficulty of content and concepts, the acoustic environment (noise and interference), and the amount of support provided by gestures, visuals, the language that is used to convey the message.

Another categorization of the factors related to listening skill belongs to Rubin (1994). According to Rubin (1994) the factors can be grouped under five main categories: listener characteristics, text characteristics, task characteristics, interlocutor characteristics, and process characteristics. Listener characteristics can be listed as language proficiency level, memory, attention, self-efficacy, background knowledge, and gender. Text characteristics can be listed as the length of text, the complexity of text, the speaker's accent, hesitations and pauses, speech rate, redundancy, sandhi, visual support for texts etc. Task characteristics consist of the task type and purpose. Interlocutor characteristics consist of sex bias and process characteristics include top-down, bottom-up, and parallel processing.

Bloomfield and colleagues (2010) have identified the factors related to L2 listening and have categorized them into three groups: characteristics of the listener, characteristics of the passage, and characteristics of the testing conditions. The characteristics of the listener consist of working memory capacity, metacognitive strategies, L2 proficiency, and anxiety. The characteristics of the passage are listed as length, complexity, organization, and auditory features. The characteristics of the testing conditions contain time limits, multiple hearings, and note-taking.

Vandergrift and Goh (2012) also examine the factors related to L2 listening under three categories: cognitive factors, affective factors, and contextual factors. Cognitive factors are listed as vocabulary knowledge, syntactic knowledge, discourse knowledge, pragmatic knowledge, metacognition, prior knowledge, and L1 listening ability. Affective factors include anxiety, self-efficacy and motivation. Contextual factors include interactive listening, listening in informal learning contexts and listening in formal learning contexts.

In the light of the research on the factors related to listening skill, this study has examined the factors under three main categories: listener factors, text factors, speaker factors. Look at the Figure 2.

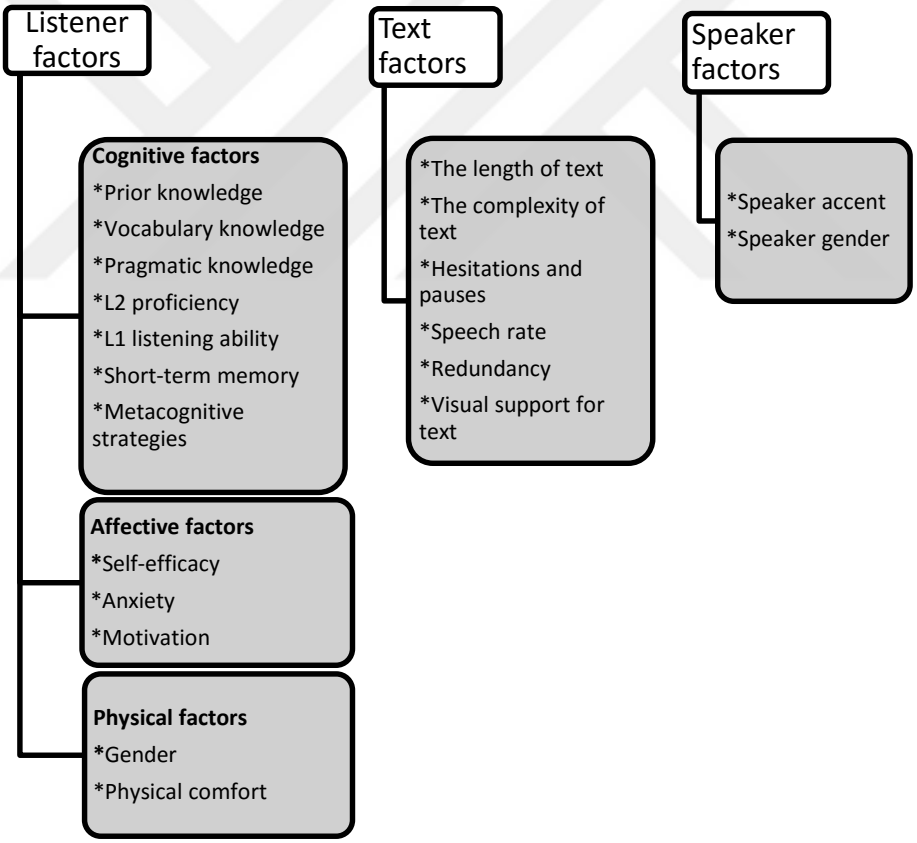


Figure 2: The factors related to L2 listening

Listener factors are divided into three categories: cognitive, affective and physical factors. Cognitive factors contain prior knowledge, vocabulary knowledge, pragmatic knowledge, L2 proficiency, L1 listening ability, short-term memory

capacity, and metacognitive strategy use. Affective factors consist of self-efficacy, anxiety and motivation. Physical factors include gender and physical comfort. Text factors consist of the length of text, the complexity of text, hesitations and pauses, speech rate, redundancy, visual support. Speaker factors are listed as speaker accent, speaker gender, and speaker status.

2.2.3.1 Listener Factors

There are a number of listener factors related to the listening process. These factors can be divided into three groups: cognitive factors, affective factors and physical factors. Cognitive factors are prior knowledge, vocabulary knowledge, pragmatic knowledge, L2 proficiency, L1 listening ability, short-term memory, metacognitive strategy use. Affective factors can be listed as anxiety, self-efficacy, and motivation. The physical factors of the listener are gender and physical comfort. Identifying listener factors enables us to gain a greater understanding of the listening process, better listening instruction and better listening proficiency. Therefore, these factors will be briefly explained below.

Prior knowledge or background knowledge is a cognitive factor which refers to "all the conceptual knowledge and life experiences that language learners have acquired and are available for comprehension purposes" (Vandergrift and Goh, 2012, p.65). Nunan (1999) states that we are not like a tape-recorder and we interpret what we hear according to our purposes and background knowledge. Schmidt-Rinehart (1994) aimed to identify the impact of topic familiarity on listening performance. The participants of her study were the students of Spanish at a university. They listened to two passages, one with familiar information and one with novel information. The researcher ensured that the passages were as equitable as possible in terms of length, word rate, and vocabulary. Immediately after the listening task, the researcher asked the students to write everything they could recall from the passage. The results of the study demonstrated that topic familiarity had a significant effect on the participants' recall scores.

Moreover, some researchers have used pre-listening activities to activate prior knowledge and examine its effects on listening comprehension (Chung, 2002; Tyler, 2001). Tyler (2001) emphasizes that skilled or experienced nonnative listeners use their background knowledge to reduce working memory requirements, and thus they do not have difficulty in comprehending oral input. In his study, Tyler (2001) examined the effect of topic knowledge on L2 listening and sought whether native listeners differed in the use of prior knowledge from non-native listeners. The participants were 30 native English listeners and 30 experienced nonnative listeners. The participants in each group were randomly assigned to the topic condition or the no topic condition. The analysis revealed that there was only a small difference between natives and nonnatives in the topic condition group; however, when the topic was unfamiliar, the difference was greater. Briefly, the research shows that topic familiarity or prior knowledge is an essential factor in facilitating the process of listening.

Vocabulary knowledge is another cognitive factor related to the listening process. Bonk (2000) say that when second language learners listen to a text that includes too many unknown words, they become frustrated and will likely give up listening to it. Further, Vandergrift and Goh (2012) state that if you ask L2 learners which element plays the most important role in listening comprehension, most students will assert that it is vocabulary knowledge. Several studies also show that second language vocabulary size affects listening comprehension (Bonk, 2000; Mecartty, 2000; Stæhr, 2009). In his study, Bonk (2000) applied four texts with increasing lexical difficulty to 59 Japanese university students, and then asked them to write down (in their L1 or in English, whichever they preferred) everything they recalled from their first listening of the passage. The results showed that higher comprehension of the text was significantly related to higher vocabulary knowledge. Stæhr (2009) also investigated the extent to which the size and depth of vocabulary knowledge are associated with listening performance. The participants were 115 advanced Danish learners of EFL and were asked to complete three tests: a listening comprehension test, a vocabulary size test, and a depth of vocabulary knowledge test. The analysis indicated that the size and depth of vocabulary knowledge both

significantly correlated with listening comprehension. They together accounted for 51% of the variance in the listening performance. Hence, we can state that vocabulary knowledge is a significant predictor of listening performance.

Pragmatic knowledge is a cognitive factor that has an impact on listening performance. Listeners employ pragmatic knowledge in order to understand what a speaker intends to mean rather than the conceptual meaning of an utterance (Vandergrift and Goh, 2012). Garcia (2004) points out that it enables a listener to "understand a speaker's intentions, to evaluate the intensity of a speaker's meaning, such as the difference between a suggestion and a warning, to recognize sarcasm, joking, and to be able to respond appropriately" (p.1-2). The research on the relationship between pragmatic knowledge and listening is limited (Cook and Liddicoat, 2002; Garcia, 2004). Cook and Liddicoat (2002) explored the pragmatic comprehension with request strategies. The participants were 50 native speakers of English, 50 high-proficiency EFL learners and 50 low-proficiency EFL learners. They listened to brief scenarios about direct requests ("Please clean the kitchen"), conventional indirect requests ("Can you clean the kitchen?") and unconventional indirect requests ("The kitchen is a little untidy"). The results revealed that the participants' interpretations differed according to proficiency levels. Native speakers did not have problems with any of the requests whereas low-proficiency participants had problems with conventional and unconventional indirect requests. High-proficiency students had difficulty with only unconventional indirect requests.

Garcia (2004) also investigated if proficiency level affected the comprehension of pragmatic meaning. The participants of the study were 16 high-proficiency L2 student and 19 low-proficiency L2 students. They listened to five dialogues including speech acts and conversational implicatures. Then, they completed a multiple- choice test. The results showed that high-level students outperformed the low-level students in pragmatic comprehension.

Second language proficiency is another significant factor that affects a learner's success in the listening process. The research shows how important L2

proficiency is in L2 listening (Feyten, 1991; Schmidt-Rinehart, 1994; Vandergrift, 2006). Feyten (1991) examined whether listening ability is linked with overall foreign language (FL) proficiency. The participants of the study were 36 students of French and 54 students of Spanish. The analysis revealed that there was a significantly positive association between listening and overall FL proficiency. Schmidt-Rinehart (1994), in her topic familiarity study mentioned before, also investigated whether the level of overall L2 proficiency is related to listening comprehension. The participants were university students of Spanish at three different levels. Firstly, they listened to two passages. Immediately after the listening task, the researcher asked the students to write everything they could recall from the passage. The results revealed a consistent increase in listening scores across the three levels. In other words, L2 listening correlated significantly with overall L2 proficiency.

Vandergrift (2006) explored what degree L2 proficiency and L1 listening comprehension ability contribute to L2 listening comprehension. He studies with 75 eighth-grade English learners studying French as a L2 (64 low-levels and 11 high-levels). They were given a French listening comprehension test during regular French classes and an English listening comprehension test during a regular English language arts class. The results indicated that L2 proficiency explained about 25 percent of the variance in listening performance whereas L1 listening ability explained about 14 percent. Thus, L2 proficiency and L1 listening ability explained approximately 39 percent of the variance in L2 listening together. This study shows that both of these listener factors play a crucial role in L2 listening success.

Short-term memory capacity is another important factor linked with the listening process. Dunkel, Mishra and Berliner (1989) carried out a study testing whether short-term memory capacity had an impact on listening. The researchers studied with 136 English native speakers and 123 non-native speakers. A digit span subtest was applied to determine short-term memory capacity. The participants with high short-term memory capacity recognized significantly more detail information and concept information than participants with low short-term memory. In addition,

Kormos and Safar (2008) tested the association between phonological short-term memory and language skills. The participants completed a non-word span test measuring their short-term memory capacity and took a Cambridge First Certificate Exam measuring their second language proficiency. The analysis revealed that L2 listening was significantly associated with a short-term memory capacity.

The crucial role of metacognitive strategy use is indisputable in both second language proficiency and second language listening. O'Malley and colleagues (1985) emphasize that the learners who do not use metacognitive strategies are those without direction and ability to assess their development, achievements, and future learning routes. Metacognitive strategies are essential factors which go beyond cognitive devices and enable the students to organize their own learning process (Oxford, 1990). The importance of metacognitive strategy use in listening has been pointed out by many researchers (Vandergrift, 1997b; Mareschal, 2007; Vandergrift and Tafaghodtari, 2010; Bozorgian, 2014; Vandergrift and Goh, 2012; Goh and Hu, 2014).

To show the impact of metacognitive strategy training on L2 listening comprehension, Coşkun (2010) studied with 40 elementary university students, who were randomly assigned to the treatment group (n=20) and the control group (n=20). Before and after the metacognitive strategy training, both groups took two listening comprehension tests as pre- and post-tests. The treatment group received instruction in metacognitive listening strategies, whereas the control group did not receive any strategy training. The results revealed that the metacognitive training group significantly outperformed the control group. Coşkun suggests that metacognitive strategy training facilitates L2 listening comprehension; hence, language teachers should integrate strategy training into their listening lessons.

Goh and Hu (2014) investigated whether metacognitive awareness was associated with listening comprehension. The researchers applied the Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ) developed by Vandergrift, Goh, Mareschal, and Tafaghodtari (2006) and a listening test to 113 Chinese students. The

results revealed that students' metacognitive awareness and their listening scores had a significant positive relationship. The researchers further found that 22 percent of the variance in L2 listening could be explained by metacognitive awareness. Thus, we can state that the more metacognitive awareness the learners have, the higher listening proficiency they can attain.

Anxiety is an affective factor that interferes with both L2 performance (Horwitz, 2001) and listening comprehension (Vogely, 1998; Elkhafaifi, 2005; Golchi, 2012; Mowlaie and Samarein, 2014). In his study, Vogely (1998) explored learners' perceptions about L2 listening anxiety. The participants in the study, 140 university students, took a listening test. Immediately after the listening test, they completed a scale measuring their listening anxiety. The results showed that 91 percent of the students experienced listening anxiety. The participants associated their listening anxiety with a number of factors: The characteristics of input (51 percent), process-related factors (30 percent), instructional factors (6 percent), and personal and interpersonal variables (13 percent). As a solution for listening anxiety, the students suggested that instructors should slow down the speed of their speech and develop language confidence in their students through giving them opportunities to experience small successes.

Elkhafaifi (2005) examined whether or not general foreign language anxiety and listening anxiety were associated. In addition, he attempted to reveal the relationship between listening anxiety and L2 listening achievement. The participants were 131 students and given a background questionnaire and two anxiety scales in their Arabic classes. The Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale was used for FL anxiety and the Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Scale for listening anxiety. The results showed that FL anxiety and listening anxiety have a positive relationship. Unsurprisingly, Elkhafaifi found that listening anxiety correlated negatively with listening final grades.

Golchi (2012) also investigated whether listening anxiety is linked with listening proficiency, listening strategy use and gender. The participants were the 63

students (29 males and 34 females) who attended IELTS listening and speaking preparation course in two language institutes. To gather the data, four instruments were used: A background questionnaire developed by Lee (1997), a listening anxiety questionnaire developed by Kim (2000), Lee's (1997) listening comprehension strategy questionnaire and a listening test. The analysis indicated that listening anxiety correlated negatively with listening proficiency and listening strategy usage. In other words, lower anxious students had tendency to use more listening strategies and to be more successful in listening comprehension and. Additionally, the study showed that female listeners were more anxious than male listeners.

Self-efficacy is another affective factor, which is defined as learners' beliefs in their potential to engage in a learning activity successfully (Graham, 2011). Mills, Pajares and Herron (2006), in their study, applied a listening proficiency test and the French Self-Efficacy Scale to 95 participants. The results showed that only for female participants, listening self-efficacy had a significantly positive association with listening performance. Chen (2007) also investigated whether English listening self-efficacy predicts English listening performance. He worked with 277 Taiwanese college students of English in their study. The results demonstrated that listening self-efficacy is a significant predictor of listening performance.

Another factor that plays a crucial role in a learner's success is motivation. Though the impact of motivation on L2 learning has been examined by many researchers, there are very limited studies investigating the relationship between motivation and L2 listening (Vandergrift and Goh, 2012). In his study, Vandergrift (2005) aimed to identify whether metacognitive listening strategy use is correlated with motivational orientations, that is to say, intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, and amotivation. The participants were 57 French learners from two high schools. The instruments of the study were two questionnaires and a listening comprehension test. The results showed that almost all of the listening strategies negatively correlated with amotivation, but positively correlated both with extrinsic and intrinsic motivation. Further, as expected, the analysis revealed that listening proficiency had a negative relationship with amotivation. However, listening

proficiency did not have a strong correlation with intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Vandergrift explains this unexpected result by pointing to the effect of the number of years of French study. There is a lack of research on the association between motivation and L2 listening, so it is necessary to conduct more studies on this topic.

Although there are many studies on the relationship between gender and reading comprehension, limited research has been done on the role of gender in listening comprehension (Bacon, 1992; Boyle, 1987). Bacon (1992) explored whether male and female participants differed in listening performance and listening strategy use. Nineteen men and thirty-one women participated in the think-aloud sessions. The results showed that women reported using significantly more metacognitive strategies than did men. However, this difference did not have an effect on listening performance. That is to say, men and women did not differ in listening scores despite the difference in strategy use. Boyle (1987) is another researcher who examined sex differences in listening vocabulary. He used a battery of tests to establish general language proficiency, and two tests measuring listening vocabulary. The results indicated that females were superior in general language proficiency; however, the males had higher mean scores in listening vocabulary. Thus, we can state that the research on gender and listening provides contradictory results which means that the topic merits more research.

Physical comfort is another important factor that affects the listening process. If learners feel comfortable, they can actively listen to what the teacher says. A learner with physical discomfort may not focus on the message the teacher has sent. For instance, if the classroom temperature is too high or low, the learners' attention may be distracted due to the physical discomfort during listening (Rizvi, 2005). This can lead to ineffective listening. To ensure effective listening, teachers need to be conscious of avoiding any physical disturbances (Rizvi, 2005).

In conclusion, listener factors are very crucial elements and they appear to have a significant influence on the process of listening. Awareness of these factors enables teachers to help the learners to become successful listeners. It is necessary to

take these factors into consideration when lesson plans are prepared. The teachers should help the learners to develop their vocabulary knowledge, pragmatic knowledge, self-efficacy, metacognitive strategies etc. They should help the listeners to adopt effective strategies to avoid anxiety. Finally, they should work to avoid any physical disturbances that hinder the process of listening.

2.2.3.2 Text Factors

There are many text factors that can influence a learner's listening process. These include the length of the text, the complexity of the text, hesitations and pauses, speech rate, redundancy, and visual support for texts etc. Awareness of the text factors can provide better understanding of the listening process, and thus better listening instruction and proficiency. Therefore, these factors will be briefly explained below.

Research on text length provides mixed results. Carrel, Dunkel and Mollaun (2002) aimed to seek the impact of text length on listening scores in TOEFL. The results showed that higher-level listeners were more successful when the texts were shorter, yet lower-level listeners were less affected by text length. The researchers state that the low-level listeners might have been too low to be affected by text length. Moyer (2006), who examined the role of text length on listening comprehension, studied with 27 advanced learners of L2 German and ten native speakers. Participants listened to eight short texts first. Then they listened to four longer texts. Each listening item was followed by three multiple-choice questions. The results indicated that differences in text length did not affect listening comprehension. Moyer claimed that the results may have been due to the nature of the instrument itself. Bloomfield, Wayland, Blodgett and Linck (2011) claim that researchers do not directly manipulate the length of listening texts. They use existing listening texts confounded with other factors; hence, the results are potentially skewed by these factors.

Redundancy is another factor linked with L2 listening. It refers to “the extent to which words or ideas are repeated within a passage” (Bloomfield et al., 2011, p. 2318). Chiang and Dunkel (1992) aimed to find whether speech modification affected listening comprehension. The modified speech contained information redundancies in the paraphrasing and repetition. The participants were Chinese learners of ESL who were high-intermediate and low-intermediate listeners. Students at both levels were randomly assigned to modified and unmodified lectures. After they listened to the lectures, they completed a multiple-choice test. The results showed that high-level students benefited from speech modification while low-level students did not.

Another study investigating the effect of redundancy on listening belongs to Chaudron (1983). The researcher sought how different types of redundancy (repetition of the noun topic, rhetorical questions, synonyms, conditional clauses, and simple noun reiteration) affect second language learners' recognition and recall of sentence topics in lectures. The results indicated that the redundant repeated noun tended to be most effective in both the recall and recognition task. Chaudron also found that low-level listeners could benefit from only simple noun and repeated noun, but high-level listeners could benefit from the repetition of rhetorical questions and conditional clauses which are more grammatically complex redundancies. The findings of the studies mentioned above show that the impact of redundancy is related to both redundancy type and listening proficiency level.

Speech rate is usually regarded as a key factor affecting L2 listening. It is defined as “the number of syllables uttered per second” (Chambers, 1997, p. 538). Normal speech rate is five to six syllables per second (Levelt, 1989, p. 390). The studies assert that a fast speech rate can cause deterioration in L2 listening (Blau, 1990; Griffiths, 1992; Rosenhouse, Haik, and Kishon-Rabin, 2006). Blau (1990) attempted to indicate the effect of speech rate (normal or slow) on listening comprehension. He found that a mechanical slowing of speech did not enhance comprehension of higher-level students, but it positively affected comprehension of lower-level students. Rosenhouse, Haik, and Kishon-Rabin (2006) also explored how

speech rate (normal and fast) affected speech perception in their first language (Arabic) and second language (Hebrew) of the participants. The results revealed that bilingual listeners did not differ in their L1 and L2 speech perception at the normal speech rate. However, when speech rate was fast, listeners' perceptions deteriorated in both the L1 and the L2. In addition, the decline was more noticeable in L2 than in L1. These findings indicate that fast speech impairs L2 listening comprehension; however, slowed speech rate does not consistently facilitate it.

Text complexity, which has an important impact on listening, consists of syntactic complexity, lexical complexity, phonological complexity, and discourse complexity (Révész and Brunfaut, 2013). In their study, Révész and Brunfaut (2013) investigated whether lexical complexity, syntactic complexity, phonological complexity, and discourse complexity influenced the difficulty of L2 listening texts. The results showed that the higher lexical complexity was associated with greater listening difficulty, whereas syntactic complexity and phonological complexity did not affect the listening difficulty. In addition, passages with a greater number of causal content, which is a discourse feature, resulted in less successful listening performance. Kostin (2004) is another researcher who explored the effect of syntactic complexity on listening performance. The findings revealed that the existence of two or more negatives in texts was associated with greater listening difficulty. Briefly, there are mixed results about text complexity. Thus, more research is required to identify the impact of text complexity on L2 listening.

Visual support for texts is one of the text factors involved in the process of listening (Rubin, 1994). Visual supports can be body movements, facial expressions, pictures, diagrams, maps or grids (Ur, 1984). In his study, Wagner (2010) explored whether video texts influenced L2 listening comprehension. A pre-test, post-test, and a quasi-experimental group design was used to examine how video texts affected L2 listening performance**.** The video texts used in the study contained gestures, body language and facial expressions. The control group completed a listening test with audio texts, whereas the treatment group completed the listening test with video texts. The results showed that the treatment group outperformed control group on the

post-test. In this way, the research indicated that visual support may contribute to L2 listening performance.

Spoken language is rarely continuously fluent (MacGregor, Corley and Donaldson, 2010, p. 3982). It can have restarts, hesitations, pauses, interruptions, and incomplete clauses (Eggins, 2004). Several researchers examined the effects of pauses and hesitations on listening performance (Jacobs et al., 1988; Blau, 1991; Leeser, 2004; MacGregor, Corley and Donaldson, 2010). Blau (1991) assessed the effects of pauses and hesitation markers on listening comprehension of university students who were L2 learners. The participants were assigned to three groups in order to hear monologues under three conditions: (1) normal speed; (2) with 3-second pauses inserted, on average, every 23 words; and (3) with similar pauses filled with hesitation markers such as "well", "I mean", "uh". Students completed a comprehension test immediately after each monologue. The findings showed that comprehension of the text with filled pauses was significantly higher than comprehension of text with the normal speed. The effect of blank pauses, while slightly less than filled pauses, was also significantly higher than normal speed. Buck (2001) also claims that longer pauses between idea units can be more beneficial for L2 listeners than shorter pauses or no pauses at all.

2.2.3.3 Speaker Factors

Speakers have an important role in the listening process. A speaker's accent and gender are speaker factors involved in listening process. The variations in these factors can affect listening performance. Therefore, these factors will be briefly explained below.

In L2 listening comprehension, speaker accent has been regarded as one of key factors by various researchers (Boyle, 1984; Buck, 2001; Derwing and Munro, 2009; Adank, Evans, Stuart-Smith, and Scotti, 2009). Goh (1999) who explored the students' perceptions about the factors influencing L2 listening found that accent was considered a key factor. Sixty-eight percent of the students reported that their

comprehension was affected by the speaker's accent. Flowerdew (1994) states that unfamiliar accents, both native and nonnative, cause difficulty in comprehension for both native and nonnative listeners. Therefore, he suggests that lectures should be given by the people from the students' own language background.

Speaker gender is another factor related to listening process. Markham (1988) sought whether speakers' gender and perceived expertness had an effect on the recall of different listening passages. The participants were 45 advanced and 53 intermediate ESL students. They listened to a text in four different treatment conditions: (1) presentation of the text by a male speaker who was not introduced, (2) presentation of the text by a female speaker who was not introduced, (3) presentation of the text by an expert male speaker, preceded by a brief, fictitious introduction concerning the speaker's educational training and publications, (4) presentation of the text by an expert female speaker, preceded by a brief, fictitious introduction concerning the speaker's educational training and publications. The findings revealed that the level of proficiency and passage condition had a significant relationship with recall. Both intermediate and advanced participants listened more attentively to the male speakers. Moreover, the study showed that expertness factor had the effect of neutralizing the gender bias.

2.3 Metacognition

In order to identify metacognitive awareness examined in this study, it is fundamental to identify the construct of metacognition, which is an essential factor that influences both overall learning and second language learning. It is basically defined as thinking about one's own thinking, or thinking about thinking. Flavell (1976) coined the term 'metacognition' and defined it as follows:

> "Metacognition refers to one's knowledge concerning one's own cognitive processes and products or anything related to them…the active monitoring and consequent regulation and orchestration of

> these processes in relation to the cognitive objects on which they bear, usually in the service of some concrete goals or objectives" (p. 232).

Bonds, Bonds and Peach (1992) state that it is "the knowledge and awareness of one's own cognitive processes and the ability to regulate, evaluate, and monitor one's thinking" (p.56). Schraw and Dennison (1994) describe it as "the ability to reflect on, understand, and control one's learning" (p.460). According to Livingston (2003) it refers to "higher order thinking that involves active control over the cognitive processes engaged in learning" (p.1). Vandergrift, Goh, Mareschal and Tafaghodtari (2006) point out that "metacognition is both self-reflection and self-direction" (p.435). Goh (2008) defines metacognition as "an individual's awareness of thinking and learning: what we are thinking, how we are thinking in relation to a learning task or situation and why we are thinking in a particular way" (p.192-193). According to Wong (2015) it is "the process of understanding how you learn, what you need to learn, and finally, which strategies or techniques would be the most effective and the best matched to the learning task" (p.37). Scott and Levy (2013) point out that metacognition is not a simple construct. They support that it is a complex process in which several subcomponents are engaged as follows:

> It involves *knowledge* of one's own and others' cognitive processes; *planning* prior to performing a task; *monitoring* one's own thinking, learning and understanding while performing a task; *regulating* one's thinking by making the proper adjustments; *controlling* thinking to optimize performance; and *evaluating* cognitive processes after a solution has been found (p.123).

The definitions above indicate that the learners using metacognition have knowledge of both their own and others' cognitive processes. They can "manage, direct, regulate, and guide their learning" (Wenden, 1998, p.519). They are aware of what they know and what they do not know (Dunlosky and Metcalfe, 2009). Paris and Winograd (1990) state that the learners using metacognition can monitor their own learning, thus shifting part of the responsibility from teacher to student. Paris

and Winograd (1990) also claim that the students utilizing metacognition develop positive self-perceptions and become motivated.

To emphasize the importance of metacognition, Nisbet and Shucksmith (1984) describe it as the "seventh sense" in the learning process (p.1). Metacognition assists learners to be better problem solver. It helps learners "(a) strategically encode the nature of the problem and form a mental model or representations of its elements (b) select appropriate plans and strategies for reaching the goal, and (c) identify and conquer obstacles that impede progress" (Davidson and Stenberg, 1998, p.48). According to Anderson (2008) the outcome of metacognition is a critical but healthy reflection on learning processes. This reflection enables learners to make particular changes in what they do to succeed in a learning task. Thus, they can be more prepared and successful in performing similar learning tasks. Briefly, we can acknowledge that the learners who have awareness of learning processes and use appropriate strategies for learning activities have a great advantage in learning processes.

The studies further assert that metacognition might be associated with a variety of different concepts: academic success (Landine and Stewart, 1998; Coutinho, 2007; Young and Fry, 2008), self-efficacy (Landine and Stewart, 1998; Cera, Mancini and Antoniette, 2013), self-regulated learning (Cera, Mancini and Antoniette, 2013), motivation (Paris and Oka, 1986; Landine and Stewart, 1998).

Countinho (2007) examined the relationship between academic success, achievement goal orientation, and metacognition. The participants in the study were 179 undergraduates. They were given three instruments, the Goals Inventory, the Metacognitive Awareness Inventory, and a demographics sheet that also asked for their college GPA, which is academic success reflected in class grades accumulated during the college. The results showed that metacognition is a predictor of academic success, that is, students with high metacognition had higher GPAs.

Cera, Mancini and Antoniette (2013), in their study, examined the relationship between metacognition and several concepts including self-efficacy, self-regulation and autonomy. The participants were 130 students attending their last year of high school. They were given five different questionnaires: Metacognitive Awareness Inventory, Adaptive Self-Efficacy Scale, the Questionnaire about Popular Conceptions of Learning, the Awareness of Independent Learning Inventory and the Learning and Study Strategies Inventory. The researchers found that metacognition is positively correlated with self-efficacy, self-regulation, and autonomy.

Landine and Stewart (1998) conducted a study investigating the associations between metacognition, motivation, locus of control, and self-efficacy. They studied with 108 high school students who were taking preparatory English at the university. Five different instruments were applied in the study: the Learning Process Questionnaire which was developed to assess what degree a secondary school student endorses different metacognitive approaches to learning, the General Information Questionnaire (gender, age, and academic average), Harter's Scale of Intrinsic versus Extrinsic Orientation in the Classroom to assess students' motivational orientation toward learning, Nowicki-Strickland Scale to assess individual locus-of-control and General Self-Efficacy Scale. The hypothesis of the study was that there would be a significant positive correlation between metacognition, motivation, locus of control, self-efficacy and academic average. First of all, the analysis indicated that all of the variables significantly correlated with academic average. The use of metacognitive strategies was significantly related to intrinsic motivation and to high levels of self-efficacy. However, the relationship between metacognition and locus of control was not statistically significant.

Metacognition is a significant factor that affects many activities related to language use, as well (Flavell, 1979). It influences the oral communication of information, oral persuasion, oral comprehension, reading comprehension, and writing. Various studies report significant improvement in L2 learning with metacognition (Çubukçu, 2008; Lam, 2009; Zhao, 2009; Tan and Tan, 2010; He, 2011).

Çubukçu (2008) studied with 130 third-year university students in an English department and investigated the impact of metacognition on reading and vocabulary. The students in the treatment group (n=65) were instructed in reading metacognitive strategies over five weeks, whereas the control group (n=65) did not receive any metacognitive instruction. Two instruments were used as pre- and post-test tools, a 20 item multiple-choice test of vocabulary developed by the researcher and the reading comprehension test developed by TOEFL. The results revealed that the treatment group attained significantly greater results than the control group. Thus, the results confirmed that metacognition affects reading and vocabulary.

Lam (2009) investigated whether the instruction of metacognitive strategies lead to improved performance in L2 oral tasks. The study took place in eight oral lessons spread over five months. Each lesson lasted for 80 minutes. While the treatment group received instruction in metacognitive strategies, the control group did not. Except from the strategy instruction, the two classes performed very similar activities in their English oral lessons. To measure the effect of instruction on metacognitive strategies, the researcher rated students' performances on group work discussions. The findings revealed that the treatment group generally outperformed the control group in these discussions.

2.3.1 Metacognitive Awareness

Drawing on Flavell's (1979) and Wenden's (1991) work on metacognition, Vandergrift and Goh (2012) developed a metacognitive framework for L2 listening. In this framework, they proposed the term 'metacognitive awareness' which integrates three components, namely metacognitive knowledge, metacognitive experience and strategy use. Metacognitive awareness refers to "a state of consciousness of our own thoughts as we focus on a particular cognitive or learning situation" (Vandergrift and Goh, 2012, p. 84). Figure 3 shows the metacognitive framework for L2 listening.

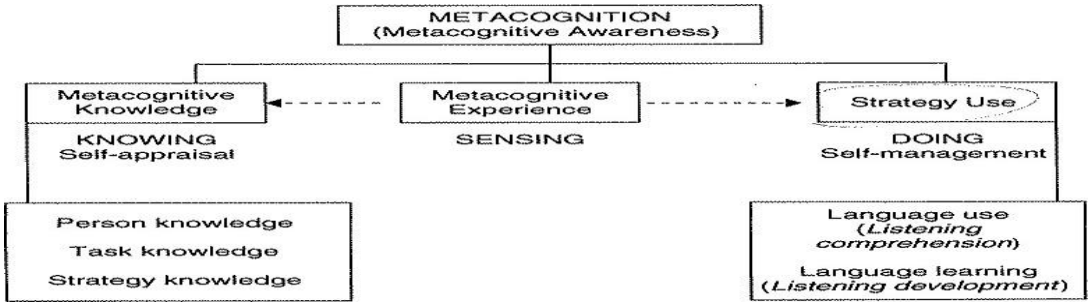


Figure 3: The metacognitive framework for L2 listening (Vandergrift and Goh, 2012, p.85)

In order to identify the construct of metacognitive awareness, we need to identify these components. They are presented below.

2.3.1.1 Metacognitive Knowledge

Metacognitive knowledge refers to one's accumulated knowledge about their own cognition, tasks, goals, actions, and experiences (Flavell, 1979). Wenden (1998) simply defines it as knowledge about learning. Flavell (1979) states that "metacognitive knowledge consists primarily of knowledge or beliefs about what factors or variables act and interact in what ways to affect the course and outcome of cognitive enterprises" (p.907). According to Schraw (1998), it refers to "what individuals know about their own cognition or about cognition in general" (p.114). Hadwin (2008) describes metacognitive knowledge as "what learners know and believe themselves, the task, and the strategies for completing the task" (p.176).

Flavell (1979) divides metacognitive knowledge into three parts: person, task and strategy. Person knowledge refers to "general knowledge learners have acquired about human factors that facilitate or inhibit learning" (Wenden, 1998, p.518). Chan and Chen (2009) define it as:

> "…what one knows about one's own characteristics as a learner (e.g., one's own learning preferences, special attitude and weaknesses) as well as human cognition and learning in general (e.g., the limitations of human mind and favorable conditions for learning)"

According to Victori and Lockhart (1995), person knowledge comprises a variety of human factors such as age, gender, intelligence, personality, motivation, learning style, and beliefs about their weaknesses and strengths. In the case of listening, it is the knowledge that language learners have about themselves when they listen to a text. Some examples of person knowledge would be to believe that you are better at listening than speaking, or the fact that you often get anxious while listening to a native speaker.

Other type of knowledge is task knowledge which refers to the knowledge of the purpose, nature, and demands of a learning task (Wenden, 1998) and a listening task (Vandergrift and Goh, 2012). In other words, when the learners are engaged in a learning task, they ask themselves a number of questions. They ask themselves why they are doing the task, what kind of task it is, and how they should do the task (Wenden, 1995). Task knowledge enables learners to perform a task successfully. An example of task knowledge would be to think that listening to an academic text is more difficult than listening to a daily conversation among friends. According to Vandergrift and Goh (2012), the knowledge of a listening task means knowing the demands of different types of listening passage.

The third type of metacognitive knowledge is strategic knowledge which is defined as "the knowledge about what strategies are, why they are useful and specific knowledge about when and how to use them" (Wenden, 1998, p.519). Strategic knowledge has central importance in SLA. That is why much of the previous research has focused on strategic knowledge in language learning strategy (Anderson, 1991; Cohen, 1998; O'Malley and Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990; Rubin, 1975; Wenden, 1991, 2002).

2.3.1.2 Metacognitive Experience

Metacognitive experience is other dimension of metacognitive awareness. Flavell (1979) defines metacognitive experiences as "any conscious cognitive or affective experiences that accompany and pertain to any intellectual enterprise"

(p.906). Vandergrift and Goh (2012) state that “a metacognitive experience is a thought or feeling that occurs to a person during and about main thought” (p.) According to Oyserman, Elmore and Smith (2012), metacognitive experiences refer to “the feelings that emerge while thinking and one’s interpretation of these feelings” (p.86). An example of metacognitive experience during listening is when listeners experience a sense of puzzlement and notice that they do not recognize the words they hear but remember a similar situation in which they managed to solve a word recognition problem.

According to Vandergrift and Goh (2012), metacognitive experiences can be fleeting or lasting in duration. To illustrate, when listeners realize that they do not recognize the words they hear, they may ignore it or they may try to solve this problem for some time. Flavell (1979) states that metacognitive experiences can happen any time before, during or after a cognitive activity. These experiences can give internal feedback about current cognitive enterprise. They can affect learners’ goals, metacognitive knowledge and strategy use (Flavell, 1981). They can be useful if they lead students to apply productive strategies and to develop further understanding about the task, themselves or the world around themselves (Vandergrift and Goh, 2012).

2.3.1.3 Strategy Use

Another dimension of metacognitive awareness is strategy use which is based on strategic knowledge (Vandergrift and Goh, 2012). Until now, “many researchers have attempted to define strategies or learning strategies in accordance with the changes in psychology and cognitive theories” (Harputlu and Ceylan, 2014, p.125). Rubin (1975) broadly describes learning strategies as “the techniques or devices which a learner may use to acquire knowledge” (p.43). Afterwards, Wenden and Rubin (1987) have defined learning strategies as “any sets of operations, steps, plans, routines used by the learner to facilitate the obtaining, storage, retrieval, and use of information” (p.19). Another definition of learning strategies belongs to O’Malley and Chamot (1990) who consider them “special thoughts or behaviors that

individuals use to help them comprehend, learn, or retain new information" (p.1). In the same year, Oxford (1990) provides an alternative definition of learning strategies as "specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations" (p.8). Later, Oxford (2011), in a more comprehensive way, has defined second language learning strategies as "the learner's goal-directed actions for improving language proficiency or achievement, completing a task, or making learning more efficient, more effective, and easier" (p.167). Thus, strategy use can be defined as "the deployment of specific procedures or actions to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-regulated, more effective or more transferable to new situations" (Vandergrift and Goh, 2012, p. 89).

By this time, considerable effort has been devoted to classifying the language learning strategies as well as describing them (Cohen, 1998; O'Malley and Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990; Rubin, 1981; Wenden, 1991). Especially two of the classification systems of the language learning strategies mostly have been cited by the researchers in the field: Oxford's (1990) classification, and O'Malley and Chamot's (1990) classification. Oxford (1990), in her book, divides language learning strategies into two main categories: direct strategies and indirect strategies. Direct strategies refer to the actions or thoughts having a direct impact on learning a new language or subject matter. They are divided into three sub-categories: memory strategies, cognitive strategies, and compensation strategies. Oxford (1990) emphasizes that mental processing is necessary for all direct strategies. Indirect strategies refer to the strategies that do not influence a new language or learning materials directly but promote and manage it (Oxford, 1990). They collaborate with direct strategies to cope with the process of second language acquisition. Indirect strategies are also divided into three sub-categories: metacognitive strategies, affective strategies and social strategies.

Another main classification belongs to O'Malley and Chamot's (1990). This classification system includes three main dimensions: cognitive strategies, metacognitive strategies, and social-affective strategies. Both classification systems

basically accept that metacognitive, cognitive and socio-affective dimensions are crucial for second language learning (Goh, 2012). One of main focuses of this study is metacognitive listening strategies; hence, they are identified in a comprehensive manner below.

2.3.1.3.1 Metacognitive Listening Strategies

To review metacognitive listening strategies, we need to identify metacognitive strategies. Metacognitive strategies are important agents in education that foster learner autonomy and life-long learning (Magaldi, 2010). O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Kupper and Russo (1985) emphasize that learners who do not use metacognitive strategies are learners without direction and ability to assess their development, achievements, and future learning routes. According to Magaldi (2010), the actual use of metacognition can only be achieved by supporting the use of metacognitive strategies.

Many researchers have attempted to define metacognitive strategies (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990; Chamot, 1995; Wenden, 1998). "Metacognitive strategies are higher order executive skills that may entail planning, monitoring or evaluation the success of a learning activity" (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990, p. 44). According to O'Malley and Chamot (1990) "metacognitive strategies involve thinking about the learning process, planning for learning, monitoring of comprehension or production while it is taking place, and self-evaluation after the learning activity has been completed" (p.8). Oxford (1990) describes metacognitive strategies as essential factors which go beyond cognitive devices and enable learners to coordinate their own learning process. Chamot (1995) defines them as "executive processes associated with the regulation and management of learning, and include strategies used to plan a task, to monitor a task in progress, and evaluate the success of a task after its completion" (p.15). Wenden (1998) also defines metacognitive strategies as "general skills through which learners manage, direct, regulate, guide their learning, i.e. planning, monitoring and evaluating" (p.519). O'Malley and

Chamot (1990) examine metacognitive strategies under three main categories, namely planning, monitoring and evaluation. Look at the Table 1.

Table 1

Metacognitive Strategies and Their Definitions

(O'Malley and Chamot, 1990, p. 119)

Planning	
Advance organizer	Previewing the main ideas and concepts of the material to be learned, often by skimming the text for the organizing principle.
Directed attention	Deciding in advance to attend in general to a learning task and to ignore irrelevant distracters.
Functional planning	Planning for and rehearsing linguistic components necessary to carry out an upcoming language task.
Selective attention	Deciding in advance to attend to specific aspects of input, often by scanning for key words, concepts, and/or linguistics markers.
Self-management	Understanding the conditions that help one learn and arranging for the presence of those conditions.
Monitoring	
Self-monitoring	Checking one's comprehension during listening or reading or checking the accuracy and/or appropriateness of one's oral or written production while it is taking place.
Evaluation	
Self- evaluation	Checking the outcomes of one's own language learning against a standard after it has been completed.

Planning strategies consist of advance organizer, directed attention, functional planning, selective attention, and self-management. The second category, monitoring, includes self-monitoring, and the third category, evaluation, contains self-evaluation.

In the case of listening, metacognitive strategies can be defined as actions in which listeners consciously apply to spoken text and check their comprehension through monitoring and evaluation (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990). Metacognitive listening strategies are regarded as the orchestra conductor directing the cognitive strategies in listening comprehension (Vandergrift, 2003b). They do not directly process input; however, they have control over cognitive strategies that directly affect input (Goh, 1998). Hence, they play a crucial role in listening comprehension and instruction. Metacognitive listening strategies have been emphasized by many researchers (see Anderson, 1991; Bacon, 1992; Mareschal, 2007; Vandergrift, 1997b; Vandergrift and Goh, 2012; Vandergrift et al., 2006; Vandergrift and Tafaghodtari, 2010).

Vandergrift (1997b), in his study, reorganized O'Malley and Chamot's taxonomy of listening strategies, and mainly examined metacognitive listening strategies under four main higher order executive processes, namely planning, monitoring, evaluation and problem identification. Look at the Table 2. Planning strategies include advance organization, directed attention, selective attention, and self-management. Monitoring strategies consist of comprehension monitoring, auditory monitoring, and double-check monitoring. Evaluation strategies include performance evaluation and strategy evaluation. In addition, Vandergrift incorporates problem identification strategy into his taxonomy.

Table 2

Metacognitive listening strategies, their definitions with representative examples (Vandergrift, 1997b, p.392)

1. **Planning**: Developing an awareness of what needs to be done to accomplish a listening task, developing an appropriate action plan and/or appropriate contingency plans to overcome difficulties that may interfere with successful completion of the task.		
1a. **Advance organization**:	Clarifying the objectives of an anticipated listening task and/or proposing strategies for handling it.	I read over what we have to do. I try to think of questions the teacher is going to ask.
1b. **Directed attention**:	Deciding in advance to **attend in general** to the listening task and to ignore irrelevant distractors; maintaining attention while listening.	I listen really hard. I pick out the words that are familiar so that... (in combination with **inferencing**)
1c. **Selective attention**:	Deciding to **attend to specific aspects** of language input or situational details that assist in understanding and/or task completion.	I listen for the key words. I establish the speakers in the conversation, their relationship by tone of voice, how they will address each other. This will limit the topics of discussion (in combination with **planning, voice inferencing,** and **elaboration**).
1d. **Self-management**:	Understanding the conditions that help one successfully accomplish listening tasks and arranging for the presence of those conditions.	I try to get in the frame of mind to understand French. I put everything aside and concentrate on what she is saying.
2. **Monitoring**: Checking, verifying, or correcting one's comprehension or performance in the course of a listening task.		
2a. **Comprehension monitoring**:	Checking, verifying, or correcting one's understanding at the local level.	I translate and see if it sounds right (in combination with **translation**). I just try to put everything together, understanding one thing leads to understanding another.
2b. **Auditory monitoring**:	Using one's "ear" for the language (how something sounds) to make decisions.	I use my knowledge of Portuguese, primarily sound (in combination with **transfer**). I use the sound of words to relate to other words I know.
2c. **Double-check monitoring**:	Checking, verifying, or correcting one's understanding across the task or during the second time through the oral text.	I might catch it at the end and then I'd go back. Sunny in the morning, that's not making sense...(earlier) it sounded like a cold front, something doesn't make sense to me any more.
3. **Evaluation**: Checking the outcomes of one's listening comprehension against an internal measure of completeness and accuracy		
3a. **Performance evaluation**:	Judging one's overall execution of the task.	How close was I? (at end of a think-aloud report).
3b. **Strategy evaluation:**	Judging one's strategy use.	I don't concentrate too much to the point of translation of individual words because then you just have a whole lot of words and not how they're strung together into some kind of meaning.
4. **Problem identification**:	Explicitly identifying the central point needing resolution in a task or identifying an aspect of the task that hinders its successful completion.	I'm not sure but "partager" and I'm not really sure what that means. I think that kind of has something to do with that. Music, there is something, ..."des jeux", I don't know what that is.

In his study, Vandergrift (1997b) also examined whether types of listening strategies, gender, and listening ability were linked with each other. The findings showed that there were very few differences between male and female students. Females tended to use slightly more metacognitive strategies than males, almost solely self-evaluation strategies. Moreover, male students reported using more repetitions than females. In terms of listening ability, successful listeners reported twice the number of metacognitive strategies reported by less successful listeners.

Goh (1998) further examined whether students with different listening proficiency levels differed in utilizing listening strategies and tactics. The participants were 16 subjects (8 high-level students and 8 low-level students) in this study. The researcher collected the data by using retrospective verbal reports. The results showed that the high-level students employed five metacognitive strategies: selective attention, directed attention, comprehension monitoring, real-time assessment of input, and comprehension evaluation. On the other hand, low-level students utilized only three metacognitive strategies: selective attention, directed attention, comprehension monitoring. Goh also identified tactics for metacognitive strategies. The tactics identified for selective attention were listening for gist, listening for familiar or key words, listening for repetition, and noticing the way information is structured. The tactics for directed attention were maintaining concentration as much as possible, listening carefully to every word, and continuing to listen despite problems. During comprehension monitoring, students applied tactics using both external and internal resources. They included information in the text, visual elements, context and prior knowledge. For the strategy of real-time assessment of input, the high-level listeners attempted to determine the potential value of unfamiliar words. In addition, Goh reported that the listeners checked to what extent the understanding was acceptable during comprehension evaluation.

Vandergrift (2003a), in this study, mainly explored listening strategies used by more skilled and less skilled listeners by utilizing a think-aloud procedure. The participants of the study (n=36) were categorized as either more skilled or less skilled listeners according to their scores of a listening test. The researcher reported that

there were some distinct differences between the more skilled and less skilled listeners. The more skilled listeners used metacognitive strategies more frequently than the less skilled listeners. They were more purposeful and flexible in using both cognitive and metacognitive strategies, whereas less skilled listeners had a passive approach. Less skilled listeners engaged in more direct translation and this prevented them from keeping up with the incoming input. Consequently, they could not comprehend the spoken text.

Vandergrift et al., (2006) developed and validated a listening questionnaire to assess L2 listeners' metacognitive awareness and perceived use of strategies while listening to spoken texts. Investigating the related literature the researchers formed a list of strategies and submitted them to an exploratory factor analysis to determine the emerging factors. Later a confirmatory factor analysis was done to validate the items retained. The Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire was tested with a great number of participants (n = 966) in various countries, in different learning contexts, and at different levels of language proficiency. The second administration of the revised questionnaire took place with another large sample of participants (n = 512). Five factors were derived from the data gathered: problem-solving, planning and evaluation, translation, person knowledge, and directed attention. In addition, the researchers applied a listening comprehension test to 341 students to explore the association between MALQ scores and listening performance. The results revealed significant correlation between MALQ scores and listening performance. The study also reported that about 13% of the variability in listening performance can be explained by metacognitive awareness.

Coşkun (2010), who aimed to prove the effectiveness of metacognitive strategy training on L2 listening performance, studied with 40 elementary university students, who were randomly assigned to the treatment group (n=20) and the control group (n=20). Before and after metacognitive strategy training, both groups took two listening comprehension tests as pre- and post-tests. The treatment group received instruction in metacognitive listening strategies, whereas the control group did not receive any strategy training. The results revealed that the metacognitive training

group significantly outperformed the control group. Metacognitive strategy training facilitated L2 listening comprehension; hence, the researcher suggested that language teachers should integrate strategy training into their listening lessons.

Vandergrift and Tafaghodtari (2010) aimed to test how a metacognitive, process-based approach affects L2 listening performance. The participants were 106 university students of French. The students in the treatment group (n = 59) listened to texts through metacognitive processes such as prediction, planning, monitoring, evaluating, and problem solving, whereas the students in the control group (n=47), listened to the same texts the same number of times but without any guided attention to process. Improvement of metacognition related to L2 listening was measured with Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ) at the beginning, middle, and end points of the study. To measure listening achievement, the researchers applied a listening test. The findings of the study revealed that the experimental group significantly outperformed the control group on the final listening test. The study also indicated that low-level listeners can gain the most from metacognitive, process-based approach. In addition, the less skilled listeners in the experimental group reported greater growth in metacognitive awareness.

Baleghizadeh and Rahimi (2011) investigated the relationships between metacognitive strategy use, motivation and listening test performance of EFL university students. The researchers studied with 82 learners majoring in English translation and literature at a university in Iran and collected the data of the study with three instruments: Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ), Academic Motivation Scale (AMS), and the listening section of the TOEFL. The results pointed out that L2 listening proficiency was linked positively with metacognitive strategy use, intrinsic motivation, but negatively with amotivation, as expected. Apart from these results, metacognitive strategy use had a significantly positive association with intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. However, it correlated negatively with amotivation.

Goh and Zeng (2012) explored Chinese EFL learners' level of metacognitive awareness in listening and examined how their metacognitive awareness correlated with their listening performance. A great number of participants (n=1066) completed a listening proficiency test and MALQ by Vandergrift et al. (2006). The scores of MALQ revealed that the participants had a high degree of metacognitive awareness regarding their listening performance in such factors as person knowledge, planning, and problem solving; however, they were limited in their use of strategies like directed attention and online-appraisal. Apart from these results, the study showed that metacognitive awareness predicts the participants' listening scores.

Another study investigating whether metacognitive awareness is linked with listening proficiency belongs to Goh and Hu (2014). The participants were 113 Chinese students and were given a listening proficiency test and MALQ developed by Vandergrift et al. (2006). The results indicated that directed attention and problem-solving strategies were most frequently employed and that mental translation was the least frequently utilized strategy by the students. The study also reported a significant relationship between scores on the MALQ and listening proficiency. In addition, 22% of the variance in listening proficiency was explained by metacognitive awareness.

2.4 Motivation

Second language learning is a complex, prolonged and tiresome process that requires learners to be highly motivated. Even if the learners have impressive language ability, they fail to perform the requirements of this process without motivation (Dörnyei, 2005). Many researchers acknowledge how motivation is a fundamental component in L2 learning (Gardner, 1985; Oxford and Shearin, 1994; Dörnyei, 2001; MacIntyre, 2002). In other words, it is indisputable that motivated learners actively engage in second language learning, and consequently they become more successful, whereas unmotivated learners engage in L2 learning inadequately and generally lack success.

Despite the undeniable role of motivation in L2 learning, there is no consensus on what it is and what it consists of (Oxford and Shearin, 1994). To Keller (1983), motivation is "the choices people make as to what experiences or goals they will approach or avoid and the degree of effort they will exert in that respects" (p. 389). Pioneering the research of motivation in L2 learning, Gardner (1985) describes motivation as "the combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favorable attitudes toward learning the language" (p.10). In this definition, he claims that motivation has a concept that contains four aspects including a goal, a desire to attain the goal, an effortful endeavor, and positive attitudes towards the activity at hand. Thus, a motivated person has a goal and a strong desire for this goal to come to fruition. He or she works hard to attain this goal and has a positive attitude towards it. Dörnyei and Otto (1998) provide a more comprehensive definition of motivation:

> Motivation is the dynamically changing cumulative arousal in a person that initiates, directs, coordinates, amplifies, terminates, and evaluates the cognitive and motor processes whereby initial wishes and desires are selected, prioritised, operationalised, and (successfully or unsuccessfully) acted out (p.64).

According to this definition, motivation is a dynamic and changeable construct rather than a stable state. According to Nunan (1999) motivation is a psychological factor controlling the amount of effort students put into second language learning. Pintrich and Schunk (2002) describe motivation as "the process whereby goal-directed activity is instigated and sustained" (p.5). They see motivation as a goal-directed activity like Gardner (1985); however, they do not put emphasis on how attitudes can affect motivation. To clarify the term 'motivation', Dörnyei (2001) lists six factors: (1) consciousness vs. unconsciousness (2) cognition vs. affect (3) reduction vs. comprehensiveness (4) parallel multiplicity (5) context and (6) time. According to Dörnyei, if the research on motivation analyzes these factors more thoroughly, it will be easier to identify what motivation is.

In the first factor, Dörnyei (2001) emphasizes that motivation is both a conscious and an unconscious process. Dörnyei (2001) says that most researchers think motivation is a conscious process. However, he emphasizes that it is also an unconscious process. For instance, washing face and hands in the morning is not an activity under direct motivational control, but a habitual and a non-conscious activity.

The second factor stresses the changing views on the nature of motivation. While motivation initially was initially seen as a process derived from instincts, drives, or emotional states, the current focus is currently on the thoughts and beliefs of people with cognitive approaches to motivation (Dörnyei, 2001). However, Keller (2010) emphasizes that motivation contains both affective elements like fear and attraction and cognitive elements like expectancies of success. Moreover, it is not related to only cognitive and affective domains, but also to social conditions (Deci and Ryan, 2008b). Therefore, it is not accurate to classify such a comprehensive concept under a single factor, namely the affective domain.

In the third factor, Dörnyei (2001) highlights that researchers unsurprisingly investigate only a few aspects of motivation. This is due to the fact that it is an exceedingly complex process. Researchers give a main role to some factors in their theories such as “expectancy of success” and “value” in expectancy-value theories and “integrativeness” in Gardner’s socio-educational motivation theory. Dörnyei (2001) suggests that researchers should approach motivation in an eclectic way in which they integrate multiple aspects. On the other hand, Deci and Ryan (2008b) assert that examining some specific aspects of motivation is more useful than treating it as a unitary concept. In the case of self-determination theory (Ryan and Deci, 1985), the types of motivation or motivational orientations are investigated as primary factors in order to clarify the nature of motivation.

Another factor affecting motivation is the concept of parallel multiplicity, which refers to “the interplay of the learners’ *simultaneous focus* on a number of different but interacting goals and activities” (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 13, emphasis in the

original). For instance, a learner may engage in a new activity while he or she evaluates the success of his or her previous activities Hence, Dörnyei asserts that motivation and achievement are the outcome of a set of interacting goals and activities. He also states that researchers generally examine motivation in isolation because it is difficult to deal with multiple actions and goals.

The other two factors affecting motivation are context and time. Dörnyei (2001) emphasizes that motivation can change under different social contexts and over time. All of these factors show us that motivation is a complex and comprehensive process that can be affected by various simultaneous actions, and that it can change under different social contexts, and over time.

Furthermore, Ryan and Deci (2000) assert that people can have different level or amount of motivation (i.e., how much motivation) and different orientation of motivation (i.e., what type of motivation). Gardner (1985) defines orientation as underlying reason of second language learning. According to Ryan and Deci (2000), it is "the underlying attitudes and goals that give rise to action" (p.54). For instance, a student can be highly motivated to learn a foreign language due to getting a better job or gaining the approval of his or her parents or having pleasure.

The complex and comprehensive nature of motivation has resulted in the existence of many different motivation theories. The theories of motivation in psychology can be listed as expectancy-value theories, goal theories, self-determination theory, and social psychological theories (Dörnyei, 2001). These theories in psychology have inspired second language researchers and thus, these researchers have attempted to apply some theories from psychology to second language acquisition. Motivation theories in SLA are socio-educational theory (Gardner's motivation theory), attribution theory, self-determination theory, and Schumann's neurobiological model (Dörnyei, 2005). This study investigates motivation in terms of self-determination theory. Hence, it is explained below.

2.4.1 Self-determination Theory

Self-determination theory (SDT) is a macro-theory of motivation developed by Deci and Ryan (1985). The theory can be described as a predominantly social psychology theory since its main focus is on need satisfaction, interpersonal interactions and social environments (Olesen, 2011). SDT considers people as "proactive organisms whose natural or intrinsic functioning can be either facilitated or impeded by the social contexts" (Deci, et al., 1994, p.120). In other words, the theory asserts that people are naturally active, curious, and eager to be successful; however, social environments can support or hinder this natural human tendency. Accordingly, SDT mainly examines "the interaction between people's inherent active nature and the social environments that either support or thwart that nature" (Deci and Ryan, 2008a, p.14). It further investigates how this interaction differs in terms of the types of motivation, namely intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Deci and Ryan, 2008b).

SDT mainly covers a set of four mini-theories, which together constitute the theory's framework. These mini-theories are Basic Psychological Needs Theory, Cognitive Evaluation Theory, Organismic Integration Theory, and Causality Orientations Theory. Each theory explains the different aspects and principles upon which SDT is based. These theories are explained in detail below.

2.4.1.1 Basic Psychological Needs Theory

Basic Psychological Needs Theory (BPNT) claims that people have three inherent and universal psychological needs which are referred to as "the nutriments that are essential for ongoing psychological growth, integrity, and well-being" (Deci and Ryan, 2000, p.229). These fundamental needs are the need for competence, relatedness, and autonomy (Deci and Vansteenkiste, 2004).

Competence refers to "feelings of mastery over one's environment and the ability to bring about desired outcomes" (Milyavskaya et al., 2009, p.1032). Ryan

and Deci (2002) emphasize that “competence is not an attained skill or capacity, but is a felt sense of confidence and effectance in action” (p.7). Sheldon and Kriger (2007) state that “people need to feel that they are good at what they do or at least can become good at it” (p. 885). The need for competence directs learners to search for challenging activities (Ryan and Deci, 2002). However, the challenges must be optimal for the capacities of learners. Tasks that are too easy or difficult unfavorably influence learners’ motivation. While tasks that are too easy do not make the learners feel mastery over their environment, tasks that too difficult causes anxiety and frustration (O'Donnell, Reeve, and Smith, 2012). Therefore, the tasks or activities should be moderately challenging in order for the learner to feel competent and, thus to feel motivated.

Relatedness is basically defined as the “need to belong” (Skinner and Edge, 2002, p.301). According to Ryan and Deci (2002), it is “feeling connected to others, to caring for and being cared for by those others, to having a sense of belongingness both with other individuals and with one’s community” (p.7). The theory postulates that people are born with desire to seek, start and enjoy social interactions. Ryan and Deci (2002) stress that the need for relatedness is not related to attaining a particular outcome (e.g., sex) or a formal status (e.g., becoming a group member). It is concerned with “a psychological sense of being with others in secure communion or unity” (Ryan and Deci, 2002, p. 7). This sense of belonging is essential for a person’s well-being and healthy development. In other words, people who meet their need for relatedness develop a healthy functioning in their life.

Autonomy is related to making flexible choices (Deci and Ryan, 1985). Autonomy refers to the state of making one’s own choices and decisions without any constraints (Lynch, 2013). SDT distinguishes autonomy from independence in that independence refers to “the circumstance of not relying on others for support, help, or supplies” (Chirkov, Ryan, Kim and Kaplan, 2003, p. 98). According to SDT, an autonomous person may rely on others for support or guidance. In other words, the opposite of autonomy is not regarded as dependence in SDT. The important point is whether people willingly engage in an activity or not. If someone is forced to

participate in an action, they will not feel autonomous, and thus they will not be motivated. When people freely choose to be involved in an activity, they are more likely to be intrinsically motivated (Gagne, 2003). Thus, they will be more successful in their performance.

When the three psychological needs mentioned above are satisfied, well-being and mental health are promoted and enhanced. Conversely, when they are obstructed and blocked, well-being diminishes (Ryan and Deci, 2000b). That is to say, this theory posits that if environmental conditions facilitate the satisfaction of these needs, people will be motivated and will have psychological well-being. Therefore, these fundamental needs should be supported by learning environments.

2.4.1.2 Cognitive Evaluation Theory

Cognitive Evaluation Theory (CET) is a sub-theory of SDT developed by Deci and Ryan (1985). The foremost purpose of the theory is to identify the impact of the social environment on intrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation refers to "the doing of an activity for its inherent satisfactions rather than for some separable consequence" (Ryan and Deci, 2000a, p.56) such as getting promotion, a higher salary, etc. More precisely, CET examines how external factors like rewards, evaluations, deadlines, competition, externally imposed goals, directives, threats, and interpersonal relationships influence intrinsic motivation (Deci, Koestner and Ryan, 2001).

CET asserts that two basic psychological needs, namely autonomy and competence, serve as a basis for intrinsic motivation (Ledford, Gerald, Gerhart and Fang, 2013). The theory further asserts that external factors affect autonomy and competence; accordingly, they have an impact on intrinsic motivation (Deci, Koestner and Ryan, 2001). If external factors facilitate the fulfillment of these needs, intrinsic motivation enhances. However, if they hinder it, intrinsic motivation decreases or diminishes.

In the case of the psychological need for autonomy, it is significant whether people perceive the origin of their actions to be self-chosen or to be dictated by external forces. When the social context causes an external perceived locus of causality, people feel that they are controlled by others, thus they do not become intrinsically motivated. Conversely, if social context enables people to think of themselves as the source of their actions, they become more intrinsically motivated. Further, when the external factors lead to a more internally perceived locus of causality, individuals see themselves as initiators of their behaviors, hence they become more intrinsically motivated.

In the case of the psychological need for competence, people need to feel that they are skillful at what they do. When the social context and their interpersonal interactions facilitate the satisfaction of this need, they will be more intrinsically motivated. CET posits that, in the context of the classrooms, praise or informative feedback from the teacher can help learners feel competent in their actions. However, external factors such as externally imposed goals, directives, threats, and competition prevent learners from feeling competent and from becoming intrinsically motivated.

One of the most controversial issues in the theory is whether rewards enhance or decrease intrinsic motivation (Deci, Koestner and Ryan, 1999, 2001; Eisenberger, Pierce and Cameron, 1999; Cameron, 2001). Deci, Koestner and Ryan (2001) assert that intrinsic motivation depends on the types of rewards. Tangible rewards lead to the change from a more internally to a more externally perceived locus of causality (Ryan and Deci, 2000, p.59) and thwart intrinsic motivation, whereas verbal rewards which consist of “explicit positive performance feedback” improve the internally perceived locus of causality and enhance intrinsic motivation (Deci, Koestner and Ryan, 2001, p.3). Yet, Cameron (2001) asserts that the negative impact of rewards on intrinsic motivation is minimal. They are not as harmful as Deci, Koestner and Ryan (1999) have claimed. If they are applied appropriately, they can enhance intrinsic motivation.

Briefly, CET emphasizes that intrinsic motivation depends on both competence and autonomy which are affected by social context and interpersonal interactions. Therefore, the climate of classrooms and schools should help students feel competent and autonomous. Teachers should design activities where students feel free to choose and where they have ample opportunity to feel competent.

2.4.1.3 Organismic Integration Theory

While CET primarily examines how social context and interpersonal interactions influence intrinsic motivation, organismic integration theory (OIT) focuses on how people become motivated for activities that they are not intrinsically motivated. In other words, OIT mainly aims to investigate extrinsic motivation, which refers to performing an action so as to attain an external outcome rather than for taking pleasure in the activity itself (Deci, Vallerand, Pelletier and Ryan, 1991). Deci and Ryan (2002) comprehensively describe what OIT investigates as follows:

> Organismic integration theory concerns with the internalization and integration of values and regulations and was formulated to explain the development and dynamics of extrinsic motivation; the degree to which individuals' experience autonomy while engaging in extrinsically motivated behaviors; and the processes through which people take on the values and mores of their groups and cultures. (p. 9-10).

Ryan and Deci (2000a) state that the main problem is motivating learners to appreciate and perform uninteresting activities on their own, without any intervention. Therefore, in this theory, the concept 'internalization' is accentuated by the researchers (Ryan and Deci, 2000b, 2000c; Deci and Ryan, 2002; Ryan, 2009). It simply refers to "the process of taking in a value or regulation" (Ryan and Deci, 2000a, p.60). Internalization is regarded as a natural process in which individuals attempt to transform external regulation into self-regulation (Deci and Ryan, 2002). In other words, when extrinsically motivated behaviors are internalized, they can

create self-determined actions. The higher level of internalization a person has, the more persistent they become, the better self-perception they have, and the better quality of engagement they attain (Ryan and Deci, 2000a).

The extent to which a regulation is internalized depends on the degree to which people feel autonomous. Accordingly, the theory examines internalization in terms of a continuum in which the types of regulation vary to the extent in which they represent autonomy (Deci and Ryan, 2002). In this continuum, the types of motivation are ordered in accordance with the degree to which motivation is originated from self. The continuum is illustrated in Figure 4.

Amotivation is located at the far left of the continuum. It refers to "the state of lacking an intention to act" (Ryan and Deci, 2000b). Amotivated people cannot see a link between their behavior and the outcomes of their behavior. There is a variety of reasons to be amotivated. For instance, if people do not regard an activity as worthwhile or if people do not think that they have the necessary knowledge and ability to perform an activity efficiently, they become amotivated for the activity.

Intrinsic motivation is located at the right end of the continuum. It refers "the innate tendency to engage in an activity for the sole pleasure and satisfaction derived from its practice" (Pelletier, Tuson, Green-Demers, Noels, and Beaton, 1998, p. 441). The theory asserts that if people think the activities in which they engage are interesting, optimally challenging, exciting, or enjoyable, they become intrinsically motivated. Intrinsic motivation improves the quality of learning and gives rise to creativity (Ryan and Deci, 2000a). Hence, it has a crucial role in education. Moreover, Vallerand (1992) proposed that there are three types of intrinsic motivation: Intrinsic motivation-knowledge, intrinsic motivation-accomplishment and intrinsic motivation-stimulation. However, they are not ordered in accordance with the degree to which motivation is originated from self.

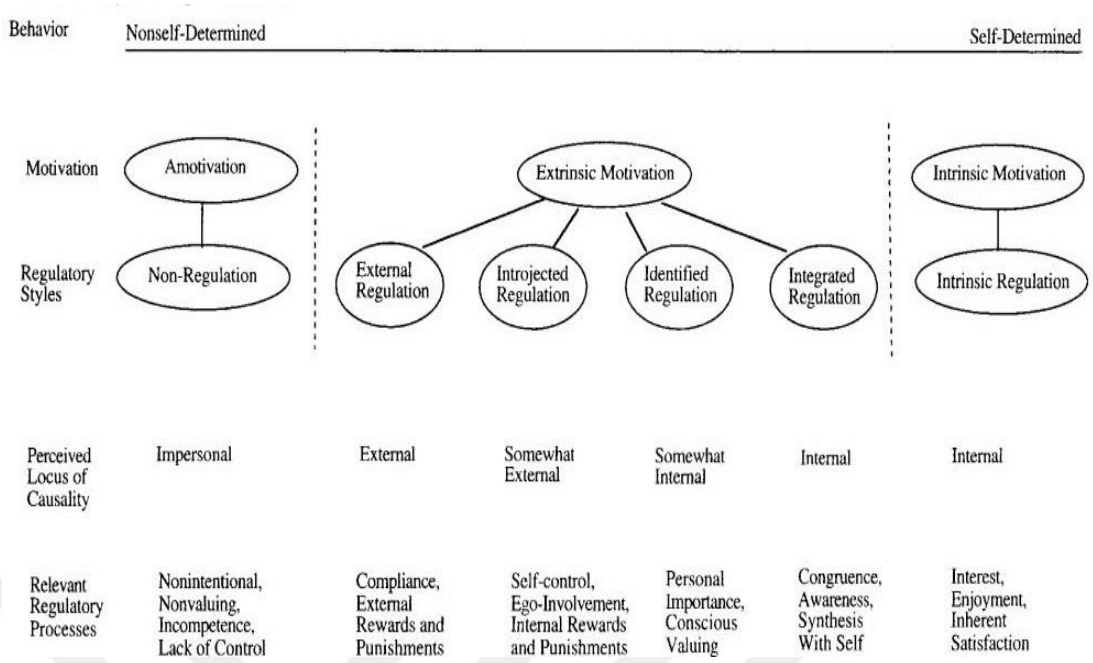


Figure 4: The self-determination continuum showing types of motivation with their regulatory styles, loci of causality, and corresponding processes (Ryan and Deci, 2000, p. 72).

Intrinsic motivation-knowledge or intrinsic motivation to know "performing an activity for the pleasure and the satisfaction that one experiences while learning, exploring, or trying to understand something new" (Vallerand, et al., 1992, p. 1005). Intrinsic motivation-accomplishment or intrinsic motivation towards accomplishment is defined as "engaging in an activity for the pleasure and satisfaction experienced when one attempts to accomplish or create something" (Vallerand, et al., 1992, p. 1005). The people who have intrinsic motivation towards accomplishment concentrate on the process of achieving rather than on the outcome. Intrinsic motivation-stimulation or intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation is defined as participating in an activity for "stimulating sensations (e.g., sensory pleasure, aesthetic experiences, as well as fun and excitement) derived from one's engagement in the activity" (Vallerand, et al., 1992, p. 1006).

Extrinsic motivation takes place between amotivation and intrinsic motivation. Accordingly, the regulation types of extrinsic motivation lie between the two ends of the continuum. They differ in the degree to which they are autonomous.

They are ordered from left to right as follows: external regulation, introjected regulation, identified regulation, and integrated regulation.

The first type of regulation is external regulation. It is regarded as the least autonomous form of extrinsic motivation. When people are regulated externally, they are involved in activities to gain rewards or avoid punishment. Externally regulated behaviors are controlled by external means. In other words, they have an externally perceived locus of causality, which is one of the factors hindering intrinsic motivation. Hence, the theory posits that external regulation has a negative relationship with intrinsic motivation.

The second regulation type of extrinsic motivation is introjected regulation. It refers to "a relatively controlled form of regulation in which behaviors are performed to avoid guilt or anxiety or to attain ego enhancements such as pride" (Ryan and Deci, 2000b, p.72). Even if identified regulation is partially internalized, it is not considered to be a part of the self. Accordingly, introjected behaviors still have an externally perceived locus of causality. They are performed to increase and sustain self-esteem and feeling of worth.

The third regulation type is identified regulation, which is a more autonomous, or self-determined form of extrinsic motivation than external and introjected regulation. In identified regulation, people find value or importance in their behaviors or activities. Identified actions are accepted as personally important.

The final regulation type is integrated regulation. It is the least controlled type of extrinsic motivation. In integrated regulation, actions are congruent with the personally supported values and needs which are already a part of the self. Integrated regulation has many qualities in common with intrinsic motivation. As a result of that, people feel greater autonomy through integrated regulation than they do with other types of regulation. Yet, it is still a type of extrinsic motivation, so people engage in activities to obtain personally important outcomes rather than for the inherent interest and enjoyment derived from participation (Yeşilyurt, 2008).

2.4.1.4 Causality Orientations Theory

Another sub-theory of SDT is causality orientations theory (COT) which is mainly concerned with the idea that people interpret and react to the same event in different ways. Deci and Ryan (1985) assert that "there seem to be substantial individual differences in people's interpretations of, or orientations towards, initiating and regulatory events" (p.110). The differences are relatively stable tendencies or orientations towards social events. The theory asserts that there are three kinds of motivational orientations: autonomous, controlled, and impersonal causality orientations. These orientations vary in the extent to which they represent self-determination. According to the theory, everyone has each causality orientation to some extent.

Autonomous orientation refers to "a tendency to approach activities with a sense of volition, freedom, and choice" (Ronen and Mikulincer, 2014, p.111). Autonomously orientated individuals want to initiate and regulate their activities based on their own interests, goals and values (Deci and Ryan, 1985). If someone has high level of autonomous orientation, he or she experiences the satisfaction of three basic psychological needs, thus become intrinsically motivated and self-determined (Deci and Ryan, 2008b).

In contrast to autonomous orientation, controlled orientation refers to "the tendency to seek out external controls and to experience events as pressures that determine behavior and feelings" (Deci and Ryan, 2002, p. 94). Hence, controlled orientated people generally initiate and regulate their actions for external rewards. Moreover, their motivation is based on external factors such as deadlines and directives. They further organize their actions by internally controlled directives indicating how they should or must behave (Koestner and Zuckerman, 1994). If someone has a high level of controlled orientation, he or she can experience some satisfaction of the psychological needs for competence and relatedness; however, he or she does not feel autonomous in his or her actions (Deci and Ryan, 2008a).

The third orientation is impersonal orientation which describes the extent to which people tend to feel as if they have no control over desired results in their activities and thus experience a general sense of loss and amotivation (Ryan and Deci, 2008, p. 665). Impersonal oriented people believe that they cannot initiate, direct or regulate their actions. They do not see a relationship between their behaviors and the consequences of these behaviors. When people are strongly impersonal orientated, they perceive themselves as incompetent, and as lacking self-confidence and autonomy. Accordingly, they cannot satisfy their basic psychological needs.

2.4.2 Self-determination Theory in SLA

SDT encompasses a variety of important issues such as personality development, self-regulation, basic psychological needs, goals, the relation of culture to motivation, and the effect of one's social environment on motivation (Deci and Ryan, 2008a). This enables SDT to be applied to a wide range of life domains such as education, health care, sports, psychotherapy, etc. Especially in recent years, the researchers have started to investigate second language motivation from a SDT perspective (Noels, Clement and Pelletier, 1999, 2001; Noels, Pelletier, Clement and Vallerand, 2000; Noels, 2001; McIntosh and Noels, 2004; Vandergrift, 2005; Pae, 2008; Comanaru and Noels, 2009); however, these studies are very limited.

Noels, Clement and Pelletier (1999) explored whether students' perceptions of teachers' communicative style are linked with their extrinsic and intrinsic motivational orientations. Their study also examined the relationship between these variables and anxiety, motivational intensity and language competence. The participants of the study were 78 students of French as a foreign language. They filled out a questionnaire with three sections. The first section measured the participants' motivational orientations, the second section measured their language anxiety and competence. The last part measured the students' perception of their teachers' communicative style. The findings showed that higher intrinsic motivation had a negative association with perceiving the teacher as controlling and a positive

association with perceiving the teacher informative. The less autonomous forms of motivation (external and introjected regulation) and amotivation were not related significantly to the perceptions of teachers' communicative style. The analysis further indicated that greater amotivation was associated with greater anxiety, lower motivational intensity and lower language competence. The less autonomous forms of motivation did not correlate significantly with anxiety, motivational intensity and language competence. The more autonomous forms of motivation (identified regulation and intrinsic motivation) correlated with less anxiety, higher motivational intensity and higher language competence.

Additionally, Noels (2001) examined whether communicative styles of language teachers are linked with students' intrinsic and extrinsic orientations. The researcher further attempted to find if integrative orientation is associated with intrinsic and extrinsic orientations. The participants were 322 low-level students of Spanish, and filled out a comprehensive questionnaire that assesses intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, feelings of autonomy and competence about language learning, integrative orientation, and perceptions of teachers' communication style. The analysis indicated that the more the teacher was sensed as controlling, the less the students felt they were self-determined in language learning. The more the teacher were perceived as being actively involved in students' learning, by giving informative praise and encouragement to the students for their efforts, the more the students felt competent in learning L2. Moreover, the researcher found that integrative orientation correlated positively with intrinsic motivation.

Noels, Clement and Pelletier's (2001) study had two purposes: to determine the generalizability of the self-determination framework to a non-English speaking sample and to explore the relations between the types of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and the integrative orientation. The participants were 59 university students in a summer English immersion course in Canada. They completed a questionnaire addressing their reasons for language learning, perceptions of autonomy and competence, effort expended in language learning, determination to pursue English studies, and course achievement. The results revealed that self-

determination framework could be generalized to a non-English speaking sample. In other words, the pattern of correlations between the intrinsic and extrinsic orientations is generally consistent with the pattern hypothesized by SDT. The findings also indicated that

Vandergrift (2005) aimed to identify whether metacognitive awareness is correlated with motivational orientations, that is to say, intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, and amotivation. Further, the study sought the link between motivational orientations and L2 listening proficiency. The researcher studied with 57 French learners from two high schools. The instruments of the study were two questionnaires (a motivation questionnaire and a metacognitive awareness questionnaire) and a listening test. The results showed that almost all of metacognitive listening strategies were negatively correlated with amotivation, but positively correlated both with extrinsic and intrinsic motivation. However, types of both extrinsic motivation and intrinsic motivation did not correlate significantly with metacognitive strategies. Moreover, as expected, the analysis revealed that L2 listening proficiency had a negative relationship with amotivation. However, listening proficiency did not have a strong correlation with intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Vandergrift explains this unexpected result by pointing to the effect of the number of years of French study. The researcher states that there is a lack of research on the relationship between motivation and L2 listening, so it is necessary to conduct more studies on this topic.

Pae (2008) examined the relationships between the instrumental orientation, integrative orientation, the extrinsic motivation and intrinsic motivation. They further aimed to seek the relationship between orientation variables, self-confidence, motivation, and L2 achievement for 315 Korean university students who were learning EFL. The participants had been studying English for at least 6 years through their middle and high school education. Data was collected with a L2 achievement test and a questionnaire developed by the researcher by drawing on previous studies in the area of L2 motivation. This questionnaire consisted of several subsets such as external regulation, introjected regulation, identified regulation, intrinsic motivation,

instrumental orientation, integrative orientation, self-confidence, motivational intensity, etc. The results showed that external regulation correlated positively with instrumental orientation. The instrumental orientation was statistically different from the other three subtypes of motivation, namely introjected regulation, identified regulation, and intrinsic motivation. The findings further indicated that intrinsic motivation correlated positively with language achievement, self-confidence and motivation to learn a second language.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

One of the important stages in a study is to determine what research design will be used, who the participants will be, how many participants will be involved, how they will be selected and what data collection instruments will be used, whether they are reliable and valid, and also how data will be analyzed. All of them influence the significance and effectiveness of a study. Hence, this chapter respectively presents the research design of the study, a description of setting and the participants, data collection instruments, data collection procedures and data analysis procedures which were conducted to answer the research questions given below.

The main purpose of the study is to investigate the relationships between the motivation types, the metacognitive awareness, and the listening proficiency of EFL students. The study further explores whether gender and year in school affect the motivation types, the metacognitive awareness, and the listening proficiency of EFL students. The research questions of this study are listed as follows:

1. Is there a relationship between the metacognitive awareness and the listening proficiency of EFL students?
2. Is there a relationship between the motivation types and the listening proficiency of EFL students?
3. Is there a relationship between the motivation types and the metacognitive awareness of EFL students?

4. Is there a gender difference in the listening proficiency of EFL students?
5. Is there a gender difference in the metacognitive awareness of EFL students?
6. Is there a gender difference in the motivation types of EFL students?
7. Does the listening proficiency of EFL students differ depending on the year in school?
8. Does the metacognitive awareness of EFL students differ depending on the year in school?
9. Does the motivation types of EFL students differ depending on the year in school?

3.2 Research Design

An explanatory correlational research design was implemented to answer the research questions of the current study. An explanatory correlational research design is described as "a correlational design in which the researcher is interested in the extent to which two variables (or more) co-vary, that is, where changes in one variable are reflected in changes in the other" (Creswell, 2012, p. 340). It enables researchers to determine the existence and the strength of the relationships among variables without manipulating these variables (Büyüköztürk, Akgün, Demirel, Karadeniz ve Kılıç, 2013). In other words, this research design provides researchers to understand the degree to which changes in one variable are associated with changes in the other (Creswell, 2012). It allows researchers to reach a large group of participants in a short period of time.

The choice of explanatory research approach for this study was primarily influenced by the pursuit of a better understanding of L2 listening. The explanatory correlational research design provides a better understanding and insight into two significant variables related to L2 listening, namely motivation orientations and metacognitive listening strategies. More precisely, this research design points out the value and importance of metacognitive listening strategies and motivation orientations on L2 listening proficiency, which is a crucial element of a second language learning. Additionally, it allows us to determine the extent to which these variables are related to L2 listening proficiency. Explanatory correlational research

design provides a better understanding into gender and year in school differences in the motivation types, the metacognitive awareness, and listening proficiency of EFL students.

3.3 Setting

This study was applied to undergraduate students majoring in English Language Teaching (ELT) Department at Dokuz Eylül University in the spring semester of 2014-2015 academic year. Dokuz Eylül University is a state university in İzmir, which is located in western part of Turkey. There are two entrance requirements to the ELT department, the completion of secondary education and attainment of the required score in the national university entrance exam.

The ELT department offers only one course related to listening, namely Listening and Pronunciation. The students receive this course in their first year in the department. It is compulsory and offered in two successive semesters (Fall and Spring) as Listening and Pronunciation I, and Listening and Pronunciation II. In Listening and Pronunciation I, students are provided with basic listening and phonetic skills such as discriminating minimal pairs, and formulating phonetic transcriptions of sounds. Additionally, students are taught the fundamentals of listening and phonetics, namely vowels, consonants, stress in words, rhythm and intonation as well as the usage of phonetic alphabet. Listening and Pronunciation II focuses on listening skills and strategies such as note-taking, predicting, extracting specific and specific and detailed information, guessing meaning from context, and getting the gist.

3.4 Participants

The target population of the study was 548 undergraduate students majoring in English Language Teaching (ELT) Department at Dokuz Eylül University. Of 548 students 240 participated in this study in the spring semester of 2014-2015 academic

years. All of the participants were native speakers of Turkish. None of them lived in an English-speaking country. All of them received English as a compulsory course in primary and secondary school before starting to major in ELT. Their age ranged from 17 to 24.

In order to determine the sample size of the study, the researcher benefited from the sample size determination table prepared by Büyüköztürk, Çakmak, Akgün, Karadeniz and Demirel (2013). In the table, with a 95 percent confidence interval and a five percent margin error, the sample size for target population of 500 people is calculated as 218. Therefore, 240 participants were determined to suffice for this study.

The participants were selected through a stratified random sampling design which is a probability sampling technique. In a stratified random sampling technique, the target population is first divided into strata or subgroups based on some specific characteristic (e.g., gender). Then, a random sample from each stratum is taken in the same proportion as they exist in the population (Fraenkel and Wallen, 2009; Creswell, 2012). It enables each stratum to be represented in the sample in proportion to that existence in the population. This technique was chosen because it provides us with a sample that is highly representative of the population being studied in terms of the criteria used for stratification.

The gender distribution of the target population was received from the student administration office. There were 405 (74%) female students and 143 (26%) male students in the department. Accordingly, in this study, 179 (75%) of the participants were female students and 61 (25%) of the participants were male students. Table 3 presents the distribution of the participants by gender.

Table 3

Frequency Table of the Participants for Gender

Gender	n	%
Male	61	25
Female	179	75
Total	240	100

Note: *n:* the number of the participants in groups; *%:* the percentage of the participants in groups

Table 4 indicates the distribution of the participants regarding the year in school. According to the information provided by student administration office, there were 120 (22%) freshmen, 132 (24%) sophomores, 118 (21%) juniors and 178 (33%) seniors in the department. Thus, in the present study, of the 240 participants 53 (22%) were freshmen, 58 (24%) were sophomores, 50 (21%) were juniors, and 79 (33%) were seniors.

Table 4

Frequency Table of the Participants for the Year in School

Year in School	n	%
Year 1 (freshmen)	53	22
Year 2 (sophomores)	58	24
Year 3 (juniors)	50	21
Year 4 (seniors)	79	33
Total	240	100

Note: *n:* the number of the participants in groups; *%:* the percentage of the participants in groups

3.5 Data Collection Instruments

The research was designed to collect the quantitative data. In order to collect the required data, two scales and a listening proficiency test were administered in this

study: Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ) (Appendix 1), Language Learning Orientations Scale (LLOS) (Appendix 2), and the listening section of the TOEFL (Appendix 3). In addition, the scales included a demographic information section which contained questions concerning students' personal information such as gender, age, and the year in school.

3.5.1 The Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ)

The Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire developed by Vandergrift, Goh, Mareschal, Tafaghodtari (2006) consists of 21 items. The items are rated on a six-point Likert scale rating from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree). It evaluates L2 learners' "metacognitive awareness concerning their perceived use of strategies while listening to oral texts" (Goh and Hu, 2014, p.260). It further assesses their perceptions with regard to the difficulty of listening skill and their self-efficacy in it. Five subscales are included in the questionnaire, namely problem-solving, planning and evaluation, mental translation, directed attention, and person knowledge. The first subscale is *planning and evaluation* that contains items about how learners plan ahead for listening and evaluate the outcome of their listening efforts (items 1, 10, 14, 20 and 21). The second subscale is *problem solving* which consists of items on how learners monitor comprehension and solve difficulties as they arise (items 5, 7, 9, 13, 17 and 19). The third subscale of the questionnaire, *directed attention*, includes items on how learners maintain their attention and stay on task during listening (items 2, 6, 12 and 16). The fourth subscale, *mental translation*, comprises items indicating whether listeners use mental translation strategies as they listen (items 4, 11 and 18). Finally, *person knowledge*, the fifth subscale, contains items representing listeners' perceptions about the difficulty presented by L2 listening and their self-efficacy in L2 listening (items 3, 8 and 15).

Items 3, 8 and 16 were stated negatively so that the participants would not indicate a favorable attitude towards marking only one side of the scale. Items 4, 11 and 18 represent the mental translation strategies, which the learners should avoid to

become efficient listeners. Thus, these six items were reverse coded for overall interpretation of scores. The questionnaire was conducted in its original form, that is to say, it was not translated into Turkish because the participants were the students majoring in English Language Teaching Department. The reliability coefficient of MALQ calculated in this study was .879. The coefficients for each subscale were appeared to be .756 for problem-solving, .559 for planning and evaluation, .767 for mental translation, .536 for directed attention, and .809 for person knowledge.

3.5.2 Language Learning Orientations Scale (LLOS)

Language Learning Orientations Scale (LLOS) developed by Noels, Pelletier, Clément, and Vallerand (2000) measures the motivational orientations of the students. The scale consists of 21 items which are rated on a seven-point Likert scale rating from 1 (Does not correspond) to 7 (Corresponds exactly). It contains three main subscales including *amotivation, intrinsic motivation* and *extrinsic motivation*. The extrinsic motivation subscale includes the three types of EM, namely *external regulation, introjected regulation,* and *identified regulation.* The intrinsic motivation subscale comprises the three types of IM, namely *knowledge, accomplishment,* and *stimulation*. The total score of each subscale is indicative of learner's motivational orientation. Amotivation subscale itself has 3 items like "I don't know why I should learn English Language." Extrinsic orientation subscale has 9 items. For instance, "In order to get a more prestigious job later on" Intrinsic orientation subscale has 9 items, as well. For example, "For the satisfied feeling I get in finding out new things." The questionnaire was conducted in its original language, English. The word second language in the original scale was changed to English to fit the purpose of the study. The reliability coefficient of LLOS calculated in this study was .836. The coefficients for each subscale were appeared to be .559 for amotivation, .769 for extrinsic motivation (.670 for external regulation, .529 for introjected regulation, and .743 for identified regulation), and .882 for intrinsic motivation (.772 for knowledge, .722 for accomplishment, and .774 for stimulation).

3.5.3 Listening Section of the TOEFL

Other instrument used in this study was the listening section of the TOEFL. It was used to determine the participants' listening proficiency levels in English. It consisted of 33 multiple-choice questions. The test included two conversations and four academic lectures. One of the conversations in the test took place during an office meeting with a professor, and the other conversation was during a service encounter with university staff. The content of the office conversations was academic and related to course requirements. The lectures were from biology, anthropology, astronomy, and art history courses. In two lectures, the professor did all of the talking, whereas in other two lectures, the professor engaged the students in discussion by asking questions, and the students answered them briefly. Both the conversations and lectures included features of oral language such as false starts, misspeaks with self- corrections and repetitions. After each conversation or lecture were played, the participants started to solve questions. Each total of raw points (min=0, max=33) were converted into scaled score of 0 to 30. The scaled scores were divided into three different levels of listening proficiency namely, low level (0-13), intermediate level (14-21), and high level (22-30). The reliability coefficient of the listening test calculated in this study was .812.

3.6 Data Collection Procedures

First of all, the researcher received the necessary official permission (Appendix 4) from Dokuz Eylül University Ethics Committee in the spring semester of 2014-2015 academic years. After that, the researcher administered the instruments to the participants in the same semester. At first, the participants were informed about the purpose and procedure of the study. It was also emphasized that their participation would be anonymous and confidential. Then, the listening section of TOEFL was applied to the participants in group sessions at classrooms by the researcher out of regular classroom hours. The students could take notes during listening. The test was not administered in internet-based exam format, but a paper-based format due to the lack of computers and internet at the department. It took 45

minutes to finish answering the questions. Immediately after the administration of the test, the MALQ and the LLOS were conducted. It took almost 15 minutes to complete them.

3.7 Data Analysis

Quantitative data obtained from the instruments was analyzed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) 15. Before using statistical tests to answer the research questions, the reliability of each instrument was assessed with Cronbach alpha coefficient. The alpha level was set at 0.05 for each statistical test. In addition, it was assessed whether the data was normally distributed or not. A variety of statistical tests (e.g. t-test, Pearson product moment correlation) require that data are normally distributed and therefore the researchers should always check if this assumption is violated. Two numerical measures of shape – skewness and kurtosis – were used to test for normality. If either of these values is not close to zero, then your data set is not normally distributed (Büyüköztürk et al., 2013). The result showed that only amotivation scores were not normally distributed (skewness=3.00, kurtosis= 10.46). Hence, non-parametric tests were applied to answer the research questions concerning amotivation subscale scores. Different kinds of analysis were utilized to answer the research questions. They are presented below:

1. The first research question in the study attempts to explain whether there is a relationship between L2 listening proficiency and total score of MALQ. It further explores the correlation between L2 listening proficiency and the subscales of MALQ, namely mental translation, person knowledge, problem-solving, planning and evaluation, and directed attention. In order to answer the question, the researcher performed the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient which is a measure of the strength and direction of association that exists between two variables measured on at least an interval scale.

2. The second research question in the study aims to explain whether there is a relationship between L2 listening proficiency and the LLOS subscales, namely

amotivation, extrinsic motivation, external regulation, introjected regulation, identified regulation, and intrinsic motivation, IM-Knowledge, IM-Accomplishment, IM-Stimulation. The overall score of LLOS cannot be calculated; hence its relationship with L2 listening proficiency cannot be examined. To answer the second research question, the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was used by the researcher. However, the amotivation subscale scores were not normally distributed (skewness=3.00, kurtosis= 10.46), therefore the Spearman rank-order correlation coefficient was used to test the association between the amotivation scores and the listening test scores.

3. The third research question investigates whether the LLOS subscales are associated with the overall score of MALQ and its sub-scales. The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was used to answer this question, too. On the other hand, the Spearman's rank order correlation test was used to analyze the amotivation subscale scores' association with the overall score of MALQ and its subscales since the amotivation scores were not normally distributed (skewness=3.00, kurtosis= 10.46).

4. The fourth research question of the study examines whether L2 listening proficiency varied significantly by male and female participants. In order to answer this question, the researcher conducted an independent samples t-test which investigates whether distributions of categorical variables differ from one another.

5. The fifth research question investigates whether the total score of MALQ and the subscales of MALQ differ depending on gender. In order to answer the question, the researcher used an independent-samples t-test which compares the means between two unrelated groups on the same continuous and dependent variable.

6. The sixth research question seeks whether male and female students differ in their motivation types. An independent-samples t-test was utilized to answer the

question. A Mann-Whitney U test was run for only amotivation scale since its scores were significantly skewed (skewness=3.00, kurtosis= 10.46).

7. The seventh research question explores whether the listening proficiency levels (high, intermediate and low) of EFL students differ according to the year in school (freshmen, sophomores, juniors and seniors). To reply this question, the researcher conducted a chi-square test that is used to discover if there is a relationship between two categorical variables.

8. The eighth research question examines whether the metacognitive awareness of EFL students differs depending on the year in school (freshmen, sophomores, juniors and seniors). One-way ANOVA was utilized to answer this research question. This test is used to determine whether there are any significant differences between the means of three or more independent groups. However, a Kruskal Wallis H-test for independent samples was run for the scores of overall MALQ and mental translation subscale since the assumption of homogeneity of variance was not met.

9. The ninth research question in the study investigates whether the motivation types of EFL students differs depending on the year in school (freshmen, sophomores, juniors and seniors). In order to answer this question, the researcher used one-way ANOVA. Yet, a Kruskal Wallis H-test for independent samples was run for the scores of amotivation subscale since the assumption of normality was not met (skewness=3.00, kurtosis= 10.46).

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings of the statistical analysis of the data collected through Language Learning Orientation Scale (LLOS), Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ), and the listening section of the TOEFL. It first introduces the research questions and then aims to answer these questions in relevance to the collected data.

5.2 Research question 1: Is there a relationship between the metacognitive awareness and the listening proficiency of EFL students?

The first research question in the study attempts to explain whether there is a relationship between L2 listening proficiency and total score of MALQ. It further explores the association between L2 listening proficiency and the subscales of MALQ, namely mental translation, person knowledge, problem-solving, planning and evaluation, and directed attention. The means and standard deviations for the listening scores, the five MALQ subscales, and the overall MALQ score are presented in the Table 5.

Table 5

Descriptive Statistics for Listening Scores, Overall MALQ Scores and MALQ Subscales

	n	M	SD
L2 Listening proficiency	240	13.77	6.61
MALQ	240	4.12	0.71
Mental translation	240	2.80	1.21
Person knowledge	240	3.76	0.80
Problem-solving	240	4.34	0.75
Planning and evaluation	240	3.95	0.85
Directed attention	240	4.38	0.79

On average, the participants scored 13.77 out of a maximum 30 in the TOEFL listening test, indicative of their approximately intermediate listening proficiency. The standard deviation of 6.61 indicated that there was considerable variability in listening proficiency among the participants. The mean MALQ score was 4.12 on a six-point scale. This showed that the participants reported a moderate level of strategy use and confidence regarding listening. Of the five MALQ subscales, the participants scored considerably higher for directed attention (M=4.38, SD=0.79), problem solving (M=4.34, SD=0.75), and planning and evaluation (M=3.95, SD=0.85) than for person knowledge (M=3.76, SD=0.80) and mental translation (M= 2.80, SD=1.21). The markedly higher standard deviation for mental translation showed much inter-learner variation on this subscale.

In order to examine the relationships between the listening scores, the five MALQ subscales, and the overall MALQ score, the Pearson Product-Moment correlation coefficient was calculated. An examination of the skewness and kurtosis values for all of the subscales revealed that there was a relatively normal distribution underlying the responses. The results are illustrated in the Table 6.

Table 6

Intercorrelations among Listening Scores, MALQ Subscales, and Overall MALQ Scores

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1 L2 listening proficiency							
2 Mental translation	-0.58**						
3 Person knowledge	-0.40**	0.34**					
4 Problem-solving	0.54**	-0.34**	-0.31**				
5 Planning and evaluation	0.43**	-0.24**	-0.26**	0.61**			
6 Directed attention	0.61**	-0.43**	-0.30**	0.57**	0.49**		
7 MALQ	0.74**	-0.66**	-0.49**	0.82**	0.74**	0.77**	

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

Table 6 shows that the participants' overall MALQ scores (*M*=4.12, *SD*=0.71) were significantly related to their scores in the TOEFL listening test (*M* =13.77, *SD* = 6.61). As hypothesized, the relationship between L2 listening proficiency and metacognitive awareness was statistically strong and positive ($r = 0.74$, $p < 0.01$). The higher the participants scored on the MALQ scale, the higher they scored on the listening test. The results further indicated that there was a moderate negative correlation between L2 listening proficiency and the two subscales of MALQ, mental translation ($r = -0.58$, $p < 0.01$) and person knowledge ($r = -0.40$, $p < 0.01$). In addition, there was a moderate positive correlation between L2 listening proficiency and three MALQ subscales, namely problem solving ($r = 0.54$, $p < 0.01$), planning and evaluation ($r = 0.43$, $p < 0.01$), and directed attention ($r = 0.61$, $p < 0.01$).

5.3 Research question 2: Is there a relationship between the motivation types and the listening proficiency of EFL students?

The second research question in the study aims to explore whether there is a relationship between L2 listening proficiency and the subscales of LLOS. These subscales include motivation types, namely amotivation, intrinsic motivation

(knowledge, accomplishment, and stimulation), and extrinsic motivation (external regulation, introjected regulation, and identified regulation). An overall mean of LLOS was not measured since these different types of motivation have not been considered to be additive but different degrees of a continuum. Means and standard deviations for the listening scores and the LLOS subscales are presented in the Table 7.

Table 7

Descriptive Statistics for Listening Scores and LLOS Subscales

	n	M	SD
L2 Listening proficiency	240	13.77	6.61
Amotivation	240	1.60	0.94
Extrinsic motivation	240	4.17	1.06
External regulation	240	4.20	1.42
Introjected regulation	240	2.92	1.33
Identified regulation	240	5.39	1.35
Intrinsic motivation	240	5.28	1.09
IM- Knowledge	240	5.79	1.07
IM-Accomplishment	240	4.80	1.36
IM-Stimulation	240	5.24	1.28

Note. IM=Intrinsic Motivation

As is illustrated in Table 7, the amotivation scale had the lowest mean (*M*=1.60, *SD*=0.94) among all the subscales. This result is not surprising since the participants in this study were undergraduate students majoring in ELT department. They voluntarily attended this department where acquiring a L2 is valued and is considered an opportunity to have a job. Such students can be presumed to be either extrinsically or intrinsically motivated. Therefore, they felt very little amotivated with regard to acquiring L2. In addition, the participants scored considerably higher for intrinsic motivation (*M*= 5.28, *SD*=1.09) than for extrinsic motivation (*M*=4.17, *SD*=1.06). This result revealed that the participants felt more self-determined in acquiring a second language.

The details of the results also showed that IM-Knowledge, which is a subscale of intrinsic motivation, had the highest mean (*M*=5.79, *SD*=1.07) among all the scales. The other subscales that had high mean score were listed identified regulation (*M*=5.39, *SD*=1.35), IM-Stimulation (*M*=5.24, *SD*=1.28) and IM-Accomplishment (*M*=4.80, *SD*=1.36), respectively. These results indicated that the more self-determined forms of motivation (i.e., identified regulation, intrinsic motivation-knowledge) were rated higher than the less self-determined forms of motivation (i.e., external regulation, introjected regulation) by the students in this study. Additionally, Table 7 indicates that the participants scored considerably higher for external regulation (*M*=4.20, *SD*=1.42) than introjected regulation (*M*=2.92, *SD*=1.33). This result indicated that the participants acquired English to get a more prestigious job or have a better salary later on rather than to avoid guilt or anxiety or to attain ego enhancements such as pride.

An examination of the skewness and kurtosis values for all of the subscales showed that only amotivation scale was significantly skewed. Therefore, the Spearman rank-order correlation coefficient was used to test the association between the amotivation scores and the listening test scores. In order to examine the relationships between the listening scores and other subscales of the LLOS, the Pearson Product-Moment correlation coefficient was calculated. The results are provided in the Table 8.

Firstly, an examination of the correlations between L2 listening proficiency and three major subscales of LLOS (amotivation, extrinsic motivation, and intrinsic motivation) revealed that the participants' amotivation scores were found to be significantly linked with their scores in the TOEFL listening test (*M* =13.77, *SD* = 6.61). This relationship was negative but not as strong as expected ($r = -0.28$, $p < 0.01$). Similarly, the association between L2 listening proficiency and extrinsic motivation was significantly negative and low ($r = -0.18$, $p < 0.01$). In contrast with amotivation and extrinsic motivation, the intrinsic motivation correlated positively with the listening scores. Yet, the relationship was not as strong as hypothesized ($r = 0.14$, $p < 0.05$).

Table 8

Intercorrelations among Listening Scores and LLOS Subscales

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1 L2 Listening proficiency										
2 Amotivation	-0.28**									
3 Extrinsic motivation	-0.18**	0.22								
4 External regulation	-0.26**	0.90	0.79**							
5 Introjected regulation	-0.21**	0.13*	0.77**	0.42**						
6 Identified regulation	0.56	-0.20**	0.75**	0.38**	0.37**					
7 Intrinsic motivation	0.14*	-0.23**	0.46**	0.25**	0.21**	0.59**				
8 IM-Knowledge	0.23**	-0.33**	0.28**	0.11	0.60	0.46**	0.86**			
9 IM-Accomplishment	0.08	-0.13*	0.52**	0.36**	0.27**	0.58**	0.87**	0.61**		
10 IM-Stimulation	0.07	-0.19**	0.37**	0.17**	0.21**	0.50**	0.89**	0.70**	0.66**	

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Secondly, this research question sought the relationships between L2 listening proficiency and the minor subscales of LLOS, namely external regulation, introjected regulation, identified regulation, IM-Knowledge, IM-Accomplishment, and IM-Stimulation. The results showed that the correlations between the external regulation and the listening scores ($r = -0.26$, $p < 0.01$) as well as the introjected regulation and the listening scores ($r = -0.21$, $p < 0.01$) were both statistically significant and negative but not strong. In addition, there was a significantly positive and low correlation between IM-Knowledge and the listening scores ($r = 0.23$, $p < 0.01$). However, an examination of the correlation between other subscales and the listening scores did not point to any significant relationships.

5.3 Research question 3: Is there a relationship between the motivation types and the metacognitive awareness of EFL students?

The third research question investigated whether the motivation types were associated with the total score of MALQ and the subscales of MALQ. In order to examine the correlations between these variables, the Pearson Product-Moment correlation coefficient was calculated. The Spearman's rank order correlation test was used to analyze the amotivation subscale scores since they were not normally distributed. The results are illustrated in the Table 9 below.

Firstly, the results revealed that the use of mental translation correlated significantly and positively with the less self-determined forms of motivation, namely amotivation ($r = 0.18$, $p < 0.01$), extrinsic motivation ($r = 0.26$, $p < 0.01$), external regulation ($r = 0.27$, $p < 0.01$), and introjected regulation ($r = 0.24$, $p < 0.01$). Yet, the correlations did not appear to be as strong as expected. Similarly, the person knowledge scores had a significantly positive relationship with the less self-determined forms of motivation, extrinsic motivation ($r = 0.16$, $p < 0.01$), external regulation ($r = 0.21$, $p < 0.01$) but these correlations were weak, as well. Mental translation and person knowledge did not correlate significantly with other LLOS subscales.

Table 9

Correlations between Overall MALQ Score, MALQ Subscales, and LLOS Subscales

	Mental Translation	Person Knowledge	Problem Solving	Planning and Evaluation	Directed Attention	MALQ
Amotivation	0.18**	0.10	- 0.22**	-0.24**	-0.21**	-0.29**
Extrinsic Motivation	0.26**	0.16**	0.00	0.01	-0.11	-0.13*
External Regulation	0.27**	0.21**	- 0.08	-0.06	-0.16*	-0.20**
Introjected Regulation	0.24**	0.11	- 0.04	0.01	-0.17**	-0.16*
Identified Regulation	0.08	0.06	0.13*	0.10	0.08	0.07
Intrinsic Motivation	-0.03	0.01	0.27**	0.20**	0.18**	0.22**
IM-Knowledge	-0.11	-0.00	0.26**	0.24**	0.21**	0.26**
IM-Accomplishment	0.22	0.01	0.24**	0.16**	0.15*	0.17**
IM-Stimulation	-0.01	0.01	0.21**	0.14**	0.13*	0.15*

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

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Secondly, the problem solving scores had a significantly negative correlation with amotivation ($r = -0.22$, $p < 0.01$), while they were associated significantly and positively with the more self-determined forms of motivation, namely identified regulation ($r = 0.13$, $p < 0.05$), intrinsic motivation ($r = 0.27$, $p < 0.01$), IM-Knowledge ($r = 0.26$, $p < 0.01$), IM-Accomplishment ($r = 0.24$, $p < 0.01$), and IM-Stimulation ($r = 0.21$, $p < 0.01$). In a similar way, the planning and evaluation subscale had a significantly negative correlation with amotivation ($r = -0.24$, $p < 0.01$), whereas it correlated significantly and positively with intrinsic motivation ($r = 0.20$, $p < 0.01$), IM-Knowledge ($r = 0.24$, $p < 0.01$), IM-Accomplishment ($r = 0.16$, $p < 0.01$), and IM-Stimulation ($r = 0.14$, $p < 0.01$). Thus, the participants who indicated a positive response to statements illustrating problem solving and planning-evaluation strategies showed lower levels of amotivation and had a more self-determined motivational profile.

Thirdly, the results revealed that the directed attention scores had a significantly negative relationship with the less self-determined forms of motivation, namely amotivation ($r = -0.21$, $p < 0.01$), external regulation ($r = -0.16$, $p < 0.05$), and introjected regulation ($r = -0.17$, $p < 0.01$). Moreover, as expected, they correlated significantly and positively with the more self-determined forms of motivation, that is, intrinsic motivation ($r = 0.18$, $p < 0.01$), IM-Knowledge ($r = 0.21$, $p < 0.01$), IM-Accomplishment ($r = 0.15$, $p < 0.05$), and IM-Stimulation ($r = 0.13$, $p < 0.01$). Similarly, the participants' overall MALQ scores had a significantly negative relationship with amotivation ($r = -0.29$, $p < 0.01$), extrinsic motivation ($r = -0.13$, $p < 0.05$) external regulation ($r = -0.20$, $p < 0.01$), and introjected regulation ($r = -0.16$, $p < 0.05$). Further, as hypothesized, the overall MALQ scores correlated significantly and positively with intrinsic motivation ($r = 0.22$, $p < 0.01$), IM-Knowledge ($r = 0.26$, $p < 0.01$), IM-Accomplishment ($r = 0.17$, $p < 0.01$), and IM-Stimulation ($r = 0.15$, $p < 0.05$). Yet, the correlations did not appear to be as strong as expected.

5.4 Research question 4: Is there a gender difference in the listening proficiency of EFL students?

The fourth research question of the study examined whether L2 listening proficiency varied significantly by male and female participants. In order to find out the difference between male and female students, an independent samples t-test was conducted. The results are provided in Table 10.

Table 10

Results of Independent Samples T-Test for L2 Listening Proficiency According to Gender

Gender	n	Mean	SD	df	t	p
Female	179	12.70	6.22	283	4.45	.000
Male	61	16.91	6.77			

p<.05

The independent sample t-test results showed that the difference in the listening scores between the female participants and the male participants were statistically significant, t (283) = 4.45, p < 0.01. The examination of the group means revealed that males (*M* = 12.70, *SD* = 6.22) performed significantly higher on the listening test than did females (*M* = 16.91, *SD* = 6.77). This result suggests that gender has an effect on L2 listening proficiency.

5.5 Research question 5: Is there a gender difference in the metacognitive awareness of EFL students?

The fifth research question investigated whether the total score of MALQ and the subscales of MALQ differed depending on gender. In order to answer this research question, the researcher used an independent-samples t-test. The results are presented in Table 11.

Table 11

Results of Independent Samples T-Test for Overall MALQ Scores, MALQ Subscales According to Gender

	Gender	n	Mean	SD	df	t	p
Mental translation	Female	179	2.91	1.17	238	2.64	.009
	Male	61	2.44	1.27			
Person knowledge	Female	179	3.83	0.79	238	2.20	.028
	Male	61	3.57	0.81			
Problem solving	Female	179	4.29	0.72	238	2.01	.045
	Male	61	4.51	0.81			
Planning and evaluation	Female	179	3.93	0.76	238	0.71	.475
	Male	61	4.02	1.07			
Directed attention	Female	179	4.28	0.76	238	3.47	.001
	Male	61	4.68	0.78			
MALQ	Female	179	4.03	0.64	238	3.29	.001
	Male	61	4.37	0.84			

$p<.05$

The independent sample t-test results revealed that the total score of MALQ and the sub-scales of MALQ differed depending on gender, apart from the planning and evaluation subscale. The difference in the planning and evaluation scores between the female participants and the male participants were not statistically significant ($p > 0.05$).

As is illustrated in Table 11, there was a significant difference in the mental translation scores for the female (*M*=2.91, *SD*=1.17) and the male (*M*=2.44, *SD*=1.27) participants, $t (238) =2.64$, $p < 0.01$. An examination of the group means indicated that females used significantly more mental translation strategies than did males. Similarly, there was a significant difference in the person knowledge scores for the female (*M*=3.83, *SD*=0.79) and the male (*M*=3.57, *SD*=0.81) participants, $t (238) = 2.20$, $p < 0.05$. An examination of the group means indicated that females had significantly higher level of anxiety than did males. This result also revealed that the female participants had lower confidence in L2 listening than did males.

The results further showed that problem solving scores were significantly higher for the male students (*M*=4.51, *SD*=0.81) than for the female students (*M*=4.29, *SD*=0.72), t (238) = 2.01, p < 0.05. In other words, the males used significantly more problem solving strategies than did females. In similar way, directed attention scores were significantly higher for the male students (*M*=4.68, *SD*=0.78) than for the female students (*M*=4.28, *SD*=0.76), t (238) = 3.47, p < 0.01. Table 11 also gives the mean values of the overall MALQ scores and indicates significant statistical differences between the female (*M*=4.03, *SD*=0.64) and the male (*M*=4.37, *SD*=0.84) participants, t (238) = 3.29, p < 0.01. This result suggests that male students have higher metacognitive awareness than female students and gender has a significant effect on metacognitive awareness in L2 listening skill.

5.6 Research question 6: Is there a gender difference in the motivation types of EFL students?

The sixth research question seeks whether male and female students differ in LLOS subscales. An independent-samples t-test was used to answer the question. A Mann-Whitney U test was run for only amotivation scale since its scores were significantly skewed. The results are illustrated in Table 12 and Table 13.

Table 12

Results of U test for Amotivation Subscale According to Gender

	Gender	n	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	p
Amotivation	Female	179	120.43	21556.5	7363.5	0.976
	Male	61	120.71	7363.5		

p<.05

The Mann Whitney U-test scores showed that there was not a significant difference between the scores of females and males with respect to amotivation scale, U= 7363.5, p > 0.05. Thus, it is possible to conclude that gender does not play an important role in becoming amotivated towards acquiring a second language.

Table 13

Results of Independent Samples T-Test and Descriptive Statistics for LLOS Subscales According to Gender

	Gender	n	Mean	SD	t	p
Extrinsic motivation	Female	179	4.28	1.05	2.81	.005
	Male	61	3.85	1.03		
External regulation	Female	179	4.31	1.36	1.98	.049
	Male	61	3.89	1.56		
Introjected regulation	Female	179	3.10	1.34	3.64	.000
	Male	61	2.39	1.18		
Identified regulation	Female	179	5.44	1.33	0.93	.353
	Male	61	5.25	1.40		
Intrinsic motivation	Female	179	5.32	1.05	1.10	.269
	Male	61	5.14	1.20		
IM- Knowledge	Female	179	5.78	1.04	0.08	.932
	Male	61	5.80	1.16		
IM-Accomplishment	Female	179	4.84	1.36	0.82	.409
	Male	61	4.67	1.39		
IM- Stimulation	Female	179	5.34	1.23	2.03	.043
	Male	61	4.96	1.39		

$p<.05$

The independent sample t-test results showed that four LLOS subscales varied according to gender. As is illustrated in Table 13, the difference in the extrinsic motivation scores between the female participants and the male participants were statistically significant, $t (238) = 2.81$, $p < 0.05$. The examination of the group means indicated that females were significantly more extrinsically motivated than males were. Table 13 also shows that there was a significant difference in the external regulation scores for the female (*M*=4.31, *SD*=1.36) and the male (=3.89, *SD*=1.56) participants, $t (238) = 1.98$, $p < 0.05$. The examination of the group means indicated that females were significantly more externally regulated than males were. Similarly, the t-test showed that the introjected regulation scores significantly differed according to gender, $t (238) = 3.64$, $p < 0.05$. The examination of the group means

indicated that females had significantly more introjected regulation than males did. In addition, the IM-Stimulation scores of the female students were significantly higher than the male students' scores, t (238) = 2.03, p < 0.05. However, gender did not affect other LLOS subscales.

5.7 Research question 7: Does the listening proficiency of EFL students differ depending on the year in school?

The seventh research question explores whether the listening proficiency levels (high, intermediate and low) of EFL students differed according to the year in school (freshmen, sophomores, juniors and seniors). In order to answer this question, the researcher used a chi-square test of independence. The results are provided in Table 14.

Table 14

Results of Chi-square Test and Descriptive Statistics for Listening Proficiency by the Year in School

Listening Proficiency Level		The Year in School				Total
		Freshmen	Sophomores	Juniors	Seniors	
Low	N	35	31	19	25	110
	%	31.8	28.2	17.3	22.7	100
Intermediate	N	10	19	20	38	87
	%	11.5	21.8	23.0	43.7	100
High	N	8	8	11	16	43
	%	18.6	18.6	25.6	37.2	100

Note. $\chi^2 = 18.95$, df=6, $p < .05$

The chi-square test of independence indicated that there was a relationship between listening proficiency level and the year in school, $\chi^2(6, N=240) = 18.95$, $p < 0.05$. As is illustrated in Table 14, the percentage of the seniors that had a high level of listening proficiency was higher than the percentage of the freshmen, the sophomores and the juniors who had a high level of listening proficiency. In other words, the seniors were more likely to be successful in L2 listening than the

freshmen, the sophomores and the juniors. In addition, the results showed that the juniors were more likely to be successful in L2 listening than the freshmen and the sophomores. Table 14 shows that the percentage of the juniors that had a high level of listening proficiency was higher than the percentage of the freshmen, the sophomores who had a high level of listening proficiency. Finally, the percentage of the freshmen that had a high level of listening proficiency was the same as the percentage of the sophomores who had a high level of listening proficiency; however, the percentage of the freshmen that had a low level of listening proficiency were higher than the percentage of the sophomores who had a low level of listening proficiency. This result showed that the sophomores were better at L2 listening than the freshmen.

5.8 Research question 8: Does the metacognitive awareness of EFL students differ depending on the year in school?

The eighth research question in the study seeks whether the metacognitive awareness of EFL students differs depending on the year in school (freshmen, sophomores, juniors and seniors). In order to answer this question, the researcher used one-way ANOVA. However, a Kruskal Wallis H-test for independent samples was run for the scores of overall MALQ and mental translation subscale since the assumption of homogeneity of variance was not met. Descriptive statistics and one-way ANOVA results for the four subscales, namely person knowledge, problem-solving, planning and evaluation, and directed attention by the year in school are presented in Table 15 and Table 16, respectively.

Table 15

Descriptive Statistics for Person Knowledge, Problem Solving, Planning and Evaluation, and Directed Attention by the Year in School

	Year	n	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Person Knowledge	Freshmen	53	3.93	.728	2.33	5.33
	Sophomores	58	3.81	.772	1.67	5.67
	Juniors	50	3.69	.940	1.67	5.67
	Seniors	79	3.67	.788	2.33	5.67
Problem Solving	Freshmen	53	4.28	.721	3.00	5.67
	Sophomores	58	4.25	.773	2.67	5.83
	Juniors	50	4.44	.780	2.67	6.00
	Seniors	79	4.40	.759	2.50	6.00
Planning and Evaluation	Freshmen	53	3.80	.762	2.20	5.60
	Sophomores	58	3.86	.872	1.20	6.00
	Juniors	50	4.06	.936	2.40	6.00
	Seniors	79	4.06	.845	2.00	6.00
Directed Attention	Freshmen	53	4.42	.694	2.75	6.00
	Sophomores	58	4.28	.773	2.75	6.00
	Juniors	50	4.50	.918	2.50	6.00
	Seniors	79	4.36	.778	2.50	6.00

An examination of descriptive statistics and a one-way ANOVA analysis revealed that there was not a statistically significant difference in the four subscales, namely person knowledge, $F(3,236) = 1.323$, $p > 0.05$; problem-solving, $F(3,236) = .798$, $p > 0.05$; planning and evaluation, $F(3,236) = 1.464$, $p > 0.05$; directed attention, $F(3,236) = .759$, $p > 0.05$ according to the year in school. These results indicate that the year in school does not have a significant effect on these metacognitive strategies.

Table 16

Results of ANOVA for Person Knowledge, Problem Solving, Planning and Evaluation, Directed Attention by the Year in School

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Person Knowledge	Between Groups	2.580	3	.860	1.323	.267
	Within Groups	153.330	236	.650		
	Total	155.909	239			
Problem Solving	Between Groups	1.379	3	.460	.798	.496
	Within Groups	136.009	236	.576		
	Total	137.388	239			
Planning and Evaluation	Between Groups	3.209	3	1.070	1.464	.225
	Within Groups	172.385	236	.730		
	Total	175.594	239			
Directed Attention	Between Groups	1.426	3	.475	.759	.518
	Within Groups	147.786	236	.626		
	Total	149.213	239			

The results of Kruskal Wallis-H Test for overall MALQ scores and mental translation scale by the year in school are provided in Table 17. The results revealed that there was not a statistically significant difference in the overall MALQ scores according to the year in school, χ^2 (3) = 6.047, $p > 0.05$. This result suggests that the year in school does not have an effect on overall metacognitive strategy use. On the other hand, the results indicated that the use of mental translation strategies differed depending on the year in school, χ^2 (3) = 11.548, $p < 0.05$, with a mean rank of 142.03 for freshmen, 130.38 for sophomores, 101.92 for juniors, and 110.56 for seniors.

Table 17

The Results of Kruskal Wallis-H Test for Overall MALQ Scores and Mental Translation Scale by the Year in School

	Year	n	Mean Rank	sd	χ^2	p
MALQ	Freshmen	53	104.79	3	6.047	.109
	Sophomores	58	113.50			
	Juniors	50	134.11			
	Seniors	79	127.56			
Mental Translation	Freshmen	53	142.03	3	11.548	.009
	Sophomores	58	130.38			
	Juniors	50	101.92			
	Seniors	79	110.56			

Follow-up Mann-Whitney U-tests were used to determine pairwise differences among the years in school. The results indicated that the use of mental translation strategy was greater for the freshmen than the juniors, U= 1498, $p < 0.05$ and the seniors, U= 892, $p < 0.05$. However, no significant differences were found between other groups in using mental translation strategies.

5.9 Research question 9: Does the motivation of EFL students differ depending on the year in school?

The ninth research question in the study investigates whether the motivation of EFL students differs depending on the year in school (freshmen, sophomores, juniors and seniors). In order to answer this question, the researcher used one-way ANOVA. Yet, a Kruskal Wallis H-test for independent samples was run for the scores of amotivation subscale since the assumption of normality was not met. Descriptive statistics and one-way ANOVA results for the subscales of LLOS by the year in school are illustrated in Table 18 and Table 19, respectively.

Table 18

Descriptive Statistics for LLOS Subscales by the Year in School

	Year	n	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Extrinsic Motivation	Freshmen	53	4.27	1.00	2.00	6.22
	Sophomores	58	4.24	1.16	1.78	6.56
	Juniors	50	3.99	1.05	1.89	6.22
	Seniors	79	4.17	1.05	1.67	6.56
External Regulation	Freshmen	53	4.29	1.32	1.33	7.00
	Sophomores	58	4.22	1.47	1.00	7.00
	Juniors	50	4.08	1.56	1.00	6.67
	Seniors	79	4.21	1.38	1.00	7.00
Introjected Regulation	Freshmen	53	2.98	1.32	1.00	6.00
	Sophomores	58	2.99	1.54	1.00	7.00
	Juniors	50	2.56	1.27	1.00	5.67
	Seniors	79	3.06	1.21	1.00	6.00
Identified Regulation	Freshmen	53	5.54	1.40	2.67	7.00
	Sophomores	58	5.52	1.36	2.00	7.00
	Juniors	50	5.33	1.39	2.00	7.00
	Seniors	79	5.24	1.27	1.67	7.00
Intrinsic Motivation	Freshmen	53	5.50	1.10	3.22	7.00
	Sophomores	58	5.21	.921	3.33	7.00
	Juniors	50	5.18	1.12	1.67	7.00
	Seniors	79	5.23	1.18	3.11	7.00
IM-Knowledge	Freshmen	53	5.92	.959	3.67	7.00
	Sophomores	58	5.71	.950	3.00	7.00
	Juniors	50	5.82	1.18	3.00	7.00
	Seniors	79	5.73	1.17	3.33	7.00
IM-Accomplishment	Freshmen	53	5.15	1.34	2.00	7.00
	Sophomores	58	4.65	1.19	1.78	7.00
	Juniors	50	4.72	1.29	1.89	7.00
	Seniors	79	4.73	1.52	1.67	7.00
IM-Stimulation	Freshmen	53	5.44	1.22	3.00	7.00
	Sophomores	58	5.27	1.11	3.00	7.00
	Juniors	50	5.01	1.43	1.00	7.00
	Seniors	79	5.24	1.33	2.00	7.00

An examination of descriptive statistics and one-way ANOVA analysis revealed that there was not a statistically significant difference in the LLOS

subscales, namely extrinsic motivation, F(3,236) = 0.743, p > 0.05; external regulation, F(3,236) = 0.202, p > 0.05; introjected regulation, F(3,236) = 1.621, p > 0.05; identified regulation, F(3,236) = 0.738, p > 0.05; intrinsic motivation, F (3,236) = 0.972, p > 0.05; IM-Knowledge, F(3,236) = 0.438, p > 0.05; IM-Accomplishment, F(3,236) = 1.513, p > 0.05; IM-Stimulation, F(3,236) = 0.963, p > 0.05 according to the year in school.

Table 19

Results of ANOVA for LLOS Subscales by the Year in School

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Extrinsic Motivation	Between Groups	2.518	3	.839	.743	.528
	Within Groups	266.794	236	1.130		
	Total	269.313	239			
External Regulation	Between Groups	1,245	3	.415	.202	.895
	Within Groups	485,699	236	2.058		
	Total	486,944	239			
Introjected Regulation	Between Groups	8,657	3	2.886	1.621	.185
	Within Groups	419,993	236	1.780		
	Total	428,650	239			
Identified Regulation	Between Groups	4,052	3	1.351	.738	.530
	Within Groups	431,788	236	1.830		
	Total	435,840	239			
Intrinsic Motivation	Between Groups	3,490	3	1.163	.972	.406
	Within Groups	282,383	236	1.197		
	Total	285,873	239			
IM-Knowledge	Between Groups	1,532	3	.511	.438	.726
	Within Groups	275,190	236	1.166		
	Total	276,722	239			
IM-Accomplishment	Between Groups	8,450	3	2.817	1.513	.212
	Within Groups	439,326	236	1.862		
	Total	447,776	239			
IM-Stimulation	Between Groups	4,757	3	1.586	.963	.411
	Within Groups	388,520	236	1.646		
	Total	393,277	239			

The results of Kruskal Wallis-H Test for amotivation subscale by the year in school are presented in Table 20. The results indicated that there was not a statistically significant difference in the amotivation scores according to the year in school, χ^2 (3) = 1.36, p > 0.05.

Table 20

Results of Kruskal Wallis-H Test for Amotivation Subscale by the Year in School

	Year	n	Mean Rank	sd	χ^2	p
Amotivation	Freshmen	53	113.07	3	1.36	.713
	Sophomores	58	123.01			
	Juniors	50	117.86			
	Seniors	79	125.32			

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION & IMPLICATIONS

6.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the problem, the design, the participants, and the procedure of the present study are summarized, the findings are discussed in the light of the literature and researches in the field and the conclusions of the study are provided. Pedagogical implications are also discussed. Finally, the limitations of the study and suggestions for further research are presented.

6.2 Summary of the Study

The current study was set up to examine the relationships between the motivation types, the metacognitive awareness and the listening proficiency of EFL students. Additionally, it explored the effects of gender and the year in school on the motivation types, the metacognitive awareness, and listening proficiency of EFL students.

An explanatory correlational research design was implemented in this study since it could provide a better understanding and insight into the variables of the study, namely motivation types, metacognitive awareness, L2 listening proficiency, gender, and the year in school. The study was applied to 240 undergraduate students majoring in ELT department at Dokuz Eylül University in the spring semester of 2014-2015 academic year. The participants were selected through a stratified random

sampling design which is a probability sampling technique. This technique was chosen because it provides us with a sample which is highly representative of the population being studied in terms of the criteria used for stratification. The gender distribution of the target population was received from the student administration office. There were 405 (74%) female and 143 (26%) male in the department. Accordingly, in this study, 179 (75%) of the participants were female and 61 (25%) of the participants were male. In addition, according to the information provided by student administration office, there were 120 (22%) freshmen, 132 (24%) sophomores, 118 (21%) juniors and 178 (33%) seniors in the department. Thus, in the present study, of the 240 participants 53 (22%) were freshmen, 58 (24%) were sophomores, 50 (21%) were juniors, and 79 (33%) were seniors.

The research was designed to collect the quantitative data. In order to collect the required data, two scales and a listening proficiency test were administered in the study: Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ), Language Learning Types Scale (LLOS), and the listening section of the TOEFL. In addition, the scales included a demographic information section.

Necessary permissions were granted from the Ethics Committee of Dokuz Eylul University Institute of Educational Sciences in the spring semester of 2014-2015 academic years. After that, the researcher administered the instruments to the participants in the same semester. At first, the listening section of TOEFL was applied to the participants in group sessions at classrooms by the researcher out of regular classroom hours. The students could take notes during listening. The test was not administered in internet-based exam format, but a paper-based format due to the lack of internet at the department. It took 45 minutes to finish answering the questions. Immediately after the administration of the test, the MALQ and the LLOS were conducted. It took almost 15 minutes to complete them.

Quantitative data obtained from the instruments was analyzed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) 15. Before using statistical tests to answer the research questions, the reliability of each instrument was assessed with

Cronbach alpha coefficient. In addition, it was assessed whether the data was normally distributed or not.

6.3 Discussion

In this section, the findings of the present study are discussed and interpreted in light of the literature reviewed in the second chapter.

6.3.1 The relationship between the metacognitive awareness and the listening proficiency of EFL students

The first research question in the study was ‘Is there a relationship between the metacognitive awareness and the listening proficiency of EFL students?’. The results revealed a significantly positive relationship between metacognitive awareness and listening proficiency. Despite the fact that correlations do not show causation, this association provides some evidence for the theoretical prediction that higher level of metacognitive awareness is linked with better L2 listening proficiency. Moreover, L2 listening proficiency correlated positively with three types of metacognitive strategies, namely problem solving, planning and evaluation, and directed attention strategies. As mentioned in the third chapter, problem solving strategies are the strategies used to infer the meaning of unknown words or phrases in listening passages through known words, prior knowledge, and contexts (Goh and Hu, 2014). Planning and evaluation strategies enable students to prepare themselves for listening activities and analyze if their approach to listening text is correct or not. Directed attention strategies can enable learners to ignore distractors and maintain attention during listening performance (Vandergrift, 1997b). Hence, the students who deploy these strategies are more likely to have a higher listening proficiency. Lower proficiency listeners are not likely to utilize these strategies due to the constraints they experience during listening such as the lack of vocabulary knowledge and the state of being unable to recognize the sounds of words known in print (Goh, 2000). These results of the study appear to be consistent with previous studies which have

pointed out a significant relationship between metacognitive strategy use and L2 listening proficiency (Vandergrift et al., 2006; Baleghizadeh and Rahimi, 2011; Goh and Zeng, 2012; Tavakoliand, Shahraki and Rezazadeh, 2012; Goh and Hu, 2014).

The results further indicated a significantly negative relationship between L2 listening proficiency and mental translation strategies. This result is not surprising since mental translation strategies are those which are used mainly by low proficiency listeners (Goh, 1998; Vandergrift et al., 2006; Goh and Hu, 2014). These strategies prevent L2 listeners from keeping up with the incoming input; hence they cannot comprehend listening texts. The findings of the previous studies showing that mental translation strategies are linked with low level listening proficiency are in parallel with the results of this study (Vandergrift, 2003a; Tavakoliand, Shahraki and Rezazadeh, 2012; Goh and Hu, 2014). On the other hand, these findings seem inconsistent with those of Vandergrift and Tafaghodtari (2010). In their studies, more skilled listeners did not differ in using mental translation strategies from less skilled listeners. Therefore, Vandergrift and Tafaghodtari (2010) conducted the stimulated-recall protocols to gain better understanding into how their participants might have perceived the MALQ items concerning mental translation. The results revealed that both more skilled listeners and less skilled listeners had a misconception of the mental translation strategies. They believed that translating helps their understanding. Therefore, they tended to translate whatever they hear to help them comprehend. However, the participants in the current study were the students majoring in ELT department. That is why they might have known that they must avoid the mental translation strategies.

Finally, the results revealed a significantly negative correlation between L2 listening proficiency and person knowledge. Person knowledge factor assesses how difficult learners perceive L2 listening, and what degree they have self-efficacy in it (Vandergrift and Tafaghodtari, 2010). While the participants who reported a lower degree of difficulty and anxiety had better L2 listening proficiency, the participants with a higher level of anxiety and a lack of self-efficacy possessed lower L2 listening proficiency. In other words, high anxiety and low confidence adversely affect the

listening performance of L2 students. This result is consistent with the previous studies (Elkhafaifi, 2005; Mills, Pajares and Herron, 2006; Ratebi and Amirian, 2013; Goh and Hu, 2014).

6.3.2 The relationship between the motivation types and the listening proficiency of EFL students

The findings concerning the second research question, whether there is a relationship between the motivation types and the listening proficiency of EFL students, pointed to some significant relationships; however, these relationships were not as strong as expected. Hence, they could provide little evidence for theoretical predictions with regard to how the language learners' motivation types and listening proficiency are linked with each other.

Firstly, as expected, there was a significant negative relationship between L2 listening proficiency and amotivation. In other words, the students who were amotivated towards acquiring a second language tended to have lower listening proficiency. This finding is not surprising since amotivated students feel a lack of control over learning a second language and hence they feel no reason to devote their effort and energy to study a new language. Moreover, they have the impression of wasting their time in learning a L2; therefore, they do not value and study anything related to the language. Thus, they do not attempt to improve their listening skills, as well. These findings seem consistent with those of Vandergrift (2005) and Baleghizadeh and Rahimi (2011) who found a negative association between L2 listening and amotivation.

Secondly, the results showed that listening proficiency was related negatively to external regulation. In other words, the externally regulated students, who learnt a second language to attain instrumental aims such as obtaining tangible rewards or to avoiding a threatened punishment, were likely to have lower listening proficiency. This is not unexpected since external regulation is considered the most controlling type of extrinsic motivation, which can undermine students' autonomy and

competence. Thus, we can state that externally regulated students might show poor performance and low quality learning. Similarly, L2 listening proficiency correlated negatively with introjected regulation, which is another controlling form of extrinsic motivation. The students with introjected regulation feel pressure since they are engaged in an activity with the purpose of staying away from guilt or anxiety or attaining pride. Therefore, they feel more stressful and cope more poorly with failures. Although these results seem inconsistent with those of Vandergrift (2005) who found that listening proficiency did not correlate significantly with external regulation and introjected regulation, they are parallel with Noels, Clément and Pelletier's findings (1999) showing that learning a language for material rewards or because of some pressure is not supportive of sustained effort and eventual competence in second language.

Thirdly, no significant relationship was found between listening proficiency and identified regulation, which is more self-determined or autonomous form of extrinsic motivation than external and introjected regulation. This result is in line with the finding of Vandergrift (2005) which indicated no significant correlation between listening proficiency and identified regulation. However, this result was not anticipated since individuals with identified regulation realize and accept the importance of learning a second language, and thus they become more engaged in this behavior and maintain it better. This result may indicate that language learners do not realize and accept the importance and value of listening skill in language learning. This might be derived from the implicit nature of listening. Thus, we can conclude that the language students in this study might not have realized the significance and value of listening skill in L2 learning due to its implicit nature.

The results further revealed that intrinsic motivation and IM-Knowledge correlated significantly and positively with L2 listening proficiency, as expected. Even though the strength of the association is weak, the significant correlation suggests that students who engage in language activities for the pleasure of knowing and learning something new tend to have higher listening proficiency in English. These results are consistent with those of Baleghizadeh and Rahimi (2011).

However, the other types of intrinsic motivation, namely IM-Accomplishment and IM-Stimulation did not correlate significantly with L2 listening proficiency. These findings were not hypothesized since learners who participate in a language activity for aesthetic pleasure or because they feel satisfied when they accomplish something are more likely to have higher listening proficiency. These results are congruent with those of Vandergrift (2005). In his study, Vandergrift also points out that motivation types do not seem to be a good predictor of L2 listening proficiency.

Finally, an examination of the pattern of correlations between listening proficiency and motivation types reveals some evidence of the self-determination continuum. In other words, there seems an increasingly strong relationship between listening proficiency and more self-determined forms of motivation. Thus, the more autonomous language learners become, the higher listening proficiency they have.

6.3.3 The relationship between the motivation types and the metacognitive awareness of EFL students

The third research question attempted to identify the association between the motivation types and the metacognitive awareness of EFL students. The results pointed to some significant relationships; however, these relationships were not as strong as hypothesized. Hence, they could provide little evidence for theoretical predictions concerning how the language learners' motivation types and metacognitive awareness are related to each other.

Firstly, amotivation had a positive relationship with mental translation strategies; however, it correlated negatively with metacognitive awareness, problem solving strategies, planning and evaluation strategies, and directed attention strategies. These findings are not surprising since the students who are amotivated towards L2 learning are usually low proficiency listeners (Vandergrift, 2005) and these listeners typically use mental translation strategies but not problem solving strategies, planning and evaluation strategies, and directed attention strategies (Goh,

1998; Vandergrift et al., 2006). These results are congruent with those of Vandergrift (2005).

Secondly, the analysis revealed that external and introjected regulation correlated negatively with metacognitive awareness and directed attention strategies, but they had a positive relationship with mental translation strategies. In other words, more externally and introjectedly regulated learners reported less tendency to be aware of metacognitive strategies, and more tendency to use mental translation strategies. Further, more externally regulated students were likely to become more anxious, and to have less confidence about L2 listening. These findings are anticipated since externally and introjectedly regulated students do not feel autonomous or self-determined in language learning activities. Their behaviors are initiated by external or internal pressure. Therefore, they might have less tendency to apply metacognitive strategies, which require time and effort. These results are consistent with those of Pintrich (1999) who investigate the impact of motivation in improving self-regulated learning. Pintrich found that extrinsic reasons for doing a task showed negative relations to the use of cognitive and metacognitive strategy.

The results also indicated that externally regulated learners reported to use more mental translation strategies, to become more anxious and to have less confidence about L2 listening than introjectedly regulated and intrinsically motivated learners. This result promotes that external regulation is less self-determined form of motivation than introjected regulation and intrinsic motivation. Thus, this result partially confirms that motivation types lie along a continuum.

Apart from these results, surprisingly, we found that identified regulation, which is more self-determined or autonomous form of extrinsic motivation than external and introjected regulation, did not correlate significantly with metacognitive strategies, except for problem solving strategies. It had a positive association with problem solving strategies, but the relationship was not as strong as expected. These results were not anticipated since individuals with identified regulation realize and

accept the importance of learning a L2, and thus they become more engaged in this behavior and maintain it better.

Finally, the results showed that intrinsic motivation correlated positively with metacognitive awareness, directed attention, problem solving and planning and evaluation strategies. In other words, the more intrinsically motivated listeners became, the higher tendency they reported to be more aware of the listening strategies, and to use them. Moreover, intrinsically motivated students had greater tendency to use metacognitive listening strategies than extrinsically motivated learners, as expected. The analysis further indicated that the types of intrinsic motivation, namely IM-Knowledge, IM-Accomplishment and IM-Stimulation had a significantly positive relationship with metacognitive awareness, directed attention, problem solving and planning and evaluation strategies, as well. There seems an increasingly strong and positive relationship between metacognitive strategies and more self-determined forms of motivation. These results partially provide an evidence for the existence of the self-determination continuum. These findings are congruent with those of Vandergrift (2005) and Baleghizadeh and Rahimi (2011).

6.3.4 The effect of gender on the listening proficiency of EFL students

The fourth research question, concerning whether gender played a role in the listening proficiency of EFL students, yielded interesting results. The analysis indicated that gender had a significant impact on the listening proficiency of EFL students. The examination of the group means revealed that the males performed significantly higher on the listening test than the females. These findings are not in line with those of Bacon (1992), who found that gender did not play an important role in listening performance. However, they seem consistent with Boyle's (1987) findings, which showed that while the females were superior in general language proficiency, the males had higher mean scores in listening comprehension. The gender differences in the current study might arise from several reasons. Firstly, EFL learners in Turkey usually do not have a chance to interact with a native speaker of English, hence they can only listen to English in classroom or via computers or

phones. In this context, therefore, it is very significant to use technology in order to develop listening skill. The research indicates that males have more tendency to use technology for learning (Colley and Comber, 2003; Lai and Kuo, 2007; Kahveci, 2010). In their study, Lai and Kuo (2007) found that females have negative attitude towards using technology for learning a L2 since it requires technological literacy and computer skills. Hence, this difference can be attributed to positive attitude towards and higher tendency of using technology for learning by males. Apart from that, this difference might be explained by learners' motivation. If students feel externally propelled into language learning, they might spend less time and effort in it.

6.3.5 The effect of gender on the metacognitive awareness of EFL students

The fifth research question of the study examined whether metacognitive awareness varied significantly by male and female students. First of all, the results showed that metacognitive awareness differed depending on gender. The examination of the group means revealed that males have more metacognitive awareness about listening than females. Of metacognitive strategies, the use of planning and evaluation strategies only did not differ according to gender.

Second of all, the analysis yielded that the females had more tendency to use mental translation strategies while listening to a passage than the males did. While this result is not congruent with those of Bacon (1992), who found that males have more tendency to employ mental translation strategies than females, it is in parallel with the results of Mitits and Sarafianou (2012), which indicated that females have more reliance on translation strategies than males. This difference might arise from L2 listening proficiency level. In this study, the females had lower-level L2 listeners than the males. Low-level listeners usually tend to employ more translation strategies. They use these strategies since they have poor vocabulary knowledge and they cannot identify the spoken forms of words in listening texts (Goh and Hu, 2014).

Thirdly, the findings regarding person knowledge indicated that the female participants reported less self-efficacy and higher anxiety during listening than the male participants did. Although these findings are not in line with those of Elkhafaifi (2005) and Mills, Pajares and Herron (2006) who found that gender had no significant effect on listening anxiety, our findings are consistent with those of Bacon (1992), Golchi (2012) and Mowlaie and Samarein (2014), who found that female listeners were more anxious and less confident than male listeners. These findings might further explain why the female participants in this study had a lower listening proficiency than the males. High anxiety and low confidence adversely affects students' listening performance.

Finally, the results revealed that the males had more tendency to use problem solving strategies and directed attention strategies than the female did. These findings differ from those of the studies comparing gender differences in listening strategies (Bacon, 1992; Vandergrift, 1997b; Mowlaie and Samarein, 2014). These studies found that female listeners reported deploying more metacognitive strategies than males. This difference in the current study can be attributed to learners' motivation. If students feel externally propelled into language learning, they might spend less time and effort in it. Thus, they do not attempt to use these strategies, which require more time and effort.

6.3.6 The effect of gender on the motivation types of EFL students

The sixth research question, concerning whether male and female students varied in different motivation types, yielded interesting results. For one thing, the results revealed that there were significant gender differences in four motivation types, namely extrinsic motivation, external regulation, introjected regulation, and IM-Stimulation; however, other motivation types did not differ by gender. For another, the analysis showed that the female participants were more externally regulated than the male participants were. In other words, females had more tendency to learn a second language because of getting more prestigious job, better salary or feeling that it is expected from them. Additionally, the results pointed out

that females were more introjectedly regulated than males. That is to say, they had more tendency to acquire a foreign language due to avoiding shame, guilt or being a good citizen. These findings can be explained by their divergent socialization experiences. While males are taught to be independent, self-reliant, and competitive, females are encouraged to be cooperative and sensitive to others (Boggiano, Main and Katz, 1991). Thus, social feedback provided by others and interpersonal interactions generally influence females more than males. These findings are congruent with those of Aydın (2007), Narayanan, Rajasekaran, and Iyyappan (2007), Mendi (2009), Öztürk (2012), and Tugan (2015) showing that females are more extrinsically or instrumentally motivated than males. Finally, the results showed that the females had more tendency to engage in L2 learning process for sensory and aesthetic pleasure. This result is congruent with those of Narayanan, Rajasekaran, and Iyyappan (2007).

6.3.7 The effect of the year in school on the listening proficiency of EFL students

The seventh research question, focusing on the effect of the year in school on the listening proficiency of EFL students, was answered affirmatively. The analysis showed that the year in school had a significant effect on L2 listening proficiency. The seniors performed better at L2 listening than the freshmen, the sophomores and the juniors. In addition, the juniors had higher scores in L2 listening than the freshmen and the sophomores. However, the freshmen and the sophomores did not differ significantly in L2 listening proficiency. These results confirm that the education in language affects listening proficiency of EFL students. Students also learn and deploy more appropriate strategies to deal with L2 listening tasks over time. These findings are consistent with those of Jafari (2010).

6.3.8 The effect of the year in school on the metacognitive awareness of EFL students

The eighth research question of the study examined whether metacognitive awareness of EFL students varied significantly by the year in school. The results revealed that year in school did not have effect on the use of problem solving strategies, directed attention strategies, planning and evaluation strategies and person knowledge, whereas it affected the learners' use of mental translation strategies. The analysis on mental translation strategies showed that the freshmen had more tendency to use mental translation strategies than the juniors and the seniors. The freshmen and the sophomores did not differ in using mental translation strategies. These findings are not surprising since the freshmen in this study had lower listening proficiency level than the juniors and the seniors. This supports view that many lower proficiency L2 listeners translate what they hear either word for word or as chunks and phrases (Goh, 1998; Vandergrift et al., 2006; Goh and Hu, 2014). According to Goh and Hu (2014), they use these strategies since they have poor vocabulary knowledge and they cannot identify the spoken forms of words in listening texts.

6.3.9 The effect of the year in school on the motivation types of EFL students

The findings related to the last research question, whether the motivation types of EFL students differs depending on the year in school (freshmen, sophomores, juniors and seniors), indicated that the year in school did not have an effect on different motivation types.

6.4 Conclusions of the Study

Approximately 50 percent of the time that learners spend in a L2 is devoted to listening (Nunan, 2003). Therefore, it is very crucial to improve L2 listening proficiency and examine the factors concerning it. The purpose of this study was to

explore the relationships between the motivation types, the metacognitive awareness, and the listening proficiency of EFL students. Furthermore, it tested the effects of gender and the year in school on the motivation types, the metacognitive awareness, and listening proficiency of EFL students. In the light of the results of this study, following concluding remarks can be drawn with reference to the purpose of the study. First of all, metacognitive awareness has a positive relationship with L2 listening proficiency. Despite the fact that correlations do not show causation, the association provides some evidence for the theoretical prediction that higher metacognitive awareness is linked with higher L2 listening proficiency. Metacognitive awareness enables students to recognize and benefit from opportunities in order to promote their listening performance. The listeners with higher metacognitive awareness can plan, monitor and evaluate their listening process in comparison with those who cope with a listening activity haphazardly. They further understand the demands and requirements of L2 listening activities and manage listening tasks easily. Thus, they become more successful in L2 listening proficiency.

Second of all, even though the strengths of the associations are weak, the study has yielded the significant correlations between listening proficiency and motivation types. A negative relationship was found between listening proficiency and amotivation, as expected. The students who are amotivated towards learning a foreign language have tendency to become less successful in listening proficiency. They feel a lack of control over learning a second language and hence they feel no reason to invest their effort and energy to study a new language. Thus, they do not attempt to improve their listening skills, as well. Similarly, external regulation and introjected regulation, which are located alongside each other at the controlling end of continuum, have a negative relationship with L2 listening proficiency. The externally regulated learners perform actions to fulfill an external demand or attain a reward or avoid punishment, and introjectedly regulated students engage in activities with the feeling of pressure so as to stay away from guilt or anxiety or to obtain pride. Both externally regulated and introjectedly regulated learners usually feel pressure on themselves, and thus show poor performance and low quality learning.

The study further has indicated that intrinsic motivation, which lies along at the autonomous end of continuum, has a positive relationship with L2 listening proficiency. In other words, intrinsically motivated students, who perform actions out of interest and pleasure, have tendency to be more successful in listening proficiency in English.

Thirdly, the study has examined the relationship between motivation types and metacognitive awareness. Even if the strengths of the associations are weak, amotivated learners typically use mental translation strategies but not problem solving strategies, planning and evaluation strategies, and directed attention strategies. Similarly, externally regulated and introjectedly regulated learners have tendency to use more mental translation strategies, to become more anxious, and to have less confidence about L2 listening than intrinsically motivated learners. The study also has indicated that intrinsically motivated students have more tendency to utilize directed attention, problem solving and planning and evaluation strategies than extrinsically motivated and amotivated learners.

Apart from these findings, the current study has found that gender has a significant effect on L2 listening proficiency, motivation types and metacognitive awareness. Female learners are more externally regulated and introjectedly regulated than males. In other words, females have more tendency to learn a language because of gaining a tangible reward or avoiding punishment, shame or guilt than males, hence they might show poor performance and low quality learning in language as well as in listening skill. Moreover, they have more tendency to use mental translation strategies than male learners. This adversely affects their listening proficiency.

Finally, the study has showed that the year in school at university has a significant effect on L2 listening proficiency. The seniors are more successful in L2 listening than the freshmen, the sophomores and the juniors. The juniors are better at L2 listening than the freshmen and the sophomores. However, the freshmen and the sophomores do not differ significantly in L2 listening proficiency. These results confirm that the education in language affects listening proficiency of EFL students.

The year in school also influences the use of mental translation strategies. The freshmen have more tendency to use mental translation strategies than the sophomore, the juniors and the seniors.

6.5 Pedagogical Implications of the Study

This study investigated the relationships between the motivation types, the metacognitive awareness, and L2 listening proficiency of EFL students. In the light of the findings, several pedagogical implications can be suggested.

Firstly, teachers can help learners become more successful L2 listeners by nurturing their development of metacognitive awareness related to listening strategies and by assisting their acquisition of these strategies. Teachers can help students how to prepare themselves for listening tasks, how to develop an awareness of what requires completing them successfully, how to check and correct their comprehension, and how to evaluate what they have done during listening. Teachers can raise students' metacognitive awareness by asking them to discuss mental processes in which they participate during listening activities. Additionally, they can give explicit instruction of listening strategies to enhance students' metacognitive awareness.

Secondly, students should be assisted to improve their confidence and self-efficacy in listening skill. The students perceiving that they lack the capabilities for listening skill usually do not attempt to improve their listening performance. When they have difficulty in a listening activity, they give up quickly. Therefore, teachers should help them set short-term goals, which are less intimidating than long-term goals, in order to develop their listening skill. These goals also should be appropriate for their listening proficiency level. They can also teach the students strategies to overcome difficulties that they experience during listening activities.

Thirdly, this study shows that intrinsically motivated learners tend to be more successful in listening skill. Therefore, teachers can help students develop intrinsic

motivation through providing students with freedom of choice as a way of promoting their autonomy or through creating listening activities that are based on topics that interests them. Additionally, in order to improve intrinsic motivation, the students' sense of belonging in class can be fostered by their teachers. Creating a supportive and friendly learning environment can increase their intrinsic motivation. This study also indicates that less self-determined forms of motivation, namely external regulation and introjected regulation adversely affect the listening performance of L2 students. Hence, external factors such as limitations, deadlines, competition, externally imposed goals, directives, and threats should be lessened in listening activities. Furthermore, teachers can help students to make their extrinsically motivated behaviors more internalized and self-determined. In other words, teachers can assist their students to transform external regulation into self-regulation (Deci and Ryan, 2002) In order to internalize an action, students need to feel autonomous and self-regulated. If students find an activity personally valuable or important, they can be more self-regulated and autonomous. Thus, teachers should prepare language activities which are personally valuable or important for their learners.

6.5 Limitations of the Study and Recommendations for Further Research

Even though the study has reached its aims, some limitations must be noted. First of all, this study is limited by only one language skill (listening), hence further research may explore the association of metacognitive awareness and motivation types with the other language skills (reading, speaking, and writing). The second limitation of the study is its correlational design. Future research can use experimental and longitudinal designs to test whether the relations between motivation types, metacognitive awareness and L2 listening proficiency are causal. Additionally, the questionnaires were used to collect data of students' metacognitive awareness and motivation types. In the future studies, interviews or case studies can be employed in addition to questionnaires. The study is also limited by the nature and size of participants. This study's participants were 240 students majoring in ELT department at a state university in İzmir, which is located in western part of Turkey. Future studies might be administered with groups of students in different contexts of

various countries at different age levels. The researchers can also study with students majoring in different departments. Moreover, a larger sample size may produce more significant correlations and generalizable results.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1- Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ)

The statements below describe some strategies for listening comprehension and how you feel about listening in the language you are learning. Do you agree with them? This is not a test, so there are no "right" or "wrong" answers. By responding to these statements, you can help yourself and your teacher understand your progress in learning to listen. Please indicate your opinion after each statement. Circle the number which best shows your level of agreement with the statement.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Partly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**

1. Before I start to listen, I have a plan in my head for how I am going to listen.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. I focus harder on the text when I have trouble understanding.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. I find that listening is more difficult than reading, speaking, or writing in English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. I translate in my head as I listen.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. I use the words I understand to guess the meaning of the words I don't understand.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. When my mind wanders, I recover my concentration right away.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. As I listen, I compare what I understand with what I know about the topic.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. I feel that listening comprehension in English is a challenge for me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. I use my experience and knowledge to help me	1	2	3	4	5	6

understand.						
10. Before listening, I think of similar texts that I may have listened to.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. I translate key words as I listen.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. I try to get back on track when I lose concentration.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. As I listen, I quickly adjust my interpretation if I realize that it is not correct.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. After listening, I think back to how I listened, and about what I might do differently next time.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. I don't feel nervous when I listen to English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. When I have difficulty understanding what I hear, I give up and stop listening.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. I use the general idea of the text to help me guess the meaning of the words that I don't understand.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. I translate word by word, as I listen.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. When I guess the meaning of a word, I think back to everything else that I have heard, to see if my guess makes sense.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. As I listen, I periodically ask myself if I am satisfied with my level of comprehension.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21. I have a goal in mind as I listen.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Appendix 2- Language Learning Orientation Scale (LLOS)

The following section contains a number of reasons why one might study a second language. Beside each one of the following statements, write the number from the scale which best indicates the degree to which the stated reason corresponds with one of your reasons for leaning a second language. Remember that there are no right or wrong answers, since many people have different opinions.

Does not correspond	Corresponds very little	Corresponds a little	Corresponds moderately	Corresponds a lot	Corresponds almost exactly	Corresponds exactly
1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

Amotivation

1 ____I cannot come to see why I study a second language, and frankly, I don't give a damn.

2____Honestly, I don't know; I truly have the impression of wasting my time in studying a second language.

3___ I don't know; I can't come to understand what I am doing studying a second language.

External Regulation

1 _____ In order to get a more prestigious job later on.

2 _____ In order to have a better salary later on.

3 _____ Because I have the impression that it is expected of me.

Introjected Regulation

1 _____ Because I would feel ashamed if I couldn't speak to my friends from the second language community in their native tongue.

2 _____ Because I would feel guilty if I didn't know a second language.

3 _____ To show myself that I am a good citizen because I can speak a second language.

Identified Regulation

1 _____ Because I choose to be the kind of person who can speak more than one language.

2 _____ Because I think it is good for my personal development.

3 _____ Because I choose to be the kind of person who can speak a second language.

Intrinsic Motivation – Accomplishment

1 _____ For the enjoyment I experience when I grasp a difficult construct in the second language.

2 _____ For the satisfaction I feel when I am in the process of accomplishing difficult exercises in the second language.

3 _____ For the pleasure I experience when surpassing myself in my second language studies.

Intrinsic Motivation – Knowledge

1 _____ Because I enjoy the feeling of acquiring knowledge about the second language community and their way of life.

2 _____ For the satisfied feeling I get in finding out new things.

3 _____ For the pleasure I experience in knowing more about the second language community and their way of life.

Intrinsic Motivation – Stimulation

1 _____ For the “high” I feel when hearing foreign languages spoken.

2 _____ For the “high” feeling that I experience while speaking in the second language.

3 _____ For the pleasure I get from hearing the second language spoken by native second language speakers.

Appendix 3- The listening section of the TOEFL

Questions

Directions: Choose and circle the correct answer.

1. Why does the student go to see the professor?

A) For suggestions on how to write interview questions

B) For assistance in finding a person to interview

C) To ask for advice on starting a business

D) To schedule an interview with him

2. Why does the student mention her high school newspaper?

A) To inform the professor that she plans to print the interview there

B) To explain why the assignment is difficult for her

C) To show that she enjoys writing for school newspaper

D) To indicate that she has experience with conducting interviews

3. How does the professor help the student?

A) He gives her a list of local business owner

B) He allows her to interview business owners in her hometown

C) He suggests that she read the business section of the newspaper

D) He gives her more time to complete the assignment

4. What does the professor want the students to learn from the assignment?

A) That starting a business is risky

B) Why writing articles on local businesses is important

C) How to develop a detailed business plan

D) What personality traits are typical of business owners

5. Listen again to part of the conversation and then answer the question.

What does the student imply?

A) She is surprised by the professor's reaction

B) The professor has not quite identified her concern

C) The professor has guessed correctly what her problem is

D) She does not want to finish the assignment

6. What does the professor mainly discuss?

A) Various errors in early calendars

B) Why people came to believe that Earth moves around the Sun

C) Examples of various types of calendars used in different cultures.

D) The belief that the position of planets and stars can predict future events

7. The professor discusses various theories on how Stonehenge was used. What can be inferred about the professor's opinion?

A) She is sure Stonehenge was used as a calendar.

B) She believes the main use for Stonehenge was probably as a temple or a tomb.

C) She thinks that the stones were mainly used as a record of historical events.

D) She admits that the purpose for which Stonehenge was constructed may never be known.

8. According to the professor, how was the Mayan calendar mainly used?

A) To keep track of long historical cycles.

B) To keep track of the lunar months.

C) To predict the outcome of royal decisions

D) To allow priests to compare the orbits of Earth and Venus.

9. According to the professor, what was the basis of the ancient Chinese astrological cycle?

A) The cycle of night and day

B) The orbit of the Moon

C) The cycle of the seasons

D) The orbit of planet Jupiter

10. How did the Romans succeed in making their calendar more precise?

A) By changing the number of weeks in a year.

B) By adding an extra day every four year.

C) By carefully observing the motion of the planet Jupiter.

D) By adopting elements of the Chinese calendar.

11. How does the professor organize the lecture?

A) By mentioning the problem of creating a calendar, then describing various attempts to deal with it

B) By speaking of the modern calendar first, then comparing it with earlier ones.

C) By discussing how a prehistoric calendar was adapted by several different cultures.

D) By emphasizing the advantages and disadvantages of using various time cycle

12. What is the lecture mainly about?

A) How dolphins produce the sounds they make

B) How dolphins teach their young to identify signature whistles

C) The professor's experience with dolphins on a research boat.

D) Various ways dolphins communicate with one another.

13. According to a theory the professor mentions, why do dolphins travel side by side?

A) To view each other's bubble streams

B) To hear each other's signature whistles

C) To avoid interfering with other dolphins' sonar clicks

D) To keep mothers close to their young

14. What does the professor imply about bubble streams?

A) They help protect dolphins from predators

B) Their function is similar to that of signature whistles

C) They do not appear to serve a communicative function

D) Dolphins use them to sense the movement of the water.

15. Why does the professor mention the time she spent on a boat doing research?

A) To encourage students to do fieldwork.

B) To inform students about paper she wrote

C) To show how scientists collect data on marine life

D) To illustrate that dolphins are difficult to locate.

16. Listen again to part of the lecture and then answer the question.

What does this example illustrate?

A) The differences between land and marine mammals

B) The importance of burst pulses as a way dolphins communicate

C) One reason dolphins travel in large groups

D) One way dolphins use signature whistles

17. Why does the student go to Professor Kirk's office?

A) To find out if he needs to take a certain class to graduate

B) To respond to Professor Kirk's invitation

C) To ask Professor Kirk to be his advisor

D) To ask Professor Kirk to sign a form

18. Why is the woman surprised at the man's request?

A) He has not tried to sign up for Introduction to Biology at the registrar's office.

B) He has waited until his senior year to take introduction class.

C) A journalism student should not need a biology class.

D) Professor Kirk no longer teaches Introduction to Biology.

19. What does the man say about his advisor?

A) She encouraged the man to take a science class.

B) She encouraged the man to major in journalism

C) She is not aware of the man's problem.

D) She thinks very highly of Professor Kirk.

20. How will the man probably try to communicate his problem to Professor Kirk?

A) By calling her

B) By sending an email to her

C) By leaving her a note

D) By visiting her during office hours

21. Listen again to the track and then answer the question.

Why does the man say this to the woman?

A) To thank the woman for solving his problem

B) To politely refuse the woman's suggestion

C) To explain why he needs the woman's help

D) To show that he understands that the woman is busy

22. What is the lecture mainly about?

A) Various theories explaining why Mars cannot sustain life

B) Various causes of geological changes on Mars

C) The development of views about the nature of Mars

D) Why it has been difficult to obtain information about Mars

23. According to the professor, what was concluded about Mars after the first spacecraft flew by it in 1965

A) It had few geological features of interest

B) It was similar to Earth but colder

C) It had at one time supported life

D) It had water under its surface

24. What does the professor imply about conditions on Mars billions of years ago? (Choose 2 answers)

A) Mars was probably even drier than it is today

B) The atmospheric pressure and the temperature may have been higher than they are today

C) Mars was inhabited by organisms that have since become fossilized

D) Large floods were shaping the planet's surface

25. What is the possible significance of the gullies found on Mars in recent years?

A) They may indicate current volcanic activity on Mars

B) They may indicate that the surface of Mars is becoming increasingly drier

C) They may indicate the current existence of water on Mars

D) They may hold fossils of organisms that once existed on Mars

26. Listen to the track to answer the question? Why does the professor say this?

A) To stress that Mars is no longer interesting to explore

B) To describe items that the spacecraft brought back from Mars

C) To share his interest in the study of fossils

D) To show how much the view of Mars changed based on new evidence

27. Listen again to part of the lecture and then answer the question. Why does the student say this?

A) To ask for clarification of a previous statement

B) To convey his opinion

C) To rephrase an earlier question

D) To express his approval

28. What does the professor mainly discuss?

A) The design and creation of the Statue of Liberty

B) The creators of two colossal statues in the United States

C) The purpose and symbolism of colossal statues

D) The cost of colossal statues in ancient versus modern times

29. What evidence does the professor give that supports the idea that modern-day colossal statues are valued social and political symbols?

A) They are very costly to build.

B) They are studied in classrooms around the world.

C) They are designed to last for thousands of years.

D) They are inspired by great poetry.

30. According to the professor, what was one result of the Great Depression of the 1930's?

A) International alliances eroded.

B) Immigration to the United States increased.

C) The public experienced a loss of confidence.

D) The government could no longer provide funds for the arts.

31. According to the professor, why did the state of South Dakota originally want to create a colossal monument?

A) To generate income from tourism

B) To symbolize the unity of society

C) To commemorate the Great Depression

D) To honor United States President

32. Why does the professor discuss the poem by Emma Lazarus?

A) To emphasize the close relationship between literature and sculpture

B) To illustrate how the meaning associated with a monument can change

C) To stress the importance of the friendship between France and the United States

D) To point out a difference between Mount Rushmore and the Statue of Liberty

33. Listen again to part of the lecture. Then answer the question. What does the professor imply about the poem by Emma Lazarus?

A) It is one of his favorite poems.

B) Few people have read the entire poem.

C) He does not need to recite the full text of the poem.

D) Lazarus was not able to complete the poem.

Appendix 4 - The Official Permission of Dokuz Eylül University

T.C
DOKUZ EYLÜL ÜNİVERSİTESİ
EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ MÜDÜRLÜĞÜ
Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Ana Bilim Dalı Başkanlığı

Sayı: B.8.6.YÖK.2.DE.F.14.0.18.00/ 73 04.03. 2015
Konu:

DOKUZ EYLÜL ÜNİVERSİTESİ
EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ MÜDÜRLÜĞÜNE

İLGİ: Enstitü Müdürlüğü'nün 02.03.2015 tarih ve 535 sayılı yazısı.

Üniversitemiz Eğitim Bilimler Enstitüsü İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı İngilizce Öğretmenliği Yüksek Lisans Programı öğrencisi Eda CEYLAN'ın tez çalışması kapsamında Bölümümüz İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalımızda tez uygulaması yapma isteği çalışmayı kendilerinin yapması şartıyla uygun görülmüştür.

Bilgilerinizi ve gereğini arz ederim.

Prof. Dr. Talat AKASLAN
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