Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia University

Faculty of Letters and Languages

Department of English

Investigating the Relationship between Listening Comprehension

Strategies Use and Listening Comprehension Levels: the Case of Second

Year Students of English at the Department of English, Mohammed Seddik

Ben Yahia University, Jijel

A Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment for the Requirement of a Master

Degree in English Didactics

Submitted by: Supervised by:

 Naziha FORTAS   Mrs. Fouzia BEN NACER

Atika BOUTERNIKH

 Board of examiners:

Chairman: Mrs. Safia NAGHIZ   Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia University, Jijel

Examiner: Mrs. Radia KHARBOUCHE   Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia University, Jijel

Supervisor: Mrs. Fouzia BEN NACER   Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia University, Jijel

2018-2019

Dedication

In the name of « **ALLAH** » the Most Gracious the Most Merciful and the most

compassionate.

I dedicate this modest work to my wonderful and my precious parents, who brought me in

this life, without them I would not be who I am today,

to my beloved brothers 'Farid',' Belel' And 'Hamza',

to my wonderful sisters **'Houria', " Rima', 'Souad' and' Moufida'**,

to my lovely friends **'Racha' 'Mounira', 'Ilhem', And 'Meriem'**,

to all my friends with whom I shared the university life with its lights and shadows

and to all who love me and whom I love.

Naziha

Dedication

In the name of God, the most Merciful, the most Compassionate

I dedicate this humble work to the most precious people to my heart, the ones who can never be thanked enough, for the overwhelming love and care they gave me. To the candles who always enlighten my path, the ones who were the source of motivation during moments of despair and discouragement, my dearest mother '**Khadija**' and my beloved father '**Ammar**',

to my second father my bolster in this life, my grand brother '**Bachir** for his endless love and motivation, also for my beloved brothers '**Ahemed**' and '**Massoud'** for their constant support,

to my pacemaker in this life my grand sister '**Hanifa'** for her patient with me, my affectionate sister **'Fayrouz'** and her husband '**Abd elhafid'**, to my lovely twin '**Rahima'**, to my crazy sisters **'Nabila'** and **'Sabah'**, and for our house flower the coddler **'Wassila'** (SouSou),

my best friends: '**Nadira', 'Rabia', 'Nawel', 'Yasmina' and 'Fatima';**

to my wonderful and unforgettable partner '**Naziha'**

and to my classmates: '**Amina', 'Meriam', 'Karima', and 'Amel'.**

Atika

Abstract

This research work aims at investigating the relationship between the use of listening comprehension strategies and students' comprehension levels. It is based on the hypothesis that if second year students of English at the University of Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia use listening comprehension strategies while listening their comprehension levels will be higher. To test this hypothesis two research tools were used, namely a questionnaire and a listening comprehension test. The questionnaire and the listening test were administered to 44 students of English at the University of Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia, Jijel. The results obtained have shown that student who reported the use of metacognitive listening comprehension strategies (planning, monitoring and evaluation) and some cognitive strategies (inferencing, elaboration, summarization, note-taking and substitution) got high scores in the listening test. Accordingly, these results revealed that there were a significant correlation between metacognitive and cognitive listening comprehension strategies and listening comprehension levels. Finally, the study points out to the necessity of exposing students to listening comprehension strategies training first to help them with the difficulty of listening skill and second to avoid the use of ineffective strategies like mental translation strategy.

Keywords: listening comprehension strategies, metacognitive, cognitive, socio-affective, listening comprehension levels.

List of Abbreviations

LLSs: **L**anguage **L**earning **S**trategies

LCSs: **L**istening **C**omprehension **S**trategies

L2: **S**econd or **F**oreign **L**anguage

EFL: **E**nglish as a **F**oreign **L**anguage

ESL: **E**nglish as a **S**econd **L**anguage

SPSS: **S**tatistical **P**ackage for **S**ocial s **S**ciences

TOEFL: **T**est of **E**nglish as a **F**oreign **L**anguage

IELTS: **I**nternational **E**nglish **L**anguage **T**est **S**ystem

CEFR: **C**ommon **E**uropean **F**ramework of **R**eference for **L**anguages

R: **P**earson **C**orrelation **C**oefficient

P: **T**wo-**T**ailed **S**ignificance

%: percentage

List of Tables

List of Figures

List of Content

General Introduction

Chapter One: Listening Comprehension and Listening Comprehension Strategies

1.1. Section One: The Nature of Listening Comprehension

Section Two: Listening Comprehension Strategies

Chapter Two: Field Work

Chapter One: Listening Comprehension and Listening Comprehension Strategies

Introduction

1.1. Section One: The Nature of Listening Comprehension

1.1.1. Definition of Listening Comprehension

1.1.2. Components of Listening Comprehension

1.1.3. The Nature of the Process of Listening

1.1.4. Models of Listening

    1.1.4.1. Bottom-Up Model

    1.1.4.2. Top-Down Model

    1.1.4.3. Interactive Model

1.1.5. Types of Listening

1.1.6. The Importance of Listening Comprehension in Language Learning And Teaching

1.1.7. Listening Comprehension in Teaching

    1.1.7.1. Stages of the Listening Activity

    1.1.7.1.1. Pre-Listening Stage

    1.1.7.1.2. While-Listening Stage

    1.1.7.1.3. Post-Listening Stage

1.1.8. Assessing Listening

    1.1.8.1. Purposes of Assessing Listening

1.1.8.2. Approaches To Assessing Listening

1.1.8.2.1. Formative Assessment

1.1.8.2.2. Summative Assessment

1.1.9. Characteristics of Good Listening Test

Section Two: Listening Comprehension Strategies

1.2.1.1. Definition of Language Learning Strategies

1.2.1.2. Classifications of Language Learning Strategies

1.2.1.2.1. O'Malley and Chamot's Classification

1.2.1.2.2. Oxford's Classification

1.2.2. Listening Comprehension Strategies

1.2.2.1. Definition

1.2.2.2. Types of Listening Comprehension Strategies

1.2.3. Metacognitive Strategies

1.2.3.1. Definition of Metacognitive Strategies

1.2.3.2. Types of Metacognitive Strategies

1.2.4. Cognitive Strategies

1.2.4.1. Definition of Cognitive Strategies

1.2.4.2. Types of Cognitive Strategies

1.2.5. Socio-Affective Strategies

1.2.5.1. Definition of Socio-Affective Strategies

1.2.5.2. Types of Socio-Affective Strategies

Chapter One: Listening Comprehension and Listening Comprehension Strategies

Introduction

Listening has long been neglected and undervalued in the field of foreign language teaching and learning because researchers considered it as a passive skill that would be developed naturally along with speaking. However, recent research indicated that listening is active and complex skill. Giving that, listeners need special mental efforts to construct meaning and to facilitate the listening process. Yet listeners need to rely on so called listening comprehension strategies to assist them in comprehending the spoken text. Accordingly, this chapter is divided into two sections. The first section deals with the nature of listening comprehension. First, it begins with some definitions of listening comprehension, followed by components of listening comprehension. Then, it tackles the nature of the listening process, along with models of listening namely, bottom-up model, top-down model and interactive model. After that, it sheds light on the factors that affect listening comprehension, the significance of listening comprehension in language teaching and learning and the types of listening. Next, it subsequently draws attention on salient issues relevant to listening comprehension in language teaching viz, stages of the listening activity and the assessment of listening comprehension.

In the other hand, the second section deals with listening comprehension strategies. First it begins with an over view of language learning strategies (LLSs), then it casts light on listening comprehension strategies (LCSs) providing its definition, as well as its types namely, metacognitive strategies, cognitive strategies and socio-affective strategies .

Section One: Listening Comprehension

1.1.1. Definition of Listening Comprehension

In second language learning, '' listening is a Cinderella Skill" and one of the challenging skills for EFL learners to develop. Rost (1990) argued that researchers and specialists tend to define listening in terms of their personal or theoretical interests in the topic (p.16). To start with, Vandergrift (1996, 1997, and 2003) asserted that listening is a complex, active process of interpretation in which listeners try to fit what they hear with their pre-existing knowledge. Nunan argued that listening is an active process of decoding and constructing meaning from both verbal and non-verbal messages (as cited in Gilakjani& Ahmadi, 2011, p. 977). Underwood (1989) simplified the definition of listening to "the activity of paying attention to and trying to get meaningfrom something we hear" (p. 1). In few wards, listening is the process of decoding the speaker's spoken message.

In fact, a number of researchers perceived and simultaneously defined the term "listening comprehension" in a relatively different way. For instance, O'Malley, Chamot and Kupper, "listening comprehension is an active and conscious process in which the listener constructs meaning by using cues from contextual information and from existing knowledge" (as cited in Gilakjani& Ahmadi, 2011, p. 19). Furthermore, according to Nadig (2013) listening comprehension is the processes of understanding the listening passage. It includes discriminating speech sounds, comprehending the meaning of individual words, and understanding the syntax of sentences (as cited in Pourhosein, Gilakjani& Sabouri, 2016). Additionally, Hamouda (2013) maintained that listening comprehension refers not only to the listener's understanding of the listening text but it is also his/her ability to repeat this text with or without a real comprehension.

Briefly, although these definitions differ to some extent, they basically consider listening comprehension as a complex, dynamic and an active process in which the listeners actively engage with the listening passage rather than being passive or just hearing speech.

1.1.2. Components of Listening Comprehension

Wipf (1984) asserted particular component skills of listening viz, sound discrimination, grammatical structures, context, vocabulary, retention, stress and intonation.

Rost (1994) suggested somewhat similar list of components to master when dealing with listening comprehension, notably:

a. Discriminating between sounds.

b. Recognizing words.

c. Identifying stressed words and grouping of words.

d. Identifying functions(such as apologizing)in conversations

e. Connecting linguistic cues to paralinguistic cues (intonation and stress) to nonlinguistic cues (gestures and relevant objects in the situation) in order to construct meanings

f. Using background knowledge and context to predict, confirm meaning and then, to recall important words, topics and ideas.

He insisted on the fact that students must master all these sub-skills to reach a successful listening. He said:

"Successful listening involves an integration of these component skills .In this sense, listening is a coordination of the component skills, not the individual skills themselves. This integration of these perception skills, analysis skills, and synthesis skills is what we will call a person's listening ability" (p.8).

1.1.3.   The Nature of the Listening Comprehension Process

Listening comprehension is one of the receptive skills. Earlier, it was considered as a passive process in which learners only receive input. However, recent studies indicated that listening is a complex and an active process that incorporates various cognitive processes rather than a simple match between sounds and meaning. Thus, listeners are supposed to stratify their linguistic knowledge (phonology, syntax, semantics, and discourse structure) and non-linguistic knowledge (gestures and relevant objects in the situation) to the incoming input during the comprehension process. Vandergrift (1999) asserted that

"Listening comprehension is anything but a passive activity. It is a complex, active process in which the listener must discriminate between sounds, understand vocabulary and grammatical structures, interpret stress and intonation, retain what was gathered in all of the above, and interpret it within the immediate as well as the larger socio-cultural context of the utterance" (p. 168).

Moreover, Nunan (2001) argued that listening is a complex process. He claimed that there are six stages present during the process of listening notably, hearing, attention, understanding, remembering, evaluating and responding.

- Hearing: It refers to the perception of the sound produced by the sound waves and received by the sensory receptors of the ear.

- Attention: refers to the act of focusing on certain parts of the information received by hearing.

- Understanding: this particular stage implies a more complex process since the brain needs to decode sounds, symbols and context as well in order to interpret the message. which means that the brain goes deeper into the meaning of the information focused on when hearing

- Remembering: after comprehending the message, listener's brain keeps the information in form of memories. These memories can be different from what was originally heard because during the second stage the brain focuses only on imperative information.

- Evaluating: As its name says, in this stage the listener evaluates the information and decides whether there is bias, opinions or prejudice, etc.

- Responding: is the last stage in the listening process. This stage comes after the speaker sends a message and it is related to the act of checking if the message was properly received (p. 23).

It is worth noting that, listening comprehension is not directly related to what the speaker says, Anderson and Lynch (1988) asserted that "the listener has a crucial part to play in the process, by activating various types of knowledge and by applying what he knows to what he hears and trying to understand what the speaker means" (p. 6).

1.1.4. Models of The Listening Process

As it was stated earlier, listeners need both linguistic and non-linguistic knowledge in the listening process. To understand how listeners apply these knowledge sources to grasp the overall meaning of the listening passage and to describe the listening process that is difficult to describe since it is an invisible mental process, researchers came with various models of the listening process. There are three common models namely, the bottom-up, the top-down and the interactive processing model.

1.1.4.1. Bottom-up Processing Model

The bottom-up processing model was developed in the 1940s and 1950s. It entails that listening comprehension is constructed gradually from the lowest level of detail to the highest level. Vandergrift and Goh (2012) asserted that "listeners gradually construct meaning from phonemes to words to increasingly larger units of meaning (full sentences and

larger chunks of discourse) (p. 18). To put it in another way, listeners build their understanding by decoding the acoustic input into small units, and this is used to identify and combine individual words, which in turn gathered to make phrases and form meaningful sentences which are combined together to convey ideas. Nunan (1997) described the bottom-up processing as a linear fashion. He argued that bottom-up processing is"a process of decoding the sounds that one hears in a linear fashion from the smallest units (phonemes) to complete texts".Accordingly, this model depends more on the sound stream i.e. the sounds one hears.

1.1.4.2. Top-Down Processing Model

The top-down processing involves the use of the context and prior knowledge to construct or reconstruct the meaning of the listening passage. Vandergrift and Goh (2012) argued that the listening comprehension process based on the top-down model is an interpretation process; they assumed that "comprehension begins with listener expectations about information in the text and subsequent application of appropriate knowledge sources to comprehend the sound stream" (p.18). Hence, when listeners know the context of a message, they can activate prior knowledge and make the appropriate inferences essential for comprehending the listening message. In short, the listener who approaches a comprehension task in a top-down manner, starts from the general meaning, relying on his/her schemata, and ends with the interpretation of the details.

Indeed, both bottom-up and top-down model provide good explanations for the listening process. However, the processing of different types of knowledge does not always occur in the same order. Buck (2001) argued that the processing of different types of knowledge does not occur in a fixed linear way. Instead, various types of processing can occur simultaneously, or at any convenient sequence, for instance, syntactic knowledge might

be applied to recognize words, or knowledge of the context might be used to interpret the meaning.

1.1.4.3.   Interactive Processing Model

Bottom-up and top-down processes rarely operate independently (Vandergrift and Goh, 2001, p.18), yet, listeners use both processes when they listen (Wilson, 2008, p. 15). The synthesis of both bottom-up and top-down processing gives rise to the so-called interactive model. The latter was essentially developed by Rumelhart (1975) within the context of reading, then it was applied equally well to listening comprehension (Flowerdew & Miller, 2005). The listener, according to this particular model, relies on both bottom-up and top-down processing and uses them inter changeably. Moreover, Rumelhart revealed that language functions concurrently at various levels, which are phonological, syntactic, semantic and pragmatic level. On the basis of this model, the listener, thus, is required to develop and expand his/her language knowledge and skills.

It is worth noting that, learners draw on these models to better comprehend the listening message. The degree to which the listener uses either bottom-up or top-down processing depends on his/her knowledge of the language, familiarity with the topic or the purpose of listening (Vandergrift and Goh, 2001, p.19). For example, a listener who searches for specific detail may engage in more bottom-up processing than a listener who is interested in obtaining an overview of what happened at a particular event.

1.1.5. Listening Comprehension Problems

Bingol, Celik, Yildiz, and Tugul Mart (2014) stated that there are several problems that students encounter before and during the listening tasks. They analyzed some of them as follow:

- Quality of recorded materials: recorded materials that have low quality may hinder the comprehension of certain piece of listening.

- Cultural differences: students may have difficulties to catch the meaning of the listening piece if it contains completely different cultural knowledge than they have. Here the teacher should explain the background knowledge about the topic beforehand.

- Accent: different accents are spoken by native speakers of English. However, as Fan (1993) pointed out ESL/EFL listeners are familiar only with "their teacher's accent or to the standard variety of British or American English" (as cited in Azmi Bingol, Celik, Yildiz, and Tugul Mart 2014). Hence, if the listening text contains neither the Standard English nor their teacher's accent then, this makes the process of listening difficult for them.

- Unfamiliar vocabulary: unfamiliar words can be a very stressful point while listening. For instance, students sometimes encounter an unrecognizable word which forces them to stop and thinking about its significance, as a result, they miss the following passage of speech. Yet they may face a problem to understand it.

- Length and speed of the listening: Azmi Bingol, Celick, Yeldiz, and Mart (2014) stated that "the level of students play a great role when listening for long parts and keeping all the information in the mind", meaning that, while students who have high levels are able to keep all information in their minds easily, learners who have a low level find it so difficult to listen for long recordings, and to understand them. Moreover, the delivery speed of the speaker has been one of the most obvious obstacles that EFL students have to deal with. It is believed that during listening, students lack the ability to control the speed of speaker's speech; therefore, they miss important information or not being able to select it correctly.

- Physical conditions: noise, sitting in back rows especially in large classes or sitting next to windows makes the listening process difficult and sometimes impossible..

Another factor that affects the learner's listening comprehension is the temperature of the class, that is to say; learners cannot concentrate on a listening task when they feel cold or hot.

- Lack of concentration: one of the crucial factors that affect listening comprehension is the lack of concentration. If the listeners lose their concentration they will not comprehend the message.

After reviewing over 130 studies, Rubin (1994) synthesized the existing research on factors that affect listening comprehension. He identified five major factors that researchers believe to be the most important factors that influence students' listening comprehension:

1. Text characteristics: including speech rate, pause phenomena and hesitation, level of perception, stress and rhythmic patterning perception, L1/L2 difference, syntactic modifications, redundancy, morphological complexity, word order, discourse markers, and visual support for texts.

2. Interlocutor characteristics: for example his/her gender and language proficiency;

3. Task characteristics: such as task type.

4. Listener characteristics: which includes proficiency level, memory, attention, affect, age, gender, learning disability in L1, and background knowledge; and

5. Process characteristics: meaning, is it top-down, bottom-up, or interactive processing? Types of listening strategies employed, and negotiation of comprehensible input (p.197).

1.1.6. The Importance of Listening Comprehension in Language Learning and Teaching

Listening comprehension is the most frequently used skill in language classrooms. It is used as a means of learning at all phases of instruction. Nunan (1998) argued that many

second and foreign language acquisition researchers asserted that students spend over 50 percent of their time while learning a foreign language in listening (as cited in Nation of Neutron, 2009, p. 37). Therefore, listening comprehension is very important for language learning in general and for FL learning in particular. Giving that, learners should listen than speak. Peterson (2001) argued that "no other type of language input is as easy to process as spoken language; received through listening" (p. 106) thus, learners first need to receive and internalize comprehensible input through exposure to the target language then, communicate effectively and successfully.

Moreover, Harmer (2007) maintained that "what we say or write is heavily influenced by what we hear and see''. He added that "the more we see and listen to comprehensible input, the more English we acquire, notice or hear'' (p.266). Furthermore, listening is considered to be a valuable source for the acquisition and the development of various aspects of language, such as grammar and vocabulary. In line with this, Morley (2001) confirmed that "Listening comprehension lessons are a vehicle for teaching the elements of grammatical structures and allow new vocabulary items to be contextualized within a body of communicative discourse'' (p.70).

To sum up, listening plays a crucial role in foreign language learning. EFL learners, actually, should be exposed to sufficient comprehensible input from earlier stages of L2 learning to listening comprehension activities.

1.1.7. Types of Listening

Broadly speaking, researchers, relied on certain variables to classify listening notably, the setting where the listening tasks take place, the active role the listener plays and the purpose of listening.

Based on the setting, listening basically comprises two types, called intensive and extensive listening. Intensive listening mostly occurs inside real language classroom or

language laboratories where proficiency is the element that is required to be developed by students. Rost (2002) defined intensive listening as "the process of listening for precise sounds, words, phrases, grammatical units and pragmatic units "(p. 138). The teacher plays a key role in this type of listening in the sense that, s/he gives the listeners the chance to listen to a variety of voices with different accents, talking about different topics by providing them with relevant materials for listening, and why not to meet different characters especially when real people are talking in realsituations in the so-called "live listening" (Harmer, 2001, p.229).

In contrast with the intensive listening, extensive listening occurs outside the classroom where students are free to choose what they want to listen to for the sake of language improvement and pleasure. Thus, the teacher in this type is attributed the general guidance in the process. As far as intensive listening is concerned, it invites learners to use any material that providesthem withspontaneous conversation and dialogue. For example, they may use recordings of stories, passages from books, television and radio (Harmer, 2001, p. 228). Briefly, from what we have stated above, intensive and extensive are the two important types that improve the listening skill.

Another classification of listening is in terms of the active role the listener plays in the listening activity that is reciprocal and non-reciprocal listening. In reciprocal listening or two-way listening, the listener is involved in the talk; he has the right to give and talk with the speaker as well as to exchange his ideas and thoughts (as cited in Nunan, 1989, p. 23). Unlike the reciprocal listening, in non-reciprocal listening or one-way listening, the listener is not involved in talk. He has no chance to ask for explanation or repetition or respondback (as cited in Richards &Renandya, 2002, p. 239). By way of illustration, it like when he listens to the radio, television and, CDs, films, lectures.

1.1.8. Listening Comprehension in Language Teaching

Due to the fact that listening plays a crucial role in foreign language learning, EFL learners should be exposed frequently, from the earliest stages of language learning, to listening comprehension activities. Although, teaching listening comprehension to L2 learners has changed considerably over the last few decades, learners continue to face challenges inside and outside the classroom as they try to improve their listening comprehension abilities. Actually, teaching listening comprehension for EFL learners does not merely consist in switching a tape recorder on and off, or reading a text aloud, and giving a set of comprehension tasks to the students, rather it should be systematic; the teacher must set a purpose for listening; select and design appropriate language-learning materials and activities taking into account the age of the students, their interests and language abilities.

1.1.8.1. Stages of Listening

Generally speaking, any listening task is made up of three stages referred to as pre-listening stage, while listening stage and post-listening stage. Each stage is distinctively marked by its own purpose and the variety of activities practiced by learners so as to reach comprehension.

1.1.8.1.1. Pre-Listening Stage:

This stage is considered as a preparatory step, in which the teacher tends to activate students previous knowledge and attitudes and orient them to what they are about to hear through warm-up activities. Hedge (2000) suggested that activities related to this phase are likely to include "predicting content from the little of the talk, talking about a picture which relates to the listening text, this, discussing the topic answering a set of questions about the topic and agreeing or disagreeing with opinion about the topic" (p.249). In addition, the pre-teaching of some vocabulary, grammatical or rhetoric structures, and specific pronunciation of phrases or ideas which may be problematic in the listening passage also can be a useful

part of this pre-listening stage (Rost, 2002, p. 20). As far as listening material is concerned, the teacher should verify the equipment and make sure it is working property before class begins.

1.1.8.1.2. While-Listening Stage

It refers to the time when the listener begins to listen and at the same time accomplishing some activities to support his/her listening comprehension. While listening activities are directly related to the text and listeners are asked to complete them during or immediately after listening, to collect the necessary information for an overall listening comprehension.Wilson (2008) claimed that learners first need to be exposed to an input. When they receive the input, they start to "listen for gist". Then, learners listen for a second time to find out details or specific information that help them in making inferences and conclusions (Wilson, p. 60). Hence, listening tasks that are commonly used in while-listening stage are:

- Listening for gist: this means listening to get the main idea of what is being said, for example students try to get the topic or theme of the listening track.

- Listening for specific information: this means listening pay attention to particular parts of a listening passage and skim over orignore other parts in order to achieve a specific listening goal or, for example, listen for a partof the text to get the specific information that is needed to answer particular question.

- Listening for details: refers to the type of listening we do in which we cannot afford to ignore anything because we do not know exactly what information of the listening passage will be necessary to complete the task.

- Making references: it means listening to get information that is not explicitly stated by the speaker. Here the listener demonstrates understanding by filling in information that is omitted, unclear, or ambiguous, and make connections with prior knowledge

by "listening between the lines" for example, using visual clues to know the speaker's feelings

Actually, the aim of the while-listening activities is not to test students' abilities to make correct sentences based on the listening passage but to assist their concentration on the text.

1.1.8.1.3.   Post-Listening Stage

The post-listening stage comprises all activities which are done after listening to the text. This stage allows learners to reproduce and then reinforce the knowledge gained in while- listening stage in different contexts. In this regard, Donaldson and Haggstorm (2006) asserted that post-listening activities helps students to reuse the structure, vocabulary as well as the topic of the listening passage. As a result, it boost the students' linguistic and background knowledge (p. 78). Also, post-listening stage allows learners to check their comprehension and reflect on the language presented in the listening text. Wilson (2008) maintained that" the whole class checks answers, discuss difficulties such as unknown vocabulary, and responds to the content of the passage, usually orally, sometimes in written".

Briefly, pre-listening, while-listening and post listening are reliable format for doing listening activities in class. Through these stages, teachers need to prepare learners not only for the in class listening activities but also for future listening. It is worth noting that, across these stages, teachers should try to reduce their students listening anxiety by telling them they may not be able to understand everything they hear, and that they should not be panic because of this.

1.1.9. Assessing Listening

Promoting students' learning is a principal aim of schools and assessment lies at the heart of this process. Over the past two decades, there has been a great deal of attention devoted to the teaching, learning, and testing of second language (L2) listening ability. This

increased attention is due to the realization of the importance of listening in language learning (Rubin, 1994). Assessing, comprehension, the product of listening, has great importance because it assigns a mark or a level to learner listening performance for purposes of awarding credits, placement, or promotion, it provides learners, teachers, and parents as well with feedback on learner progress in listening development in particular, and it provides program administrators with information on the success of listening instruction in their language programs in general (Vandergrift, 2012, p. 240).

1.1.9.1.   Purposes of Assessing Listening Comprehension

Buck (2001) suggested four main purposes for assessing listening namely, general language proficiency, representing oral skills, assessing achievement and diagnostic testing.

a. General proficiency testing: mastering a second or foreign language is believed to be deeply based on the mastery of the four language skills that is, speaking, listening reading and writing. Giving that, listening now is a part of most general proficiency tests and most tests of academic language ability as well.

b. Representing oral skills**:** Buck (2001) argued that listening test is said to be the "facto test" of other skills, this is due to the fact that speaking test is too expensive, time consuming and requires specific criteria.

c. Assessing Achievement: the purpose of assessing listening in classroom is to assess their learners' achievement to know their weaknesses after a set of instruction, to provide grades and to give credit for course completion.

d. Diagnostic testing**:** through assessing listening teachers get the chance to diagnose students' strengths and weakness, what they can do and what they need to work on.

1.1.9.2.   Approaches to Assessing Listening

As we have seen previously listening comprehension is a complex mental process, meaning that we cannot see what is happening inside the brain during the process of listening.

Hence, any assessment of listening must employ indirect measures. Alderson and Bachman asserted that "the assessment of listening abilities is one of the least understood, least developed and yet one of the most important areas of language testing and assessment" (as cited in Buck, 2001). The primary means of assessing listening is therefore to observe the various language activities that the learner is engaged in while listening, and to create qualitative descriptors and quantitative measures that have an acceptable degree of validity (O'Sullivan et al., 2002). Teachers can assess learner progress in listening comprehension as it occurs during informal and takes place in day-to-day lessons, and/or through systematic assessment of the products of listening after a period of time. Vandergrift (2012) considered two approaches of assessing listening formative and summative assessment.

1.1.9.2.1. Formative Assessment

Formative assessment is informal and takes place every time students engage in a listening task. In general formative assessment "relates to the kind of feedback teachers give student as a course is progressing and which, as a result, may help them to improve their performance. This is done at a micro-level every time we indicate that something is wrong and help students to get it right"'(Harmer, 2001, p. 379). Hence, formative assessment of L2 listening is directly related to the process of learning, it is used by the teacher to improve instructional methods and by learners to enhance their listening since it provides them with feedback on their progress in meeting target learning outcomes, notes strengths and weaknesses, offers suggestions for improvement, and helps them acquire the strategies that will lead to greater success.Thus, formative assessment is a continuous process, and learners play an integral role on it. Moreover, teachers can adapt their teaching accordingly and learners can determine how to better focus their learning efforts. Harmer (2001) argued that "formative assessment means that teachers as well as students may have to change and

develop" (379). Hence, formative assessment does not provide marks rather it provides comments.

Vandergrift (2012) asserted that formative assessment for listening can be carried out by teachers, students or peers, through a set of tools. The latter includes learner checklists, teacher checklists and questionnaires.

In general, checklists are used to encourage or verify that a number of specific lines of inquiry, steps, or actions are being taken, or have been taken, by a researcher. Actually, there are two types of checklist notably, learner checklist and teacher checklist. Learner checklist is a series of statements that identify certain behaviors or steps in the process of listening. On checklists, the responses are either yes or no; learners tick the box after the statement.The checklist generally is divided into three sections each section is linked with a stage of the listening activity. To illustrate, learners have to read a list of behaviors in the first section of the checklist, before listening to the text, after listening they complete the second section, to reflect on what they did as they were listening and what they foundeasy or difficult. When they finish the listening activities, the learners may be asked to complete a third section of thechecklist where they briefly state what they will do on the next listening task, based on their performance and reflection on the current listening task. Checklists can help learners focus their attention while listening and self-assess their application of listening strategies before and after a listening task.

Teacher checklist consists of a set of behaviors that the teacher can observe and purposefully want to observe in listeners when they engaged in an interactive listening for example the use of clarification strategies. The teacher can assess both learner's listening and speaking performance, since the assessment of listening is not isolated in this context. Given that learners alternate in the roles of speaker and listener, assessment is usually done for two learners at one time.

A questionnaire in research methodology is a data collection instrument that consists of a series of questions and other prompts for the purpose of gathering information from respondents. Questionnaires that focus on important processes in listening can be used by learners for purposes of self-assessment, and by teachers for diagnostic purposes to determine direction for remediation. Questionnaires are easy to administer, thus teachers can use them periodically to assess listeners' listening ability. Moreover, they can be repeated at the end of a course or a unit to ascertain progress in the development of listening processes.

Briefly, the goal of formative assessment is to provide information on how well the students have mastered the content so far, thus helping the process of instruction. It does not carry a grade it rather provides anecdote comments.

1.1.9.2.2. Summative Assessment of L2 Listening

Summative assessment is formal and public since it is required by schools, colleges and governments, and "product-oriented" and periodic, since it assesses learners' listening ability at the end of an instructional phase (Wilson, 2008, p. 139). Based on the listening test results, learners know where s/he stands in comparison with other speakers of that language learners receive a grade or get a certificate at testing to their level of language/listening proficiency. Summative assessment can be done through achievement tests to measure learning of specific material, proficiency tests to measure an overall ability in a skill, or through high-stakes standardized tests to measure L2 competence for purposes of university studies in the target language.

There are plenty of tools to conduct a summative assessment; listening achievement tests, proficiency tests and large-scale standardized tests are the most common ones. Achievement tests generally take place at the end of course units. They are designed by teachers to judge the success of their teaching, to identify the weaknesses of their learners and to determine their readiness to get the next level of instruction (Buck, p. 96). In a test of

listening achievement, listener first, listen to particular text or texts pre-selected by the teacher, then they are asked to complete a comprehension task , which consist of such as short-answering questions, multiple-choice and/or open ended questions…etc. The resulting mark will used to determine how well learners have mastered the content of the course. Hence, the resulting marks reflect learners' progress not failure.

Listening proficiency tests are used to assess global listening comprehension level they are not tied to any particular course or linked to any particular domain of language use rather they may be referenced against a particular language framework such as the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) and the International English Language Test System (IELTS). Listening proficiency tests can take place at home, at school or at any other organization. They can be used either to place learners at an appropriate course level such as   level A1 in CEFR or in a particular type of language course, such as a course on listening development. However teachers may use such proficiency tests to assess their learners (Vandergrift and Goh, 2012, p. 254).

A standardized test is an exam which has been developed by specialists after a set of tryouts and experiments to ensure its reliability and validity. It provides uniform procedures for administering (time limits, response format, and number of questions) and for scoring the test. Learners may take a large-scale standardized test to certify their proficiency level for purposes of placement, job qualifications, or study in the target language. Large-scale tests such as TOEFL or IELTS are designed to assess the language ability of learners who wish to study for example at British universities and colleges or in countries where English is the language of communication. The results obtained from these types of tests often become the basis for important decisions about a learner's future, such as program placement, promotion, university acceptance, or graduation

In short, several types of listening tests have been devised to measure the listening outcomes accordingly. However, each test has its specific purpose, properties and criterion to be measured.

1.1.10. Characteristics of Good Listening Test

For a listening test to be useful, it must fulfill specific criteria. Bachman and Palmer (1996) suggested that the usefulness of a test is a function of six properties namely, reliability, construct validity, authenticity, instructiveness, impact and practicality (as cited in buck, 2001, p. 117).

a. Reliability: refers to the consistency of a measure. A test is reliable when it provides the same or similar score assessing similar population under similar conditions it always provides the same, or similar, score. Furthermore, according to the American Psychological Association (1985) reliability means that a test is free of errors of measurement, hence the more measurement errors occur the less reliable the test is.

b. Construct validity: refers to the extent to which a test specifically measures the construct that is intended to measure. Hence, construct validity of a listening test refers to the degree to which this test samples the listening knowledge and skills being learned in a teaching unit or a course in order to determine if the listener can successfully perform these skills or not.

c. Authenticity: authenticity in a listening test refers to the degree to which the test tasks reflect the real-life language use i.e. oral language used in everyday speech. Vandergrift (2012) asserted that "the more an assessment uses dense, cognitively demanding texts intended for reading, the less it will reflect the principle of authenticity for listening"(p. 263).

d. Instructiveness: which is the extent to which the test tasks engaged the same abilities as the target-language use tasks.

e. Impact: The impact of a particular test varies greatly, but the basic assumption is that the more "high-stakes" and the more "large-scale" a test can be, the greater the impact on individuals and society. Bachman and Palmer (1996) stated that larger impact of a test for the society in general may indeed occur on different levels: from the creation of manuals or the marketing of courses with the goal of preparing for the test, to governmental decisions based on some feature of a test. For an individual, the impact is obvious, ranging from whatever the stage of test preparation implies, to the feedback given on the test success to, most importantly, the decisions made on the basis of the test score on for instance entrance to university (p. 31).

f. Practicality: it means that test creators must take into consideration the cost and time demands that are placed on teachers, students, and administrators as well.

It is worth noting that, test constructors and test administrator should take responsibility for balancing the involvement of different test qualities. It seems obvious; however, that the characteristic of construct validity should be the most important quality and if compromises have to be made, these should not be made at the expense of the validity of the test scores. Accordingly, Weir (2005) pointed practicality issues should not be considered before sufficient validity evidence is available to justify interpreting test scores as an acceptable indication of the control of an underlying construct (49). He stresses the risk of practicality intruding on the test in such a way that it will not be assessing what we want it to assess

In few words, the listening comprehension has recently become a hot debatable issue, since it provokes the sense of curiosity of many researchers who seek to delve into the nature of this process how learners develop it and how teachers may succeed to teach it and assessed it as well. Each researcher tackled this issue from his/her own perspective. After reviewing the concept of listening comprehension, the components of listening

comprehension process, its nature, its processing models, its significance for EFL learners, as well as the main stages of the listening activities. The focus of this section was on methods of assessing listening comprehension.

Section Two: Listening Comprehension Strategies

Although language learning strategies are used generally by successful L2 learners, Using strategies specific to language skills is important for achieving success in these skills. As for listening, the employment of strategies is of crucial importance due to the fact that listening is one of challenging skill and the most difficult one for most L2 learners.

1.2.1.1. Definition of Language Learning Strategies

In order to understand the meaning of listening comprehension strategies, at first, it is better to know the meaning of language learning strategies. Learning strategies have been studied extensively in both general education and language learning. Learning strategies have been broadly defined by many researchers as any set of operations or steps used by a learner that will facilitate the acquisition, storage, retrieval, or use of information (as cited in O'Malley and Chamot, p.23). The term language learning strategy was primarily derived from the ancient Greek word "strategia", which means the art of war (Oxford, 1990, p. 7). However, once the term has been introduced in the field of language teaching and learning, it has been reconsidered again. For instance, O'Malley & Chamot (1990) defined learning strategies as "the specific thoughts and behaviors that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn, or retain new information'' (p. 1). Furthermore, Oxford (1990) asserted that language learning strategies are defined as specific methods or techniques used by individual learners to facilitate learning, make it more effective, and more transferable to new situations, and to become more autonomous and independent in their own learning retention (p.1).

1.2.1.2. Classification of Language Learning Strategies

Language learning strategies have gained a great interest in second or foreign language learning. Yet several researchers in the field have yielded a plethora of classification of learning strategies. Among the different researchers' categorizations, O'Malley and Chamot's classification (1985), and that of Oxford (1990) is the most noteworthy and relevant to the topic under investigation. However, the former classification is the one that we will rely on in the present study.

1.2.1.2.1. O'Malley and Chamot Classification (1985)

O'Malley and Chamot (1985) have differentiated and categorized language learning strategies into three main categories, namely, metacognitive, cognitive and socio-affective strategies.

- Metacognitive strategies: refer to strategies that regulate and guide the learning process. O'Malley and Chamot(1990) argued that metacognitive strategies include "higher order executive skills that may entail planning for, monitoring or evaluating the success of a learning activity" i.e. They involve planning, monitoring, and evaluating one's own learning.

- Cognitive strategies cognitive strategies take into account the cognitive processes that occur when carrying out specific learning tasks. They involve manipulating the material to be learnt or applying a specific technique to the learning task.

- Socio-affective strategies: this type of strategies describes learning that happens when language learners communicate and interact with their peers and teachers.

1.2.1.2.2. Oxford's Classification

Oxford (1990) divided language learning strategies into two major classes; namely, direct and indirect strategies, which are equally subdivided into further subcategories.

a. Direct strategies: According to Oxford (1990), "Language learning strategies that directly involve the target language are called direct strategies. All direct strategies require mental processing of the language" (p. 37). Essentially, she suggested three types of direct strategies namely, memory strategies, cognitive strategies, and compensation strategies.

- Memory strategies: This type of strategies is directly related to memory. They help learners store new information into memory and ultimately retrieve it to be used again. Memory strategies typically involve: creating mental linkages, applying images and sounds, reviewing well, and employing action.

- Cognitive strategies: Refer to the mental strategies learners use to better understand and produce the new information. These strategies include practicing, receiving and sending messages, analyzing and reasoning, creating structure for input and output.

- Compensation strategies: This type of strategies enable learners to use the language despite the large gaps in knowledge and the problems they may face when using the language, in speaking and writing. These strategies include guessing intelligently and overcoming limitations in speaking and writing.

b. Indirect strategies: Oxford (1990) clarified that these strategies "contribute indirectly but powerfully to learning" (p. 12). They include metacognitive, affective, and social strategies.

  - Metacognitive strategies: this type of strategies allows learners to control their own cognition through planning, regulating, and clearly self-evaluate the learning process.

  - Affective strategies: These strategies are utilized by learners to regulate their emotions. They involve increasing motivation, lowering anxiety, and encouraging oneself.

- Social strategies: this type of strategies enables learners to learn through interaction with others (peers, teachers; etc). To illustrate, asking questions for clarification and cooperating with native speakers are two possible social strategies that can be used by learners during the learning process.

As Oxford (1990) maintained, both direct and indirect strategies have a crucial importance in the learning process and they tend to support each other in many ways (p.12).

1.2.2. Listening Comprehension Strategies

1.2.2.1 Definition

Listening comprehension strategies are said to be similar to all other language learning strategies, and to share the same characteristics with them, they might differ only on their applications. Actually, some researchers proposed more specific definitions of listening comprehension strategies. To start with, Vandergrift (1997) considered listening comprehension strategies as devices that individuals use not only to facilitate acquisition, store, retrieve and use information but also to achieve the purpose of listening comprehension of spoken input (as cited in Huy, 2015, p. 24). Likewise, Ho (2006) asserted that "Listening strategies refer to skills or methods for listeners to directly or indirectly achieve the purpose of listening comprehension of the spoken input" (p. 25). Furthermore, Freeman (2004) and Lin (2006) maintained that listening comprehension strategies are techniques or activities that contribute directly to the comprehension and recall of listening input.

To put it briefly, L2 listening comprehension strategies are specific techniques and tools consciously used by learners to facilitate and enhance their own L2 listening, to overcome problems that they may encounter in the listening process. The listening comprehension process, thus, will be more effective and more successful.

1.2.2.2. Types of Listening Comprehension Strategies

Based on research findings on the effective strategy use of successful FL/SL listeners, O'Malley and Chamot (1990) classified listening comprehension into three main categories: metacognitive, cognitive and socio-affective strategies. Vandergrift (1997), drawing on O'Malley and Chamot (1990) model of listening comprehension strategies, provides a very useful and thorough chart of these listening strategies with their definitions and illustrative examples.

1.2.3. Metacognitive Listening Comprehension Strategies

Metacognition, or "the act of thinking about thinking", refers to the ability of learners to control their thoughts and to regulate their own learning. Metacognitive strategies are the self-regulatory (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990) and/or strategies that have an "executive function" (Brown, 2000, p. 124). O'Malley and Chamot (1990) maintained that "metacognitive strategies involve thinking about the learning process, planning for learning, monitoring the learning task, and evaluating how well one has learned" (p. 137). Similarly, Vendergrift (2003) asserted that "metacognitive strategies, or self-management strategies, oversee, regulate, or direct the listening process" (p. 227). Metacognitive strategies, thus, involve planning beforehand, regulating activities, self-evaluating afterwards. In this strategy, learners are conscious when listening to the text cautiously. The conscious use of metacognitive strategies, thus, helps learners get their attention back when they lose it (Oxford (1990).

As a matter of fact, O'Malley and Chamot suggested three categories of metacognitive strategies that can be utilized to accomplish any receptive or productive language learning task as follows notably, planning, monitoring and evaluating

1. Planning: Is defined as 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. There are four main types of planning

• Advance organization: means clarifying the objectives of an anticipated listening task. Listeners define their goals before tackling any listening activity in order to anticipate the task and/or propose strategies for handling it. In a listening activity, for instance, listeners have to do or to try to think of the questions the teacher is going to ask

• Directed attention: means focusing more generally on the task demand and content i.e., listeners decide in advance to concentrate on the spoken input and to ignore all what is irrelevant, in such way, they maintain attention while listening.

• Selective attention: means focusing on specific information anticipated in the message. Deciding in prior to pay attention to specific language items or situational details that assists in understanding and/or task completion. For example listening for the key words, establish the speakers in the conversation, their relationship by tone of voice, how they will address each other.

• Self-management: is defined as understanding the conditions that help one successfully fulfill listening tasks and arranging for the presence of those conditions.

2. Monitoring: It means checking, verifying, or correcting one's comprehension or performance while working on a listening task. There are three major types of monitoring.

• Comprehension monitoring: Checking, looking over, or correcting one's comprehension at the local level. The listener, for instance, tries to put everything together, believing that understanding one thing leads to understanding another (Vandergrift, 1997).

• Auditory monitoring: Using one's "ear" for the language (how something sounds) to make decisions.

- Double check monitoring: Checking, verifying, or correcting one's comprehension across the task or during the second time through the oral text.

3. Evaluation: It is defined as checking the outcomes of one's listening comprehension against an internal measure of completeness and accuracy (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Learners apply a variety of strategies to evaluate their performance. It includes

- Performance evaluation: When the listening task is completed, students judge their overall execution of the task a student, by asking question like how close was I? to determine how well they perform the task.

- Strategy evaluation: when the listening task is completed, students judge their strategy use and its effectiveness by asking themselves, question like I used a set of strategies to help me in the completion of this task, was they really useful? If yes, to which extent?

- Problem identification: means students explicitly identify problems they encounter either with the listening text or with the task or identify an aspect of the task that hinders its successful completion.

Metacognitive strategies are of crucial importance in the listening comprehension process because they train language learners to cope with the demands of listening tasks. Hence, they will be able to maximize the information received from the listening texts and thus, this can be used to improve their listening skills (Renukadevi, 2014, p. 62). Metacognitive strategies help learners to be more motivated and less anxious listening performance. They can be used by good listeners and weak listeners as wells.

1.2.4. Cognitive Listening Comprehension Strategies

Cognitive strategies are more directly related to the listening task and involve direct manipulation or transformation of the learning materials Cognitive strategies involve interacting with the material to be learned, manipulating the material mentally, physically, or applying a specific technique to a learning task (O'Malley, Chamot and Kupper 1990).

Within the same line, Rubin (1987) maintained that cognitive strategies are the ones that "listeners use to manipulate the material to be listened to by understanding the linguistic input". Moreover, Golchi (2012) stated that" cognitive strategies are connected to comprehending and accumulating input in short-term memory or long-term memory for later access" (p.117). Cognitive strategies, thus, are specific techniques that listeners use to manipulate their learning tasks and facilitate the acquisition of knowledge or skills.

As for the types of cognitive strategies, they are manifold. The main ones are inferencing, elaboration, summarization, translation, transfer, repetition, resourcing, grouping, note-taking, induction/deduction and substitution.

1. Inferencing: Harley (2008) defined inferencing as "the derivation of additional knowledge from facts already known" (p. 365). According to Vandergrift (1997) inferencing means using information within the text or conversational context to guess the meanings of unfamiliar language items associated with a listening task, to predict outcomes or to fill in missing information. Meaning that the listener relies on inferencing to arrive at an acceptable interpretation of the utterances, when they do not have a direct access to the speaker's intended meaning in producing an utterance or series of utterances (Rost, 2002). Hence, inferencing strategies allow learners to use any available information to predict the meaning or usage of unfamiliar language items in the listening text. Actually, there are five types of inferencing

   - Linguistic inferencing: refers to the use of familiar words in an utterance to guess the meaning of unfamiliar words (Flowerdew& Miller, 2005, p. 75)

   - Voice and Paralinguistic inferencing: means using tone of voice and/or paralinguistics as cues to guess the meaning of unknown words.

- Kinesic inferencing: using facial expressions, body language, and hand movements to guess the meaning of unknown words used by a speaker whether in an interactive or one way listening.

- Extra-linguistic inferencing: Using background sounds and relationships between speakers in an oral text, material in the response sheet, or concrete situational referents to guess the meaning of unknown words.

- Between parts inferencing: Using information beyond the local sentence level to guess the meaning of unfamiliar words i.e., you pick out things you know in the whole piece together to understand the unknown items.

2. Elaboration: it is defined as using prior knowledge from outside the text or conversational context and relating it to knowledge gained from the text or conversation in order to predict outcomes or fill in missing information. Elaboration is defined as the strategy that allows learners either to relate new information to prior knowledge or information that has previously been shared in memory, to relate different parts of new information to each other, or to make meaningful personal associations to the new information (O'Malley& Kupper, 1989, p. 16). There are five types of elaboration

- Personal elaboration: referring to prior experience personally.

Word elaboration: drown on knowledge gained from experience in the world

- Academic elaboration: Using knowledge gained previously in academic situations to guess the meaning of unknown words. For example you relate the unknown word in the actual task to a topic that you have studied earlier.

- Questioning elaboration: Using a combination of questions and world knowledge to arrive at logical possibilities.

- Creative elaboration: making up a story line, or adopting a clever perspective

- Imaginary: Using mental or actual pictures or visuals to represent information; coded as a separate category but viewed as a form of elaboration i.e., you make pictures in your mind for words you know, and then you fill in the picture that's missing in the sequence of pictures in your mind.

3. Summarization: it is defined as making a mental or written summary of the information presented in a listening text. Hence, an effective summary must captures the main ideas of the listening text, reduces the material substantially as well and reconstructs the meaning in a more succinct and generalized form. It is worth noting that listeners deploy their own experience to construct novel sentences. In other words, learners must use their own words to summarize the content of the listening material.

4. Translation: Rendering ideas from one language to another in a relatively verbatim manner i.e. you say what the English speaker says in my head, but in your mother tongue.

5. Transfer: Using knowledge of one language (e.g., cognates) to facilitate listening in another. For example the listener uses his/her knowledge of French to understand English.

6. Repetition: Repeating a chunk of language (a word or phrase) in the course of performing a listening task (sound out the words, says the word to yourself).

7. Resourcing: Using available reference sources of information about the target language, including dictionaries, textbooks, and prior work.

8. Grouping: classifying information such as words or concepts according to their meaning or according to common attributes (relate the words that sound the same, break up words for parts you might recognize).

9. Note-taking: means writing key words and concepts in abbreviated verbal, graphic, or numerical forms (Oxford, 1990). There are different ways of taking notes for instance, raw notes, shopping list format and 'semantic map'.

10. Deduction/induction: Consciously applying learned or self-developed rules to understand the target language.

11. Substitution: Selecting alternative approaches, revised plans, or different words or phrases to accomplish a listening task (substitute words, translate and see if it sounds right, in combination with translation and comprehension monitoring).

To put it briefly, cognitive strategies are the application of a specific technique such guessing meaning from context, or relating new information to other concepts in memory to the listening task. All the aspects of cognitive strategies outlined above develop learners' language and facilitate their comprehension of the input. Oxford (2011) considered cognitive strategies as "construction workers" in the sense that they help learners put together, construct, transform, elaborate, consolidate and apply L2 knowledge (p. 406). Moreover, cognitive strategies help learners to make and strengthen associations between their new and already learned information, i.e., background knowledge (O'Malley, Chamot and Kupper). Furthermore cognitive strategies facilitate the mental structuring of input (White, 2008).

1.2.5. Socio-affective Strategies:

The third type of listening strategies is the socio-affective strategies. Vandergrift (2003) asserted that "Socio-affective strategies describe the techniques listeners use to collaborate with others, to verify understanding or to lower anxiety" (p.427). As in his book, Wilson explains the socio-affective strategy; Socio-affective strategies are concerned with the learners' interaction with other speakers and their attitude towards learning. For example, they may choose to rehearse a telephone conversation in L2 with another student in order to develop confidence, or reward themselves with a "doughnut" when they successfully

complete some task in the target language (p.34). It is necessary for learner to know how to reduce the anxiety, feel confident during listening tasks, and raise personal motivation in enhancing listening ability (Vandergrift, 1997).

1. Questioning for clarification: asking for explanation, verification, rephrasing, or examples about the language and/or task; posing questions to the self.

2. Cooperation: working with someone other than an interlocutor (a friend or the person next to you) to solve a problem, pool information, check a learning task, model a language activity, or get feedback on oral or written Performance.

3. Lowering anxiety: Reducing anxiety through the use of mental techniques that make one feel more competent to perform a listening task such as thinking of something funny to calm me down or taking deep breaths.

4. Self-encouragement: Providing personal motivation through positive self-talk and/or arranging rewards for oneself during a listening activity or upon its completion.

5. Taking emotional temperature: Becoming aware of, and getting in touch with one's emotions while listening, in order to avert negative ones and make the most of positive ones.

In fact, Socio-affective strategies are non-academic in nature and involve stimulating learning through establishing a level of empathy between the instructor and students (Habte-Gabr, 2006). They consist of factors such as emotions and attitudes. It was essential for listeners to know how to reduce the anxiety, feel confident in doing listening tasks, and promote personal motivation in improving listening competence (Vandergrift, 1997).

Conclusion

As conclusion, this chapter castled light on the complex nature of the listening comprehension; providing its definition, processes, types, its significance in the field of L2

teaching and learning in addition to the stages of the listening activities and listening problems, moreover it highlighted approaches of assessing the listening comprehension. Then, it further dealt with LLSs in its broader sense its classification, mainly the classification proposed by O'Malley and Chamot as well as that of Oxford. Then it highlighted the concept of listening comprehension, providing definition and types namely metacognitive, cognitive, socio-affective strategies.

Chapter Two: Field Work

Introduction

2.1 Setting

2.2. Population and Sampling

2.3. Data Collection Procedures

    2.3.1. Listening Comprehension Test

        2.3.1.1. Description of the Test

        2.3.1.2. Administration of the Test

    2.3.2. Student Questionnaire

        2.3.2.1. Description of the Student Questionnaire

        2.3.2.2. Administration of the Student Questionnaire

2.4. Data Analysis

2.4.1. Analysis of the Listening Comprehension Test

2.4.2. Analysis of the Student Questionnaire

    2.4.2.1. Metacognitive Listening Comprehension Strategies

    2.4.2.2. Cognitive Listening Comprehension Strategies

    2.4.2.3. Socio-Affective Listening Comprehension Strategies

2.4.3. Analysis of the Relationship between Students Listening Comprehension Strategies Use and Their Listening Comprehension Levels

2.5. Data Discussion

2.5.1. The Use of Listening Comprehension Strategies by EFL Students

2.5.2. The Correlation between Listening Comprehension Strategies Use and Listening Comprehension Levels

2.5.3. The Difference between Skilled and Less Skilled Listeners

Conclusion

Introduction

The previous part of this study has casted light on the theoretical aspects of the nature of listening comprehension in language teaching and learning and listening comprehension strategies. This chapter, however, is exclusively devoted to present the practical field work which aims at investigating EFL students' listening comprehension strategies use and its relation with their listening comprehension levels at the University of Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia. This chapter first presents the research methodology employed to inquire about the research issue at hand, and it encompasses: setting, population and sampling, data collection procedures namely a listening test and a questionnaire and research limitations. Then it presents the results yielded from student listening test and student questionnaire. Finally, it discusses the most significant findings obtained.

2.1. Setting

The present study was carried out within the Algerian EFL context, precisely at the University of Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia, Jijel. It was conducted in the second semester of the academic year 2018/2019.

2.2. Population and Sampling

The study casts light on the population of second year EFL learners studying at the department of English at the University of Mohammed Seddik ben Yahiya. Basically, a total of 44 students were solicited to participate in this study based on random selection from approximately (188) students. The rationale behind selecting second year students to be under scrutiny is the fact that they have spent two years attending oral classes. Supposedly, they are expected to be more aware of their listening strengths and weaknesses, and the fact that being

successful listeners depends on the efforts they make and the listening strategies they employ in order to facilitate the listening process.

2.3. Data Collection Procedures

In order to test the earlier stated hypothesis; if EFL learner uses the appropriate listening comprehension strategy then his/her listening comprehension will be higher, two research instruments, namely, a listening test and a student questionnaire were used.

2.3.1. The Listening Test

The listening test is primarily adapted from the test of English as a foreign language (TOEFL) due to its validity and reliability. More specifically, this test is adapted from the listening section in "Practice Test 3". Recorded materials in this listening part include four lectures, each lecture lasts from 3-6 minutes and encompasses 6 questions, and two conversations each one is about 3 minutes long and encompasses 5 questions. Giving that the listening test lasts for 60 to 90 minutes. However, only two tracks were used due to the time limit. The aim behind conducting the listening test is to measure the listeners' ability to understand spoken English in an academic context as well as to prompt them to reflect on their listening comprehension strategies while completing the questionnaire.

2.3.1.1. Description the Listening Test

The listening test constructed for this study is comprised of two listening passages the first one is a short conversation between a student and a receptionist at the registrar's office on the first day of the semester, it lasts for nearly three minutes, and the second one is a part of a lecture in film history class it lasts for nearly six minutes. They were cautiously selected and revised to make sure that they do not contain any complex terminology that could make the comprehension of the lecture extremely challenging to the students, taking

into account their level. As far the measurement of the students' comprehension of the listening passages is concerned, the test is made up of two parts each part contains five questions with four potential choices. Concerning part one, Q1 is a "Gist-purpose question" i.e. it seeks to examine how well students are in catching the general purpose of conversation, Q2 is "a Connecting content question" i.e. it requires the integration of the information presented in the listening piece to answer it, Q3 and Q4 are "Detailed questions" which requires the learners to remember explicit details and facts from the conversation and Q5 is "an Understanding the function of what is said question" i.e. understanding the pragmatic meaning of what is said. Concerning part two, Q1 is "Gist-purpose question", Q2 is "a Connecting content question", Q3 is "a Detailed questions", Q4 is "an Understanding Organization question" and Q5 is "an Understanding the function of what is said question.

2.3.1.2. Administration of the Listening Test

Since it was almost impossible to call all the 44 students to sit for the listening test at once in a language laboratory; where only 30 seats were available and the remaining have been used by teachers. Its implementation was conducted in two sessions; one on May 23, 2019 and one on May 24, 2019, each session lasted for about half an hour. The test worksheets were distributed to the learners, and then the researchers explained the test carefully along with its requirements to the students. First, participants are asked to listening to the conversation and answer Q1 to Q4 in part one, allotted from 7 to 8 minutes to go over the questions and answer them. Next, they were asked to listen again to a part of a conversation to answer Q5 allotted 1 minute to answer it. After that, participants were asked to listen to a part of a lecture and answer Q1 to Q4 in part two, allotted from 7 to 8 minutes to go over the questions and answer them. Finally, they were asked to listen again to a part of lecture and answer Q5, they were given from 1to 2 minutes to answer it.

2.3.2. The Students Questionnaire

The questionnaire, as the second research tool, is used to elicit quantitative data from participants to confirm or disconfirm the already set hypothesis. To illustrate it is used to elicit more insightful information from students about their awareness and use of the listening comprehension strategies.

2.3.2.1. Description of Students' Questionnaire

The questionnaire was first developed by Lee (1997) and modified by Ho (2006) (as cited in Golchi 2012) and then by Golchi (2012), he added some more strategies to it based on Vandergrift's (1997, 2003) cognitive and metacognitive listening strategy classification and O'Malley and Chamot's (1990) language learning strategy. The questionnaire is made up of thirty four statements, arranged in three sections; section one consists of 10 statements (1 to Q9). The second section consists of 20 statements (Q11 to Q30) associated with cognitive listening comprehension strategies, whereas the third section consists of 5 (Q31 to Q35) statements associated with socio-affective listening comprehension strategies, combination of eleven questions (Q1 to Q11). It is primarily a five point likert-scale ranging from (strongly disagree) to (strongly agree).

2.3.2.2. Administration of Students' Questionnaires

The questionnaire was distributed to the population after the completion of the listening test to help learners reflect on their listening comprehension strategies they use in the listening test. Hence the questionnaire was distributed to the first group on May 23, 2019, and to the second group on May 24 2019. Students were given 10 to 15 minutes to complete the listening comprehension questionnaire.

2.4. Data Analysis

This part provides essentially the analysis and the results generated by means of the listening comprehension test and the students' questionnaires. The statistical package for social sciences or SPSS in short was used to analyze students' answers, and equally reported them in tables and presented them through numbers or percentages, so that the researchers can easily understand the result.

2.4.1. Analysis of the Listening Comprehension Test Results

This part displays the results of the listening test; the participants took a diagnostic test to assess their listening comprehension level. The test was divided into two parts, in the first part the researchers made use of one recorded conversation followed by five comprehension questions and in the second part they made use of one recorded lecture followed by five comprehension questions. Basically, the total score of the test was 10 points, and marks were given based on the corresponding choices they chose.

Through the analysis of the test, the researcher could distinguish between successful and unsuccessful listeners. The following table presents the test scores**.**

Table 1

The Students Listening Comprehension Test Scores

Scoring	N	Percentage%
3	2	4.55
4	3	6.81
5	5	11.36
6	10	22.73
7	10	22.73
8	12	27.27
10	2	4.55

As demonstrated in table 1, it can be concluded that 39 students representing the percentage of 88.64% had average, good and very good scores; this implies that they succeed in comprehension and they have good performance, except for 5 students (11.36%) who had poor and very poor scores.

Table 2:

Descriptive Statistics of the Listening Comprehension Test

N	Valid	44
	Messing	00
Mean		6.57
Median		7.00
Mode		8.00
Std. Deviation		1.605
Minimum		3
Maximum		10

As it is plainly shown in the above table, the results reveal that the level of participants in this test ranges between average good and very good. While the median is 7, the most frequently occurring score was 8. In this context, the best score was 10 and the lowest was 3.

To put it in a nutshell, the results generated through the analysis unveil that the overwhelming majority of students could relatively comprehend the listening texts.

2.4.2. Analysis of Student Questionnaires

This part provides essentially the analysis and the results generated by means of the student questionnaire.

2.4.2.1. Section one: Metacognitive strategies

Q1: before listening, I read over what we have to do

Table 3:

The Use of the Advanced Organization strategy

	N	Percentage %
Disagree	10	22.7
Agree	18	40.9
Strongly agree	16	36.4
Total	44	100
Mean	3,91	

The results from table 3 show that the majority (77.3%) of students acknowledged that they have a final goal and a plan in mind for how they can successfully listen to the listening text. However, five students (22.7%) reported that they do not make any plans or set any objectives before the listening task.

Q2: while I am listening, I pick out the words that are familiar to me and ignore unfamiliar ones

Table 4:

The Use of Directed Attention Strategy

	N	%
Strongly disagree	3	6.8
Disagree	6	13.3
Neutral	3	6.8
Agree	27	61.4
Strongly agree	5	11.4
Total	44	100
Mean	3.57	

The table 4 shows that, most students 32 (72.8%) strongly agreed and agreed with the statement: while I am listening, I pick out the words that are familiar to me and ignore unfamiliar ones, meaning that they maintain their attention through focusing on words they know and ignore unknown and irrelevant ones, while 9 (20.1%) disagreed and strongly disagreed with this statement, meaning that, they do not use such strategy.

Q3: while I am listening, I focus on key words

Table 5:

The Use of Selective Attention Strategy

	N	%
Strongly disagree	3	6.8
Disagree	3	6.8
Agree	19	43.2
Strongly agree	19	43.2
Total	44	100
Mean	4.09	

The table (5) demonstrates that while 38 students (86.4%) focus on specific information presented in the listening test, only 6 (13.6%) reported that they did not focus on any particular information, meaning that they listen to every single detail given by the speaker.

Q4: while I am listening, I ignore noise and environment that surrounds me and focus only on the content I'm listening to.

Tables 6:

The Use of Self-Management Strategy

	N	%
Strongly disagree	2	4.5
Disagree	4	9.1
Neutral	5	11.4
Agree	11	25
Strongly agree	22	50
Total	44	100
Mean	4.07	

Students' responses show that the vast majority of them (75%) reported the use of self-management strategy to increase and recover their concentration once they lose it. However 13.6% of them reported their disagreement with the use of this strategy.
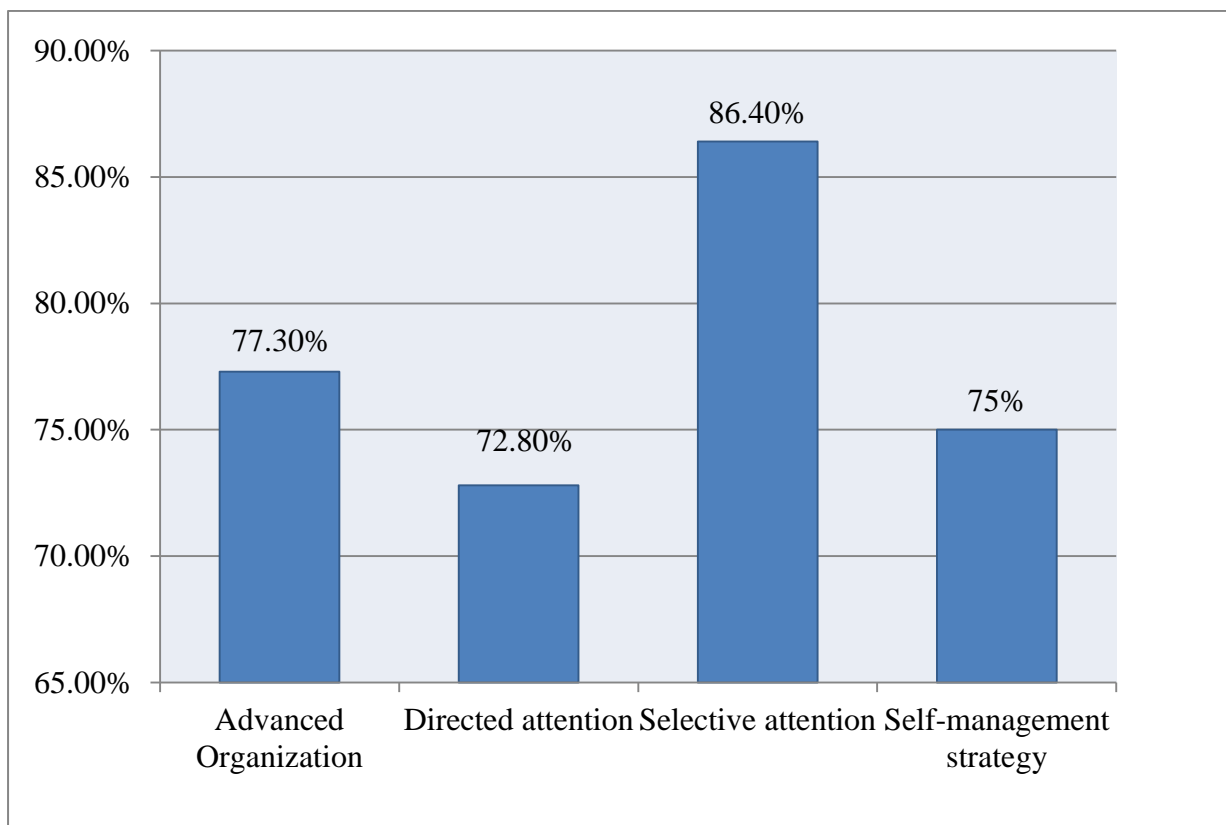
Figure 1: *Planning Strategies*

The results from figure 1 show that the majority of students admitted that they relatively plan for how can successfully listen to the listening text (statements1), directed attention towards the task demands (statement 2), deciding in prior to focus on specific information (statement 3) and look for conditions that help them successfully fulfill the listening tasks (statement 4) represented (77.3%), (72.8%), (86.4%) and (75%) respectively. Consequently, students reported they relatively use planning strategies while attending the listening task.

Q5: after listening, I look up dictionary to check my comprehension.

Table 7:

The Use of Comprehension Monitoring Strategy

	N	%
Strongly disagree	1	2.3
Disagree	5	11.4
Neutral	6	13.6
Agree	14	31.8
Strongly agree	18	40.9
Total	44	100
Mean	4.07	

As it is shown in the above table, 72.7% of students acknowledge that they first guess the meaning of words, and then they think again to check if their predictions make sense. However, 13.7% reported that they do not do so.

Q6: I use the sound of words and relate them to other words I know

Table 8:

The Use of Auditory Monitoring strategy

	N	%
Strongly disagree	4	9.1
Disagree	11	25
Neutral	8	18.2
Agree	18	40.9
Strongly agree	3	6.8
Total	44	100
Mean	3.11	

Table 7 demonstrates that a significant number (21) of respondents representing (47.7%) of them pay attention to the pronunciation of words to figure out their meaning, in the other hand 34.1% of them stated that they do not pay attention to how words sound. Meaning that, not all participants rely on the auditory monitory strategy to make decisions about the meaning of words.

Q7: while I am listening, I occasionally ask myself if I am satisfied with the level of my comprehension

Table 9

The Use of Double Check Monitoring Strategy

	N	%
Strongly disagree	2	4.5
Disagree	4	9.1
Neutral	7	15.9
Agree	8	18.2
Strongly agree	23	52.3
Total	44	100
Mean	4.05	

Concerning the use of double check monitoring strategy, 25 of participants representing 56.8% confirm that they look over their comprehension across the task whereas 12 (27.5%) hold that they do not revise their comprehension during the listening process.
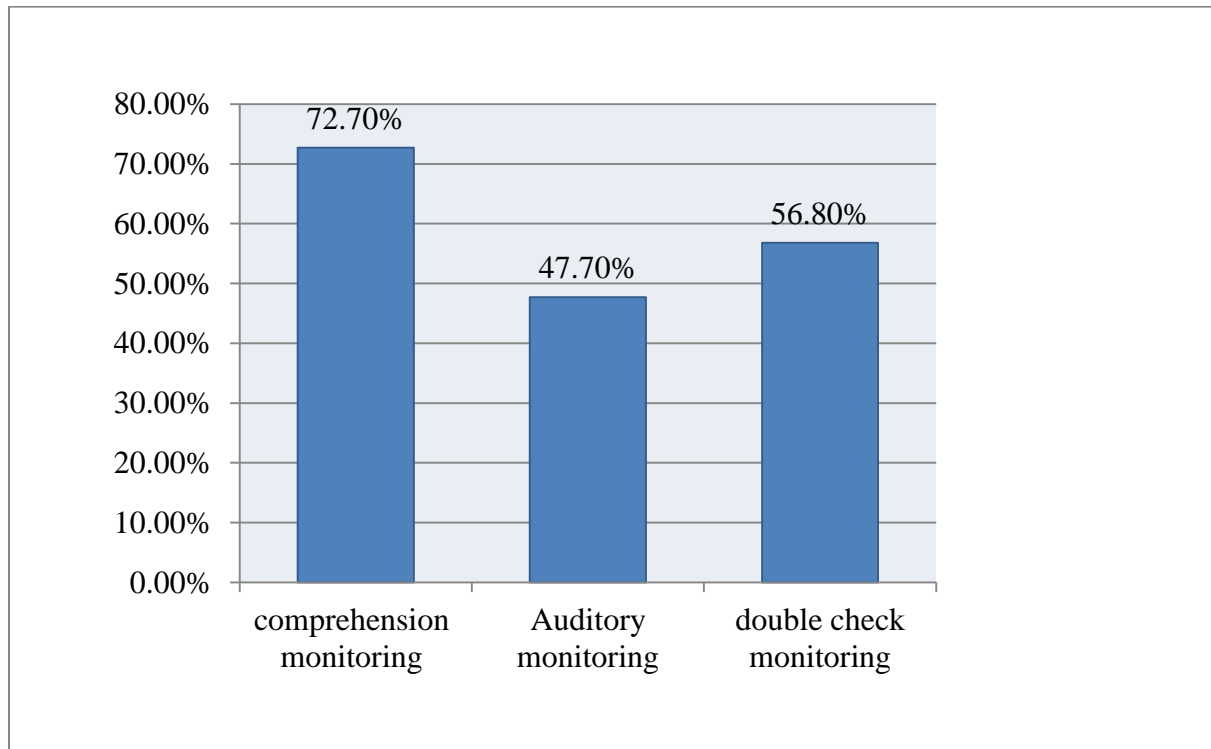
Figure 2: The Use of Monitoring Strategies

Students' responses show that the majority of them reported the use of strategies to check, or correct their comprehension at the local level or across the task (statements 5, 6, 7). As it is shown in figure 2 comprehension monitoring represent the highest percentage (72.7%), followed by auditory monitoring (47.7%) and the least use strategy was double check monitoring (56.8%).

Q8: after listening, I self-evaluate how I listened, and how I will listen next time

Table 10

The Use of Performance and Evaluation Strategy

	N	%
Strongly disagree	2	4.5
Disagree	4	9.1
Neutral	6	13.6
Agree	11	25
Strongly agree	21	47.7
Total	44	100
Mean	4.02	

As indicated in the above table, the great majority of students 72.7% (30) confirmed that they do judge their outcomes and their strategy use and its effectiveness after the task completion. Assumingly, the reason behind this is attributed to the fact that they need to know their comprehension levels in the actual listening task accordingly they know their strengths and weaknesses. Others (12 students, 27.3%) reported that they do not check their outcomes. Accordingly, it can be deduced that, most participants are aware of the importance of evaluation strategy in the listening comprehension process.

Q9: I explicitly identifying the central point that need resolution

Table 11

The Use of Problem Identification Strategy

	N	%
Strongly disagree	1	2.3
Disagree	11	25
Neutral	9	20.5
Agree	21	47.7
Strongly agree	2	4.5
Total	44	100
Mean	3.27	

As the answers demonstrate in table 11, students' results indicate that most of them 23 (70.2%) use problem solving strategy to identify problems that hinder the successful completion of the task. In contrast, only 12 (27.3%) of students showed their disagreement with the use of this strategy.
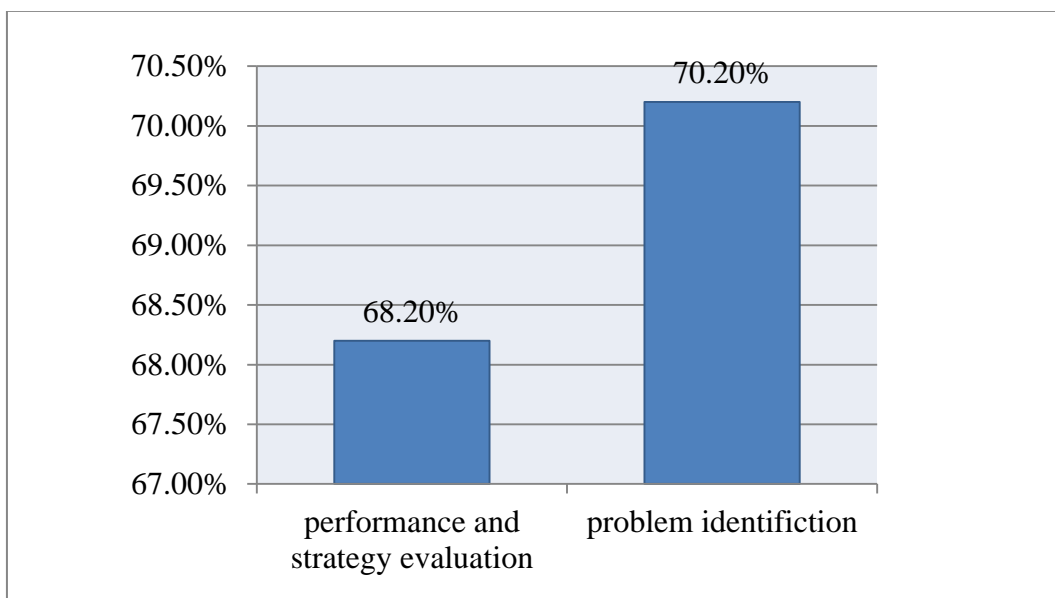
Figure 3: The Use of Evaluation Strategy

Based on the results shown in the above figure, the vast majority of students (68.2%) and (70.2%), tend to evaluate their performance in the listening task and the effectiveness of listening strategies they employed, and then explicitly identify problems they encounter either with the listening text or with the task of listening. Thus most participants are aware of the importance on evaluation strategies in the task of listening.
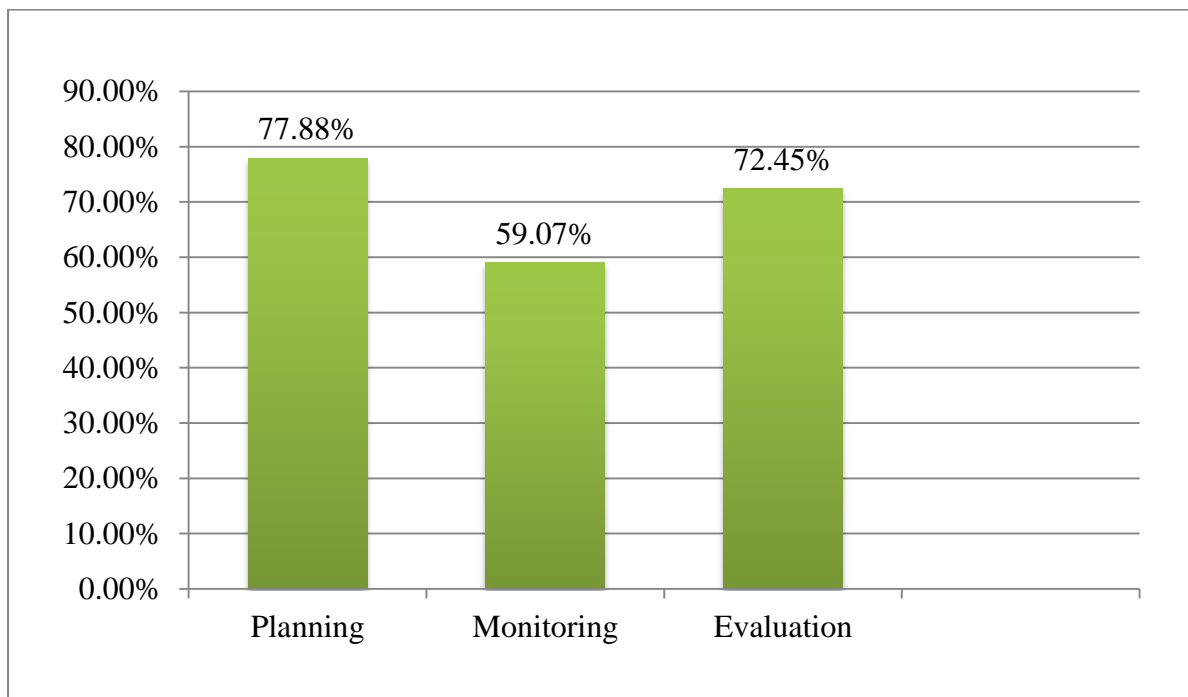
Figure 4: The Use of Metacognitive LCSs

Putting all together, the above figure (4) illustrates data related to students' metacognitive LCSs use. As it is clear from their responses, the majority of students report they relatively use planning (77.88%) which represent the highest percentage followed by, evaluation strategies (72.45%) and monitoring (59.07%) while listening, hence, they are aware of the importance and the crucial role of the metacognitive LCSs strategies in facilitating the process of listening.

2.4.2. Section Two: Cognitive Listening Comprehension Strategies

Q10: I go back to the words I understand to guess the meaning of the words I do not understand.

Table 12

The Use of Linguistic Inferencing Strategy

	N	%
Strongly disagree	1	2.3
Disagree	4	9.1
Neutral	4	9.1
Agree	26	59.1
Strongly agree	9	20.5
Total	44	100
Mean	3.86	

The results show that, linguistic inferencing was highly used by participants. To illustrate, while 35 (79.6%) of participants agreed on using words they do know to guess the meaning of unfamiliar words, 7 (15.9%) of them reported their disagreement with this strategy.

Q11: I pay attention to the speaker's tone of voice, and intonation to comprehend unknown words

Table13

The Use of Voice and Paralinguistic Inferencing Strategy

	N	%
Strongly disagree	2	4.5
Disagree	12	27.3
Neutral	4	9.1
Agree	16	36.4
Strongly agree	10	22.7
Total	44	100
Mean	3.45	

As shown above, 59.1% of participants which represent the majority of them reported that they use paralinguistic features such as tone of voice and intonation to assist

them in the comprehension of unfamiliar words. By contrast, 31.8% of them admitted that they do not rely on speaker's tone voice and paralinguistic features in predicting the meaning of unknown expressions.

Q12: I pay attention to the speaker's eye contact, facial expression and gestures to understand unknown words

Table 14

The Use of Kinesic Inferencing Strategy

	N	%
Strongly disagree	1	2.3
Disagree	7	15.9
Neutral	7	15.9
Agree	21	47.7
Strongly agree	8	18.2
Total	44	100
Mean	3.64	

It is clear from table 14 that, most students 29 (65.9%) predict the meaning of unfamiliar words through the use of speaker's eye contact, facial expression and gestures as a means of kinesic inferencing strategy since they selected strongly agree and agree choices and the minority 10 (18.2%) of them selected disagree and strongly disagree choices, meaning that they do not pay attention to such details.

Q13: I use background sounds and relationship between speakers to guess the meaning of unknown words

Table 15

The Use of Extra-Linguistic Inferencing Strategy

	N	%
Strongly disagree	1	2.3
Disagree	9	20.5
Neutral	8	18.2
Agree	19	43.2
Strongly agree	7	15.9
Total	44	100
Mean	3.50	

Students' responses show that the majority of them 59.1% (26) acknowledged that they guess the meaning of unknown words on the basis of background sounds and the relationship between speakers. In the other side, 22.8% (16) of them reported that they do not do so.

Q14: I try to use information beyond the sentence level to guess the meaning of unknown words

Table 16

The Use of Between Parts Inferencing Strategy

	N	%
Strongly disagree	1	2.3
Disagree	6	13.6
Neutral	6	13.6
Agree	29	65.9
Strongly agree	2	4.5
Total	44	100
Mean	3.57	

As it can be seen from table (16), students' results indicate the use of between parts inferencing strategy. As it is clear from their responses 70.4% of participants confirm that

they use information beyond the sentence level to help them comprehend the text better, whereas, 15.9% of them reported their disagreement.
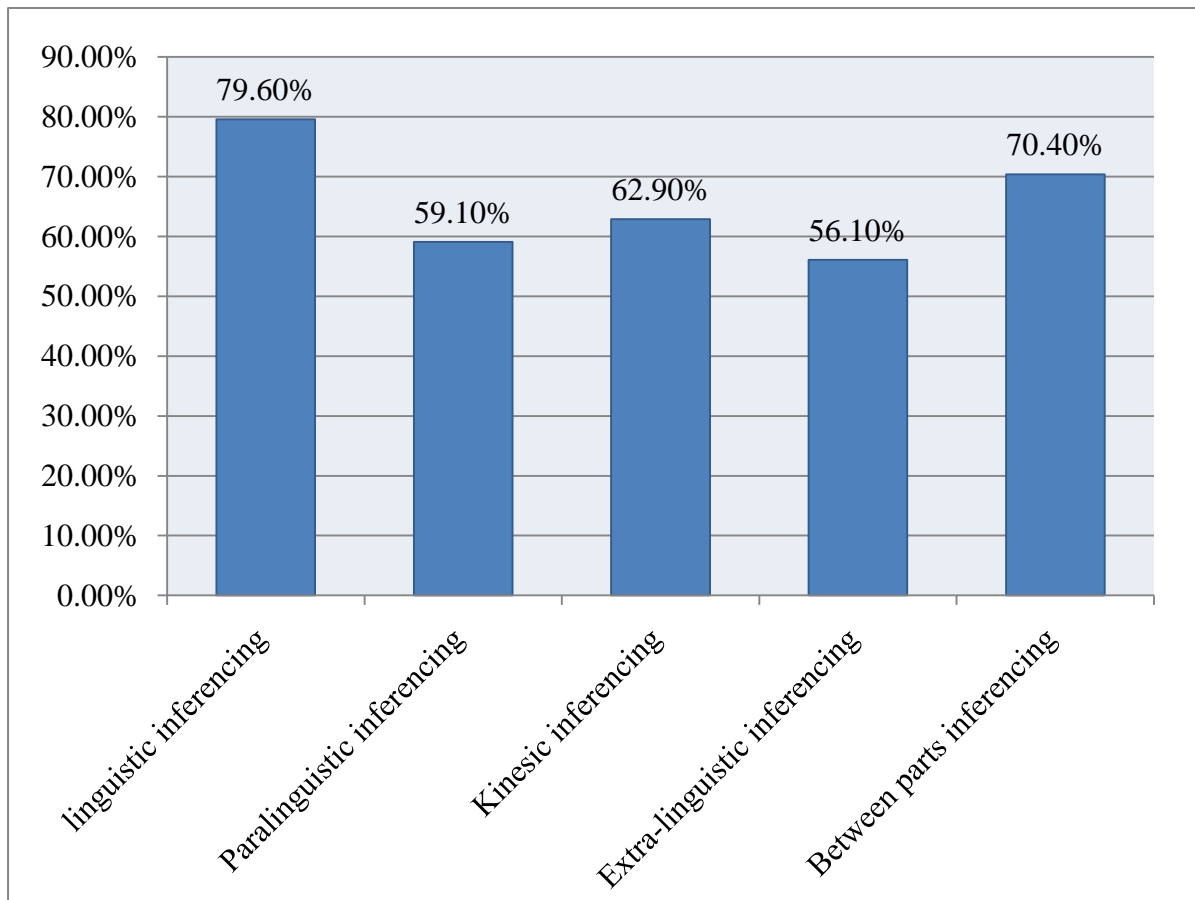
Figure 5: *The Use of Inferencing Strategies*

Figure 5 illustrate the use of inferencing strategies. It clearly shows that linguistic inferencing was said to be the dominant strategy (79.6%) followed by between parts inferencing, then kinesic inferencing (62.9%), next voice and paralinguistic inferencing (59.1%), and the least used strategy was extra-linguistic inferencing such as the relationship between speakers (56.1%).

Q15: I relate the new information to my personal experience and previous knowledge to help me understand

Table 17

The Use of Personal Elaboration Strategy

	N	%
Strongly disagree	1	2.3
Disagree	11	25
Agree	26	59.1
Strongly agree	6	13.6
Total	44	100
Mean	3.57	

The results displayed in table 15, show that 32 (72.7%) of students strongly agreed and agreed with the above statement, meaning that they use their experience to facilitate the comprehension of unfamiliar word. However, 12 (27.3) do not do so.

Q16: while I am listening, I compare what I listen with what I know about the topic

Table18

The Use of World Elaboration Strategy

	N	%
Strongly disagree	1	2.3
Disagree	11	25
Neutral	5	11.4
Agree	19	43.2
Strongly agree	8	18.2
Total	44	100
Mean	3.50	

As presented in the table above the majority of students (61.4%) are comparing what they listen with what they know about the topic to understand the listening comprehension task better. Whereas, the rest of students (27.3%) admitted that they do not use this strategy.

Q17: I relate word to a topic we've studied previously in academic context

Table19

The Use of Academic Elaboration Strategy

	Effectives	%
Strongly disagree	2	4.5
Disagree	14	31.8
Neutral	5	11.4
Agree	19	43.2
Strongly agree	4	9.1
Total	44	100
Mean	3.20	

As it is plainly shown in the above table, 52.3% of students tend to relate words to the topic that they have studied previously in an academic context as a problem solving strategy, while 36.3% of them reported their disagreement with the use of it.

Q18: I use a combination of questions and world knowledge to brainstorm logical possibilities

Table 20

The Use of Questioning Elaboration Strategy

	Effectives	%
Strongly disagree	3	6.8
Disagree	18	40.9
Neutral	6	13.6
Agree	13	29.5
Strongly agree	4	9.1
Total	44	100
Mean	2.93	

LISTENING STRATEGIES USE AND LISTENING COMPREHENSION LEVELS

This table demonstrated that the majority of the students rated by (47.7%) disagree with the use of question elaboration strategy to brainstorm logical possibilities. In the other hand (28.6%) of students agreed on the use of this strategy to arrive at intelligence guesses.

Q19: I make up a story line, to help on the comprehension of the message

Table 21

The Use of Creative Elaboration strategy

	N	%
Strongly disagree	4	9.1
Disagree	25	56.8
Neutral	2	4.5
Agree	13	29.5
Total	44	100
Mean	2.55	

The results of the table 21 show that the most students (65.9%) do not make up a story line to fill in missing information and arrive at a better comprehension of the incoming message. However, 29.5% of them use it a helpful process for understanding the listening text.

Q20: during the process of listening, I image the content I have listened to, and turn it into scenes

Table 22

The Use of Imagining Strategy

	N	%
disagree	10	22.7
Neutral	7	15.9
Agree	18	40.9
Strongly agree	9	25.5
Total	44	100
Mean	3,59	

As it is displayed in this table, 66.4% of the students do imagine the content that they have listened to, and turn it into scenes to better understand it, 38.6% do not agree at all with the use of such strategy.
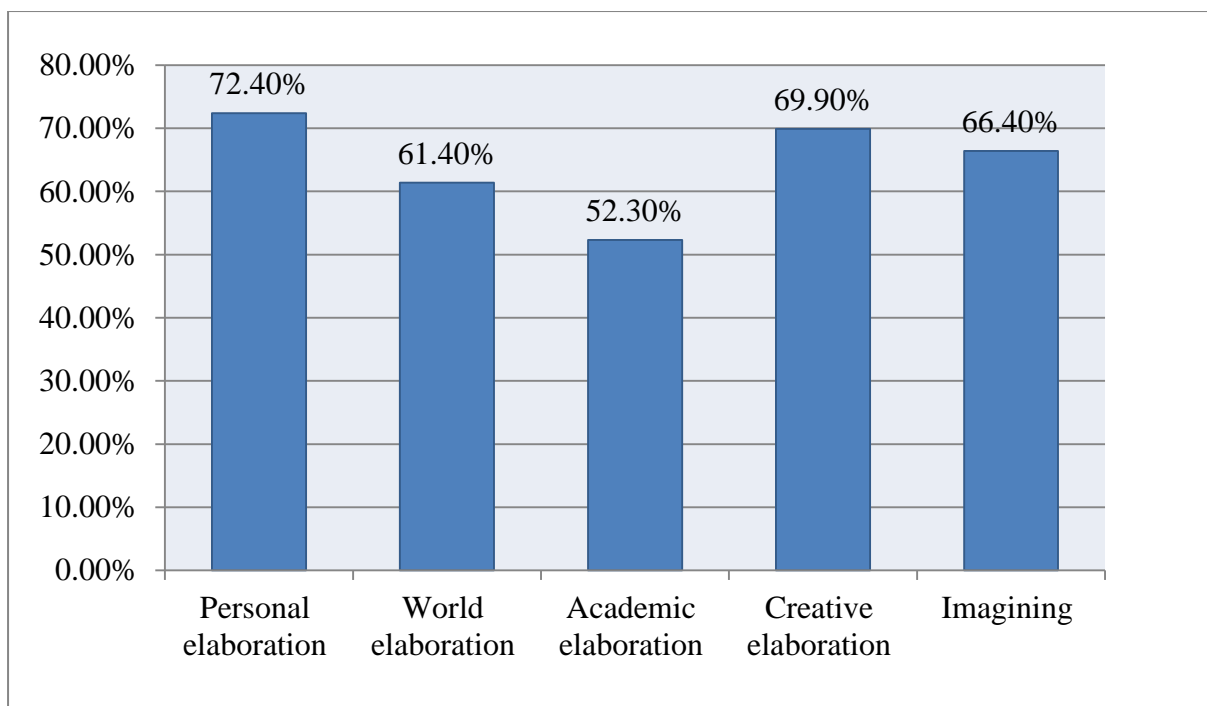
Figure 6: The Use of Elaboration Strategies

Figure 6 is concerned with the use of elaboration strategies; it seems adequate to say that students reported using some elaboration strategies more than others. To illustrate, the

most used strategies were personal elaboration (72.7%), imagining (66.4%) world elaboration

(61.4%), and the least used strategy was academic elaboration (52.3%).

Q21: making a mental or written summary of what I have listened to

Table 23

The Use of Summarization Strategy

	N	%
Strongly disagree	1	2.3
Disagree	11	25
Neutral	4	9.1
Agree	20	45.5
Strongly agree	8	18.2
Total	44	100
Mean	3.52	

As it can be seen in the above table, students' responses show that the majority of

them 63.7% make a written summary of what they have listen to, whereas, 27.3% of them do

not apply this strategy.

Q22: I translate the incoming message into Arabic

Table 24

The Use of Translation Strategy

	N	%
Strongly disagree	5	11.4
Disagree	17	38.6
Neutral	3	6.8
Agree	9	20.5
Strongly agree	10	22.7
Total	44	100
Mean	3.05	

The results from table 25 show that while 43.2% of the students admitted that they translate what they hear in their heads while listening, 50% of them tend to understand the incoming message directly in the target language.

Q23: I use knowledge of my own language to facilitate listening in English (e.g. cognates)

Table 25:

The Use of Transfer Strategy

	N	%
Strongly disagree	2	4.5
Disagree	10	22.7
Neutral	4	9.1
Agree	25	56.8
Strongly agree	3	6.8
Total	44	100
Mean	3.39	

The findings indicate that most of the respondents rated by 63.6% are in favor of using knowledge of their own language to overcome their limited knowledge of English, while, 27.2% of them are not familiar with it.

Q24: while I am listening, I repeat words or phrases softly or mentally

Table 26

The Use of Repetition Strategy

	N	%
Strongly disagree	4	9.1
Disagree	14	31.8
Neutral	3	6.8
Agree	20	45.5
Strongly agree	3	6.8
Total	44	100
Mean	3.09	

The students answers tabulated above indicate that the majority of them repeat words or phrases softly or mentally during listening, their proportion rated by 52.3%. On the other hand, 40.9% of students are not repeating any words.

Q25: if I meet a new word while listening, I will memorize the word's pronunciation as possible as I can, then consult the dictionary for its spelling and meaning

Table 27

The Use of Resourcing Strategy

	N	%
Strongly disagree	1	2.3
Disagree	7	15.9
Neutral	2	4.5
Agree	22	50
Strongly agree	12	27.3
Total	44	100
Mean	3.84	

Generally speaking, the majority of the respondents (78.3%) in the table above confirmed that they do not ignore the new words rather they memorize their pronunciation,

then they look for its spelling and meaning in the dictionary. In the other hand 20.5% of them

neither check its meaning nor its spelling, they just ignore them.

Q26: I put words that sound the same into groups to help recalling them latter

Table 28

The Use of Grouping Strategy

	N	%
Strongly disagree	3	6.8
Disagree	21	47.7
Neutral	7	15.9
Agree	12	27.3
Strongly agree	1	2.3
Total	44	100
Mean	2.70	

As the table above indicates 29.6% of students agreed on classifying words according to common features like same sounds to help recalling them latter, the great part rated 54.5% do not apply this strategy.

Q27: while I am listening, I write down some ideas and keywords

Table 29

The Use of Note-Taking Strategy

	N	%
Disagree	6	13.6
Neutral	4	9.1
Agree	19	43.2
Strongly agree	15	34.1
Total	44	100
Mean	3.98	

As it is seen in the table 29, the vast majority (87.3%) of the respondents were in favor of writing down main ideas and keywords during the listening process. In contrast 13.6% of those admitted their disagreement with the use of note-taking strategy

Q28: I use linguistic clues to comprehend the unknown words, such as prefixes and suffixes

Table 30:

The Use of Deduction/ Induction Strategy

	N	%
Strongly disagree	4	9.1
Disagree	16	36.4
Neutral	5	11.4
Agree	18	40.9
Strongly agree	1	2.3
Total	44	100
Mean	2.91	

As table 30 shows there is a balance in the students 'answer, i.e., almost the ratios are the same for the students who agree with the use of linguistic clues to comprehend the unknown words (43.2%), and those who do not agree (45.5%).

Q29: 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

Table 31

The Use of Substitution Strategy

	N	%
Disagree	5	11.4
Neutral	2	4.5
Agree	26	59.1
Strongly agree	6	25
Total	44	100
Mean	3.98	

It is clear from the above table that the majority of students (86.1%) when they guess the meaning of a word they revise everything else that they have heard, to see if their guess makes sense or not. However, the minority of students (13.6%) reported that they do not use this strategy.
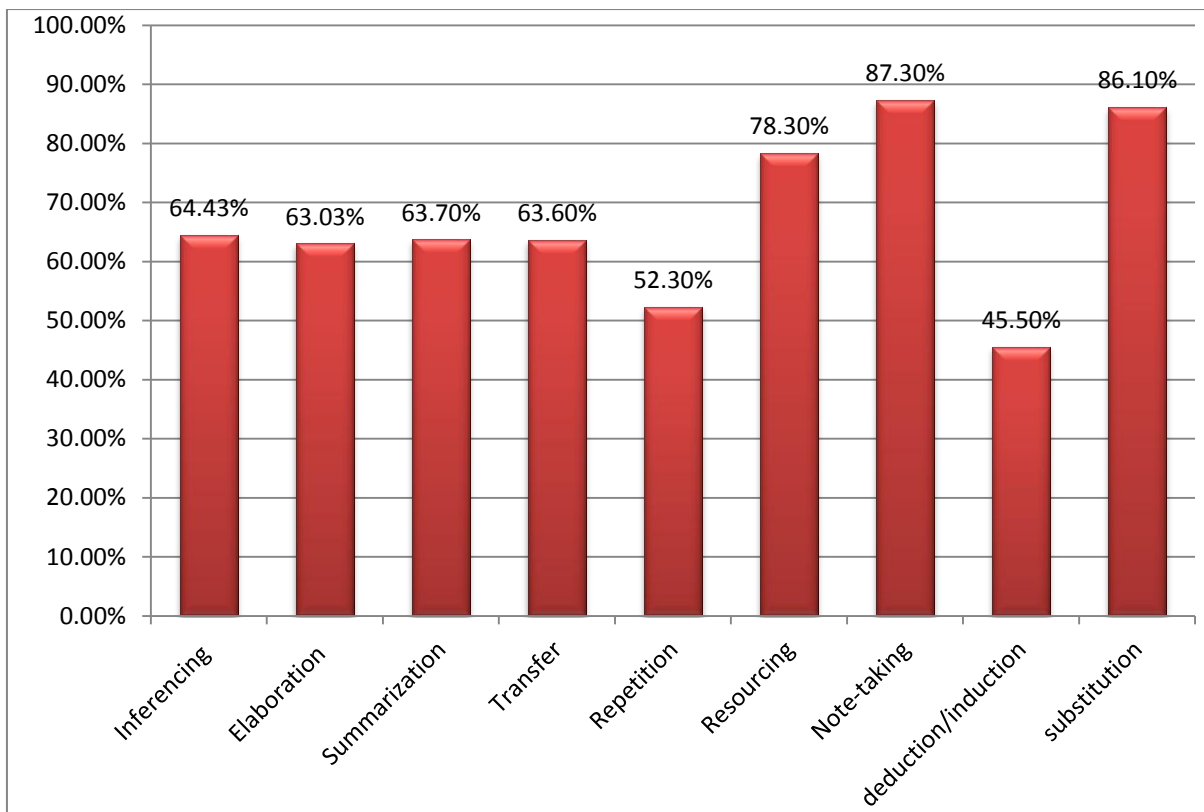
Figure 7: Cognitive Listening Comprehension Strategies Use

In a nutshell, it is plainly shown in the above figure (2), the great majority of students make use of inferencing strategies (64.43%), and elaboration strategies (63.03%). In addition, they admitted the use of summarization (63.7%), transfer (63.6%) repetition (52.3%) and deduction/induction, (45.5%). Moreover, the highest percentage was for the use of resourcing (78.3%), note-taking (87.3%), and substitution strategies (86.1%). Consequently, cognitive LCSs are highly used among participants

2.5.2.3 Section Three: Socio-Affective Listening Comprehension Strategies

Q30: when I have difficulty understanding the incoming message I ask for clarification

Table 32:

The Use of Questioning For Clarification Strategy

	N	%
Strongly disagree	1	2.3
Disagree	7	15.9
Neutral	7	15.9
Agree	23	52.3
Strongly agree	6	13.6
Total	44	100
Mean	3.59	

Most of the students (65.9%) either strongly agreed or agreed with the above statement they ask for more clarification if they face a difficulty to understand the incoming message. 18.2% of students seem to tolerate ambiguity hence they did not ask for further explanation even if they do not understand the speech.

Q31: I discuss unclear items with my friend

Table 33:

The Use of Cooperation Strategy

	N	%
Strongly disagree	3	6.8
Disagree	13	29.5
Neutral	2	4.5
Agree	17	38.6
Strongly agree	9	20.5
Total	44	100
Mean	3.36	

The question at hand is in need of student's answer of whether they discuss unclear items with their friends or they prefer to work alone. Accordingly, 59.1% of students they

prefer to discuss difficult items with their friends, but 36.3% of them prefer to rely on themselves on solving their comprehension problems.

Q32: whenever I feel stressful during the listening task I think of something funny to calm me down

Table 34

The Use of Lowering Anxiety Strategy

	N	%
Strongly disagree	7	15.9
Disagree	19	43.2
Neutral	3	6.8
Agree	9	20.5
Strongly agree	6	13.6
Total	44	100
Mean	2,73	

The table above illustrated that 33.1% of students tend to use some techniques like thinking of something funny to relax when they feel stressful during the listening task, whereas the majority of them 59.1% are either strongly disagreed or disagreed with the use of this type of LCS.

Q33: I encourage myself through positive self-talk during the listening task

Table 35:

The Use of Self-Encouragement Strategy

	N	Percentage %
Disagree	5	11.5
Neutral	3	6.8
Agree	21	47.7
Strongly agree	15	34.1
Total	44	100
Mean	4,05	

As indicated in table 35, the vast majority of the respondents (81.8%) when they have difficulty in the listening task they encourage themselves through positive self-talk during, whereas 11.5% of them admitted that they do not use self-encouragement strategy.

Q34: I discuss my experience or feeling of listening with my classmates

Table 36

The Use of Taking emotional temperature strategy

	N	%
Strongly disagree	2	4.5
Disagree	18	40.9
Neutral	5	11.4
Agree	14	31.8
Strongly agree	4	9.1
Total	44	100
Mean	3,00	

As the answers demonstrated in table 36 above, the great majority of students (45.4%) are whether strongly disagreed or disagreed with sharing their experiences or

feelings of listening with their classmates. 40.9.8% of students are either agreed or strongly agreed with the use of this strategy.
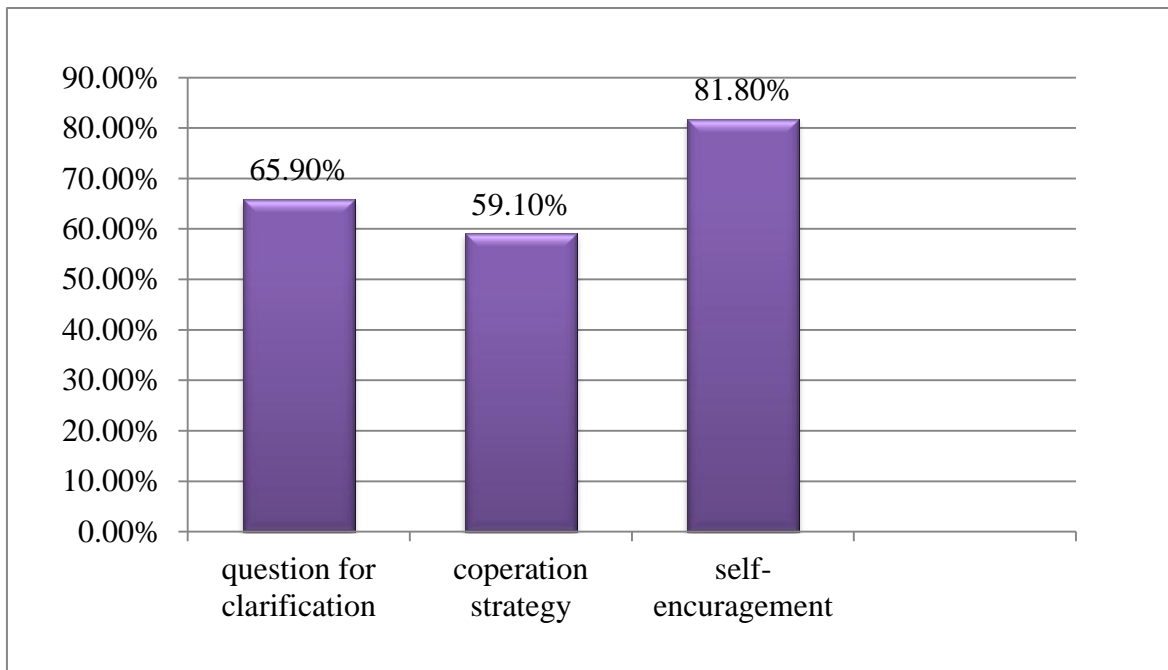
Figure 8*: Socio-Affective Strategy Use*

The above figure illustrates data related to socio-affective strategies use. It is clear from the results that the majority of students acknowledge the use of question for clarification strategy (65.90%), cooperation strategy (59.1%), and self-encouragement strategy (81.8%) which was the most frequently used strategy, to overcome problems they may encounter during the listening activity. Thus the great majority of students are familiar with socio-affective strategies and its crucial role in the listening comprehension process.
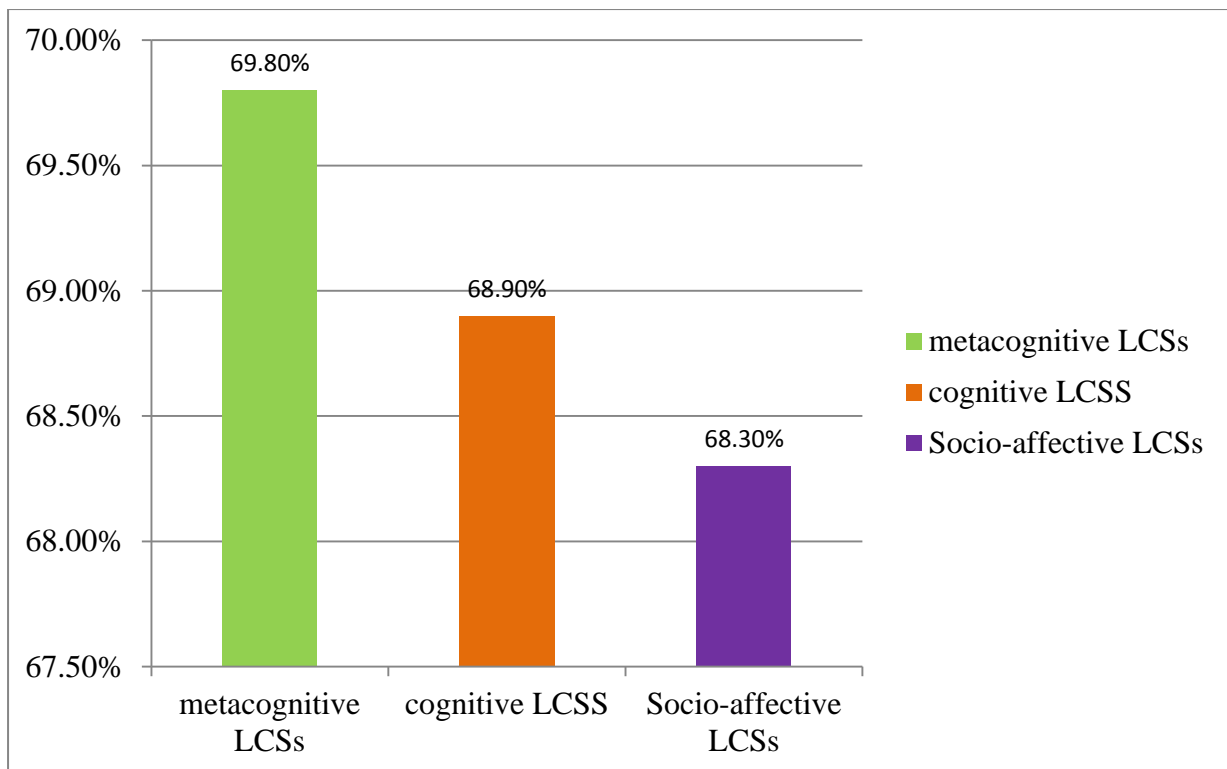
Figure 9: Listening Comprehension Strategies Use

Putting all together, the above figure illustrates the use of listening comprehension strategies by students. It is clearly shown that the metacognitive LCSs were the dominant strategy (69.80) followed by cognitive strategies (68.9%) and the least used strategies were the socio-affective strategies (68.30%). Consequently, the results indicated that most listeners are aware of the crucial role of the listening comprehension strategies in facilitating their listening comprehension process.

2.4.2.4 The Analysis of the Relationship between Listening Comprehension Strategies and Listening Comprehension Levels

In order to determine whether there was a statistically significant relationship between second year EFL learners listening comprehension strategies use and their listening comprehension achievements. The Pearson correlation was computed.

Table 36

The Pearson Coefficient between Listening Comprehension Strategies Use and Listening Comprehension Levels

Test scores	LCSs	Pearson correlation Coefficient (r)	Two-tailed Significance (p)
	Planning	.614**	.000
	Monitoring	.806**	.000
Mean=6.57	Evaluation	.721**	.000
Std.deviation =1.605	**Metacognitive (total)**	.813**	.000
	Elaboration	**.**383*	.010
	Summarization	.614**	.000
	Translation	-.452-**	.002
	Transfer	-.023-	.884
	Repetition	-.136	.377
	Resourcing	.148	.339
	Grouping	.090	.560
	Note-taking	.588**	.000
	Deduction/induction	-.009	.952
	Substitution	.324*	.032
	Cognitive (total)	.588**	.000
	Question for clarification	.091	.559
	Cooperation	-.202-	.188
	Lowering anxiety	.356*	.018
	Self-encouragement	.335*	.019
	Taking emotional temperature	.114	.465
	Socio-affective (total)	.263	.085
	Total	.742**	.000

The results from the above table imply that there were a statistically meaningful positive strong correlation between listening comprehension strategies use and listening comprehension levels (r= 0.742**, p≤0.01). To illustrate, it is clear from the above table that there is a highly significant positive correlation between test scores and planning (r=0.614**,

p≤0.01), and monitoring (r=0.806** p≤0.01), and evaluation (r= 0.721**, p≤0.01), hence this correlation is evident between test scores and metacognitive strategies (r= 0.813**, p≤0.01).

Also it is clearly shown in the above table that the correlation between test scores is a large positive correlation with inferencing (r=0.604**, p≤0.01), and elaboration (r=0.383*, p≤0.01), summarization (r=0.614**, p≤0.01), and note-taking (r=0.588**, p≤0.01), median positive correlation with elaboration (r=0.383*, p≤0.01), and substitution (r=0.324*, p≤0.01), large negative correlation with translation (r=-0.452-**, p≤0.01), small positive correlation with resourcing (r=0.148, p>0.01), and small negative correlation with repetition (r=0.148, p>0.01). Hence, there is a significant correlation between test scores and cognitive LCSs total (r= 0.551**, p≤0.01).

Concerning the correlation between test scores and socio-affective strategies, the results obtained have shown that there is a median positive correlation between test scores and lowering anxiety (r=0.356*, p≤0.05), and self-encouragement (0.335*, p≤0.05), small positive correlation between test scores and taking emotional temperature (r=0.114, p>0.01), and small negative correlation between test scores and cooperation (r=0.114, p>0.01), hence there is a small correlation between socio-affective LCSs and test scores (r= 0.263, p>0.01). Interestingly, the strength of the correlation between the listening test and metacognitive strategies were also interpreted as strong corresponding to the rule proposed by Cohen (1988) as: r= 0.10 to 0.29 or r=-0.10 to -0.29 shows small correlation; r= 0.30 to 0.49 or r=-0.30 to -0.49 demonstrates median correlation; and r= 0.50 to 1.0 or r= -0.5 to -1.0 indicates large correlation.

Accordingly, the current research statistically suggested that the higher the students' test scores, the more frequent use of LCSs, and the lower students' test scores, the less frequent use of LCSs. What is interesting is that, among all the listening comprehension

strategies, the inter-correlation between, planning, monitoring, evaluation, inferencing, summarization and note-taking and listening comprehension is noticeably high (0.614**, 0.806**, 0.721**, 0.604**, 0.614** and 0.588** respectively). Thus, those students who use planning, monitoring, evaluation, inferencing, summarization and note-taking more are more likely to comprehend better.

2.5. Data Discussion

This section is an attempt to discuss the overall results generated by the two research instruments (the questionnaire, the listening test) on exploring the relation between listening comprehension strategies use and listening comprehension levels. In the light of the current results, a number of findings are drawn, hence, the research questions put forward in this study will be answered. The research tools used in this study sought to answer these questions posed at the initial phase of the study:

1. Do second year EFL students at the University of Mohammed Seddik Benyahia Jijel use listening comprehension strategies? If yes, what are the listening comprehension strategies they use?

2. Is there any correlation between learners' listening comprehension strategies that are used by second year EFL students studying at the university of Mohammed Seddik ben yahia and their listening comprehension levels?

3. Do students with high and low levels of listening comprehension differ in their listening comprehension strategies use?

2.5.1. The use of listening comprehension strategies

The results of this enquiry showed that the frequency use of LCSs is relatively high. Students' answers in the questionnaire proved that the vast majority of students tend to use

LCSs; metacognitive strategies are found to be the most used strategies followed by 'cognitive strategies' and the last one is 'socio-affective' strategies.

Students' questionnaire revealed that metacognitive LCSs are highly used by learners. Among the three main categories of metacognitive strategies, 'planning' is ranked the first in terms of its frequency followed by 'evaluation', and the remaining is 'monitoring'. It is noteworthy that students' ability to plan beforehand, focus and manage their attention, check their comprehension, and evaluate their performance on the listening task is an indispensable strategies that enable listeners to control or regulate comprehension processes that occur at different levels with lightning speed during the listening task.

Students' questionnaires revealed also that students did use cognitive listening comprehension strategies to overcome the problems they encounter when listening to English. Among cognitive LCSs students resort to is to use available information or prior knowledge from outside the listening text to predict the meaning or usage of unfamiliar words, making a written or mental summary of the information presented in the listening text, translate the incoming message into their native language, sound out words as they listen, use the knowledge of their language to facilitate listening in the other, using available reference sources of information such as dictionaries, deducing rules, write key words, in addition to the use of the general idea of the listening topic to guess the meaning of unknown words.

As pointed in the literature, it is necessary for learner to know how to reduce the anxiety, feel confident during listening tasks, and raise personal motivation in enhancing the listening ability (Vandergrift, 1997). Based on students' questionnaires it was concluded that the majority of students proved that when they have difficulty understanding the incoming message they either ask for clarification (65.90%), or work with their friends on it (59.1%), moreover they motivate themselves through positive talk (81.8%).

2.5.2. The Correlation between Listening Comprehension Strategies Use Strategies Use and Students' Listening Compression Levels

The investigation of whether there is a relationship between the use of LCSs and students' listening comprehension levels is the main reason behind conducting this research work. Giving that the high scores of the students in the listening test are good indicators of their comprehension, Pearson coefficient detected strong positive correlations between certain LCSs and the higher scores obtained on the listening test. Hence, students who get high scores on the listening test will return high usage of LCSs such as, metacognitive LCSs (planning, monitoring and evaluation), cognitive LCSs (inferencing, elaboration, summarization, note-taking and so on forth) and socio-affective LCSs (lowering anxiety and self-encouragement). These findings accord with those of Yulisa (2018) who reported that all students' listening strategies gave significant correlation to students listening comprehension. As far as the hypotheses is concerned, which assumes that the listening comprehension level of second year EFL learners will be higher if they use the appropriate LCSs; since findings and results collected from the listening test and the LCSs questionnaire showed that there is a positive significant correlation between LCSs and listening comprehension level, it can be said then, that the hypotheses is confirmed.

2.5.3. The Difference between skilled and less skilled Listeners

Based on Pearson coefficient output, we concluded that listeners with high scores used listening comprehension strategies such as metacognitive strategies (planning, monitoring and evaluation) , along with inferencing, summarization note-taking, so on and so forth, meaning that they focus more on the incoming message. However, listeners with low scores, in the other hand focused more on translation which appeared to be an inefficient strategy that needs to be avoided once learners become proficient listeners (Vandergrift,

2003), in addition they used transfer and cooperation strategies; hence they focused more on single words and their knowledge as well. Consequently, there was a significant difference between skilled and less skilled listeners in term of listening comprehension strategies use.

Conclusion

This chapter represents the practical part of the study. It was primarily concerned with discussing and bringing the major findings to the fore. The results from the two research instruments used in this research work revealed that second year EFL students reported a high frequency use of LCSs, which in turn maximize their listening comprehension levels.

General conclusion

1. Putting it altogether

2. Pedagogical Recommendations

3. Limitation of the study

4. Suggestions for Further Research

General Conclusion

1. Putting All Together

The present study aimed at investigating the relationship between listening comprehension strategies use and the listening comprehension levels. This study is made up of two chapters. The first chapter which is the theoretical part comprises two sections. The first section reviews the definition and the nature of listening comprehension, and how it is best taught and assessed. The second section deals with listening comprehension strategies and their importance in facilitating the listening comprehension process. As far as the second chapter is concerned, it represented the field work of the study, it first expounds on the methodology used in this research work, and then it presents and analyzed the results yielded by means of student questionnaires and the listening comprehension test. Finally it presents the overall results and discussed them in accordance with the research questions put forward in this study.

Concerning the main findings of this humble study, it was found that second year EFL students employ a number of listening comprehension strategies during the listening task, such as metacognitive and cognitive strategies which facilitate the processing and comprehension of the listening test. This result, basically, revealed that there is a significant correlation between listening comprehension strategy use and students' listening comprehension levels. Accordingly, it proved the validity of the hypothesis put forward in this study.

2. Pedagogical Recommendations

Based on the reported findings, we concluded that students are not aware of the effectiveness of some strategies like planning monitoring and evaluation, in addition they found to overuse some strategies that are no less than ineffective like mental translation strategies. Thus some pedagogical recommendations are put forward

- Teachers should familiarize their students with the different types of the listening comprehension strategies viz, metacognitive, cognitive, and socio-affective strategies.

- Students are required to balance between the use of listening comprehension strategies categories and even self-select the appropriate ones that fit the task at hand.

- Teachers are highly recommended to provide their students with some strategy training so that to have a maximum benefit from listening comprehension strategies, accordingly, they assist them in the listening comprehension task.

- Teachers are also recommended to emphasis on how to engage learners in listening activities to improve their students' comprehension and performance through strategy instruction.

3. Limitation of the Study

Although this research work was carefully conducted and it has reached its aim, there were a number of unavoidable constraints which will run as follows:

- This study was confined by the time limit for conducting an in-depth investigation.

- The researchers intended to use think-aloud protocol to gather information from students about the use of listening comprehension strategies. However, it was cancelled because of time constraints, and the fact that teachers would be reluctant to be intervened in their sessions each time which will be difficult for them to finish the syllabus

- The researchers attempted to conduct a semi-structured interview with teachers regarding the teaching of listening comprehension strategies to their students and how they assess their students listening comprehension. However, it was dropped due to time constraints given to the researcher to conduct this study.

- Such investigation should have much larger sample of participants to be more successful in generalizing the findings and obtain valid and more reliable results. However, the researchers had to choose the convenient sampling, which does not ensure representativeness; this latter was due to the absence of students because of their hectic schedule.

- Most importantly we encountered some problems during the test administration; it was very hard to find an empty laboratory, in addition to some technical problems with laboratory devices.

4. **Suggestions for Further Research**

On the basis of the remarks yielded from the findings of our research, it is noteworthy to empower future researchers with the following suggestions.

- Saying that we were restricted with time constraint, future researchers should allocate enough time to bring about new insights and improvement.

- It is suggested that researchers have to extend their sample, vary the materials used, consequently, and make the obtained results more valid.

References

Ahmadi, S. M. (2016). The importance of listening comprehension in language learning. *International Journal of Research in English Education*, 1(1), 7-10.

American Psychological Association. (1985)

Anderson, A. & T. Lynch (1988). *Listening.* London: Oxford University Press.

Andrew D.W. Listening and human communication the 21 century. Malaysia: Blackwell Publishing Ltd. (pp. 99-146).

Azmi, B. M., Celik, B., Yidliz, N., & Tugrul, M. C. (2014). Listening comprehension Difficulties encountered by students in second language learning class. *Journal of Educational and Instructional Studies in the World*, 4(4), 1-6.

Bachman, L.F&Palmer,A.S. (1996). *Language testing in practice.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Brown, T. A., Di Nardo, P. A., Lehman, C. L., & Campbell, L. A. (2001). Reliability of DSM-IV anxiety and mood disorders: Implications for the classification of emotional disorders. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology*, 110, 49-58.

Buck, G. (2001). *Assessing listening*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Celce- Murcia M. Teaching English as a second or foreign language. Boston: Heinle and Heinle. (69-85) pp.

Cohen, A. (1998). Strategies in learning and using a second language. London: Longman.

Flowerdew, J., & Millers, L. (2005). *Second language listening*: Theory and practice.

  Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Gilakjani, A. P. (2016). The significance of listening comprehension in English language

  teaching. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 6(8), 1670-1677.

Gilakjani, A. P., & Ahmadi, M. R. (2011). A Study of factors affecting EFL learners' English

  listening comprehension and the strategies for improvement. *Journal of Language

  Teaching and Research*, 2(5).

Goh, C. (2010). *Listening as process: Learning activities for self-appraisal and self -

  regulation.* Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Golchi, M. M. (2012). Listening anxiety and its relationship with listening strategy use and

  listening comprehension among Iranian IELTS learners. *International Journal of English

  Linguistics*, 2 (3)4.

Habte-Gabr, E. (2006). The importance of socio-effective strategies in using EFL for

  teaching mainstream subjects.*The journal of humanizing language teaching*, 8(5), 1-5.

Hamouda, A. (2013). An investigation of listening comprehension problems encountered by

  Saudi students in the EL listening classroom. *International Journal of Academic

  Research in Progressive Educational Development,* 2(4), 113-155.

Harmer, J. (2001). *The practice of English language teaching*. (3rd Ed.). London: Longman.

Yulisa D.Learning to listen: Listening Strategies and Listening Comprehension of Islamic

  Senior High School Students. *Edukasi Pendidikan Dan Pengajaran* 5(1)

Huy, L.H. (2015). An investigation into listening strategies of EFL students. *Asian Journal of

  Educational Research,* 3(4), 21-34

Kök, I. (2017). Relationship between listening comprehension strategy use and listening comprehension proficiency. *International Journal of Listening, 14, 1-17. doi: 10.1080/10904018.2016.1276457*

Macaro, E. (2001). *Learning strategies in foreign and second language classrooms*. London, England: Continuum.

Nation, I. S. P., & Newton, J. (2009). *Teaching ESL/ EFL speaking and listening*. New York: Routledge, Taylor & Francis.

Nunan, D. (1989). *Designing tasks for the communicative classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Nunan, D. (1992). *Research methods in language learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Richard J.C. &. Renandya W. A. . *Methodology in Language Teaching*: An Anthology of Current Practice. New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.

Nunan, D. Gilakjani, A. P., & Ahmadi, M. R. (2011). A Study of Factors Affecting EFL Learners' English Listening Comprehension and the Strategies for Improvement. *Journal of Language Teaching & Research,* 2(5).

O'Malley, J.M. Chamot, A. U., Stewner-Manzanares, G. Russo, R. & Kupper, L. *(*1985). Learning strategy applications with students of English as a foreign language learning, *35 (1), 21-96.*

O'Malley, J. M., Chamot, A. U and Kupper, L. (1989). Listening comprehension strategies in second language acquisition. *Applied linguistics,* 10 (4).

O'Malley, J. & Chamot, A.U. (1990). *Learning strategies in second language acquisition*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

O'sullivan, B., Weir, C., & Savill, N. (2002). Using observation checklist to validate speaking test tasks. *Language testing*, 19(1), 33-36.

Oxford, R. (1990). *Language learning strategies*: What every teacher should know. New York: Newbury House.

Oxford, R. (1993). *Research Update on L2 Listening*. System 21, 205-211.

Oxford, R. (Ed.). (1996). Language learning strategies around the world: Cross-cultural perspectives. Honolulu: University of Hawai'i, *Second Language Teaching and Curriculum Centre.*

Renukadevi, D., (2014). The role of listening in language acquisition. *International Journal of Education and Information Studies*, 4(1), p. 53-63.

Rost, M. (1994). *Introducing Listening*. London: Penguin books.

Rost, M. (2002). *Teaching and researching listening*. London, UK: Longman.

Rost, M. (2013). *Listening in language learning*. Routledge.

Rubin, J. (1987). *Learner strategies*: Theoretical assumptions, research history and typology. In A. Wenden & J. Rubin (Eds.) *Englewood cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall*

Rubin, J. 1994. A review of second language listening comprehension research. *The Modern Language Journal,* 78(2) 199-221.

Vandergrift, L. & Goh, C. M. (2012). *Teaching and learning second language listening*: Metacognition in action. New York, NY: Routledge.

Vandergrift, L. (1997). The comprehension strategies of second language (French) listeners: A descriptive study. *Foreign Language Annals*, 30, 387-409.

Vandergrift, L. (1997). The comprehension strategies of second language (French) listeners: A descriptive study. *Foreign Language Annals,* 30, 387-409.

Vandergrift, L. (1999). Facilitating second language listening comprehension: Acquiring successful strategies. *ELT Journal*, 53(3): 168-76.

Vandergrift, L. (2003). Orchestrating strategy use: Toward a model of the skilled second language listener. *Language Learning*, 53(3), 463-496.

Vandergrift, L. (2007). Recent developments in second and foreign language listening comprehension research. *Language Teaching*, 40, 191-210.

Weir, C.J. (2005). *Language testing and validation*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

White, P. (2008). The potential of using mobile phone to access the internet for learning EFL listening skills within the Korean contex. *ReCALL,* 20(3), 331-347.

Wilson, J. J. (2008). *How to teach listening.* Essex: Pearson Education.

Wipf, J. A. (1984). Strategies for teaching second language listening comprehension. *Foreign Language Annals*, 17(4), 345-348.

Appendix A

The Listening Comprehension Test

Name: ………………………… ……………………………….. **Group:** ……………

Part one: Listen to the conversation, and then answer questions 1 to 4. Tick the right box that corresponds to the right answer.

1. Why does the woman come to the office?

   o   To notify the university of her change of address. ☐

   o   To find out where her physics class is being held. ☐

   o   To get directions to the science building. ☐

   o   To complain about her physics class's being canceled. ☐

2. What happened to the letter the university sent to her?

   o   She threw it away by mistake. ☐

   o   Her roommate forgot to give it to her. ☐

   o   It was sent to her old mailing address. ☐

   o   It was sent to another student by mistake. ☐

3. Why was the woman's physics class canceled?

   o   Not enough students signed up to take the class. ☐

   o   No professors were available to teach the class. ☐

   o   The university changed its requirements for physics students. ☐

   o   There were no classrooms available in the science building at that hour. ☐

4. What does the man suggest the woman do before the beginning of next semester?

○ Consult with her advisor about her class schedule. ☐

○ Check with the registrar's office about the location of the class. ☐

○ Register for her classes early. ☐

○ Call the physics department. ☐

5. Listen again to part of the conversation. Then answer the question below.

What does the man imply when he says this?

○ He knows the physics class has been canceled. ☐

○ He is not sure where the science building is. ☐

○ Many of the room assignments have been changed. ☐

○ The woman can check for herself where her class is. ☐

Part two: listen to part of a lecture in a film history class. Then answer questions 1 to 4 below.

1. What is the main purpose of the lecture?

   ○ To discuss the style of an early filmmaker. ☐

   ○ To describe different types of filmmaking in the 1930s. ☐

   ○ To discuss the emergence of the documentary film. ☐

   ○ To describe Painlevé's influence on today's science-fiction films. ☐

2. Why are Painlevé's films typical of the films of the 1920s and 1930s?

   ○ They do not have sound. ☐

   ○ They are filmed underwater. ☐

   ○ They are easy to understand. ☐

   ○ They are difficult to categorize. ☐

3. According to the professor, how did Painlevé's films confuse the audience?

   o They show animals out of their natural habitat. ☐

   o They depict animals as having both human and animal characteristics. ☐

   o The narration is scientific and difficult to understand. ☐

   o The audiences of the 1920s and 1930s were not used to films shot underwater. ☐

4. Why does the professor mention sea horses?

   o To explain that they were difficult to film in the 199930s. ☐

   o To point out that Cousteau made documentaries about them. ☐

   o To illustrate Painlevé's fascination with unusual animals ☐

   o To explain why Painlevé's underwater films were not successful. ☐

5. Listen again to part of lecture and answer the question

   What does the student imply when he says this?

   o He does not like Jean Painlevé's films. ☐

   o He thinks that the professor should spend more time discussing Jacques Cousteau's film. ☐

   o He believes that high-quality filmmakers are usually well known. ☐

   o He believes that Jean Painlevé's films have been unfairly overlooked. ☐

Appendix B

Students' Questionnaire

Dear students,

This questionnaire serves as a data collection tool for a research work that aims at investigating the relationship between listening comprehension strategies and the listening comprehension levels. Your answers will be of great importance to accomplish this research purpose, and they will be treated anonymously and confidentially. So, you are kindly requested to answer the questions and tick the choice that best corresponds to your opinion. Your collaboration is highly appreciated.

You are kindly requested to tick the answer that corresponds to your degree of agreement.

1. Strongly disagree   2. Agree   3. Neutral   4. Agree   5. Strongly agree

Statements	SD	D	N	A	SA
1. Before listening, I read over what we have to do					
2. While am listening I pick out the words that are familiar to me and ignore unfamiliar ones					
3. While I am listening, I focus on key words					
4. While I am listening, I ignore noise and environment that surrounds me and focus only on the content I'm listening to.					
5. After listening, I look up dictionary to check my comprehension					
6. I use the sound of words and relate them to other words I know					
7. While I am listening, I occasionally ask myself if I am satisfied with the level of my comprehension					
8. After listening, I self-evaluate how I listened, and how I will listen next time.					

9. I Explicitly identify the central point that need resolution					
10. I go back to the words I understand to guess the meaning of the words I do not understand.					
11. I pay attention to the speaker's tone of voice, and intonation to comprehend unknown words					
12. I pay attention to the speaker's eye contact, facial expression and gestures to understand the unknown words					
13. I use background sounds and noise and relationship between speakers to guess the meaning of unknown words.					
14. I use information beyond the sentence level to guess the meaning of unknown words					
15. I relate the new information to my personal experience and previous knowledge to help me understand					
16. While I am listening, I compare what I listen with what I know about the topic					
17. I relate the word to a topic we've studied previously in academic context					
18. I use a combination of questions and world knowledge to brainstorm logical possibilities.					
19. I make up a story line, to help comprehend the message					
20. During the process of listening, I image the content I have listened to, and turn it into scenes					
21. Making a mental or written summary of what I have listened to					
22. I translate the incoming message into Arabic.					
23. I try to use knowledge of my own language to facilitate listening in English(e.g. Cognates)					
24. While I am listening, I repeat words or phrases softly or mentally.					
25. If I meet a new word while listening, I will memorize the word's pronunciation as possible as I can, then consult the dictionary for its spelling and meaning.					
26. I put words that sounds into groups to easily recall them latter					
27. While I am listening, I write down some ideas and keywords					
28. I use linguistic clues to comprehend the unknown words, such as prefixes and suffixes					

29. 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					
30. When I have difficulty understanding what I hear, I ask for repetition					
31. I discuss unclear items with my friend					
32. If I feel stressful, during the listening task I think of something funny to calm me down					
33. I encourage myself through positive self-talk during the listening task					
34. I discuss my experiences or feeling of listening with my classmates					

Résumé

Cette recherche vise à étudier la relation entre l'utilisation des stratégies de compréhension de l'oral et les niveaux de compréhension chez les étudiants. Elle était basée sur l'hypothèse que si les étudiants de deuxième année d'anglais de l'Université Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia utilisent des stratégies d'écoute, leurs niveaux de compréhension seront plus élevés. Pour tester cette hypothèse, deux outils de recherche ont été utilisés, à travers un questionnaire et un test de compréhension audio. Le questionnaire et l'examen audio qui s'adressaient à 44 étudiants de la langue anglaise à l'université Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia de Jijel. Les résultats obtenus ont montré que les étudiants qui ont déclaré qui ils ont utilisé des stratégies de compréhension métacognitives (planification, suivi et évaluation) et certaines stratégies cognitives (inférenciation, élaboration, synthèse, prise de notes et substitution) avaient obtenu des scores élevés au test d'écoute. En conséquence, ces résultats ont révélé qu'il existe une corrélation significative entre les stratégies de compréhension de l'oral métacognitive et cognitive et les niveaux de compréhension de l'oral. Enfin, l'étude souligne la nécessité d'entrainer les étudiants à une formation en stratégies de compréhension de l'oral afin d'éviter l'utilisation de stratégies inefficaces telles que la stratégie de traduction mentale.

Mots-clés: stratégies de compréhension de l'oral, métacognitif, cognitif, socio-affectif, les niveaux de compréhension de l'oral.

ملخص

يهدف هذا البحث إلى اكتشاف العلاقة بين استخدام استراتيجيات الفهم السمعي ومستويات الفهم السمعي للطلاب. حيث اعتمد هذا البحث على فرضية تنص على أنه ادا استخدم طلاب السنة الثانية لغة إنجليزية بجامعة محمد صديق بن يحيى استراتيجيات الفهم السمعي سيرتفع مستوى الفهم السمعي لديهم . لاختبار هذه الفرضية، تم استخدام وسيلتين الا وهما الاستبيان و الاختبار السمعي اللدين تم توجيههما إلى 44 طالبًا يدرسون اللغة الإنجليزية في جامعة محمد صديق بن يحيى ، جيجل. أظهرت النتائج التي تم الحصول عليها أن الطلاب الذين افصحوا عن استخدامهم للاستراتيجيات الميثامعرفية (التخطيط ، مراقبة و توجيه الاداء والتقييم) وبعض الاستراتيجيات المعرفية (كالاستدلال ، التفصيل ، التلخيص ، تدوين الملاحظات والاستبدال) حصلوا على درجات عالية في اختبار الاستماع. وفقا لذلك ، كشفت هذه النتائج أن هناك علاقة استراتيجيات الفهم السمعي الميثامعرفية والمعرفية ومستويات الفهم السمعي. و اخيرا تشير هده الدراسة الى كبيرة بين ضرورة تدريب الطلاب على استراتيجيات الفهم السمعي لمساعدتهم في تخطي الصعوبات التي يواجهونها اثناء الاستماع و بالتالي تجنب استخدام الاستراتيجيات غير الفعالة مثل استراتيجية الترجمة العقلية .

الكلمات المفتاح: استراتيجيات الفهم السمعي ، الميثامعرفية، المعرفية ، مستويات العاطفية ، مستويات الفهم السمعي.