

دراسة في تعزيز ما وراء المعرفة  
في الخطاب الصفّي وأثره في تنمية المفردات  
لدى طلبة الجامعة العراقيين من متعلمي  
اللغة الإنكليزية بوصفها لغة أجنبية

**An Investigation of Classroom Discourse Metacognition  
Enhancement in Developing Iraqi  
EFL College Students' Vocabulary**

م.د. عمر علي حسين العاني  
مديرية تربية ديالى / ثانوية المحسن للبنين

**By: Inst. Omar Ali Hussein Alani (Ph.D.)**

Ministry of Education/General Directorate of Education

Diyala/Iraq

omar.eng29@gmail.com



## المستخلص

يواجه العديد من طلبة الجامعات العراقيين من متعلمي اللغة الإنكليزية بوصفها لغة أجنبية صعوبات في الاحتفاظ بالمفردات واستخدامها في التواصل ذي المعنى؛ ولذلك فإن دراسة آثار الوعي ما فوق المعرفي بالخطاب قد تكشف عن منهج فعال لتعليم المفردات. وتعتمد الكفاءة اللغوية بشكل أساسي على معرفة المفردات. يجمع مفهوم الوعي ما فوق المعرفي بالخطاب بين فكرتين أساسيتين: الوعي والتحكم في العمليات الفكرية الذاتية أثناء الخطاب، سواء في الكتابة أو التحدث. ويشمل التواصل الخطابي استخدام اللغة في الشكليات الكتابية والشفهية. أما التفكير في طريقة التفكير فهو يتضمن عمليتين معرفيتين فائقتين: التخطيط، والتتبع، والتقويم للعمليات المعرفية الخاصة بالفرد. تهدف هذه الدراسة هذا البحث إلى دراسة أثر الوعي ما فوق المعرفي بالخطاب على تنمية المفردات لدى طلبة اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية في المستوى الجامعي، بالإضافة إلى معرفة كيف يؤثر وعي الطلبة بالعمليات المعرفية الفائقة على استخدامهم للمفردات داخل الخطاب. وقد افترضت الدراسة أنه لا توجد علاقة ذات دلالة إحصائية بين وعي الطلبة بما وراء المعرفة في الخطاب الصفي تطور مفرداتهم وذلك عند مستوى دلالة (٠.٠٥). (تضم عينة الدراسة مجتمعاً مكوناً من ١٢٠ طالباً وطالبة من المرحلة الأولى في قسم اللغة الإنكليزية بكلية التربية في جامعة ديالى، بينما اشتملت العينة الفعلية المشاركة في هذه الدراسة على ٦٠ طالباً وطالبة. وقد أظهرت نتائج الدراسة أن أداء الطلبة لم يكن بالمستوى المطلوب لأسباب متعددة؛ ومن ثم تم التوصل إلى عدد من الاستنتاجات وطرح بعض التوصيات.

الكلمات المفتاحية : خطاب، مفردات، ما وراء المعرفة، الخطاب الصفي.

**Abstract:**

Many Iraqi EFL college students face difficulties with vocabulary retention and its application in meaningful communication; thus, examining the implications of discourse metacognition may reveal an effective approach to vocabulary instruction. Language proficiency depends on vocabulary knowledge. Two fundamental concepts are combined in discourse metacognition, which is the awareness and control of one's own thought processes during discourse, whether in writing or speaking: discourse communication involves the use of language in both written and spoken forms. Thinking about how one is thinking involves two metacognitions: planning, tracking, and assessing one's cognitive processes. This study aims to investigate the effect of the discourse metacognition on the vocabulary development of EFL college students and how students' metacognitive awareness influences their use of vocabulary in discourse. This study hypothesized that there is no statistically significant relationship between classroom discourse metacognition awareness and vocabulary development at the (0.05) level of significance. The population of this study consists of 120 male and female college students from the first stage of the Department of English at the College of Education, University of Diyala, while the sample that participated in this study includes 60 male and female students. The result of this study shows that students don't perform well as for many reasons; therefore, some conclusions and recommendations are put forward.

Keywords: discourse, vocabulary, metacognition, classroom discourse.

## **Section One :**

### **1.1 The Problem**

Many EFL college students face difficulties when it comes to classroom discourse, metacognition skills and vocabulary enhancement or development since they do not have enough experience in engaging fully in the classroom discussion and other tasks. They depend on dictionaries in finding new words for missing lexical knowledge, i.e., they have limited vocabulary knowledge. Students also have little awareness in learning and monitoring their understanding, and this lack of awareness results in inefficient learning behaviour as they spend much time on tasks without using a suitable strategy to do them. Sometimes, teachers themselves lack training in metacognition strategies for facilitating the given task for their students, which encourages students' self-regulation. The way of teaching plays an important role in making students practice vocabulary and metacognition skills in meaningful communication. Some traditional ways of teaching just focus on teaching grammar and vocabulary drills rather than engaging their students in communication discourse, for example, the teacher-centered method. All these problems impede students' vocabulary development, so it should strengthen the students' or learners' metacognition to make them understand the new words and to be effective communicators.

### **1.2 The Aim of the Study**

This study aims to investigate the effect of the discourse metacognition on the vocabulary development of EFL students and explore how students' metacognition awareness influences their use of vocabulary in discourse.

### **1.3 The Hypotheses of the Study**

This study is hypothesized that there is no statistically significant relationship between classroom discourse metacognition awareness and vocabulary development at the (0.05) level of significance.

## Section Two

### 2.1 Classroom Discourse

Discourse consists of verbal or written communication. Teaching and learning English relies heavily on classroom discourse. The success or failure of a lesson hinges on the teacher's capacity to manage student input. Crystal (1992) defines discourse as an extended segment of spoken language that surpasses the confines of a sentence, encompassing forms such as sermons, jokes, narratives, and arguments, or as a text that integrates both linguistic and paralinguistic components of instruction.

According to Domalewska (2017), classroom discourse refers to the language used throughout the learning process and is a process that takes place in the classroom.

The initial investigations of classroom discourse (e.g. Sinclair and Coulthard 1975; Mehan 1979) characterized the three-part structure as comprising a teacher's query, a student's response, and a teacher's evaluation of that response. In classroom conversation, the teacher has superior rights to speak compared to the students and is crucial in allocating speaking turns. Recent research indicates that classroom discourse is more flexible than the traditional three-part Initiation-Response-Evaluation structure implies (e.g., Waring 2011; Margutti and Drew 2014; Lee 2007; Garton 2012; Petitjean 2014; Gardner 2015); however, it remains evident that such discourse imposes constraints on students' opportunities to participate in classroom discussions. Moreover, student comments are significantly briefer than those of instructors, frequently restricted to phrases and clauses (Csomay 2012).

According to Nunan (1993), there is a specific kind of discourse that takes place in classrooms, both between teachers and students. In its broadest sense, classroom discourse encompasses all types of conversation that take place in classrooms and other educational environments. A survey of the literature, however, shows that the context of classroom discourse as an analytical unit is very broad. Perhaps a more accurate way to think about this unit would be to expand the term's meaning to include discourse in educational con-

texts. Studies that looked at teacher-student interaction gave way to a more contemporary focus on education and identity development through discourse in the examination of classroom discourse.

Furthermore, studies on classroom discourse have covered a wide range of topics, from Halliday's systemic functional grammar (1978, 1994) to microanalytical conversation analysis. It should be mentioned that while numerous linguists have contributed to the growth of classroom discourse, education research has also developed its own paradigmatic approaches to classroom discourse, such as interaction analysis.

There are two parts to classroom discourse, according to Yu (2009). He organizes classroom conversation into categories based on whether or not the teacher dominates the subject matter and the mode of discussion. This taxonomy confirms four main forms of classroom interaction: The first kind of classroom interaction happens when the teacher doesn't have control over the topic or activity, whereas the second kind happens when the teacher has control over the topic but not the activity. In this kind of exchange, the instructor conveys knowledge or clarifies a problem. In the third category, students work together, but the teacher is in charge of the subject and the activity. The fourth type occurs when the teacher directs the action but not the subject.

Liu and Le (2012) proposed a rank-based model of classroom discourse and discovered the IRF model—which consists of Initiation, Response, and Feedback.

in language school classrooms.

For instance:

Teacher: What is Iraq capital city? (Initiation)

Baghdad is the student. (Response)

Teacher: Baghdad, indeed. It's accurate. (Feedback)

Initiation, response, and feedback are the three components that comprise an exchange. An assessment explanation of the students' response, which they refer to as feedback, is included in this phase. To find out how effective IRF is in practice, numerous research

has been carried out; a few of these are included below.

The amount of instructor discussion has already been the subject of numerous studies (Liu & Zhu, 2012). In order to give students more opportunity to participate in class discussions and improve their language skills by using English, it is crucial that teacher and student talk be balanced in English as a foreign language (EFL) courses. Liu and Le (2012).

In his study, Suzuki (2004) investigated the connection between student absorption in adult ESL classes and corrective feedback. He explained and examined the trends in learner uptake and corrective feedback. Thirty-one adult ESL students and three ESL teachers interacted for 21 hours, which made up the database. After being recorded and transcribed, the exchange was coded. The findings revealed both parallels and divergences in this regard.

“Question-and-answer sessions usually dominate classroom discourse, with teachers mostly asking questions since it is one of the main ways they can regulate the conversation. “Since asking questions and providing feedback are essential to a class’s success, teachers use them as one of the most common strategies to monitor the quality and quantity of students’ work. Classroom discourse is a component of classroom process research, which gives teachers the ability to keep an eye on both of these metrics (Yu, 2009).

Yu (2009) states that asking questions and giving feedback are two of the most popular ways second language teachers engage with students. Both strategies require careful thought, as concentrating on questions and feedback is likely to yield insightful results that will lead to a deeper understanding of how to enhance second language instruction.

Many studies concur that asking questions can help students improve their language skills (Liu & Le, 2012). Liu and Le (2012) assert that teachers are in charge of the classroom conversation and initiate the current three-phase IRF exchange by posing a lot of questions. Although they can be used for a number of purposes, questions are typically used as a means of starting conversations that are focused on medium-oriented objectives.

The first typology was proposed by Liu and Le (2012), who distinguished four categories of classroom inquiries.

## 1.2 Metacognition

Metacognition describes a kind of higher-order thinking in which the learner actively manages their own cognitive processes. Metacognitive behaviors include organizing one's approach to a learning assignment, checking one's understanding, and assessing one's progress toward a goal.

Metacognition is defined as "one's knowledge regarding one's own cognitive processes or related aspects" (Flavell, 1976, in Kaplan et al., 2013) and is often described as "thinking about one's thinking." Possessing advanced metacognitive thinking skills correlates with enhanced learning outcomes. Roediger & McDaniel (2014) state that metacognition refers to the awareness and comprehension of one's own cognitive processes in thinking and learning. Research indicates that particular tactics can be employed to improve an individual's capacity to acquire and remember information. Individuals that employ metacognition are aware of the appropriate learning strategies for themselves and how to organize their learning process.

According to Firth, J. (2025), metacognition can be regarded as the oversight of the process of learning, functioning as an administration or governance system. It is the aspect of our thinking that concentrates on our actions and their motivations. This encompasses fundamental tactics pertinent to learning, ranging from methods (such as doing long division) to broader concepts on effective learning, consolidation, concentration, and memory retention. He adds that, the term "metacognition" encompasses a wide range of concepts, including:

1. the ability of a young child to select strategies and make adjustments as they learn;
2. the ability of an older student to organize their work and consider feedback later on;
3. the way a teacher evaluates their students' progress or learning as a whole.

### 2.3 Metacognition in Learning Vocabulary

For nearly three decades, research on vocabulary acquisition techniques has been conducted. After the initial work by Gu and Johnson (1996), many empirical and theoretical investigations have been carried out, firmly establishing vocabulary acquisition strategy research within the discipline of applied linguistics. Gu (2018) pointed out that scholarly interest in vocabulary acquisition techniques still needs to grow in spite of these developments. Several criticisms about the essence confusion and the absence of consistency when analyzing vocabulary learning processes taken from the self-regulation perspective are partly to blame for this somewhat ambiguous status (Tseng et al., 2006).

Due to the theoretical advancements sparked by these concerns, language learning has been reframed through the metacognition lens (F. Teng & Mizumoto, 2024). The use of metacognitive techniques in vocabulary learning a notion with roots in educational psychology is a noteworthy attempt to solve these problems (Schraw, 1998). By providing a more thorough framework to aid in vocabulary acquisition, progress has demonstrated the relevance of a metacognitive viewpoint in vocabulary learning method research.

### 2.4 Recognizing Metacognition in the Learning of Vocabulary

McCarthy M. (2023) asserts that the word “vocabulary” can refer to a wide range of different but connected ideas. Every phrase in a language can be referred to by its vocabulary, consequently we can say that Latin, French. Vocabulary, as defined by Neuman and Dwyer (2009), is the set of terms that students need to participate successfully in hearing (receptive vocabulary) and speaking (expressive vocabulary) forms. Muhyidin et al. (2018) asserted that an extensive vocabulary correlates with enhanced language proficiency among students. Comprehending vocabulary is a crucial component for acquiring English abilities, including the four skills. Badriah (2022) asserts that during the process of learning English, students have challenges in the language due to the necessity of practicing vocabulary without comprehension. Consequently, vocabulary growth is essential

in the English language acquisition process to facilitate the discussion of all linguistic nuances (Aswad et al., 2019; Yaumi et al., 2023; Ko et al., 2025).

Understanding a word encompasses a vast array of knowledge elements, each requiring a different level of fluency, detail, and strength. To ensure the acquisition of well-rounded, practical vocabulary knowledge, the curricular balance and concentration of a vocabulary teaching course are crucial. Nation (2022) states that frequent exposure to words and careful consideration of those words are the two most important factors in successful vocabulary education. Word frequency and the intensity of mental processing with each encounter are the two most important factors in expanding one's vocabulary. A key component of efficient noticing and retrieval is the ability to notice words at a surface level, which is essential for vocabulary learning. While productive retrieval entails articulating meaning via written or spoken words, receptive retrieval entails remembering meaning from visual or auditory cues. The power of both forms of retrieval increases when they are based on prior knowledge. Vocabulary acquisition that is both efficient and effective requires metacognitive awareness, which equips students to not only notice and seek out words more effectively, but also to organize, monitor, and assess their learning processes.

To set the stage for discussing metacognition in vocabulary acquisition, it is important to define SRL and explain its role in studies of vocabulary strategies. Tseng et al. (2006) laid the groundwork for incorporating SRL principles into this area of study. They initiated a more systematic method of assessing students' ability to self-regulate their vocabulary acquisition by developing a tool to quantify this skill. The complex nature of vocabulary learning's self-regulatory and self-regulated components has since been the subject of much research.

This can lead to significantly improved vocabulary learning (F. Teng, 2024b). The criterion-related accuracy of self-regulated vocabulary learning has also been examined by researchers using composite models (Alamer, Teng, & Mizumoto, 2024); self-regulated vocabulary learning features seem to be positively and marginally correlated with L2

vocabulary achievement. This association emphasizes how self-regulation can improve vocabulary learning outcomes by indicating that those who are good at controlling their learning processes also typically have greater vocabulary competence levels.

Research on vocabulary learning strategies that incorporates SRL has produced several advancements.

1) Measurement methods: Researchers may now measure students' capacity to control their vocabulary learning thanks to the development of methods to evaluate self-regulatory capacity.

2) Impact on Learning tactics: Gaining knowledge into how self-regulation affects learning tactics has helped students maximize their vocabulary acquisition. 3) Validity and success: Supporting language learners' self-regulation has real-world advantages, as evidenced by the favorable correlations found between SRL constructs and vocabulary success.

Metacognition, often called metacognitive awareness, is an important but mostly unexplored component of vocabulary learning processes, despite the growing body of research devoted to studying mechanisms for self-regulation. According to Wen et al. (2023), there is a connection between metacognitive awareness and the ability to self-regulate. A person's self-regulatory capacity is their skill in controlling their own behavior in pursuit of their goals by making use of a variety of motivational and cognitive tactics. Metacognitive awareness, on the other hand, is being cognizant of one's own cognitive processes, such as one's own learning strategies and how to use them effectively. The importance of metacognition in vocabulary acquisition is becoming more recognized. Metacognition is defined as the ability for learners to become self-aware and control their own thought processes to improve vocabulary acquisition. Students are encouraged to take an active role in the acquisition of vocabulary with the increased focus on metacognitive tactics.

The purpose of keeping track of what "good" language learners do is to find out what other, less successful learners can do to improve their own performance. According to

Rodgers (2018), there are three main characteristics of strong learners: (1) they are pro-active when it comes to expanding their vocabulary, (2) they can adapt their method use to different situations, and (3) they employ effective strategies more often when learning new terms. The results of the experiments have verified these predictions. Teng and Zhang (2024) used a random assignment method to divide 120 university-level English as a foreign language (EFL) students in China into four groups: reading alone, reading with a gap-fill component, reading with writing, and reading with a digital dictionary. The participants' metacognitive knowledge and regulation were evaluated using the Metacognitive Awareness Inventory. Both the receptive and productive metacognitive knowledge standardized parameter estimates were statistically significant at the .001 level, but the metacognitive regulatory standardized parameter estimates were insignificant.

## **2.5 The Role of Teacher in Metacognition Instruction**

Teachers frequently work in extremely unpredictable environments; they encounter pupils with diverse motives and skill levels every day who are grouped together in dynamically shifting groups. Put differently, educators need to be reflective in a dynamic environment (Lin, Schwartz, and Hatano 2005).

Educators should emphasize writing elements that improve students' metacognition and concentrate on the various elements of cognitive understanding (person, task, and strategy). Hiver and Whitehead (2018) made several recommendations on the roles that instructors should play in metacognitive education.

1) Being Fluent in their own Language or Languages: Teachers ought to act as linguistic role models for their students.

2) Developing Metalinguistic Knowledge: Teachers need to be aware of the language they use and how it affects their students.

3) Fostering Intercultural Competence: Instructors ought to motivate pupils to observe and modify their thoughts and social interactions.

4) Understanding Language-Learning Processes: By giving students active responsibilities, teachers may empower them to take charge of their education.

Teachers should take into account their students' emotions and cognitive capacities in complex learning situations. Being conscious of their emotional responses, such as joy or fear, can help students take control of their cognitive capacities, comprehension, and curiosity in activities. Teachers must also explicitly teach metacognition to pupils who are not proficient.

In sum, reading, writing, vocabulary, and listening skills can all be improved with metacognitive training. Teaching metacognitive skills gives teachers ways to change the way they teach, improve students' learning and strategy-using skills, and increase their cognitive capacities and motivation to learn a language.

In order to improve the language learning process, students should understand how they can expand on their current knowledge while also identifying their knowledge gaps and creating plans to close them. By reflecting on what pupils already know and modeling language acquisition, language teachers can help their students succeed in their foreign language learning endeavors. However, language teachers themselves need to be metacognitively aware in a number of ways in order to assist students in learning a foreign language.

## **2.6 Promotion of Metacognition in Language Learners**

The principles of metacognitive instructional models, as revealed by metacognition research, include modelling tactics, reflecting on learning, activating past knowledge, and integrating learners in the monitoring and evaluation of learning processes. According to Anderson (2002, 2008), there are five main parts or abilities that make up metacognition regarding learning that may be taught in a language classroom. A teacher has a crucial role in elucidating, demonstrating, and fostering an environment that promotes thoughtful conversation for all of the components. Anderson recommends the following elements:

(1) Learning preparation and planning. In order to achieve their learning objectives, students consider the things they require or would like to do as well as what they can do.

(2) Choosing and applying instructional techniques. According to Anderson (2002, 3), “the learner can think critically and arrive at conscious decisions regarding the process of learning because they possess the metacognitive ability to choose and use particular techniques in a given context for a specific purpose.”

(3) Monitoring the application of strategies. It is important to teach students to monitor how they employ strategies. For instance, during learning, students could quiz themselves on the tactics they have chosen, how effective they are, and how much they apply them as planned.

(4) Organizing different tactics. Students need to use multiple tactics for the majority of learning tasks. Therefore, students benefit from efficiently coordinating the different tactics they are familiar with during their learning process.

(5) Assessing learning and the application of strategies. The four queries that Anderson recommends be asked periodically throughout the learning process encapsulate the fifth component: (1) What do I hope to achieve? (2) What tactics am I employing? (3) How effectively do I use them? (4) What other options did I have? According to Anderson, these enquiries can be seen of as the core of the first four elements, and they all function best when together.

### Section Three / Methodology

The steps that were done to accomplish the aims of the current research are described in this section. These steps entail selecting the sample, deciding on the study's instrument, determining the test's validity, reliability, and item analysis, conducting the test, and deciding on the statistical techniques to be used to analyze the data acquired.

#### 3.1 Population and Sampling of the study

“A group of individuals of the same species living and interbreeding within a given

area” is how Lebreton et al. (1992) defined population. The term “Sample” refers to a subset of people who are chosen to be observed and studied in order for the findings to be generalized to the entire population (Hayes and Stratton, 2013).

During the academic year 2023/2024, there will be 120 EFL college students in the first stage from the Department of English, College of Education, University of Diyala, who have represented the population of the study, whereas the sample of this study consists of 60 male and female students, as illustrated in Table (1).

Table (1)

The Population , Sample and Pilot study of the Study

University	Stage	Population	Sample	Percentage
Diyala	First Year	120	60	50%

### 3.2 Validity

Benati, A (2022) asserts that language assessments can evaluate a range of competencies, including the ability to discern and retain novel phonemes, the ability to understand the grammatical roles of different sentence elements, the ability to deduce concepts in a foreign language exclusively from context, and the ability to track visual stimuli while interpreting language, among others. Validity can manifest in various forms, including face validity, content validity, and others. This study employs both face and content validity. According to Benati, A. (2022), a test possesses content validity if its questions are representative of the language skills and grammatical structures it aims to evaluate. An achievement examination will be considered to possess validity in content if it encompasses knowledge imparted during instruction.

3.2 Reliability of the Test One of the key characteristics of an instrument for measuring is reliability, which is defined as “the degree that an assessing instrument remains reliable

in measuring whatever it measures” (Bachman and Palmer, 1996).

From a statistical perspective, the result obtained from applying Cronbach’s alpha formula is 0.82, which is regarded as a suitable index.

### 3.3 Construct Validity

Construct validity is a more advanced method of verifying the validity of an instrument. Statistical methods are the foundation of construct validity. The percentage of every concept in the overall variation seen in a phenomena is how it is calculated (Kumar, 2011). To determine the test’s appropriateness and worth for the participants, its items are evaluated according to a variety of standards and criteria. These procedures are as follows:

#### 1. Difficulty Level

Finding out how challenging each test item is the main aim of the pilot study. This is the tool that students use to find out whether they passed or failed a certain thing (DeVellis 2003).

#### 2. Item Analysis

According to Marshall and Rossman (1999), item analysis is a method for understanding the test’s items in relation to one another and for making decisions based on that knowledge.

#### 3. The Power of Discrimination

Richards and Schmidt (2013) define test discriminating as the extent to which a test or a specific question on a test can differentiate between persons with low performance and those with high scores.

The use of the discrimination power equation reveals that the discriminating power of the test items varies from 0.37 to 0.64. Consequently, all test items are deemed appropriate since the values exceed 0.30, as illustrated in the subsequent table (2):

Table (2)

The Discriminating Power of the items

Items No.	DP
<b>Question One/ Choose a word from the left side that matches the word on the right:</b>	
1	0.64
2	0.37
3	0.54
4	0.64
5	0.37
<b>Question Two/ Choose the correct word in parentheses to complete each sentence.</b>	
1	0.64
2	0.54
3	0.64
4	0.52
5	0.60
<b>Question Three / Match the positive adjectives (1-5 ) with the meanings (a-f ).</b>	
1	0.52
2	0.50
3	0.37
4	0.44
5	0.54
<b>Question Four/ Read the text carefully, then choose the similar meaning from the list below:</b>	
1	0.52
2	0.37
3	0.52
4	0.54
5	0.37

#### 4.1 Result Related to the Hypothesis

The obtained data have been analysed in this section in order to achieve the aims of the study and validate its hypotheses. The outcomes are explained as follows:

Table 3 indicates that the participants achieved a mean score of 7.79, with a standard deviation of 3.70. The t-test formula is employed for a singular sample. The results indicate that the calculated t-value is 6.93, while the critical value is 1.98 at a significance level of 0.05 and with 134 degrees of freedom. The computed t-value exceeds the tabulated t-value, indicating no significant differences in the achievement of EFL college students. This study illustrates that EFL undergraduates possess insufficient comprehension of the meanings of linguistic components. This illustrates the challenges encountered by EFL college students in this domain. The hypothesis asserting that “there is no statistically significant relationship between classroom discourse metacognition awareness and vocabulary development at the (0.05) level of significance.” is rejected.

**Table (3)**

**The Mean Scores, Standard Deviation and T-Value of the Achievement Test**

Sample	Obtained Mean Scores	SD.	Degree of freedom	T- value		Levels of Significance
				computed	Tabulated	
60	7.79	3.70	48	6.93	1.98	0.05

#### Discussion of the Result

According to the obtained result, the researcher has seen that EFL college students, at the first stage are weak and have no comprehension in the parts of vocabulary. This

weakness may relate to the way of teaching ,for example the instructor may use the classical approach in teaching vocabulary, or the vocabulary is taught in isolation (word by word) not with the context, or the students have no experience with metacognitive strategies (they are not trained well in these strategies such as: planning, monitoring ,and evaluating). Also, motivation plays important role in teaching and learning, here the students may lack to such motivation.

## 5. Conclusions

1. Metacognition encompasses awareness of cognitive processes and its control and regulation.

2. The students' performance are not satisfied due to their experience in metacognitive strategies.

3. Metacognitive training offers significant potential for improving language acquisition.

however, it still requires more development.

## 6.Recommendations

1. Educators must explicitly implement metacognitive education for learners with low competency.

2. Educators and learners can engage in collaboration to evaluate the language acquisition process, and to use mixed methods in teaching.

3. It's better for instructors to join vocabular with metacognitive strategies.

## References:

Anderson, Neil J. 2002. The Role of Metacognition in Second Language Teaching and Learning. Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics, ERIC Clearing- house on Languages and Linguistics.

Bachman, L. F. and Palmer, A. S. (1996). Language Testing in Practice: Designing and Developing Useful Language Tests (Vol. 1). Oxford University Press.

Badriah, N. (2022). Students' difficulties in mastering vocabulary. Journal of English Language and Education, 8(1), 34-42.

Benati A. ( 2022 ) Key Terms for Language Teachers. A Pocket Guide. UK Office 415, The Workstation, 15 Paternoster Row, Sheffield, South Yorkshire S1 2BX

Brown, P. C., Roediger, H. L., & McDaniel, M. A. (2014). Make It Stick. Harvard University Press. California : Sage Publications ,p:26.Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) Classrooms in Thailand. Asian Journal of Education and e-Learning

Csomas, E. 2012. "A Corpus-based Look at Short Turns in University Classroom Interaction." Corpus Linguistics and Linguistic Theory 8 (1): 103–128. doi:10.1515/cllt-2012-0005.

Devellis , R ,F. ( 2003 ) . Scale Development : Theory and Applications .

Domalewska, D. (2017). Discourse Analysis of Teacher Talk: Code Switching in Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) Classrooms in Thailand. Asian Journal of Education and e-Learning.

Domalewska, D. (2017). Discourse Analysis of Teacher Talk: Code Switching in

Flavell, J. H. (1976). Metacognitive aspects of problem solving. In L. B. Resnick (ed.), The nature of intelligence (pp. 231–235). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Gu, P. Y. (2018). Validation of an online questionnaire of vocabulary learning strategies for ESL learners. Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching, 8(2), 325–350.

Gu, Y., & Johnson, R. K. (1996). Vocabulary learning strategies and language learning outcomes. *Language Learning*, 46(4), 643–679.

Halliday, M. (1993), Towards a Language-Based Theory of Learning, *Journal of Linguistics and Education* 5, 93-116, University

Hiver, P., & Whitehead, E. K. (2018). Teaching metacognitively: Adaptive inside-out thinking in the language classroom. In A. Haukaas, C. Bjørke, & M. Dypedahl (eds.), *Metacognition in Language learning and teaching* (pp. 243–262). New York: Routledge.

Kaplan, M., Silver, N., Lavaque-Manty, D., & Meizlish, D. (Eds.). (2013). *Using Reflection and Metacognition to Improve Student Learning*. Stylus Publishing Inc. ,Virginia. (Available in CTE's Library: EV1 325)

Ko, Y., Kyeongjae, P., Jung, S., Sosrohadi, S., & Andini, C. (2025). Revisiting EPS TOPIK: Addressing linguistic and cultural challenges for migrant workers in South Korea. *International Journal of Current Science Research and Review*, 8(2), 904-910.

Kumar (2011). *Research Methodology: A step-by-step Guide for Beginners*.

Lin, Xiaodong, Daniel L. Schwartz, and Giyoo Hatano. 2005. "Toward Teachers' Adaptive Metacognition." *Educational Psychologist* 40 (4): 245–55. [https://doi.org/10.1207/s15326985ep4004\\_6](https://doi.org/10.1207/s15326985ep4004_6)

Liu J, Le T, 2012. A case study on English classroom discourse. *International Journal of Innovative Interdisciplinary Research*. 2: 1-9.

Liu M, Zhu L, 2012. An investigation and analysis of teacher talk in college English class. *International Journal of English Linguistics*. 2 (5): 117-120.

Marshall , C. and Rossman ,G.B.( 1999). *Designing Qualitative Research*. (3rd ed) , Sage , Thousand Oaks , CA, p:155.

Nation, I. S. P. (2022). The different aspects of vocabulary knowledge. In S. Webb (ed.), *The Routledge handbook of vocabulary studies* (pp. 15–29). New York: Routledge.

Rodgers, J. (2018). Teaching/Developing vocabulary through metacognition. In J. I.

Liontas (ed.), The TESOL encyclopedia of English language teaching (pp. 1–6). Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.

Schraw, G. A. (1998). Promoting general metacognitive awareness. *Instructional Science*, 26, 113–125.

Suzuki M, 2004. Corrective feedback and learner uptake in adult ESL classrooms. Teachers College. Columbia University Working Papers in TESOL & Applied Linguistics. 4 (2): 1-21.

Teng, L. S. (2022). Self-regulated learning and second language writing: Fostering strategic language learners. Cham: Springer.

Teng, L. S. (2024). Individual differences in self-regulated learning: Exploring the nexus of motivational beliefs, self-efficacy, and SRL strategies in EFL writing. *Language Teaching Research*, 28(2), 366–388. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168821100688>.

Teng, M. F. (2024b). Growth mindset in vocabulary learning from reading in a foreign language context. *International Journal of Applied Positive Psychology*. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s41042-024-00161-6>.

Teng, M. F., Mizumoto, A., & Takeuchi, O. (2024). Understanding growth mindset, self-regulated vocabulary learning, and vocabulary knowledge. *System*, 122, 103255. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2024.103255>.

Thenmozhi, C. “Models of Metacognition.” *Shanlax International Journal of Education*, vol. 7, no. 2, 2019, pp. 1-4.

Wen, Z., Sparks, R., Biedron, A., & Teng, F. (2023). Cognitive individual differences in second language acquisition: Theories, assessment and pedagogy. Berlin: De Gruyter Mouton.

Yaumi, M. T. A. H., Rahman, F., & Sahib, H. (2023). Exploring WhatsApp as Teaching and Learning Activities during Covid-19/New Normal era: A Semiotic Technology Analysis. *International Journal of Current Science Research and Review*, 6(12), 7627-7634.

Yu W, 2009. An analysis of college English classroom discourse. Asian Social Science. 5 (7): 152-159

### Appendix(1)

#### The Achievement Test

Q1/ Choose a word from the left side that matches the word on the right:

1.

1. Private

2. Total not public

3. Sorry

2.

1. blame

2. Hide keep away from sight

3. invite

3.

1. salary

2. temperature money paid regularly

3. crop

4.

1. apply

2. jump become water

3. melt

5.

1. fortune

2. pride something you must pay

3. debt

Q2: Choose the correct word in parentheses to complete each sentence.

1. It's ----- to drink a lot of water in hot weather. (important / unimportant)
2. It's ----- to run in very hot weather. (healthy / unhealthy)
3. Kevin, Ray, and Charlie ran across the desert in 1 days. Their trip was-----  
(successful / unsuccessful)
4. Kevin, Ray, and Charlie met lots of nice people on their trip. The people were very-  
----- (friendly /unfriendly)
5. Trees and water are----- in the desert. (common / uncommon)

Q3: Match the positive adjectives (1—5 ) with the meanings (a—f ).

1	gorgeous	A	right for a particular purpose, person or situation
2	practical	B	making you very interested or attracted
3	suitable	C	reasonable and practical
4	sensible	D	intended to be useful
5	fascinating	E	very beautiful
		F	incredible

Q4: Read the text carefully, then choose the similar meaning from the list below:

Philip is my opposite number<sup>1</sup> in the company's New York office. We have a good working relationship and there's a lot of day-to- day collaboration<sup>2</sup>. Having a counter-part like Philip in another branch is a great support. Last month we got a new boss, who quickly established a good rapport<sup>3</sup> with everyone. She likes us to take the initiative . The company is very hierarchical; there's a pecking order for everything. I do a job-share<sup>4</sup> with a woman called Rose, which suits us as we each have childcare responsibilities. My office uses a hot-desking system, so I sit in a different place every day. I socialize with my workmates outside of work, but we try not to talk shop<sup>5</sup> on those occasions.

1. communication/relationship.
2. working together to achieve shared goals.
3. talk about work; informal.
4. has the same position / does the same job as me.
5. an agreement where two people each share the same job.
6. way of communicating and working together.