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The Effect of Negotiation as an Interactive Technique on EFL Preparatory School Students' Metacognitive Skills

***Kawakib Ghazi Fahad**
Tikrit University
kawakibghazi@gmail.com

&

Prof. Istabriq Tariq Jawad
Tikrit University
Astbraktarek@tu.edu.iq

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Abstract

This study aims at finding out the effect of negotiation as an interactive technique on EFL preparatory school students' Metacognitive skills. This study hypothesizes that there are no statistically significant differences between the mean scores of the experimental group and that of the control group in metacognitive skills. The present study is limited to The fifth class EFL students at Sommar Secondary School for Girls in Al -Alam town during the academic year 2021- 2022. The uses of Negotiation Technique inside classroom to promote students' metacognitive skills. Finally it is concluded that the achievement of the experimental group who were taught by using

* **Corresponding Author:** Kawakib Ghazi, **Email:** kawakibghazi@gmail.com

Affiliation: Tikrit University - Iraq

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negotiation technique has improved students metacognitive skills and applying the technique helps students lessen anxiety, shyness, and build self-confidence which helps them realize what they know about their cognition and how to regulate or control their cognition to perform something .

Keywords: negotiation, motivation, metacognitive skills.

أثر التفاوض كأسلوب تفاعلي في المهارات ما وراء المعرفية لدى طلاب المرحلة الإعدادية للغة الانجليزية كلغة اجنبية

كواكب غازي

جامعة تكريت

و

ا.د. استبرق طارق جواد

جامعة تكريت

المستخلص

تهدف هذه الدراسة إلى معرفة أثر تقنية التفاوض كأسلوب تفاعلي في المهارات الإنتاجية لدى طلاب المرحلة الإعدادية في اللغة الإنكليزية. وتفترض هذه الدراسة عدم وجود فروق ذات دلالة إحصائية بين متوسطي درجات المجموعة التجريبية والمجموعة الضابطة في المهارات ما وراء المعرفية. تقتصر الدراسة الحالية على طالبات الصف الخامس في مدرسة سومر الثانوية للبنات في مدينة العلم خلال العام الدراسي 2021-2022، واستخدامات أسلوب التفاوض داخل الفصل الدراسي لتعزيز مهارات الما وراء المعرفية لدى الطالبات. وأخيراً استنتجت الدراسة أن تحصيل المجموعة التجريبية التي تم تدريسها باستخدام أسلوب التفاوض قد أدى إلى تحسين المهارات الما وراء المعرفية لدى الطلاب وأن تطبيق الأسلوب يساعد الطلاب على تقليل القلق والخجل وبناء الثقة بالنفس مما يساعدهم على إدراك ما يعرفونه عن معارفهم وكيف. لتنظيم أو التحكم في إدراكهم لأداء شيء ما

الكلمات المفتاحية: التفاوض، التحفيز، مهارات ما وراء المعرفية.

1. INTRODUCTION

In the context of English as a Foreign Language (EFL), participation or engagement of the students is a key factor in their learning process. Emphasizing participation is similar to what Nunan (1989) says about language that it is a system for expressing meaning. In this system, classroom participation and learning are closely associated and evaluation is done based on the amount and quality of student talk (Warayet, 2011). In the last few decades more attention has been paid to the social and interpersonal aspects of language learning. Social issues are no less important than cognitive issues in language acquisition. One of the issues which has attracted a lot of attention in second and foreign language research is negotiation. The first and foremost goal of language learning is communication and negotiation in the classroom is a means of developing communication skills. Moreover, since humans use language in different contexts to convey messages, language theories with a communicative turn put strong emphasis on interaction, “to get one idea out of your head and into the head of another person and vice versa” (Brown, 1994, p. 159).

In daily teaching practice, negotiation and interaction is vital component of meaningful learning and the core of self-regulated learning, where students in dialogue with their teacher and peers are encouraged to monitor and regulate their own learning (metacognition) (Black , et al , 1998). However, despite its importance, students in classroom settings rarely receive the desired motivation to interact and participate as teachers do not have enough time to provide such opportunities due to overloaded programs or crowded classrooms, and sometimes simply lack the skills to assess students' understanding without grading (Lee et al , 2015).

Since researchers know that metacognitive skills and motivation are strongly and positively related to learning outcomes, negotiation on students' understanding is indispensable in the learning process (González, et al, 2017) For these reasons, it is crucial that teachers are aware of students' learning status and have the opportunity to provide meaningful interaction in a limited time and in a structured way.

1.1 Aims of the Study

This study aims at :

Finding out the effect of Negotiation as an interactive technique on **EFL** preparatory school students 'Metacognitive skills.

1.2 Value of the Study

It is hoped that this study will shed light on modern communicative technique of teaching English as a foreign language metacognitive skills . This study has a theoretical value since it will add more information concerning using negotiation technique . Also it has a practical value since it will be useful for teachers, textbook writers , course designers as well as learners .

1.3 Hypotheses of the Study

The aims of this study are supposed to be achieved through verifying the following hypothesis:

There are no statistically significant differences between the mean scores of the experimental group and that of the control group in metacognitive skills.

2. THEORITICAL BACKGROUND

By the early 2000s, negotiation training was expanding again, this time to include hard sciences, complex adaptive systems, a larger array of types of psychology, and more from the field of anthropology, particularly in terms of thinking about cultural differences. In most negotiation courses today and in negotiation textbooks, students could well be reading the classics listed above plus an array of more sophisticated game theory, cognitive psychology, neuroscience, emotion, communication and persuasion, and more. (Kathleen, 2004).

According to Long (as cited in Gass, 2003, p. 234) negotiation for meaning is significant in learning a second / foreign language because it enables students to get feedback to facilitate understanding. Moreover, Long claims that attention is another required act during negotiation. Attention may help students discover their mistakes and learn not to make them again. That is to say, during negotiation the learner's "attentional resources" may be focused on the new language that he/she knows nothing about and his/her old native language (Gass, 2003, p. 235). Gass maintains that during this interaction and attention initial, learning takes place. When the input is available, attention should be central during the negotiation. This might help learners focus on their mistakes and their language production.

According to (Pica .1987: 200) negotiation meaning refers to "activity that occurs when a listener signals to the speaker that the speaker's message is not clear and the speaker and listener work linguistically to resolve this impasse".

Negotiation of meaning occurs in everyday interaction as a communication strategy that clarifies meaning to facilitate comprehensible messages (Pica & Doughty, 1985).

Furthermore, during negotiation, participants work together to arrive at message comprehension using strategies such as comprehension checks, confirmation requests, clarification requests, and repetitions. Negotiation of meaning contributes to learners' language development. According to the interaction hypothesis, negotiation of meaning occurs when language learners modify their input to ensure that input is modified to exact level of comprehensibility they can manage (Long, 1996).

Finally, during the negotiation process, learners are provided with opportunities to use words and thus receive feedback, which may enable them to notice the discrepancy between the target language and theirs. Negotiation of meaning assists students to overcome comprehension difficulties when students modify their input using clarification request, confirmation checks or comprehension checks on their production (Pica, 1987).

2.1 Metacognition

Metacognition is simply and generally defined as "thinking about thinking". Metacognition refers to the knowledge that people have about their own thought processes. The term "metacognition" has been used in psychology and education research literature since mid 1970s. It is most often associated with John Flavell, who first used the term formally in the title of his paper in 1976. He defines metacognition as follows: "In any kind of cognitive transaction with the human or non-human environment, a variety of information processing activities may go on. Metacognition refers, among other things, to the active monitoring and consequent regulation and orchestration of these processes in relation to the cognitive objects or data on which they bear, usually in service of some concrete goal or objective." (Flavell, 1981). In essence, metacognition is

the knowledge and the active monitoring of one's own cognitive processes. Indeed, we engage in metacognitive activities every day.

Another early contributor to the metacognition literature was Ann Brown (1978), who suggests knowledge of cognition (what we know about our cognition) and regulation of cognition (how we regulate or control our cognition to perform something) as the two primary principles of metacognition which are important for learning (Brown, 1987). Knowledge of cognition includes three components of knowledge namely declarative (knowing “about” things), procedural (knowing “how” to do things), and conditional (the “why” and “when” aspects of cognition). Regulation of cognition, on the other hand includes planning, regulation and evaluation. Knowledge of cognition helps people to selectively allocate their resources and use strategies more effectively, while regulation of cognition is linked to more systematic skills such as planning, monitoring, and evaluation (Schraw, 1998).

“Metacognition was originally referred to as the knowledge about and regulation of one’s own cognitive activities in learning processes “ (Flavell, 1979, Brown, 1987). Metacognition is (cognition about cognition) or (thinking about one’s thinking). Metacognition is most commonly divided into two distinct but interrelated areas: Metacognitive knowledge which includes the learner’s knowledge of their own cognitive abilities (e.g. I have trouble remembering dates), the learner’s knowledge of the nature of particular tasks (e.g. the ideas in this article are complex), and the learner’s knowledge of different strategies including when to use these strategies (e.g. if I break telephone numbers into chunks I will remember them). (Brown, 1987; Flavell, 1979). The other area is Metacognitive regulation which describes how learners monitor and control their cognitive processes. For example, realising that the strategy they are using to solve a mathematical problem is not working and trying another procedure (Nelson & Narens 1990)

Metacognition has three components for problem-solving in learning, namely: (a) metacognitive knowledge, (b) metacognitive skills, and (c) metacognitive beliefs (Efklides A, 2006). However, the most common differences in metacognition are separating metacognitive knowledge from metacognitive skills. Metacognitive knowledge refers to declarative knowledge, procedural knowledge and conditional knowledge of a person on problem-solving. While metacognitive skills refer to the prediction skills, planning skills, monitoring skills, and evaluation skills.

Inquiry and discussion(s), learning fosters metacognition and , reasoning . The inquiry with questions will direct the learning in an inquiry climate that fosters self-dependency in mastering new things (Cavagnetto, A. and Norton-Meier L, 2010)

Learning activities should involve students to think actively, act, and interact. The activeness of the students in learning is one of the components affecting the success of learning. The Partnership for 21st Century Skills has identified metacognitive as one of the life and progress skills necessary to prepare students for post-secondary education and the workforce (Lai, E. R. 2011).

2.2 Metacognition Teaching

Brown (1987) mentions that learners should be supplied with metacognitive skills to predict, check, monitor, coordinate, and control intentionally for solving problems. Students should ask and solve not only “what “ questions, but also “how” and “why “ questions. Pintrich (2002) proposes that “because metacognition in general is positively

linked to student learning, explicitly teaching metacognitive knowledge and skills to facilitate its development is needed”.

Zohar and Barzilai(2013) regards metacognitive teaching as any instruction to teach specific and explicit metacognitive activities . It involves a system of interactional actions , including teachers , students, teaching materials, a metacognitive environment and teaching strategies. Lam (2018) investigates four expert teachers and found that one of the core strategies is metacognitive teaching which can promote learners to reflect upon the work and control their learning process efficiently. Teachers can make the best use of metacognition through making learning goals explicit and help students to plan strategies and ways of monitoring their progress towards achieving these goals. They also can help students understand their mid- and long- term goals, learners need to employ motivation strategies such as deferred satisfaction to make sure they learn successfully .

Palincsar& Brown,(1984) add one of the most well-known reading interventions that uses a metacognitive approach (reciprocal teaching)This involves teachers working with small groups of learners and modelling the use of four key strategies: summarising, questioning, clarifying and predicting. The students then asked to teach these strategies to other students.

Whereas Tarrant & Holt, (2016) argue that the use of (artefacts or visual resources) to support younger in planning, monitoring and evaluating their learning. For example, involve learners in creating ‘photo-cues’- photographs of learners undertaking different learning processes, and discuss what is happening and why. They also add when debriefing a cognitive activity, also seek opportunities to encourage reflection and evaluation about the metacognitive strategies used.

According to (Zimmerman, 2001) self-regulated learning is based on the premise that students should take responsibility for their own learning and should play an active role in the learning process. It is a cyclical process wherein learners regulate their learning in three phases: the forethought phase (i.e. processes that precede the learning act), the performance phase (i.e. processes during the learning act) and the self-reflection phase (i.e. processes after the learning act). These phases are cyclical as self-regulated learners use feedback from previous learning acts and attempt to make adjustments to future acts (Zimmerman, 2000).

Pupils need to understand what metacognition is if they are to practise regulating their cognitive performances. The concept can be introduced in a range of ways: Teachers can explicitly describe metacognition and model it for pupils. Pupils can be encouraged to “think aloud” and explain their approaches to problem-solving as they work. A few minutes of class time can be set aside regularly to discuss metacognitive approaches to learning. (Schraw, 1998).

2.3 Promoting Metacognitive Awareness

Rysz (2004) while identifying metacognitive thoughts adult students had while learning elementary probability and statistics concepts found that students can earn above average grades using limited or no metacognitive awareness, but those who provided evidence of cognitive awareness and self monitoring were better able to report an understanding of probability and statistics concepts.Also Bigozzi & Vezzani (2005) investigated the effects of individual writing on metacognitive awareness concerning scientific concepts. They found that individual writing enhances the use of metacognitive terms and the frequency of use regarding terms, which distinguish appearance from

reality. Further Mason & Nadalon (2005) found that overall students' metacognitive competence significantly correlated with their achievement in subjects. Similarly, Coutinho (2006) concluded that students with good metacognition tend to be successful students. Students with poor metacognition tend to perform poorly.

Metacognition is most commonly divided into two distinct, but interrelated areas. John Flavell, one of the first researchers in metacognition and memory, defined these two areas as metacognitive knowledge, awareness of one's thinking and metacognitive regulation, the ability to manage one's own thinking processes. These two components are used together to inform learning theory. Flavell (1979) describes three kinds of metacognitive knowledge:

- Awareness of knowledge : it involves understanding what one knows, what one does not know, and what one wants to know. This category may also include an awareness of other's knowledge.
- Awareness of thinking : understanding cognitive tasks and the nature of what is required to complete them.
- Awareness of thinking strategies : understanding approaches to direct learning.

Metacognitive regulation on the other hand involves the ability to think strategically and to solve problems, set goals, organize ideas, and evaluate what is known and not known. It also involves the ability to teach to others and make thinking process visible. When a student has information about his thinking, he is able to use this information to direct or regulate his learning. This kind of metacognition is also referred to as "executive control".

"Metacognition involves awareness of how learners learn, an evaluation of their learning needs, generating strategies to meet these needs and then implementing the strategies" (Hacker, 2009).

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1 Design of the Experiment

The design used in this study is non randomised Experimental-Control Group Design, henceforth ECGD concerning the experimental group henceforth EG which is considered independent variable will be taught by using a new paradigm of learning that uses negotiation technique to motivate a learner to enhance their metacognitive along with their cognitive skills. The other group is the control group henceforth CG which is considered dependent variable will be taught without using the technique in teaching metacognitive skills, i.e. there is no interaction between the learner.

3.2 Population and Sample Selection

To achieve the intended aims of this study, all secondary schools for girls in AL-Alam town were chosen to represent the population of the study. EFL students of Soummer Secondary School for Girls which is comprised of about 600 students has been randomly derived from which the sample of this study is selected. Which includes all the fifth year female students of that school who are eighty nine.

Those students are already divided into two sections, A and B. The two sections are randomly involved to represent the two groups of this study. Section A represents the experimental group and section B represents the control group. Two students are excluded from section A and two from section B because they are repeaters. Moreover, twenty five students are excluded for the purpose of the pilot application of the study instrument. Hence the sample of the study consists of 60 EFL learners

randomly chosen, thirty students have been chosen for the EG and the other thirty students represent the CG , as shown in Table 2

Table (2)

The population and sample

Group	No. of the whole students	No. of Repeaters	No. of Pilot Study	No. of Sample
Experimental (section A)	44	2	12	30
Control (section B)	44	2	12	30
Total	88	4	24	60

3.6 Metacognition Material

The application of metacognitive strategies inside the classroom needs some steps. The researcher has adopted (McGuire, 2016 & Anderson, 2017) strategies , which are as follows :

First of all the researcher motivate the students by giving them a key questions , e.g. do you feel that you spend a lot of time studying but you feel your hard work does not help your performance on exam ?do you think that your studying technique will help you to learn ?these key questions will motivate their thinking , they will start to accumulate their information and they will try to recall their previous knowledge to answer the teacher . Even if their answers are not full answers this will give the teacher a hint that they start thinking . After that the teacher gives them a feedback , e. g . do not worry about that I will give you the solution also I will introduce to you how metacognition helps you to learn better .

The teacher starts with the steps :

1.Use your syllabus as a roadmap

For example : in doing a certain activity think about why you follow these steps ? how do you connect the steps ? what are the key notes that you have notice ? what prior knowledge do you have that may help you ?

Thus , the students start thinking , negotiate with each other and with the teacher , self- regulates their thought , modify their current information to produce an answer to the questions given by the teacher .

2.Recall your prior knowledge

Here the teacher gives the students a trigger information , such as look at this topic and ask yourself what you know about it already , what question do you have ?so answering these questions will help you engage more deeply with the material , and help you start building a framework for new knowledge .

3.Think aloud

The teacher tells the students to talk through the material . Talk to their classmates , to a tutor , this can help them make more sense of the material . Talking aloud is a great way to test yourself on how well you know the material . Problem solving requires explaining the steps allowed to ensure that you really understand them . Thus the students start talking , discussing to reach full understanding .

4.Ask yourself questions

Asking self-reflective questions is key to metacognition . Some of these questions are :

- . what strategy do I use to solve this problem ?
- . what is confusing about this topic ?
- . does this answer make sense given the information provided?
- . what conclusions can I make?

These questions will activate students thinking , they will start working for answers to them and as a result their metacognition will develop .

5.Use writing

Writing can help you organize your thoughts and assess what you know . Just like thinking aloud , writing can help you identify what you do and do not know. For instance some students understand more when they are writing down notes while they are reading .

6.Organize your thoughts

Using concept maps or graphic organizers is another great way to visualize material and see the connections between the various concepts you are learning. This map is a good study strategy because it is a form of self -testing. Some students learn more through visual aids , so their metacognition will be promoted .

7.Take notes from memory

Try reading short sections at a time and pausing from time to time to summarize what you read from memory . This technique ensures that you are actively engaging with the material , and it helps you better gauge how much you are actually remembering from what you read . This strategy will help students activate their memory and self-regulation

8.Review your exams

Reviewing an exam that you recently taken is a great time to use metacognition . the teacher tells them to look at what they knew and what they missed , and make a plan for how they might change their preparation for the next time .

10.Figure out how you learn

It is important to figure out what learning strategies work best for the students . It will vary according to the type of the material , but it will be helpful to be open to trying new things ,e.g. if flash cards never help you , stop using them and try something else instead .

11.Test yourself

Self-testing should be an integral part of your study lessons so that have a clear understanding of what you do and do not know. Many of the methods described are about self-testing (e.g. thinking aloud ,using writing , taking notes from memory)because they help you characterize what you know and do not know . this strategy will motivate recall of previous knowledge , and in turn metacognition.

By practicing these strategies the researcher has supported and promoted students' thinking , monitoring ,planning, self-regulating and evaluating , and this indicated by the results of the questionnaire that are used to measure the students' metacognition .

3.5 Questionnaires

A questionnaire can be defined as a list of printed questions that is completed by or for a respondent to give his/her opinion or point of view. (Roopa & Rani , 2012: 273)

A questionnaire is also defined by (Babbie, 1990:377)

as a document containing questions and other types of items designed to seek information appropriate to analysis .

Furthermore, a questionnaire is the main means of collecting quantitative primary data. A questionnaire enables quantitative data to be collected in a standardized way so that the data are internally consistent and coherent for analysis. Questionnaires should always have an explicit purpose that is related to the objectives of the research, and it needs to be clear from the outset how the findings will be used. Hence one of the study objectives is to find the effect of negotiation on metacognitive skills , a questionnaire has been used to find the effect of negotiation on students metacognition .

Finally, a questionnaire, as soul of the survey is based on a set of questions to gather data from respondents. Questions are the translated form of what researchers need for their study which can be conveyed using the answers of the respondents. A questionnaire, as the main and the most dominant way of collecting primary and quantitative data, makes the process of data collection standardized together with compatible. Thus, it can ensure a faster and more accurate data collection process, and facilitate the data processing as well (Krosnick, 2018; Malhotra, 2006).

3.6 Questionnaire Design

A well-designed questionnaire should meet the research goal and objectives and minimize un- answered questions—a common problem restrict to many surveys.

This is done in order to reach reliable conclusions from what we are planning to observe. The researcher should clearly define the target, study populations from which she/ he collects data and information. In addition, the researcher should choose the suitable methods of reaching the respondents, e. g . personal contact, group of focus interview, mail-based questionnaires, telephone interview and so on (Wai-Ching , 2001). While preparing questions , the researcher must keep in mind: who is responding, whether or not the data are readily available, the response load, the complexity, and sensitivity of the data being collected, the reliability of the data, whether the respondent might find any of the topics embarrassing, and, eventually how the data will be processed (Bradburn et al , 2004).

In addition, the design of questionnaire depends on the mode of administration. Developed countries also use self- administered questionnaires. A respondent is expected to fill in the questionnaire without assistance of others in such self- administered questionnaires. Therefore, self-administered questionnaire should be attractive and printed in a very clear way of directions and skipping patterns. (Sudman and Bradburn 1982:230).The questionnaire used in the present study adopted from (Schraw & Dennison , 1994). The objectives of the questionnaire are shown in the following table

Table (12) The Objectives of the Questionnaire

No	Items	Objectives
1-	Declarative Knowledge	what the learner know about things
2-	Procedural Knowledge	the learner knowledge about how to do things
3-	Conditional Knowledge	knowing when to apply components of the previous two types of knowledge to a problem
4-	Planning	goal setting and assigning resources prior to learning
5-	Information Management Strategies	skills used to process information: organizing, explaining
6-	Comprehension Monitoring	Strategy used to assess one's learning
7-	Debugging Strategies	Strategy used to correct performance errors
8-	Evaluating	analysis of performance and judgment

4. DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

The Fifth Research aim (Finding out the effect of Negotiation as an interactive technique on **EFL** preparatory school students 'Metacognitive skills.).

The following null hypothesis was formulated for this aim (There are no statistically significant differences between the mean scores of the experimental group and that of the control group in metacognitive skills).

To answer the null hypothesis , the researcher followed the following:

To achieve this hypothesis , the researcher used the Two Independence Samples t.test for the difference according to group (experimental , control) of the research sample for metacognitive skills "Total Score" , as the mean and standard deviation of the scores were calculated, and the results were as shown in the table (24).

Table (24)

T-test for Two Independence samples to compare between the mean and standard deviation of the research sample for metacognitive skills according to group

Variable	N	Mean	S.D	t.test	
				Computed	Tabulated
Experimental	30	335.233	33.137	4.148	2.000
Control	30	292.867	45.071		

It is clear from the table that the t-value for metacognitive skills is statistically significant, as the calculated t-value of 4.148 was bigger than the tabulated value of 2.000 with a level of significance 0.05 and a degree of freedom 58, and this means that there is statistically significant difference between the Experimental group and the Control group Mean on the metacognitive skills, in favor of the Experimental group.

Below is a detailed presentation , To verify item of the metacognitive skills domain :

a. To answer the null hypothesis was formulated for this aim (There are no statistically significant differences between the mean scores of the experimental group and that of the control group in metacognitive skills”Declarative knowledge”).

To answer the null hypothesis , the researcher followed the following:

To achieve this hypothesis , the researcher used the Two Independence Samples t.test for the difference according to group (experimental , control) of the research sample for metacognitive skills” Declarative knowledge” , as the mean and standard deviation of the scores were calculated, and the results were as shown in the table 25.

Table (25) T-test for Two Independence samples to compare between the mean and standard deviation of the research sample for metacognitive skills” Declarative knowledge” according to group

Variable	N	Mean	S.D	t.test	
				Computed	Tabulated
Experimental	30	47.367	11.857	0.914	2.000
Control	30	44.833	9.476		

It is clear from the table that the t-value for metacognitive skills” Declarative knowledge” is statistically significant, as the calculated t-value of 0.914 was smaller than

the tabulated value of 2.000 with a level of significance 0.05 and a degree of freedom 58, and this means that there is no statistically significant difference between the Experimental group and the Control group Mean on the metacognitive skills”Declarative knowledge” .

b. To answer the null hypothesis(There are no statistically significant differences between the mean scores of the experimental group and that of the control group in metacognitive skills” Procedural Knowledge”), the researcher followed the following:

To achieve this hypothesis , the researcher used the Two Independence Samples t.test for the difference according to group (experimental , control) of the research sample for metacognitive skills” Procedural Knowledge” , as the mean and standard deviation of the scores were calculated, and the results were as shown in the table 26.

Table (26)

T-test for Two Independence samples to compare between the mean and standard deviation of the research sample for metacognitive skills” Procedural Knowledge” according to group

Variable	N	Mean	S.D	t.test	
				Computed	Tabulated
Experimental	30	26.467	5.532	1.693	2.000
Control	30	24.200	4.817		

It is clear from the table that the t-value for metacognitive skills” Procedural Knowledge” is statistically significant, as the calculated t-value of 1.693 was smaller than the tabulated value of 2.000 with a level of significance 0.05 and a degree of freedom 58, and this means that there is no statistically significant difference between the Experimental group and the Control group Mean on the metacognitive skills”Procedural Knowledge”.

To answer the null hypothesis(There are no statistically significant differences between the mean scores of the experimental group and that of the control group in metacognitive skills” Conditional Knowledge”), the researcher followed the following:

To achieve this hypothesis , the researcher used the Two Independence Samples t.test for the difference according to group (experimental , control) of the research sample for metacognitive skills” Conditional Knowledge” , as the mean and standard deviation of the scores were calculated, and the results were as shown in the table 27.

Table (27)

T-test for Two Independence samples to compare between the mean and standard deviation of the research sample for metacognitive skills” Conditional Knowledge” according to group

Variable	N	Mean	S.D	t.test	
				Computed	Tabulated
Experimental	30	34.900	4.816	2.613	2.000
Control	30	31.067	6.432		

It is clear from the table that the t-value for metacognitive skills” Conditional Knowledge” is statistically significant, as the calculated t-value of 2.613 was bigger than the tabulated value of 2.000 with a level of significance 0.05 and a degree of freedom 58, and this means that there is statistically significant difference between the Experimental group and the Control group Mean on the metacognitive skills” Conditional Knowledge” , in favor of the Experimental group.

To answer the null hypothesis(There are no statistically significant differences between the mean scores of the experimental group and that of the control group in metacognitive skills ” Planning”). The researcher followed the following:

To achieve this hypothesis , the researcher used the Two Independence Samples t.test for the difference according to group (experimental , control) of the research sample for metacognitive skills ” Planning” , as the mean and standard deviation of the scores were calculated, and the results were as shown in the table 28.

Table (28) T-test for Two Independence samples to compare between the mean and standard deviation of the research sample for metacognitive skills ” Planning” according to group

Variable	N	Mean	S.D	t.test	
				Computed	Tabulated
Experimental	30	43.367	8.640	2.596	2.000
Control	30	37.200	9.725		

It is clear from the table that the t-value for metacognitive skills ” Planning” is statistically significant, as the calculated t-value of 2.596 was bigger than the tabulated value of 2.000 with a level of significance 0.05 and a degree of freedom 58, and this means that there is statistically significant difference between the Experimental

group and the Control group Mean on the metacognitive skills " Planning" , in favor of the Experimental group.

To answer the null hypothesis(There are no statistically significant differences between the mean scores of the experimental group and that of the control group in metacognitive skills " information Management strategies"). The researcher followed the following:

To achieve this hypothesis , the researcher used the Two Independence Samples t.test for the difference according to group (experimental , control) of the research sample for metacognitive skills " information Management strategies" , as the mean and standard deviation of the scores were calculated, and the results were as shown in the table 29.

Table (29) T-test for Two Independence samples to compare between the mean and standard deviation of the research sample for metacognitive skills " information Management strategies"according to group

Variable	N	Mean	S.D	t.test	
				Computed	Tabulated
Experimental	30	62.000	9.893	4.242	2.000
Control	30	49.167	13.295		

It is clear from the table that the t-value for metacognitive skills " information Management strategies" is statistically significant, as the calculated t-value of 4.242 was bigger than the tabulated value of 2.000 with a level of significance 0.05 and a degree of freedom 58, and this means that there is statistically significant difference between the Experimental group and the Control group Mean on the metacognitive skills " information Management strategies", in favor of the Experimental group.

To answer the null hypothesis(There are no statistically significant differences between the mean scores of the experimental group and that of the control group in metacognitive skills " Comprehension Montoring"). The researcher followed the following:

To achieve this hypothesis , the researcher used the Two Independence Samples t.test for the difference according to group (experimental , control) of the research sample for metacognitive skills "Comprehension Montoring" , as the mean and standard deviation of the scores were calculated, and the results were as shown in the table 30.

Table (30) T-test for Two Independence samples to compare between the mean and standard deviation of the research sample for metacognitive skills " Comprehension Montoring"according to group

Variable	N	Mean	S.D	t.test
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				Computed	Tabulated
Experimental	30	46.900	8.942	2.016	2.000
Control	30	41.833	10.469		

It is clear from the table that the t-value for metacognitive skills ” Comprehension Montoring” is statistically significant, as the calculated t-value of 2,016 was bigger than the tabulated value of 2.000 with a level of significance 0.05 and a degree of freedom 58 group and the Control group Mean on the metacognitive skills ” Comprehension Montori, and this means that there is statistically significant difference between the Experimental ng”, in favor of the Experimental group.

To answer the null hypothesis(There are no statistically significant differences between the mean scores of the experimental group and that of the control group in metacognitive skills ” Debugging Strategies”). The researcher followed the following:

To achieve this hypothesis , the researcher used the Two Independence Samples t.test for the difference according to group (experimental , control) of the research sample for metacognitive skills Debugging Strategies” , as the mean and standard deviation of the scores were calculated, and the results were as shown in the table 31.

Table (31) T-test for Two Independence samples to compare between the mean and standard deviation of the research sample for metacognitive skills ” Debugging Strategies”according to group

Variable	N	Mean	S.D	t.test	
				Computed	Tabulated
Experimental	30	34.367	5.149	2.008	2.000
Control	30	30.667	8.679		

It is clear from the table that the t-value for metacognitive skills ” Debugging Strategies” is statistically significant, as the calculated t-value of 2.008 was bigger than the tabulated value of 2.000 with a level of significance 0.05 and a degree of freedom 58, and this means that there is statistically significant difference between the Experimental group and the Control group Mean on the metacognitive skills ” Debugging Strategies”, in favor of the Experimental group.

To answer the null hypothesis(There are no statistically significant differences between the mean scores of the experimental group and that of the control group in metacognitive skills ” Evaluating”). The researcher followed the following:

To achieve this hypothesis , the researcher used the Two Independence Samples t.test for the difference according to group (experimental , control) of the research sample for metacognitive skills “Evaluating” , as the mean and standard deviation of the scores were calculated, and the results were as shown in the table (32).

Table (32) T-test for Two Independence samples to compare between the mean and standard deviation of the research sample for metacognitive skills ” Evaluating” according to group

Variable	N	Mean	S.D	t.test	
				Computed	Tabulated
Experimental	30	39.867	8.366	2.497	2.000
Control	30	33.900	10.063		

It is clear from the table that the t-value for metacognitive skills ” Evaluating” is statistically significant, as the calculated t-value of 2.497 was bigger than the tabulated value of 2.000 with a level of significance 0.05 and a degree of freedom 58, and this means that there is statistically significant difference between the Experimental group and the Control group Mean on the metacognitive skills ” Evaluating”, in favor of the Experimental group.

5. DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

From the statistical analysis of the collected data , it is found that the achievement of the experimental group is significantly better than that of the control group. This means that negotiation as an interactive technique is effective for teaching productive and metacognitive skills fir EFL learners . This effectiveness may due to the following reasons :

1-Students prefer this technique because they have freedom to express their thoughts , interact , negotiate meaning , be more confident, explore their mistakes and errors through discussion to improve their oral performance.

2- According to what the study have come up with , we can say that the EG is better than the CG in their performance, our hypotheses are accepted for using negotiation in teaching productive and metacognitive skills, which demands learning and practicing language in meaningful environments. Is more appealing ti both students and teachers than learning language in traditional methods.e.i. teacher-centred classrooms.

It is worth pointing that the current study has verified the initially stated hypotheses and achieved its aims through identifying the properties of Negotiation technique , and through finding out positive effect of that technique on students achievement in metacognitive skills.

6. CONCLUSION

The results of this study indicate the relative superiority of teaching metacognitive skills by using negotiation technique that encourages thinking and motivates students participation over traditional method of teaching . The study also has concluded that the application of the technique helps students know their progress through learning tasks, activities and they will be more competent than those who lack such feeling. The results have reinforced the hypotheses of the present study . i.e. that using negotiation technique has enhanced students acquisition and motivation to participate , interact in

oral as well as written skills. And in turn promote self-regulation , thinking ,planning , i.e. metacognition.

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