

Metacognition: Foundation of Cognitive Efficiency in the learning of English by Learners in the Final Year Classes of secondary school in Foumban- Cameroon

Mouchili Divine Ngam

Ph.D. Student in Cognitive Psychology, Douala University

Tcheundjio Rosaline

Ph.D in Cognitive Psychology/ University of Yaoundé

Abstract: In this scientific article which highlights the basis of metacognition on efficiency in learning English. It is clear to see that metacognition is an essential lever in any learning process, as it enables the learner to measure his or her strengths and weaknesses in relation to the task to be solved, to know the characteristics of the task and finally to make the right choice of strategies to adopt when carrying out a task. Metacognitive activity therefore presupposes that the subject is capable of reflecting on and acting on his or her cognitive processes. In addition, Doly (1997) distinguishes two components of metacognition: knowledge about cognition called 'metacognition' and control skills called 'metacognitive skills'. It is now clear that a metacognitive subject knows how to ask questions about his or her own knowledge in order to optimise his or her chances of success when faced with a given task, because he or she has knowledge about himself or herself, about the task to be performed and about the strategies to be used to perform the task. Unsuccessful learners are not metacognitive, whereas successful learners are metacognitive, transferring, self-regulating and autonomous. This is what illustrates the value of metacognition in the teaching and learning process, which we will present throughout this article.

Key words: *metacognition, foundation, efficiency, learning English*

Problematic

Metacognition, which is first and foremost to be understood in the field of psychology from which it comes and which has defined and experienced it as a cognitive process at play in the resolution of problems that promote learning, transfer and motivation at the same time, can also be understood and more philosophically, on the side of distancing and self-awareness, that is to say a thought that can function in a critical and reflective way: It is in this double sense that its pedagogical interest appears, in particular for pupils with academic difficulties, since it promotes both learning success and motivation. For Flavel, (1976). It is the knowledge we have of our own cognitive processes and products. Metacognition appeared with the notion of internal control, from the beginning of the 20th century through work on misunderstanding – the subject who wants to understand what he reads being called upon to be both the one who reads and the one who monitors his reading activity to ensure its success -, then during and after the war with the work on metamemory and meta attention, with the learning of memory and attention strategies, particularly in subjects with learning difficulties. Often related to Piaget's notion of awareness – Piaget does not speak of metacognition – which is exercised, according to different levels of abstraction with maturation and "after the fact", it cannot be assimilated to it since this process of control, which is essential to problem solving, is exercised before, during and after the management of the task. His role can be found in the work of didactics on learning to read, comprehension, writing texts, spelling or problem solving in English where the subject's control over his or her activity is essential. It is also

discovered as a characteristic of students who are academically successful and who are said to be "learning experts", "metacognitive", "transferent" and motivated (Wong, 1985, Bouffard-Bouchard et al. 1991). This dimension of academic success and the motivation of metacognition, associated with the distancing and control required for the appropriation of cultural knowledge, is found by school sociologists such as Bautier and Rochex, in their analyses of the relationships of pupils from difficult suburbs to schooling and knowledge, and of the factors of social and linguistic failure of young adults, as well as in Lahire, to understand the failure of children from working-class backgrounds to succeed in a school that transmits a culture with a written tradition. The philosophical tradition, which has defined since Plato and Descartes what it means to think through a capacity for reflexive and critical distancing, sheds light on this analysis. Thus, if in Kant any act of knowing requires self-consciousness as a first and necessary condition, in Hegel this self-consciousness, significant of humanity and freedom, is constructed in the dynamic of a relationship between the subject and the other, with work and culture (relationships that can be found in school) – culture being understood as a kind of thought of the world of men and things, who reconstructs this world according to different modes of representation proper to human thought, from language to science, from the arts to the rules of law and morality, which makes it intelligible and controllable and thus a means of freedom: it is by becoming aware of the nature and effects of his "work" by which he transforms nature into culture under the injunction of a "master" and with others, that man constructs himself as self-consciousness. Our hypothesis as pedagogues is that it will be in a metacognitive relationship to this culture that "presents the world" as Arendt¹ says by putting it into signs, symbols and images, that the child will be able to construct his thought at the same time as his power over the world and thus his freedom, but it is still necessary for the teachers to initiate the students to this metacognitive relationship: "When we see the interest of metacognitive skills for the child at school, we can think that teachers should not be satisfied with choosing tasks according to the content but also according to the metacognitive skills that they can implement" (Biggs, 1985). It is by teaching students the use of metacognition to learn and appropriate the culture transmitted by the school, that teachers will teach them both a strategy for success in school learning and a critical and reflective thinking that Buisson and Ferry, after Kant and Condorcet, call reason, the only one that can make of a "son of a family", a free man capable of autonomous judgment and thus of citizenship. But the pedagogue who "takes out" this pedagogical function of metacognition from its psychological context in order to adapt it to the requirements of solar transmission, must be able to account for these adaptations so that everyone, researcher or practitioner, can appropriate it, implement it as he or she wishes, and modify or even reconstruct it so that this pedagogical tool does not become just another dogmatic prescription that would only be an ideology since it forgets what is on which it is based. both on the side of psychology and on the side of the ends of the school. This tool must therefore be "refutable" as Popper says² in order to define the validity of a theory by its ability to be both comprehensible and criticizable: to do this, it must present the "order of its reasons" by starting with the reference to its foundations in psychology in order to envisage their transfer into the pedagogical field, didactic and cultural aspects of the school.

1. Theoretical orientations.

Flavell first differentiates the metacognitive from the cognitive in a very general definition that situates the metacognitive subject in a distanced and reflexive attitude about his own "cognition": *It is called metacognition because its deep meaning is cognition over cognition*" (Flavell, 1985). Yussen and Flavell specify: *Metacognition covers a body of **knowledge and modes of understanding** that relate to cognition itself. Metacognition is that mental activity for which other **mental states or processes** become objects of reflection*" (Yussen, 1985) *Metacognition refers to the subject's knowledge of his or her own **cognitive processes and products**. It also refers to the **active control, regulation and orchestration** of these processes.* (Flavell, 1976, emphasis added) Metacognition is thus defined according to two poles, declarative and procedural: metacognitive knowledge (or metaknowledge) which relates to two types of knowledge and control skills or processes.

1.1. Metacognitive skills

Metacognitive skills are about products and processes; they can be right or wrong; they are general but also and above all personal. Flavell distinguishes four categories: on people and cognitive functioning (that of memory for example), and on the subject itself (how I function: knowing that I have a bad memory, that I am distracted,) on tasks, on knowledge (acquired through repeated experiences and awareness) I know that these are the criteria that define a narrative text and that I personally tend to forget: I know I have knowledge about this period of history but not about another. etc.) on strategies, (procedures, working methods) in general and personal: knowing that *the representation of the goal is decisive in control and regulation*"(Flavell); knowing how to learn one's math lesson, and knowing how to situate one's own skills in relation to this) most often: on the interaction between the 3: (I can know that strategies to solve a particular problem in PE or spelling exist and are better than mine but also know that I don't know how to use them very well,)

1.2. Control skills

Refers to a set of mental operations implemented by the subject that aim to control and regulate his own activity in order to guide it to the goal: the subject therefore distances himself from what he does in order to monitor it and ensure greater success. These processes are automated for experts and students who are successful academically (see below) but absent for novices and students who fail in failure.

There are three types of operations:

- **planning:** which presupposes planning (even embryonic) based on data and the goal, a representation of this goal (even intuitive and elementary): they become clearer with the progress of the task management
- **self-regulation** allowing guidance in relation to the goal: this is achieved by becoming aware of the procedures implemented, the relationship between procedures and the goal, which aims to understand them in order to guide and monitor them, by maintaining the orientation towards the goal, by identifying and analysing errors with possible backtracking, decision-making and anticipation of the consequences of the choices, . Operations 1 and 2 are carried out with the recall of knowledge and meta-knowledge that is useful or judged as such by the subject.

1.3. Pedagogical interests

These interests make it possible to ensure greater success in the management of tasks: to get to the goal; to promote memory; to acquire more confident knowledge and skills. Promote the transfer of knowledge and skills built with metacognitive control and therefore learning. Learn control and self-regulation skills and develop autonomy, especially of students in their personal work. Promoting academic success: *The promise of metacognition is that it allows the generalization of performance to different situations, it makes the learner a self-evaluating subject, someone who has learned how to learn*"(Gaveleck and Raphael, 1985) Developing motivation and self-esteem (see below) *Metacognition aims at one of the permanent problems of teaching, that of the transfer or generalization of what has been learned (...) It is the most important way in which an individual becomes able to modify and adapt his or her cognitive activity to tasks in different contexts. (...). It makes the learner an implicit or explicit theorist of his cognition – he knows what he knows and how he knows it, which allows him to transfer his competence to different tasks"* Gaveleck and Raphael (1985)

1.4. Pupils in a situation of failure and pupils in a situation of success (EE, ER)

In the area at stake) do not necessarily need to exercise conscious control and can instead be faster and more efficient by acting in a more automated way. In addition, if certain tasks or knowledge/skills are automated, cognitive functioning is more available to focus on what is less known. Hence the interest for the teacher to automate or take charge of certain tasks, knowledge or skills, to unload the student's cognitive activity and allow him to be metacognitive on what imposes it: metacognitive control is indeed cognitively costly, as it is necessary to learn, it is necessary to

know how to relieve the student of menial tasks so that he or she can focus on what is essential. The goal at school is not to have all students exercise this metacognitive control permanently on all subjects, but first of all, to learn it and make it a "cognitive habit" so that it is a strategy that is always available, and then to automate strategies, skills, the restitution of knowledge, in other words, to make "learning experts".

2. How metacognition works:

Studies on failing pupils, in addition to showing that failing pupils lack metacognitive skills in particular, show *that the most precise explanation for the difficulties of failing children is their inability to find a learned strategy specific to the task* (Cullen 1985). *The use of strategies depends largely on the metacognitive knowledge that the subjects possess about strategies* (Mélot and Corroyer 1992) *And: It is not enough to have knowledge and strategies, it is also necessary to know that one has them in order to be able to use them wisely. It is necessary to be aware of what one knows and does not know in order to regulate the use of one's knowledge appropriately.* (Cullen, 1985) Thus, in order to be able to implement metacognitive skills, one must have them *and* know that one possesses them, which requires specific learning modalities, the question being: how can a strategy such as metacognition be learned in such a way that it is conscious and transferable? And more generally, under what conditions can metacognition be implemented in learning and learned? There are two sources for the proposals made here: Research in cognitive psychology, particularly on metamemory, which shows this loss of learned strategies as soon as training stops. The work we carried out in two primary school classes and two middle school classes, for two to four years on school learning. It must be understood that everything that is said about the conditions for the functioning of metacognition also enters into what defines the role and objectives of learning aid. The subject must initially possess useful and usable meta-knowledge of the field concerned (what he knows and what he knows and does not know about the field in terms of knowledge and strategies): the teacher reminds us of useful misunderstandings; so that they may be; They must have been constructed beforehand or else everyone will use unproven misunderstandings. It is also possible that the teacher chooses to make the students start from poorly developed misunderstandings, in order to develop them. He must be able to activate them at the right time, it depends on several factors: age: young children would be incapable of metacognition. There is, however, a discussion on this point. Studies on the notion of guardianship show that mothers of very young children know how to teach them to be metacognitive; that metacognitive control is taken care of by very young children in their games, especially since they have been used to it by adults. The question that remains is that of the degree of consciousness to which the child arrives in order to carry out this control: it is very difficult to assess but it increases with age but also with the help of the adult who requests it.

Training: there is no learning without repetition of the fact that the subject knows that he has and for this, help provided in this perspective. The subject must become aware of his activity (and be helped to do so if necessary) in order to understand it and be able to guide it: before management, to anticipate, foresee, represent the task, in particular its purpose (which means that the task is in its "proximal zone"), and for this to do so take the time, Don't throw yourself into the task. During management, to relate the data, procedures and goal to understand mental activity and to be able to self-regulate it, then explain it, verbalize it if necessary to evaluate it (this work will be done at school in co-regulation with the teacher). After management to evaluate performance and estimate the value and benefit of using the strategy. The ability to find and reuse a strategy (or knowledge) depends largely on the fact that the subject has become aware of what it was precisely and the benefit he or she derived from its use, including in terms of personal progress in learning. Reflection on the relationship between metacognition and motivation), this presupposes that there was awareness during these three moments. Our work in class allowed us to observe, by comparing the results of students obtained after lessons carried out on the same theme with and without metacognition throughout the sessions, that the students have great difficulty in recalling the procedures used when there has been no metacognitive reflection during the different sessions. This

is confirmed by work on memory: events (mental or not) are remembered all the better if they have been subjected to metacognitive control. The question of the degree of consciousness in metacognitive control is much debated by "metacognitivists": I'd summarize that for some (Wellman) it is a function of mental development, for Karmiloff-Smith it develops according to three stages, others speak of semi-consciousness (Piagetian idea) or epi-consciousness (Gombert); for Flavell and Brown, control is done through "metacognitive experiences" which are well defined as realizations but intermittent. There are also those who think that this control is most often carried out without consciousness at all, except in exceptional cases. We stick here to the latter idea with the (widely shared) hypothesis that novices need to go through a phase of consciousness in order to learn. (which corresponds quite well to the Karmiloff-Smith hypothesis) The subject must carry out a *re-elaboration at a more abstract level*"(Cauzinille-Marmèche), decontextualized, formalized, conceptualized in order to be able to fix the strategy in memory so that it is transferable. Here we can find Piaget's analysis of the development of intelligence and the capacity for abstraction that is necessary for it, which operates through awareness of activity and according to three levels, empirical, reflective and reflective *where the subject has become capable of theory*"(Piaget, 1974a), where he has *reconstructed*"(Piaget, 1974b) action on a formalized and conceptualized level of explanation: the subject knows the strategy both procedurally and declaratively. The role of oral and written language is very important in this conceptualization operation (*cf.* in the examples proposed at the end of the text, the constitution of criteria sheets by the students), *Language is the most advanced tool we have. It is not an ordinary tool but a tool that enters into the very constitution of thought and social relations. It has a number of properties that allow it to play an essential role in the development of consciousness. (...) It allows him (the child) to distance himself from his actions, whether they are linguistic or not. This is the form of consciousness that has been called reflection since Plato. This tool is privileged by the fact that it allows not only awareness but also communication and social relationships.* (Bruner, 1983) This requires that it be an oral language that is sufficiently elaborate and explicit to account for structured, conceptual thinking. This work of re-elaboration must be carried out by the subject himself (it may be collective or more individualized and helped by the teacher who has built didactic objectives) on his activity: it is the subject who must be made to make the transition, or even the epistemological break, to use Bachelard's expression, from his activity, even verbalized, to its structuring-reconstruction in a general or even universal knowledge; It is up to him to encode what is to be put in *his* memory in order to understand it (to take with *his* intellectual means) even if it is necessary to put objective and proven knowledge and not subjective beliefs. Thus, it is necessary to avoid at all costs at school to give students handouts written by the teacher on what has been built by the students in a constructivist approach: otherwise, it is forgetting that the role of this structuring-evaluation work is not an "additional" and optional work of learning but an internal task and necessary to the dynamics of learning and of a learning that we want to be transferable. It should be remembered that the proposed situation must be in the proximal zone of the subject, i.e. be both problematic (and without spontaneous means of solving the problem) and surmountable on the basis of acquired knowledge and resources, including the external help of the expert. Metacognitive control and the self-regulation that it presupposes are not spontaneous, especially among students from working-class backgrounds, as noted. Lahire (1993b) and Rochex later.

We understand *the major role of mediation* understood on the side of the systematic and specific help of the educator below, the notion of *guardianship*) and at the same time of knowledge and language, both for a more efficient management of tasks, and for academic success and the democratization of the school. To be able to implement this specific aid, the teacher must have both: knowledge of metacognition and an explicit desire to use it, but also clear didactic objectives and precise knowledge of the field of learning: in the same way that there can be no consciousness without an object, metacognition, and especially at school, cannot operate "empty".

Working together, with or without sociocognitive conflict, promotes metacognitive and more efficient task management. Gilly, 1997, and Baudry 1997). It should be remembered that in the classroom, this work also requires help from the teacher so that each member of the group

participates in and benefits from learning and metacognitive management. Finally, it is important that these metacognitive behaviors are repeated to become more automatic and effective; This means that in the classroom, it will be necessary to repeat the modalities of assistance in the metacognitive management of tasks and in a similar way regardless of the tasks and disciplines, to install *metacognitive habits* in the students. So let's look at how to understand how to help novices effectively use metacognition and learn how to use it.

3. Metacognition: from motivation to learning

Numerous studies (Cullen, 1985, Wong, 1985, Ostad, 1999, Bråten I., Stokke Olaussen B., 2000) show the interest of teaching metacognition to subjects who have failed learning in order to help them progress at the same time in their ability to solve problems and in the motivation to do so, which seems to be decisive in this progress. Some of them (Bouffard-Bouchard et al., 1991 a and b.), question the differences between students who succeed (graded ER) and those who fail (graded EE) and conclude:

- EEs are not metacognitive (which is confirmed by sociologists such as Rochex and Lahire already cited): they do not know what they know or what they do not know, in other words, they do not have useful metaknowledge; they do not use a control strategy: throw themselves into the task (or are inactive), manage randomly without awareness, rely on surface clues and poorly encode the task, the data, the goal -often lost sight of-; they therefore do not understand what they are doing; they give up in the face of failure and are dependent on outside help but are unable to help them to help them; they don't memorize what they're doing even when they're successful and don't transfer. REs, on the other hand, are *metacognitive, "self-regulated," transferent, and learning experts"* (Bouffard-Bouchard, *ibid.*); they have strategies in the face of failure and are persevering. *The best transferors are those who plan, evaluate and are self-correcting: they control their activity. Non-transferors act without order, without planning, easily change procedures, and error teaches them nothing'*(Brown, 1987, taken up by Mendelsohn 1994)

4. Methodology.

We present the research questions, hypotheses, and study population...

4.1. Research questions and hypotheses

4.1.1. The general hypothesis and research hypotheses

HG: Does metacognition influence the efficiency in learning English in learners in the final year classes of Foumban?

H1: Does planning influence the efficiency of learning English among learners in the final year of high school in Foumban?

H2: Does self-regulation influence the efficiency in learning English among learners in the final year of Foumban?

4.1.2. La main question and research questions.

QP: Does metacognition influence the efficiency in English learning among learners in the final year of Foumban classes?

The specific questions are:

Q1: Does planning influence the efficiency of English learning among learners in the final year of Foumban classes?

Q2: Does self-regulation influence the efficiency of English learning among learners in the final year of Foumban?

4.2. Participants

The participants in this study are made up of learners in the final year of high school in Cameroon who live in the city of Foumban and who are concerned with improving their level in English,

which is one of the official languages of this country. They are between 13 and 19 years old, of both genders and in school and have freely consented to participate in this study.

However, a pre-survey to verify the language of the English language is a prerequisite. The emphasis is on oral expression. Given the difficulty of accurately estimating the size of the population, in order to retain the size of the sample and, above all, taking into account representativeness, the determination of the likelihood ratio indices that could satisfy the requirements of differential analyses of the data collected (Rossi, 2000) made it possible to retain 208 individuals. In addition, we referred to Depeltau's (2000) sample estimation table and to the parity of language numbers. The sampling technique is that of reasoned choice. The table below shows the sample by selected institution

Establishment	Actual	Percentage
Sultan Ibrahim Mbombo Njoya Bilingual High School	206	27%
Bangambi Bilingual High School	84	11%
Bilingual high school of Foubot	168	22%
Foumban Peace College	86	11, 3%
Classical High School of Foumban	211	27,7%
Total	762	100%

Table 1: *Sampling table*

Source: Terrain

4.3. Data collection methods

The information analyzed in this work was collected from the combination of two investigative tools: the questionnaire and the statistical analysis. Thus, our work will consist of first constructing a questionnaire, which will allow us to verify for ourselves the effectiveness of this misunderstanding of the strategies of knowledge transfer in linguistics in relation to metacognition and its corollary on the commitment to efficiency in the learning of English among students of state universities in Cameroon.

4.4. The data processing tool

In this part, we will talk about the frequency distribution and the contingency table. On the subject of the treatment of the data obtained from the field, Quivy & Van Campenhout (1995: 228) reminds us that "it [a statistical tool] can describe relationships, latent structures, but the meaning of these relationships and structures does not come from it. It is the researcher who gives meaning to these relationships through the theoretical model that he has previously constructed and according to which he has chosen a method of statistical analysis. The data in our questionnaire can be evaluated by a physical measurement. Thus, since we have used the Likert scale in the construction of the modalities of our variables and which are of an ordinal nature, a Spearman rho correlation test is necessary for us as an indication of an inferential analysis and which allows us to establish the dependence between our variables. The major concern here is to observe how the learner perceives the instruction presented to him and, depending on the understanding he makes of it, undertakes to solve the problem or not.

4.5. Frequency distribution

The purpose of this part is to highlight the calculation of statistical indicators such as central tendency indices (arithmetic mean, mode, median) and dispersion indices such as variance, standard deviation or coefficient of variation. In the context of our study, the frequency distributions will be intended for a descriptive analysis of the sample and for the categorical quantification of the data resulting from the survey. Subsequent distribution tables will include overall numbers, frequencies and percentages in terms of the variable taken into account.

4.6. Contingency Table

At this stage of the work, it is important to calculate the correlation coefficients, i.e. the ratio between the independent variable and the dependent variable. We will use tables with information

that will result from the survey. These tables carrying the information are called contingency tables. To quantify the relationship between our two variables, we will use the covariance in the following way $COV (X;Y) > 0$: the relationship is positive, i.e. when X is greater than its expectation, Y tends to be greater than its expectation; an increase in X leads to an increase in Y. $COV (X;Y)=0$: a+: Absence of monotonic relationship; $COV (X;Y) < 0$: the bond is negative, i.e. when X is greater than its expectation, Y tends to be smaller than its own expectation; X and Y evolve in opposite directions. To establish this link or the influence between the variables in order to verify our results, we chose the Bravais-Pearson correlation coefficient because our modalities are ordinal, i.e. they involve an order. This hypothesis test measures the strength and direction of the relationship between two variables. The sample correlation coefficient symbolized by r or r_{xy} is the value expressing the strength by which two variables are related to each other. Before we begin, we will formulate the statistical hypotheses:

H_0 (null hypothesis): it states that there is no link between the independent variable and the dependent variable. H_1 (alternative hypothesis) which states that there is a relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable. These assumptions are of the form: $H_0: r_{xy} = 0$; $H_1: r_{xy} \neq 0$ The sample correlation coefficient can be given in the form of a ratio. For this purpose, we will have: If $r = 0$; no correlation If $0 \leq r \leq 0.2$; correlation is weak between the two variables, Si $0.2 \leq r \leq 0.4$; weakly significant correlation between the two variables, Si $0.4 \leq r \leq 0.6$; mean correlation between the two variables, Si $0.6 \leq r \leq 0.8$; significant correlation between the two variables, Si $0.8 \leq r \leq 1$; strong correlation between the two variables, Si $r = 1$; correlation is perfect. For social science studies, the recommended confidence rate is 95% with a risk, i.e. a margin of error equal to 0.05 ($\alpha = 5\%$).

4.7. The data analysis tool

As an analysis tool, we used the SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) software, which is essentially a data processing software for statistical analyses. It reads the data, translates it into SPSS format, transforms it (if requested), and performs mathematical and statistical operations. This software allows, thanks to its power of mathematical means, to manipulate a large number of variables very quickly, to present the clarity of results and research reports; especially when the researcher takes advantage of the resources of the graphical representation of information. This software will allow us to set up frequency distributions and contingency tables. The interpretation of these tables through correlational analysis leads us to the verification of the hypotheses constructed from our research.

Despite many difficulties encountered in the field, we were nevertheless able to collect data from our sample with the help of our questionnaire that allow us to assign a value to the place of metacognition in the efficiency of the English language among learners in the final year classes of Fouban.

RESULTS

The variables: "Metacognition (VI)" and "efficiency in English (DV)" of this research, obey the reduced centered normal distribution $(X(0; 1))$, and admit pivot tables between DV and the modalities of IV. Given the size and structure of the sample, the non-zero degree of freedom, and the conditions of variable independence being met, the application of the chi-square (χ^2) and z-test (z) probability distributions is justified.

INTERPRETATION

Table 2: Cross-tabulation 1: Actively monitored their knowledge during English classes and My level of English efficiency is

		My level of efficiency in English is				Total
		NO	Weak	Medium	High	
Actively monitored his knowledge during English classes	NO	1	0	7	3	11
	Never	2	25	29	14	70

	Rarely	4	41	118	33	196
	Often	4	46	188	57	295
	Always	2	19	114	55	190
Total		13	131	456	162	762

The commentary on this table suggests that 13 out of 762 learners are voluntarily required to answer this question, 131 out of 762 pupils believe that an active assessment of one's knowledge slightly improves the student's level in English, 456 learners believe that an active assessment of one's knowledge moderately improves one's performance in English, 162 learners believe that an active assessment of one's knowledge considerably improves efficiency in English. It comes to the conclusion that the more active knowledge assessment there is, the more significantly the level of efficiency of learners improves.

Table 3: Symmetric Measurements Crosstab 1

		Value	Asymptotic standard error ^a	T approximated ^b	Approximate meaning
Interval by Interval	R de Pearson	,153	,038	4,255	,000c
Ordinal by Ordinal	Spearman correlation	,158	,037	4,416	,000c
Number of valid observations		762			
has. The null hypothesis is not considered.					
b. Use of the asymptotic standard error in the null hypothesis.					
c. Based on normal approximation.					

Reading this table, which illustrates the value of Spearman's correlation coefficient r for hypothesis (H1), it appears that the value of Spearman's correlation coefficient r for this hypothesis is 0.153, which means that there is a significantly low correlation between the variables considered. With that, we reject the null hypothesis (HO) and accept the alternative hypothesis (H1). We can therefore conclude that metacognition significantly influences the efficiency in learning English in students in the final year of Fouban

CONCLUSION

Metacognition as defined by psychologists, neither only as metacognitive skills, nor only as self-regulation, nor as awareness after the fact, much less as a psychoanalytic modality, but characteristic of "learning expert" students, is promising for learning success and motivation, including psychological and didactic and didactic and didactic skills. Even if it is possible to find points of comparison between psychoanalysis and metacognition, such as the requirement of the analyst's specific linguistic mediation in order for the analysis to take place, this work of *analysis* of the *analysand* has nothing in common with the awareness linked to metacognition: the objects of the subject's awareness over which he exercises metacognitive control have never been *censored* as is the case with the *unconscious elements* on which the *analysand's* work is exercised. We have seen the relationship to the construction of identity through the concept of the self.

We presented metacognition in its foundations and in possible pedagogical and didactic models that were implemented in school and qualitatively evaluated. These models are only possible implementations of the concept of psychology. Two things must be remembered in this regard: that there may be other possible realizations and that there are other ways of learning and teaching that are in no way contradictory to this use of metacognition; that the characteristics of mediation by tutoring to the metacognition of pupils that we have defined can be implemented, with a few nuances, with a class group and in a lecture-type teaching situation. Our thesis is that if metacognition can become a pedagogical tool full of interest at school, especially for pupils in difficulty, this can only be done under certain conditions, which are, first of all, *mediation conditions* in which it is necessary to understand both the modalities and objectives of the teacher's intervention, oral and written language, the role of the student, and the relationship to the

knowledge taught by the teacher. But it must also be related, on the one hand, to what defines it in psychology in order to keep its foundations in order to know what we are talking about and thus to allow everyone to have the same references; and on the other hand, to what justifies its use *in schools*, namely the transmission of cultural knowledge of universal value, the appropriation of which, as we have said, requires distancing, reflexivity and therefore metacognitive control. If, in fact, the school must form the students' thoughts, this cannot be done without *the culture which (is) what gives shape to the mind*" as J. Bruner²¹ says, at the same time as it is what prepares the student for the intelligence of the world and thus for his autonomy; because, finally, it is for this task that the school has been willed by the "general will" and that teachers have been trained, recognized and instituted. Without these two references, there is a great risk that metacognition at school, thus emptied of its meaning and object, will become a purely formal relationship between *children* and an *adult* in which the children, who would no longer be protected by the mediation of knowledge that makes them pupils, - teachers being in school, not private persons but messengers of universal culture and republican values, - are given over to an uncontrollable adult will, even filled with "good intentions". Children and teachers then risk entering into a therapeutic relationship but without the mediation of identifiable medical knowledge, and therefore into a "private" relationship that calls into question the values and purposes of the school that make up its "authority" and that of the teachers, namely the training of the child in critical thinking through the knowledge of his or her culture. This training requires that the school be *secular*, that is to say, a guarantee that what is done there is of the order of the transmission of proven knowledge of a universal nature and not of the order of beliefs or opinions that alienate the child from his "trainers" (who are then no longer teachers), the only holders of the beliefs at stake, instead of emancipating them from all their fathers and masters. If metacognition is of interest to the pedagogue at school, it is insofar as it is neither an end in itself nor the tool of a private relationship²² but can help to prepare *all* students for the exercise of civic power, which requires both the possibility of sharing the common good that is culture, the "controlled" use of language and of a thought capable of *judging according to reason alone*" as F Buisson said (In Prost, 1968), that is to say independently of all physical and social determinisms.

We have carried out work in the high schools and colleges of the Noun, particularly in the (in reading, comprehension and composition) and in the high school (in English): this teaching must simply include one or two moments of work for two or three or a personal time of work at home. A relationship of a therapeutic nature can have its place with children or adolescents with psychological difficulties, such as those found in special education, but outside of school and first of all the classroom, which cannot renounce its role of emancipation through universal knowledge, especially for children from working-class backgrounds. without losing what makes its meaning, its value, its *raison d'être*, in short, its "authority". Would it not indeed be the door open to any form of "guruization" of students insofar as compulsory schooling would "deliver" them to practices that are uncontrollable in their forms as well as in their content and their results?

BIBLIOGRAPHICAL REFERENCES

1. Baudry A., (1997) *Learning in pairs. Etudes psychosociales de situations dyadiques* (PUF) Bautier E. and Rochex J-Y., (1995) Questions sur la politique ZEP *In Educations*, 3. June 95
2. Bautier E., (1995) Language practices, social practices. (The Harmattan)
3. Bouffard-Bouchard T., Parent S., Larivée S., (1991a). Cognitive skills, learning abilities and metacognition. *International Journal of Psychology*, 26, 6.
4. Bouffard-Bouchard T., Parent S., Larivée S., (1991 b). Influence of self-efficacy on Self-Regulation and Performance among Junior and Senior High School Age Students. *International Journal of Behavioral Development*, 14,2.
5. Bråten I., Stokke Olaussen B., (2000). Motivational beliefs and learning strategy use. The relationship between motivational beliefs and learning strategy use among Norwegian college students. *European Journal of Psychology of Education*, XXII.

6. Brown A.L., (1987). metacognition, executive control, self-regulation and more mysterious mechanisms. *Metacognition, motivation and understanding*, Weirner & Kluwe, LEA.
7. Bruner, J., (1983). *Child development. Savoir Faire, Savoir dire* (PUF).
8. Cauzinille-Marmèche E., (1991). Learning to use knowledge for problem solving: analogy and transference. *Bulletin of Psychology*, 399.
9. Cullen J.L., (1985); Children's ability to cope with failure: implication of a metacognitive approach for classroom. *Metacognition, cognition and Human performance, Vol.2 Eds. Forrest-Presley, Academic Press*
10. Day J.D., French L.A., Hall L.K., (1985). Social influence on cognitive development. *Metacognition, cognition and Human performance, Vol.2 Eds. Forrest-Presley, Academic Press*
11. Doly A-M., (1996). (a) Motivation and metacognition (b) Succeeding in motivating *Cahiers Pédagogiques, "Motivation"*
12. Doly A-M., (1996). *Metacognition and mediation*. (collection profession professeur, CRDP d'Auvergne)
13. Doly A-M., (1998). Metacognition and Pedagogy: Issues and Proposals for the Introduction of Metacognition in Schools. Doctoral Thesis (Lyon2)
14. Doly A-M., (1999). Metacognition and mediation at school, In M. Grangeat (coord.) *Metacognition, an aid to students' work*. (ESF).
15. Doly A-M., (2000). Metacognition for learning at school, (*Cahiers Pédagogiques*. Feb. 2000, intelligence is learned?)
16. Doly A-M., (2005) Metacognition to learn how to write texts at school and develop motivation to do it. In *Effective learning and teaching of writing.*, part 2. (Gert Rijlaarsdam; H. Van den Bergh, Michel Couzijn Eds. Kluwer academic Publishers)
17. Fayol M., Monteil J-M., (1994). Learning strategies/learning strategies. *Frieze Review of Pedagogy*, 106
18. Flavell J.H., (1976) Metacognitive aspects of problem-solving In L.B.Resnick *The Nature of Intelligence*. Hillsdale, NJ Laurence Erlbaum Associates.
19. Flavell J.H., (1985). Metacognitive development. *Developmental Psychology, Problems and Realities* . Bideaud J. and Richelle M. (Mardaga).
20. Gavelek J.R., Raphael T.E. (1985). Metacognition and the role of questioning activities. *Metacognition, cognition and Human performance*, Vol.2 Eds. Forrest-Presley, Academic Press.
21. Gilly M., (1997). Interactions de guidage et développement cognitif: rôle des médiations sémiotiques. In A. Marhetti (Ed.), *Knowledge, affetti socialità. Towards integrated conceptions of development*, Milan: raffaella Cortina Editore.
22. Gombert J. E., (1991) The role of metalinguistic abilities in the acquisition of written language. *Practices*, 3.
23. Goody J., (1979). *La raison graphique* (Ed. de Minuit)
24. Higél P., (1998) Le transfert en educabilité. *Revue Française de pédagogie*, 122.
25. Lafortune L., Jacob S., Hébert. (2000) *To Guide Metacognition* (Coll. ducation, presses de l'Université du Québec)
26. Lahire B., (1993a). Written culture and educational inequalities. *Sociology of Failure at School* (PU Lyon)
27. Lahire B., (1993 b) Written culture and educational inequalities. In *Human Sciences*, 34,

28. Mélot A-M., (1991). Control of memorization behaviors and metacognition. *Bulletin of Psychology*, 399.
29. Mélot A-M., Corroyer D., (1992) Organization of metacognitive Knowledge: a condition for strategies use in memorization. *European Journal of Education*
30. Mendelsohn P., (1990) The notion of transfer in cognitive psychology. *Pedagogical notebooks*, 28.
31. Ostad S. A., (1999). Strategy-use differences between mathematically normal and mathematically disabled children. *European Journal of Psychology of Education*.
32. Pallacio R., & Lafortune L., (2001) (*under the direction of*) *Pour une pensée réflexive en éducation..* Coll. Education, research Press of the University of Quebec.
33. Paris S.G., Winograd G.W., (1990). How metacognition can promote academic learning and instruction. *Dimensions of thinking and cognitive instruction*. B.J. Jones & L. Idol, (Hillsdale Erlbaum Ass.)
34. Piaget J., (1974 a) *Awareness* (PUF)
35. Piaget J., (1974 b) *Réussir et comprendre* (PUF)
36. Prost A., (1968) *Histoire de l'enseignement en France, 1800-1967* (A Colin)
37. Remond M., Quet F., (1999) Learning to understand the written word. Psycholinguistics and metacognition: CM2. *Landmarks*, 19.
38. Rochex J-Y., (1995) *Le sens de l'expérience scolaire* (PUF)
39. Roussey J-Y., Piolat A., (1991) Expert strategies for editorial control and definition of the goal. *Repère*, 4.
40. Schneuwly b., bronckart j.p., (1985). *Vygotsky today*. (Delachaux and Niestlé).
41. Van Kraayenoord C.E, Schneider W.E., (1999). Reading achievement; metacognition, reading self-concept and interest: a study of German students en grades 3 and 4. *European Journal of Psychology of Education*, 3, vol. XIV
42. Vygotsky L., (1985) *Thought and Language*. (PUF)
43. Wertsch J., V., (1985). The Semiotic Mediation of Mental Life: L.L. Vygotsky and M.M. Bakhtin in SCHNEUWLY B., BRONCKART J.P., (1985). *Vygotsky today*. (Delachaux and Niestlé).
44. Wertsch J.,V., (1985). Adult-child interaction as a source of self-regulation in children. In S. Yussen (Eds.) *The growth of reflection in children*, 69-97. (Orlando Academic Press).
45. Wong B.Y.L., (1985). Metacognition and learning disabilities. *Metacognition, cognition and Human performance, Vol.2 Eds. ForrestPresley, Academic Press*. 18
46. Yussen S.R., (1985). The rôle of metacognition in contemporary theories of cognitive development. *Metacognition, cognition and Human performance, Vol.1 Eds. Forrest-Presley, Acl*