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Is Listening All About One's Own Effort?
A Comparison Study

Sharing the same theoretical basis of extensive reading, *extensive listening* refers to learner exposure to a great deal of comprehensible spoken input. While the effectiveness of extensive reading has been widely acknowledged in many countries, empirical support of extensive listening is limited. This small-scale study adopted a mixed-method approach to compare the effects of teacher-guided listening instruction and extensive listening on EFL learners' listening comprehension and vocabulary acquisition. Twenty-six EFL adult learners were divided into 2 groups. One group received teacher-guided listening instruction (*n* = 14), whereas the other practiced extensive listening (*n* = 12). All participants were tested on listening comprehension and vocabulary knowledge before, immediately after, and 3 months after the training period; 4 of them were interviewed after the training. The quantitative findings suggested that both approaches are effective in enhancing EFL learners' listening comprehension and vocabulary acquisition. The interview data revealed that teacher-guided listening instruction is helpful but needs to be complemented by extensive individual listening practice. Based on the results, a new pedagogical model, which blends teacher-guided instruction and extensive listening practice, is proposed, and specific modifications tailored for ESL students are discussed.

Introduction

In recent years, L2 listening instruction has shifted from a product-oriented approach, which heavily focuses on the outcome of listening, to a process-based approach, which emphasizes learners' cognitive and metacognitive processes during listening (Siegel, 2013). This process-based approach, also called the strategy-based approach, involves raising learners' awareness of the strategies that they adopt and teaching them to use addi-

tional strategies (Mendelsohn, 1994). Recent research has reported the positive relation between guided strategy instruction and L2 listening comprehension (Graham & Macaro, 2008). Another type of listening instruction, extensive listening, exposes learners to a large amount of comprehensible input (Renandya & Farrell, 2011). Several advocates of extensive listening have stressed the importance of this approach over strategy-based instruction (Blyth, 2012; Renandya, 2012; Renandya & Farrell, 2011). Nevertheless, empirical evidence to support this argument is needed.

Like written input, spoken input plays an important role in L2 learners' vocabulary acquisition (Vidal, 2011). Several factors have been found to be related to vocabulary acquisition through listening input, such as word type and and frequency of word occurrence (Vidal, 2003). Since the type of L2 listening instruction to some extent determines the type of input learners receive, it is important to examine which type of listening instruction is helpful for L2 vocabulary acquisition.

In the present study, three terms (i.e., *teacher-guided listening instruction, listening strategy instruction,* and *metacognitive listening instruction*), which represent the contrasting approaches to extensive listening, are used interchangeably, but the underlying differences in the three terms need to be acknowledged. Teacher-guided listening instruction refers to any listening teaching methods that involve a teacher's explicit instruction and explanation; two examples are listening strategy instruction and metacognitive listening instruction. More specifically, listening strategy instruction involves explicit teaching of listening strategies. Metacognitive listening instruction encompasses a wider variety of activities designed to improve learners' listening comprehension and to guide them to reflect on their listening processes inside and outside of the classroom (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012). In the present study, metacognitive listening instruction refers to the metacognitive pedagogical cycle that requires the teacher's explicit direction in class.

The present study aims to compare the effects of the metacognitive listening instruction and extensive listening on L2 learners' listening comprehension and vocabulary acquisition. In addition to measuring the immediate effects of these two approaches, the present study further examined whether the positive effects, if any, were carried over three months after the treatment. Based on the results, a new pedagogical model is proposed. By referring to previous ESL studies, we also discuss how the model can be modified and implemented for teaching ESL students.

Literature Review
Effects of Listening Strategy Instruction
Previous studies have reported that different forms of strategy instruction facilitate listening comprehension and development in other areas, such as self-efficacy and listening strategic behavior (Graham & Macaro, 2008).

In listening strategy intervention studies, various theoretical frameworks have been employed to justify strategy selection or the focus of the intervention. Among them, metacognitive theory (Flavell, 1976) has been widely applied to listening instruction. In particular, metacognitive knowledge about L2 listening highlights the application of person, task, and strategy knowledge (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012). *Person knowledge* includes learner awareness of cognitive and affective factors that influence an individual's listening comprehension. *Task knowledge* includes knowing the purpose and nature of the listening task and the effort required to accomplish the task. *Strategy knowledge* refers to the ability to approach listening tasks by adopting effective strategies. Vandergrift and Goh (2012) present a metacognitive pedagogical model that aims to enable learners to become self-regulated listeners through a reiterative process that involves planning, monitoring, evaluation, and problem solving.

Empirical studies have shown positive effects of metacognitive instruction. Vandergrift and Tafaghodtari (2010) compared the listening-comprehension performances of two groups of French learners. The experimental group received listening instruction after a metacognitive pedagogical cycle, whereas the control group practiced the same listening texts in class without any specific guidance. The experimental group outperformed the control group in the posttest on listening comprehension. In addition, the less proficient listeners in the experimental group made more gains than their more proficient peers. Cross (2011) examined the effects of a similar pedagogical sequence on advanced-level Japanese EFL learners' listening comprehension of news reports. The findings showed that the instruction benefited the less skilled listeners more than the more skilled ones, which suggests that not all learners can equally reap the advantages of metacognitive instruction; beyond a threshold, the effects may be limited.

While previous studies have reported positive effects of strategy instruction, Cross's (2009) study did not particularly favor strategy instruction. The advanced-level EFL learners were divided into an experimental group, which received 12 hours of explicit strategy instruction, and a control group, which practiced the same listening materials without strategy instruction. The results showed that both groups made significant progress over the 10 weeks.

Extensive Listening

Building on the positive effects of extensive reading on language development (e.g., Yamashita, 2008), extensive listening has received more attention in recent years. *Extensive listening* refers to learner exposure to a great deal of comprehensible spoken input through all kinds of activities (Chang, 2012; Renandya & Farrell, 2011). Compared to strategy-based instruction, extensive listening involves less guidance from the teacher. To date, empiri-

cal support of extensive listening is limited. Chang (2012) compared the effects of extensive listening and intensive listening on EFL learners' listening development and vocabulary acquisition. Over a 26-week period, the extensive listening group practiced listening to 15 stories, while the intensive listening group listened to three stories. In addition to the amount of listening, the instructional approaches were different in the two groups. In the extensive listening group, the instructor checked only the students' global understanding of the stories by giving them worksheets with comprehension questions; the instructor in the intensive listening group, on the other hand, made sure that students understood all utterances in the stories through structured teaching and dictation activity. Comparison of the posttests of the two groups revealed that the extensive listening group outperformed the intensive listening group on the listening comprehension test; however, the intensive listening group did exhibit significant gains in vocabulary after the instruction period. The study suggests that both types of instruction should be incorporated into a language course to provide well-balanced training, as each type of instruction serves different purposes.

Chang and Millet (2014) demonstrated that extensive listening, especially in the form of simultaneous listening along with reading, can bring about a significant gain in listening comprehension. Their study suggested that a sufficient amount of input and consistent practice within a specific time frame are the keys to enhancing listening fluency. They also stressed the importance of selecting interesting materials in an extensive listening program to sustain learner motivation.

Teaching Listening in an English as a Second Language Context (ESL)

The aforementioned studies on teaching listening were conducted in an EFL or French as a second language (FSL) context. The importance of teaching English listening in an ESL context should not be underestimated because ESL students have immediate needs to comprehend spoken input in everyday situations or academic contexts. Academic listening tasks, in particular, are challenging for ESL students; even advanced learners who have met the TOEFL admission requirement to US universities may lack the proficiency to comprehend academic oral input (Mason, 1995). The impact of failing to do so may be greater than that faced by EFL students (Carrier, 2003). For example, ESL students may fail their academic content courses because of difficulties with understanding lectures. Thus, listening instruction in the ESL classroom should receive more attention.

Research on ESL listening instruction has focused on strategy instruction and the integration of computer-assisted language learning (CALL) into ESL listening courses (Carrier, 2003; Grgurović, 2011; O'Bryan & Hegelheimer, 2007; Smidt & Hegelheimer, 2004). Carrier (2003) examined the effect of listening strategy instruction on ESL high school students' listen-

ing comprehension in the US. The 15 training sessions consisted of teaching listening strategies for bottom-up processing (e.g., listening for rhythm, sounds, stress patterns, and pitch) and top-down processing (e.g., guessing from context, making inferences, and taking notes). The results showed that the explicit strategy training effectively enhanced ESL high school students' bottom-up and top-down listening skills.

To reinforce listening strategy instruction, O'Bryan and Hegelheimer (2007) integrated podcasting into an ESL listening course for international undergraduate and graduate students in the US. Fourteen instructor-designed podcasts were assigned as homework throughout 15 weeks of instruction to emphasize the strategies and concepts covered in class as well as to provide additional linguistic input and practice. Both the instructor and students found the podcasts to be a beneficial component of the listening course.

Grgurović (2011) implemented a blended learning model combining face-to-face and online instruction in an intermediate ESL listening and speaking class in the US. The class met five times per week; four class meetings were face-to-face instruction using a printed textbook, and the other was held in a computer lab for online practice materials delivered through a learning-management system (LMS) developed by the textbook publisher. In the lab sessions, the instructor monitored students' practice and provided individual assistance. Student survey data showed that more students (94%) agreed that working on online activities was helpful for their English listening comprehension than those who agreed about the usefulness of the activities for two other skills, speaking (88%) and pronunciation (75%). Qualitative data also showed that the teacher's presence during lab sessions increased individual assistance to learners and facilitated student control over their own learning.

Smidt and Hegelheimer (2004) used screen-capture software to record ESL listeners' behavior during an online listening practice and a posttask interview. Nine participants watched an online video of an academic lecture, answered online comprehension questions, and used an online dictionary. Overall, the most commonly employed strategy was "listening again," which stresses the role of student control in listening practice.

In summary, compared to previous studies conducted in EFL contexts, those on ESL listening instruction have been limited in scope. For example, strategy instruction (Carrier, 2003) included only teaching cognitive listening strategies; metacognitive listening strategies seem to be overlooked in the ESL listening curriculum. Given the importance of metacognitive listening strategies (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012) and lack of metacognitive strategy use by most ESL learners (Smidt & Hegelheimer, 2004), more comprehensive listening strategy training could be incorporated into the course design, and evaluation of its effect through empirical studies could greatly inform

ESL listening teaching practice. Before relevant ESL studies are available, an alternative is to draw implications from EFL research, since ESL and EFL learners share many common characteristics.

In addition, given that few studies have been conducted on ESL extensive listening, it is worth noting that the ESL studies reviewed in this section suggest the positive effects of the types of listening instruction that share similarities with extensive listening practice, such as structured practice outside of class (O'Bryan & Hegelheimer, 2007), extensive individual practice in lab sessions with the teacher present (Grgurović, 2011), and student control in listening practices (Smidt & Hegelheimer, 2004). The present study is an attempt to offer further empirical evidence of the effect of listening instruction that features these characteristics. Although conducted in an EFL context, this study presents findings that could be applicable to teaching ESL students, since previous ESL studies have also suggested the advantages of these features.

Vocabulary Acquisition Through Listening

Successful L2 vocabulary acquisition requires a combination of incidental and explicit learning (Schmitt, 2000). Repeated exposure to contextualized and authentic linguistic input plays an important role in incidental vocabulary acquisition, in which vocabulary is acquired without learners' conscious attention (Ellis, 1994). Most of the research into incidental vocabulary acquisition has been conducted in the area of reading (Pellicer-Sánchez & Schmitt, 2010; Pigada & Schmitt, 2006), whereas relatively fewer studies have been done in the area of listening.

Vidal examined L2 vocabulary acquisition through academic listening (2003) and further compared the effects of listening and reading on vocabulary acquisition (2011). Vidal (2003) found that EFL participants made significant gains in vocabulary after they heard new vocabulary in academic lectures; also, they retained 43% to 54% of the acquired vocabulary for at least one month. A more recent study by Vidal (2011) showed that EFL learners, regardless of their proficiency levels, acquired more vocabulary through academic reading than through listening. However, at one-month follow-up, the participants retained more of the words acquired through listening than those acquired through reading.

In the aforementioned study in which Smidt and Hegelheimer (2004) investigated ESL learners' online listening strategies, they also examined the effect of web-delivered video on ESL learners' incidental vocabulary acquisition. The findings indicated incidental vocabulary acquisition after the participants watched the video. The pedagogical implication is that learner self-paced online videos combined with comprehension checks and access to additional learning tools such as online dictionaries can be helpful for vocabulary acquisition.

The Present Study

The preceding literature review suggests that most previous studies have demonstrated positive effects of strategy instruction and extensive listening using pre- and posttests, indicating short-term gains in L2 listening comprehension. However, except for Graham and Macaro's study (2008), few have examined the long-term effects by employing a delayed posttest in the research design. Moreover, to address the debate over which type of listening instruction is more effective, empirical evidence is needed, as no studies have reported whether listening skills should be taught explicitly or implicitly (Blyth, 2012). Therefore, the present study aims to compare the effects of listening strategy instruction and those of extensive listening on EFL learners' listening comprehension and vocabulary acquisition. Specific research questions set out for the study are as follows:

1. How do the effects of metacognitive listening instruction on L2 listening comprehension and vocabulary acquisition compare with those of extensive listening?
2. What are learners' perceptions of metacognitive listening instruction and extensive listening?

Method

Participants

Twenty-six EFL learners aged between 20 to 30 years old ($M = 23.58$) voluntarily participated in the study. Fourteen participants received metacognitive listening instruction (META); 12 participants practiced extensive listening (EL). They had studied English for an average of 13.5 years. Among the 26 participants, 18 reported their scores of standardized English-proficiency tests, which included the TOEFL, TOEIC, and General English Proficiency Test (GEPT, a standardized English-proficiency test developed for English learners in Taiwan). Those who reported their scores had them mapped to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) and were shown to be between CEFR level B1 to level C1, and more than half were at level B2.

A series of analyses were conducted to ensure that the two groups were comparable. First, their pretest scores showed no statistically significant differences between their listening proficiency ($p = .273$) and vocabulary ability ($p = .726$) of the two groups before the training. Second, participants were asked to provide information regarding whether they were taking other language courses ($p = .356$) and how much time they devoted to self-studying English other than receiving the training in the present study ($p = .218$); there were no statistically significant differences between the two groups. Moreover, when taking the delayed posttest, participants were asked to estimate the number of hours that they devoted to English learning each week

after the training was finished; the two groups were comparable in this regard as well ($p = .754$).

Research Design

The present study adopted a mixed-method approach. A small-scale quasi-experiment was conducted to evaluate the learning outcome of the two types of instruction, and end-of-training qualitative interviews were conducted to gain more insights into learners' perceptions. Figure 1 summarizes the research design. The data of pretest, immediate posttest, and end-of-training interview were drawn from the second author's thesis (Hung, 2014). Additional new data (i.e., delayed posttest three months after the training) were collected for the purpose of the present manuscript.

The total length of each class was originally designed to be equal in the META and EL groups. However, in the actual training, each class in the META group had to be extended by 30 minutes, mainly because extra class time had to be devoted to administrative issues. The META group thus attended six two-hour metacognitive listening classes over a four-week period, for a total training period of 12 hours. During the same four-week period, the EL group attended six 1.5-hour extensive listening practice sessions, for a total training period of nine hours. Both groups received a listening-comprehension and a vocabulary test before (pretest), after (immediate posttest), and three months after the training period (delayed posttest).

Two weeks after the immediate posttest, an interview was conducted with four participants, who were chosen based on stratified random sampling. In the present study, two participants were selected from each group; one male and one female from each group were chosen. Each participant came from a different academic discipline: computer science, electronics, management science, and communication engineering. One participant who demonstrated relatively higher listening comprehension and one who demonstrated relatively lower listening comprehension were selected from each group. The interviewer asked about participants' perceptions of the type of training they received, the EL group's listening process, and their perceived learning outcomes.

Listening Materials

CNN news broadcasts were used as the listening materials. The META group listened to two news stories in the same category in each class and received metacognitive listening instruction. Participants in the EL group, on the other hand, were required to listen to at least two assigned news stories, the same two news stories given to the META group, before they were allowed to listen to others of the day. The EL group was provided with approximately 13 other news stories in each session.
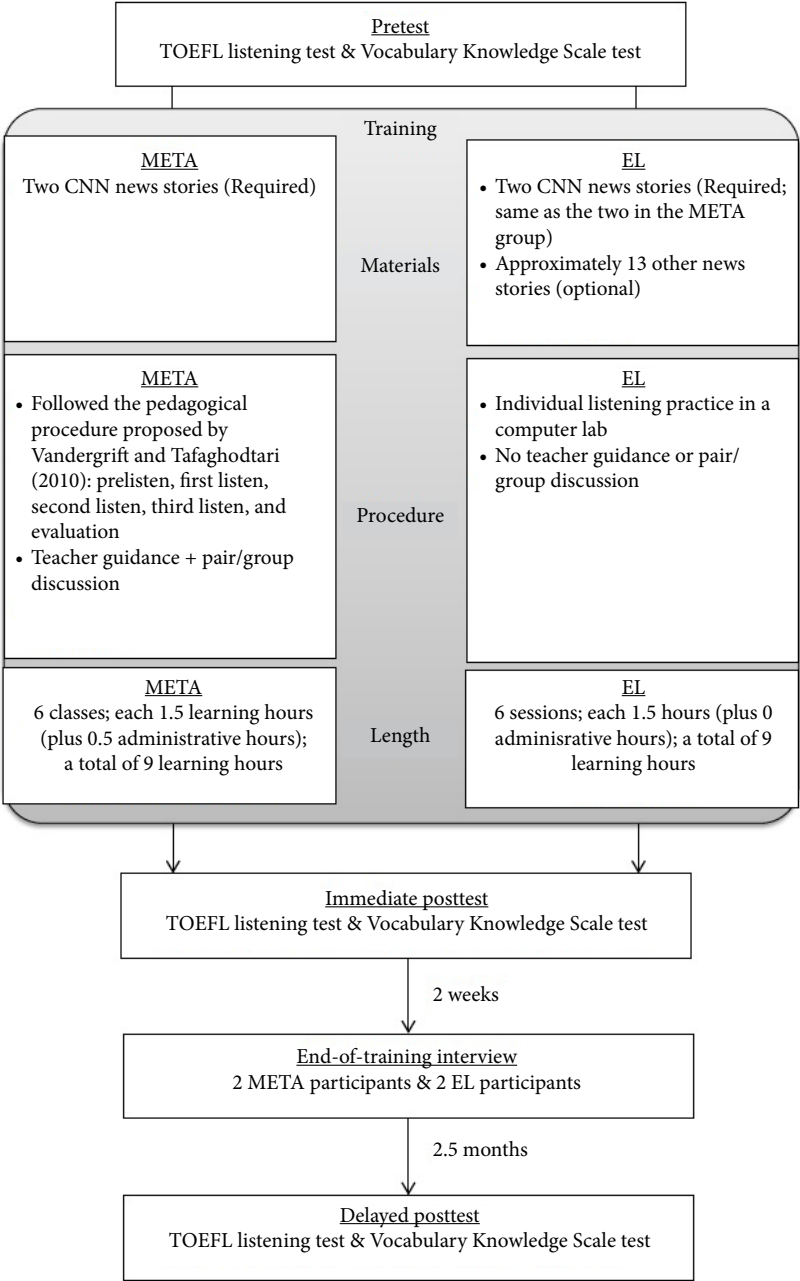
Pretest
TOEFL listening test & Vocabulary Knowledge Scale test

Training

Materials

META
Two CNN news stories (Required)

EL
- Two CNN news stories (Required; same as the two in the META group)
- Approximately 13 other news stories (optional)

Procedure

META
- Followed the pedagogical procedure proposed by Vandergrift and Tafaghodtari (2010): prelisten, first listen, second listen, third listen, and evaluation
- Teacher guidance + pair/group discussion

EL
- Individual listening practice in a computer lab
- No teacher guidance or pair/group discussion

Length

META
6 classes; each 1.5 learning hours (plus 0.5 administrative hours); a total of 9 learning hours

EL
6 sessions; each 1.5 hours (plus 0 adminisrative hours); a total of 9 learning hours

Immediate posttest
TOEFL listening test & Vocabulary Knowledge Scale test

2 weeks

End-of-training interview
2 META participants & 2 EL participants

2.5 months

Delayed posttest
TOEFL listening test & Vocabulary Knowledge Scale test

Figure 1. Research design.

META Group Procedure

The instructor taught the META group by following the pedagogical procedure proposed by Vandergrift and Tafaghodtari (2010). Each news story was taught in the following five stages:

1. Prelistening. The instructor taught key words in the news stories and guided participants to make logical predictions about the content.
2. First listen. Participants listened to the news story for the first time. Guided by the worksheet, they worked in pairs to verify their predictions and discussed what they had and had not understood.
3. Second listen. Participants worked on the listening-comprehension questions. The instructor involved the whole class to reconstruct the main points of the story and guided participants to reflect on their listening process, such as how they understood certain parts or words in the news story or what factors impeded their comprehension.
4. Third listen. Participants could listen and read the transcript at the same time. They also wrote down the new vocabulary or knowledge they had learned from the transcript.
5. Evaluation. Participants discussed the main difficulties that they had or strategies they used in comprehending this piece of news.

Extensive Listening Group Procedure

The same instructor met with the EL group in a computer lab over the same four-week term. She provided participants with only the listening materials and supervised their listening process without giving any explicit listening instruction. Participants in this group were allowed to listen to the news at their own pace using their own strategies. For example, they could take notes, look up words in the dictionary, listen to the news stories, and read the transcripts simultaneously.

Instruments

Listening-comprehension achievement was measured using a TOEFL listening test retrieved from the book *iBT TOEFL Listening Exercises* (Goodyear, 2013). The TOEFL listening test, independent of the CNN listening materials, was chosen as an instrument to better reflect participants' ability to transfer their gains in the training period to different tasks. To avoid practice effects, three different sets of listening tests were used for the pre-, immediate post-, and delayed posttests.

The Vocabulary Knowledge Scale (VKS; Wesche & Paribakht, 1996) was used to measure participants' vocabulary gain. The VKS was designed

to detect changes in receptive and productive vocabulary knowledge during relatively short instructional or experimental periods. The scale is divided into five categories corresponding to a five-level scoring scale. In the present study, the VKS had 12 target words, which were selected from the listening materials that both groups received. A total of five low-frequency (i.e., *off-color, ovation, reinvigorate, pitfall,* and *traumatize*) and seven high-frequency words (i.e., *survive, surround, tribute, inflation, currency, suspend,* and *majestic*) were selected based on the frequency counts of the words determined by the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA). In the present study, target words having a frequency count of lower than 1.5 occurrences per million words in COCA were classified as low-frequency words; those with a frequency count of over 1.5 occurrences per million words were classified as high-frequency words.

Results

Quantitative Results

The descriptive statistics of the listening-comprehension percentage scores are reported in Table 1. Between-group comparisons indicated that the listening comprehension scores of the META and EL groups were not different on the immediate posttest ($p = .52$) or delayed posttest ($p = .40$). Within-group comparisons showed that (a) both the META and the EL groups made significant gains from pretest to immediate posttest (META: $p = .01$, EL: $p = .004$); (b) the scores of both groups declined slightly from the immediate posttest to the delayed posttest, but the differences did not reach statistical significance (META: $p = .715$, EL: $p = 1.000$); and (c) only the META group made significant gains from pretest to delayed posttest (META: $p = .044$, EL: $p = .084$).

Table 1
Descriptive Statistics of the Listening Comprehension and VKS Pretest, Immediate Posttest, and Delayed Posttest Percentage Scores

Group	Test	Listening-comprehension test	Vocabulary Knowledge Scale
		Mean (SD)	*Mean* (SD)
META (*n* = 14)	Pretest	55.41 (17.77)	28.45 (15.23)
	Immediate posttest	66.45 (17.28)	49.29 (15.52)
	Delayed posttest	62.99 (16.31)	50.36 (18.89)
EL (*n* = 12)	Pretest	58.84 (14.65)	35.28 (16.48)
	Immediate posttest	70.71 (15.52)	55.14 (22.42)
	Delayed posttest	67.93 (12.29)	52.92 (16.42)

Also shown in Table 1 are descriptive statistics of the VKS percentage scores. Between-group comparisons indicated that the VKS scores of the META and EL groups were not different on the immediate posttest (p = .441) or delayed posttest (p = .718). Within-group comparisons showed that (a) both the META and the EL groups made significant gains from the pretest to the immediate posttest (META: p <.001, EL: p = .003); (b) from the immediate posttest to the delayed posttest, the scores of the META group rose slightly, while those of the EL group declined slightly, but the differences did not reach statistical significance (META: p = 1.000, EL: p = 1.000); and (c) both groups made significant gains from the pretest to the delayed posttest (META: p <.001, EL: p = .001).

The overall results (Figures 2 and 3) showed that both groups made more gains from the pretest to the immediate posttest. Although the scores declined from the immediate posttest to the delayed posttest, the scores on the delayed posttest were still better than those on the pretest.

Qualitative Results

META Group: Strategies Taught by the Teacher Were Helpful. In the training, the META group practiced listening under the teacher's guidance and engaged in pair or group discussion. Participants considered the strategies learned from the teacher useful, especially planning and evaluation (for example, predicting what might be heard and evaluating one's listening process). As one commented,

 Making predictions of what may be heard is very useful; it helps me get the key points and tune into what I will hear more easily. I wasn't aware of this strategy before. … I never learned to reflect on my listening process, such as why I didn't understand the aural text until I received the training. (META 1)

They further mentioned that these strategies could help them understand how to practice listening on their own. Before the training, the participant practiced listening by "letting the audio files play … and it turned out these materials became like background music, which was ineffective" (META 1).

EL Group: Interesting, Authentic Listening Materials and a Supportive Learning Environment Motivated Participants to Practice. Members of the EL group had to regulate their own practice, without the teacher's guidance. According to the teacher's observations, only one participant dozed off once during the entire training period. Qualitative data revealed two critical factors that sustained their motivation. The first was the listening material. Both participants from the EL group commented that they really wanted to know what the news was all about because the materials "were
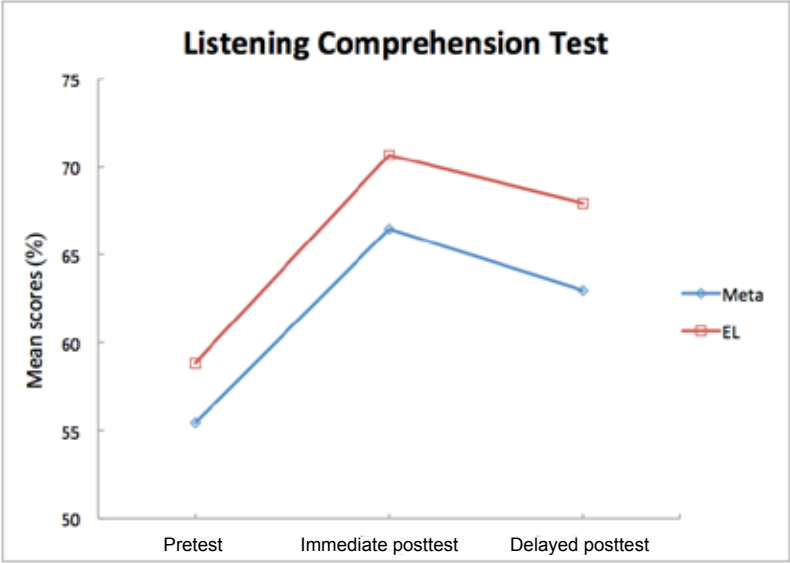
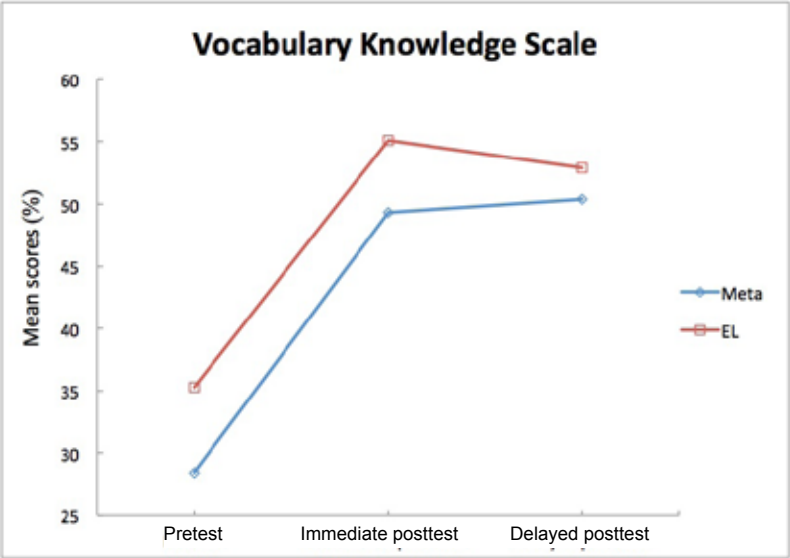*Figure 2.* Mean scores (%) of listening-comprehension test.

Figure 3. Mean scores (%) of Vocabulary Knowledge Scale.

very interesting" (EL 1). Furthermore, the news was presented on the screen with visual effects, which "attracted [their] attention and motivated [them] to keep watching" (EL 2). Participants also gained a sense of achievement for being able to comprehend authentic materials. As one commented, "I can't believe that I can understand CNN now" (EL 2). The other factor was a supportive learning environment, which induces regular and concentrated practice. One of them commented that "other students also practiced together, which encourages me to concentrate even more" (EL 1). Otherwise, they tended to "get lazy when practicing at home alone" (EL 2). The training was considered effective because participants were "forced to attend regular English listening practice" (EL 2).

EL Group: Participants Developed Their Own Practice Cycle. Despite the lack of explicit teacher guidance, participants in the EL group developed their own practice routines throughout the training period. Both participants seemed to follow a similar procedure. They first listened to the news without the transcript and self-evaluated how much they comprehended. Then they listened to the news a second time while reading the transcript. During the second listen, they would look up words in the dictionary, take notes, or listen to the parts that caused comprehension problems. The third listen was the same as the first listen—listening only, without reading the transcript. However, the number of news stories to which they listened by following this procedure was different. In each practice session, EL 1 listened to four or five news stories by closely following the aforementioned procedure and listened to the rest only once without the procedure. EL 2, on the other hand, finished listening to all the news stories provided by the teacher using the procedure.

Both Groups: Individual Practice Is Needed and Preferred. All participants highlighted the need to have individual practice. Participants in the EL group indicated that a teacher might be able to teach them strategies, but the strategies would be learned "in vain without extensive individual practice" (EL 2). The weakness of a teacher-guided English class is that "less time is devoted to practice because the teacher needs to spend time on teaching" (EL 1). It is also interesting to note that while participants in the META group benefited greatly from the strategies taught by the teacher, they considered the effect of discussion with peers to be limited, especially when they were all lost regarding the listening input. As they stated, "When none of us understood what we heard, we would look at each other without much interaction" (META 1). "If I missed that part, I didn't know what to discuss" (META 2). As a result, both participants in the META group preferred to practice alone instead of discussing the materials with peers. One of them commented that "I prefer to practice alone [instead of discussing with peers]. … [After discussion,] I still had to listen to it on my own. I feel that listening seems to be more about one's own effort" (META 1).

Discussion

This small-scale mixed-method study set out to compare the effects of metacognitive listening instruction and extensive listening on EFL students' listening comprehension and vocabulary acquisition. The quantitative data showed that both groups made significant gains in listening comprehension and vocabulary knowledge immediately after the training. Three months after the treatment, participants in the META group continued to demonstrate that their listening comprehension was better than it had been before the training. The vocabulary acquired by the META and EL groups was retained three months after the treatment. In terms of listening comprehension, it is worth noting that the training that the META group received seems to produce a long-term effect.

The findings of the present study provide support for previous research showing that both guided and unguided listening instruction can improve EFL learners' listening comprehension (Chang, 2012; Chang & Millet, 2014; Graham & Macaro, 2008; Vandergrift & Tafaghodtari, 2010). Unlike previous studies, the present study adopted a quasi-experimental design to systematically compare the two instructional approaches. The empirical results do not appear to support previous arguments that one type of instruction is better than the other (Renandya, 2012; Renandya & Farrell, 2011; Siegel, 2011). A possible explanation is that both approaches share key features that can enhance at least short-term listening development as measured by the immediate posttest. The two approaches seem distinct; however, the learners in both experimental groups in this study engaged in regular and systematic listening practice with the goal of developing listening fluency over four weeks. This highlights the importance of practice in developing listening fluency. According to Ausubel, Novak, and Hanesian (1978), "both overlearning and most long-term retention presuppose multiple presentations of trials (practice). ... Such practice, furthermore, is typically specific (restricted to the learning task) and deliberate (intentional)" (p. 311). Another shared feature was the listening material—both groups were exposed to preselected, structured, and theme-based authentic English news. Researchers have argued that authentic materials can be intrinsically motivating for students because of their real communicative use (Gilmore, 2007; Rilling & Dantas-Whitney, 2009). The materials can also be selected to address learners' needs and cater to their interests (Mishan, 2005). These two shared features point to the importance of the teacher's role in planning structured practices and selecting suitable materials for teaching listening. This is in line with Rost's (2007) argument that teachers should ensure that "learners *have access to* a wide range of *relevant, motivating input*" as well as "*plan interventions* that develop their skill at making the input comprehensible" (p. 104).

In addition to the systematic comparison of the two approaches, another contribution of the present study is its investigation of the long-term

effects of both types of instruction with a delayed posttest, which took place three months after the participants finished the training. The results show that four weeks of metacognitive listening instruction can foster long-term development of listening comprehension. This finding suggests that guided listening practice (as used in the META group) facilitates the acquisition of implicit skills (e.g., attending to incoming speech stream and establishing meaning through integration of linguistic input and real-world knowledge) required for successfully accomplishing a listening task (Vandergrift & Tafaghodtari, 2010). Through practice, learners internalize these implicit skills, which can be applied to later listening tasks. The long-term effect was not statistically significant for the EL group; however, this could be attributed to the small sample size, since the effect size (Cohen's $d = .67$) was medium. Future studies that include a larger sample size are needed to confirm its long-term effect.

As for vocabulary acquisition, the findings revealed that the META and EL approaches are both instrumental in EFL vocabulary acquisition and retention. ESL learners may also benefit from the two approaches, for previous studies have shown that EFL (Vidal, 2003) and ESL (Smidt & Hegelheimer, 2004) learners make vocabulary gains through listening. The present study further compares the relative efficacies of two instructional approaches to teaching listening in enhancing vocabulary acquisition and retention. The learning of vocabulary in the META and EL groups can be characterized as explicit and implicit acquisition, respectively. The META group was explicitly taught the key words in the news during the initial phase of an instructional cycle, and the words were used to predict the main ideas in the listening text. Throughout the instructional cycle, they heard the words in a meaningful context multiple times and verified their comprehension by reading the transcript, which was helpful in consolidating their understanding of the form and meaning of the words. As Ellis (1994) noted,

> An *explicit vocabulary learning hypothesis* would hold that there is some benefit to vocabulary acquisition from the learner noticing novel vocabulary, selectively attending to it, and using a variety of strategies to try to infer its meaning from the context. (p. 219)

On the other hand, the EL group was not specifically guided to attend to new vocabulary in the news. Their acquisition of vocabulary could be attributed to implicit learning through engagement in a series of theme-based listening practices. Ellis (1994) describes this type of vocabulary learning "as a result of abstraction from repeated exposures in a range of activated contexts" (p. 219). Another probable explanation for the vocabulary growth in the EL group is that some students may have created an explicit vocabulary-learning context on their own. As stated earlier, students found the listening ma-

terials very interesting. Therefore, they may have been sufficiently motivated to match the spoken and written forms of the vocabulary by reading the transcript while listening, and they were also sufficiently motivated to look up the meanings of unfamiliar words by using the online vocabulary-learning resources introduced to them at the beginning of the treatment period.

Pedagogical Implications

In reviewing the qualitative data from this study, we found that participants who received teacher-guided instruction benefited from the complementary individual opportunities for practice, rather than from teacher-guided instruction alone. Based on the findings of the study, we propose a new L2 listening instructional model that integrates the advantages of both guided and unguided listening instruction. As shown in Figure 4, the two approaches can be alternated in a curriculum design, with one class being devoted to teacher-guided instruction and the next to unguided individual practice. The teacher-guided instruction can adopt a strategy-based approach or, as in the present study, the metacognitive pedagogical cycle. The course may begin with teacher-guided instruction, followed by a class wherein students practice the strategies learned in the previous class. The features of the EL group in the present study can be incorporated into the individual practice session. For example, each week could feature a different theme, and several audio texts on each theme could be selected and provided to the students. Students could be advised about the goals to be achieved in the session and allowed to practice listening at their own pace. Also, to some extent, the students could be given the freedom to choose the materials that interest them from a pool that has been preselected by the teacher. A worksheet could be provided to help students keep a brief record of their learning process during the session, such as strategies used or difficulties encountered, and discussed in the next teacher-guided session. Each unguided individual practice session would then be followed by further teacher-guided instruction.

By alternating the two approaches in a course design, the proposed instructional model not only teaches students how to listen but also provides ample opportunities for them to practice listening. In this model, extensive listening is practiced as a structured routine and in a supportive environment, which, according to the participants of the present study, better helps them regulate their learning process and sustain their learning motivation than simply practicing outside of the class on their own. In the individual practice session, the teacher plays a role of more than a "practice provider or tape recorder" and would not "become a non-essential bystander in the classroom" (Siegel, 2011, p. 319). With the advent of technology, learners nowadays have easy access to an increasing number of listening resources. They, however, could be overwhelmed by the flood of available listening ma-
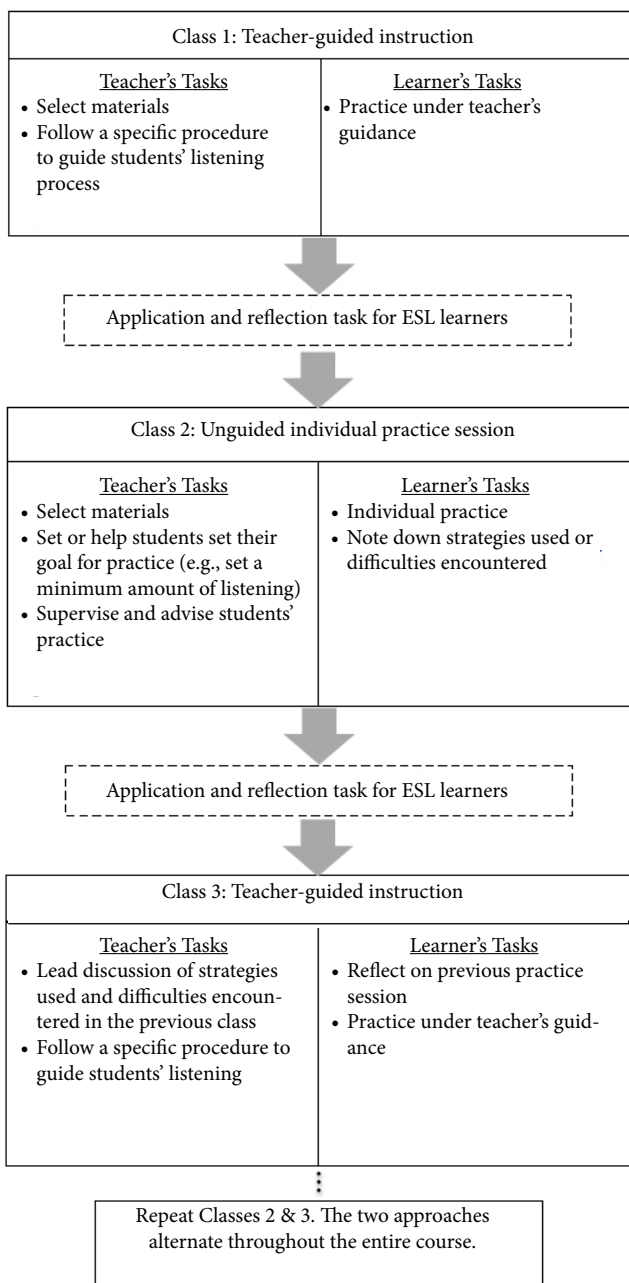
Class 1: Teacher-guided instruction	
Teacher's Tasks • Select materials • Follow a specific procedure to guide students' listening process	**Learner's Tasks** • Practice under teacher's guidance

↓

Application and reflection task for ESL learners

↓

Class 2: Unguided individual practice session	
Teacher's Tasks • Select materials • Set or help students set their goal for practice (e.g., set a minimum amount of listening) • Supervise and advise students' practice	**Learner's Tasks** • Individual practice • Note down strategies used or difficulties encountered

↓

Application and reflection task for ESL learners

↓

Class 3: Teacher-guided instruction	
Teacher's Tasks • Lead discussion of strategies used and difficulties encountered in the previous class • Follow a specific procedure to guide students' listening	**Learner's Tasks** • Reflect on previous practice session • Practice under teacher's guidance

⋮

Repeat Classes 2 & 3. The two approaches alternate throughout the entire course.

Figure 4. A new L2 listening instruction model—blending teacher-guided instruction and unguided individual practice session.

terials. The language teacher thus plays an essential role in assisting learners to select appropriate materials, and most important, helps them engage in productive individual listening practices.

The listening instructional model shown in Figure 4 was developed based on the results collected from college students in an EFL context. The model can be applied to second language learners in an ESL context and extended to better help ESL learners take advantage of their extensive daily exposure to listening input. EFL learners may mainly depend on the unguided individual practice session as described in the proposed instructional model to gain listening practice, whereas ESL learners have ample opportunity to practice what they have learned outside of the classroom. Therefore, instructors can assign an "application and reflection" task to ESL learners between two classes, as shown in the dotted boxes in Figure 4. As previous ESL listening research has highlighted the importance of encouraging learners to practice using listening strategies in authentic listening tasks (Carrier, 2003; O'Bryan & Hegelheimer, 2007), the task proposed here specifically requires ESL learners to apply the strategies they learned and reflect on the usefulness of the strategies and difficulties they encountered in daily listening situations. ESL students are exposed to more authentic listening tasks than EFL students, so this activity not only trains learners to be constantly aware of their listening process but also allows teachers to prepare a lesson suitable for learners' immediate needs outside of the classroom.

Conclusion

The present study fills the gaps in the literature by systematically comparing two common types of listening instruction and further measuring their long-term effects; qualitative data were also collected to shed light on the quantitative findings. Because of its small-scale nature, the limitations are rooted in the short training period, the small number of participants, and the small number of words selected for the VKS test. Despite these limitations, the present study provides empirical findings to address the debate over which type of listening instruction is more effective, and the proposed instructional model points to a new option in designing an L2 listening course.

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