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ENGLISH AND SPANISH VOCABULARY ACQUISITION THROUGH STORYTELLING

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Abstract: Do children acquire vocabulary while listening to stories? Do children benefit more from English-only vocabulary instruction or English enhanced with Spanish explanations of the target words? This study examines the effects of two instructional approaches to the teaching of vocabulary in small-group storytelling sessions. Twenty Primary School language learners enrolled in a Content and Language Integrated Learning programme (CLIL) in south-east Spain were selected and randomly assigned to two groups: i) English-only storytelling and word expansions and ii) English storytelling with word expansions in Spanish. The participants were later subdivided by their Science teacher into four groups of five children according to their English proficiency. Four target words were chosen in advance and researcher-made pre and post-tests were administered to determine possible gains in participants' receptive, productive and conceptual knowledge of the target lexis. Results showed significant improvement in the receptive and conceptual knowledge of the target lexis in both groups of learners, regardless of the language of instruction. However, the interventions were not sufficient to develop productive knowledge of the four target words for most of the participants. Some implications for storytelling and vocabulary instruction in CLIL and EFL contexts are discussed.

Key words: English, Spanish, vocabulary, storytelling, CLIL, bilingual, schoolchildren.

Resumen: ¿Aprenden los niños palabras mientras escuchan un cuento? ¿Es más beneficiosa para los niños la enseñanza del vocabulario sólo en inglés o es mejor en inglés pero acompañado de explicaciones de las palabras a aprender en español? Este estudio se centra en los efectos de dos tipos de enfoques de enseñanza del vocabulario a través del relato de cuentos en grupos pequeños. Veinte niños de Educación Primaria del sureste de España y pertenecientes al programa de Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos en Lengua Extranjera (AICLE) fueron elegidos y asignados aleatoriamente en dos grupos: i) relato del cuento y explicaciones de las palabras objeto solamente en inglés y ii) relato del cuento en inglés con explicaciones de las palabras meta en español. Posteriormente, los sujetos fueron organizados por su maestra de Ciencias Naturales en cuatro subgrupos de cinco niños dependiendo de su nivel de inglés. Se escogieron cuatro palabras previamente al tiempo que dos pruebas elaboradas por los

investigadores fueron aplicadas con anterioridad y posterioridad a la intervención con la finalidad de determinar los posibles logros alcanzados en los conocimientos de tipo receptivo, productivo y conceptual de las palabras meta por los participantes. Los resultados indican una mejora significativa con respecto a los conocimientos receptivos y conceptuales de las palabras objeto en ambos grupos, independientemente de la lengua que se emplee en la enseñanza. No obstante, las intervenciones no fueron suficientes para desarrollar un conocimiento productivo de las cuatro palabras en la mayoría de los participantes. Finalmente, se comentarán las implicaciones pedagógicas del relato de cuentos y de la enseñanza de vocabulario para aulas AICLE de inglés como Lengua Extranjera.

Palabras clave: inglés, español, vocabulario, cuento, AICLE, bilingüe, alumno.

1. INTRODUCTION

The significant rise and widespread adoption of Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) has become one of the most notable topics in teaching and learning in recent years. The term CLIL refers to a dual-focused, learning and teaching approach in which a non-language subject is taught through a foreign language, with the dual focus being equally on acquiring subject knowledge and competences as well as skills and competences in the foreign language (Ioannou Georgiou, 2012). This dual focus means that CLIL provides meaningful and authentic contexts for communication and learning where learners use the language rather than learn it. Recent research has been investigating whether CLIL really does work. While there is evidence that CLIL is more successful in developing foreign language competence than traditional FL language classes (Dalton-Puffer, 2011) as learners develop a higher writing and oral competence levels and better gains in vocabulary, there is little research on conceptual learning and the acquisition of those new contents through the FL, especially when younger learners are concerned.

Vocabulary plays a crucial role in the acquisition of a language (Beglar and Hunt, 2005). Technically, one can communicate without good grammar, but it is not possible to do so without vocabulary. Despite being such a central and important process, there are still many aspects of the second language (L2)¹ vocabulary acquisition process that remain mysterious, as Schmitt (1998:281) highlights: “the mechanics of vocabulary acquisition is one of the more intriguing puzzles in second language acquisition”.

During the second and foreign language (FL) learning process in formal classroom contexts, there is a preference, on the part of teachers, for using the L2 rather than the learners' first language (L1). In addition, many teaching methods propose the use of strategies such as paraphrasing, clarification, synonyms and other means of expression in the L2 rather than utilizing the L1. In fact, the Primary School Curriculum for Foreign Languages from Murcia (Spain) states that children's exposure to the FL should be maximized and that the use of the L1 should be minimized: *“el profesorado de las materias impartidas en inglés usará dicha lengua como medio de comunicación con los*

¹ Despite the technical distinction between the terms L2 and FL, both are used interchangeably in this paper.

alumnos en todos los contextos del centro. La lengua materna se utilizará como auxiliar solo en los casos necesarios” (Order of 15 June, BORM, 2015). As a result, teachers play an essential role in FL learning, as they are the main source of input in the classroom.

Some theories of second language acquisition support this idea. Krashen’s Input Hypothesis (1982) and Long’s Theory of Interaction (1985) emphasize the importance of exposure to the L2 for successful second language acquisition. In spite of this, several authors such as Cummings (1981); de Groot and Hoeks (1995); Potter, So, von Eckhardt and Feldman, (1984), among others, support the importance of using the L1 as a potential and effective tool in the learning of the L2. From the perspective of Constructivist Theory, it is thought that effective learning links new knowledge to that which is already known. Hence, the L1 acts as a support to promote access to the L2. Moreover, Laufer (2005), insists on using translations with words that have a close or equivalent meaning in the L1, as they are considered beneficial for text comprehension and, therefore, for lexical learning.

In FL classrooms, and especially with younger learners, storytelling is considered one of the most powerful teaching resources available, as not only do stories combine enthusiasm and learning potential, but also because they are an immense source of input. Children enjoy hearing stories. Thus, introducing new vocabulary through stories can have a positive effect on the students’ L2 learning process since they allow children to be exposed to new words and language models. As a result, teachers employ stories because they provide an ideal context in which to introduce new language and, at the same time, encourage students to use that language as they participate and interact in the storytelling situation. Although teachers in EFL and CLIL Primary School classrooms in Spain use stories widely, to the best of our knowledge, very few studies have examined the effects of storytelling as a vehicle for introducing and teaching L2 vocabulary to young children. Hence, it remains to be seen whether children learning English in a Spanish classroom context really acquire FL vocabulary through stories and to what extent they also acquire conceptual meanings.

The present study, therefore, focuses on lexical acquisition by young language learners. Specifically, it attempts to examine the effects on vocabulary acquisition of providing

children with L1 or FL expansions and clarifications of key words during storytelling sessions.

2. WHAT IS VOCABULARY?

There are multiple definitions of vocabulary. Vocabulary is commonly defined as “*the total number of words and the rules for combining them that make up a language*” (Hornby, 1974: 959). Similarly, Hatch and Brown (1995) consider “vocabulary” as a list of words for a particular language or the set of words that a speaker of a language might use. For these reasons, vocabulary is known as a variable and changing system because of the introduction and omission of words in a language (Jackson and Stockwell, 2011).

2.1 Vocabulary knowledge

Knowing a word, according to Nation (2010), involves being able to identify its spoken and its written form as well as its meaning. Nevertheless, Laufer, Elder, Hill and Congdon (2004) defended that vocabulary knowledge is more than just the relationship between meaning and form and it involves learning: a) word form, b) word structure, c) syntactic behaviour, d) meaning and lexical relation of the word with other words (Laufer, 1991). In this light, many researchers (Nation, 1990; Laufer et al., 2004; Milton 2009, etc.) made a further distinction between receptive (passive) and productive (active) knowledge.

Literature has numerous definitions of receptive and productive vocabulary knowledge (Melka Teichroew, 1982; Nation, 1990; Melka, 1997; Thornbury, 2002; Laufer et al., 2004; Webb, 2008). On the one hand, Nation (1990) stated that receptive or passive vocabulary embeds the words that a learner know and can recognize, distinguishing, this way, the word from another word with a similar form. On the other, productive or active vocabulary entails the words that the learners can pronounce, write and use in a grammatically correct structure (Nation, 1990). Likewise, Laufer and Goldstein (2004) linked receptive knowledge with the retrieval of the word form and productive knowledge with the expression of the word meaning. Moreover, Webb (2008) defended that while receptive vocabulary knowledge is the capability to identify a word form, to define or to find a synonym for it; productive vocabulary knowledge is the ability to evoke the form and meaning of a word.

These multiple definitions about receptive and productive vocabulary have divided researchers since there is “no consensus as to whether this distinction is dichotomous or whether it constitutes a continuum” (Laufer and Goldstein 2004: 405). While Melka Teichroew (1982), Faerch, Haastrup and Phillipson (1984), Tréville (1988) and Palmberg (1987; cited in Meara 1997) defended that receptive knowledge moves towards productive vocabulary because of the learners’ progress on language learning, situating receptive and productive knowledge on a continuum; Meara (1997) said that these two types of vocabulary knowledge represent different kinds of associational knowledge and cannot be place on a continuum. Similarly, some authors indicated that passive vocabulary is actually larger than active (Aitchison, 1989; Channell, 1988).

The relationship between the L2 learners’ receptive and productive vocabulary remains unexplored. Nevertheless, a better understanding of the relationship between passive and active vocabulary can be drawn from young language learners’ vocabulary acquisition research.

2.2 Vocabulary learning in young language learners

Learning vocabulary is an important part of the language learning process. All children whether they are monolingual, bilingual or second language learners essentially use the same three processes for making sense of linguistic input: isolating word-forms in the input, creating potential meanings, and mapping meanings onto forms. Throughout L1 acquisition, very young children learn new words after being exposed to them once. This ability has been named ‘fast mapping’ (Carey, 1978; Carey and Bartlett, 1978; Clark, 1993). In fact, Walker, Greenwood, Hart and Carta (1994) and Wells (1987) have pointed out that the amount of L1 vocabulary that children know increases greatly during their academic years. Estimations of North American children’s L1 vocabulary growth linked to the early years of primary education ranges from 2,000 to 3,000 words per year (Graves, 1986; Nagy and Anderson, 1984).

Interesting insights for second language learning can be found in theories of vocabulary acquisition that have focused on dual language learners, that is learners acquiring two languages simultaneously. Such theories have tended to highlight the importance played by the L1 in L2 acquisition, proposing a dynamic relationship between the two languages (Cummins, 1981; deGroot and Hoeks, 1995; Kroll and Stewart, 1994; Potter et al., 1984). Cummins (1981), for example, suggests there is a dynamic and interactive

relationship between the L1 and the L2 for word learning. In other words, a dual language learner may acquire a lexical item in the L2 by applying and recoding his conceptual knowledge of L1 lexis. In this way, the L1 may actively facilitate the acquisition of the L2. Similarly, the Word Association Model (deGroot and Hoeks, 1995; Potter et al., 1984) suggests that bilingual children *access* L2 concepts by using their L1. Throughout the early stages of learning the two languages, children acquire new words by transferring their L1 knowledge to the L2, that is, L2 lexical learning is mediated by L1 knowledge. Thus, the Word Association Model accentuates the interaction and transfer of knowledge between the L1 and the L2 in bilingual learners. It would appear that a dual language learner's vocabulary in both languages grows with exposure and in different contexts as they connect words with additional semantic features and associate lexis in one language with their corresponding words in the other language.

It has also been pointed out, however, that the relationship between the L1 and the L2 may change as the result of language proficiency and dominance. Kroll and Stewart (1994) have argued that, over time, dual language learners elaborate direct relations between concepts, passing from the word association model to a concept mediation model. The Concept Mediation Model (Kroll and Stewart, 1994) holds that bilingual learners gain independent links to lexical items in each language rather than interdependent links. This transition means that after two years studying a language, dual language children do not need support from their L1 as they have developed independent representations in each language. Thus, a potential teaching technique for bilingual learners, with two or less years of learning English as their L2, would be to use their L1 as a *bridge* to connect new lexis in the L2 with the L1 (Ryan, 2005; Ulanoff and Pucci, 1999). These researchers agree that bridging, or supporting instructions in L2 teaching sessions by using the learners' L1, seems to be an optimum technique to promote the communicative and linguistic skills of young bilingual children with two or less years of instruction in the L2. In line with the Word Association Model, it is postulated that bridging actively fosters the L2 acquisition of dual language learners as their L1 knowledge is closely connected to their developing L2 since lexical items in the L2 are still connected with lexical links to their conceptual knowledge in Spanish (L1). By providing vocabulary expansions in a comprehensible way through the use of the L1, young children would be expected to process the L2 lexical input more readily.

Other practitioners who advocate the use of the L1 in L2 classrooms are Atkinson (1993) and Cole (1998). Both support the use of the L1 in L2 teaching arguing that not only is it practical and efficient, but it also helps overcome affective and psychological problems. As Atkinson (1993: 13) explained ‘for many learners, occasional use of the L1 gives them the opportunity to show that they are intelligent, sophisticated people’. The notion of bridging, as yet unexplored in second and foreign language contexts, may have important implications for the teaching of lexis in early language learning, especially with the ever-increasing numbers of children involved in content-based learning.

2.3 Research into Lexical Acquisition in Young Language Learners

Many of the theoretical assumptions described above have been investigated empirically in a number of different contexts, both with bilingual and monolingual learners. So far researchers have investigated: a) the process of fast mapping in young L1 German children in the United States (Wode et al, 1992) and German-speaking children in a bilingual kindergarten (Rohde and Tiefenthal, 2000); b) the role of meaning negotiation in young children's acquisition of L2 new word meanings (Ellis and Heimbach, 1997); c) the role played by shared story reading in the L2 lexical acquisition with monolingual children in the United states (Penno, Wilkinson and Moore, 2002); d) the role performed by the L1 in the L2 vocabulary acquisition with Spanish-speaking immigrant children in the United States (Lugo-Neris, Wood Jackson and Goldstein, 2010) and in adult EFL learners in Turkey (Celik, 2003). The results of these studies will be discussed below.

Until fairly recently, research on L2 fast mapping has not been abundant, but there are two studies which evidence the existence of a word spurt during the L2 learning process. Wode et al. (1992) analyzed the productive lexis of German children living in the United States while acquiring English. They noted different vocabulary growth rates linked to L1 and L2 acquisition, as the rate of the latter tends to peak early and then, decrease. Further confirmation can found in the report made by Rohde and Tiefenthal (2000), who were interested to see how different fast mapping is when learning a second language. They used two groups of German children aged 3 to 6 from a bilingual school. Only one of the groups took part in the bilingual programme. The study demonstrated that the L2 learners in this study were capable of fast mapping, in

other words, they were able to acquire a new label for a new object after being exposed to the new word only ten times. In addition, it was also identified that, as happens in L1 acquisition, if full fast mapping is not possible, young L2 learners may be able to form 'partial maps', that is they memorize parts of the phonetic form or partial meanings of the new word, such as the word field the new label belongs to. As a consequence, the study demonstrated that it might take several exposures to new words for children to be able to produce a word; however, a single exposure may be enough for receptive learning. In this sense, Schmitt (2010) emphasized the importance of the context in the process of learning, as the number of exposures is essential: the more the learner uses and listens to a word, the faster he or she will learn it.

Similarly, Ellis and Heimbach (1997) looked at the role of meaning negotiation in the acquisition of L2 new word meanings in young children. The results of their research support the idea that that few and limited exposures to the new words as a result of the interaction in tasks were not sufficient to develop productive knowledge of the new words of ten children aged 5 to 6 enrolled in an ESL programme in an American school in Japan. In spite of this, the participants demonstrated gains in receptive knowledge, indicating that fast mapping also happens in L2 acquisition. This study concludes that children working in groups seem to comprehend new words better as interactions initiated by other children facilitate that understanding.

Recent research with monolingual in the United States has proved that the combination of shared storytelling reading sessions accompanied by the direct instruction of new words is an effective approach to enrich vocabulary growth in children. Penno, Wilkinson and Moore (2002) examined the effect of exposure to stories with expansions of target words on facilitating the vocabulary growth of kindergarten children aged five to eight. The participants, forty-seven in total, were divided randomly into four groups of eleven or twelve children. The treatment consisted in telling four stories. While two of those stories were complemented with expansions, in the other two, the reader did not give explanations of the target words. The results are consistent with the research in this field, as they confirmed that repeated readings of stories complemented with explanation of the target lexis can promote children's learning of new vocabulary.

Further empirical research in the US has focused on the relationship between the learners' L1 and their L2 on L2 lexical acquisition. Lugo-Neris, Wood Jackson and

Goldstein (2010) investigated the role of the L1 in fostering bilingual children's acquisition of new words in L2 through expansions and clarifications in the L1. The participants, twenty-nine Spanish-speaking learners of English (age 4 to 6) with limited English vocabulary from Latin American migrant families, were divided into two groups, according to their pre-treatment test scores and received expansions in Spanish or English, depending on which group they were assigned to. The authors used story-reading sessions as the vehicle to introduce the new vocabulary. Although it was proved that the receptive and productive knowledge of the new words by the participants grew after both interventions, results from their research showed greater gains in naming words (verbally identifying them) expressive knowledge (providing a conceptual definition for the word) and receptive vocabulary when the expansions of the target words were given in Spanish, than when the readings and expansions were carried out completely in English. Their data suggest that, by providing expansions in a comprehensible mode, participants involved in the L1 expansion reading achieved better gains in their explanations of the target vocabulary, as they had better language skills and knowledge in Spanish on which to build the new L2 meanings.

In bilingual communities, code-mixing (Wardhaugh, 1990), is a widespread phenomenon in which a word or an expression from one language is used in a group of words whose structure belongs to another distinct language. This phenomenon shares some similarities with the notion of 'bridging' described above, since learners are exposed to L1 definitions of target vocabulary. Celik (2003), for his part, in a study carried out with older learners, observed the results of code-mixing on lexical learning in an EFL classroom. The participants were nineteen EFL students with intermediate and advanced levels of English, from a Turkish university. The learners took part in a multi-staged task consisting of a story presentation in which the target words were presented firstly in the L1 and then with their L2 equivalents, an oral activity and a written task. Results from this study showed that code-mixing may be a useful technique for teaching target vocabulary, as the students comprehended the new lexis and linked it with their conceptual knowledge. This could be contemplated as participants used synonyms and derivations of those new words in the oral and written tasks.

2.4 Vocabulary teaching techniques

In relation to vocabulary instruction in children's first language, there are two widely acknowledged teaching strategies which are thought to contribute to vocabulary gains in children: direct instruction and incidental instruction. According to Becker (1977) and White, Graves and Slater (1990), among others, direct instruction of target words is an effective technique due to the fact that it focuses the learner's attention directly on the words. This technique includes the use of synonyms, key-words, defining, re-ordering, associating words, drills, word games, sentence production and the use of dictionary, etc (Becker, 1977; Naiman et al., 1978, Pickett, 1978, cited in Ellis, 1985; White, Graves and Slater, 1990)

On the contrary, incidental or indirect instruction involves learners focusing their attention on the comprehension of the meaning, that is, learners acquire new words while they are listening to a story, dialogues, films or reading, among other activities (Jenkins, Stein and Wysocki, 1984; Nagy, Anderson, and Herman, 1987; Elley, 1988; Singleton, 2001; etc.) Brett, Rothlein and Hurley (1996), Elley (1988, 1989, 1991) and Nagy, Anderson et al. (1987) support the idea that L2 learners are also able to learn new word meanings incidentally as they read or listen to stories. This is particularly true for younger children who are nonreaders, both monolingual and bilingual (Biemiller, 2003; Coyne, Simmons, Kame'enui and Stoolmiller, 2004; Patterson and Pearson, 2004; Roth, 2002). By telling a story, the reader can supply additional information in order to help the child understand the context and words in the story (Justice, Meier, and Walpole, 2005). Therefore, storytelling, as a key activity in second and foreign language classrooms, has the potential to influence gains in L2 lexis.

3. STORYTELLING

Storytelling is perhaps one of the earliest forms of education, with its roots in the oral tradition. Gere (2002, cited in Behmer, 2005) defined it as the use of language and gesture in colourful ways to create sequenced scenes. Similarly, McDrury and Alterio (2003:31) stated that *"storytelling is a unique human experience that enables us to convey, through the language of words, aspects of ourselves and others, and the worlds, real or imagined, that we inhabit"*.

Traditionally, cultures from all around the world employed storytelling as a vehicle to pass down beliefs, behaviours, customs and traditions to future generations. Tales capture the imagination of children, but they also spark the learner's motivation and interest while linking fantasy with the children's real world. Furthermore, telling stories is a shared social experience, which promotes confidence and social and emotional development. According to Y. Coyle (2000) the familiar topics and the well-known narrative structure of stories make them an effective resource used by parents and teachers to promote children's cognitive, communicative and social development.

Regarding L1 acquisition, adults usually tell stories to introduce the language and the culture to children, while at the same time securing children's attention and interest. Children begin to acquire their L1 from the day they are born and they learn it by hearing the language spoken by the adults that surround them. Gordon Wells (1986) has suggested that "*storying*" or storytelling plays an important role in L1 acquisition and in the education process in general. By listening to stories, children interpret the events around them and transform them into meaningful experiences. Long before children can talk, they have already built up a mental model of their own world, which is founded on their routines and experiences (Y. Coyle, 2000). Later on, when oral production starts, their hypotheses about the world are influenced by the stories told by the people around them. Thus, stories are seen as a vehicle to access language.

Focusing on the acquisition of a L2, many authors like Hester (1983), Garvie (1990), Ellis and Brewster (1991), Cameron (2001); Brewster, Ellis and Girard (2002), Read (2007), Bland (2013), Soleimani and Akbari (2013), or Abasi and Soori (2014) wrote about the benefits of using stories with children. Stories offer the possibility of introducing not only new vocabulary and linguistic patterns, but also contents and culture in a memorable way, promoting motivation, creativity and interest (Ioannou-Georgiou and Ramirez Verdugo, 2010; Ellis and Brewster, 2014). The repetitive structure of stories allows children to learn new language and know what to expect next, fostering comprehension by contextualizing input as well as practicing, consolidating and extending the language (Y. Coyle, 2000; Wright, 2000; Wasik and Bond, 2001; Ellis and Brewster, 2014). This way, stories contribute to the development of learning strategies like guessing or listening for meaning which aid children to comprehend the

story (Ellis and Brewster, 2014). Likewise, Gibbons (2002) believes that stories involve strategies such as predicting and linking new information to background knowledge which promote the learners' construction of knowledge. Moreover, stories support the development of the listening skills through the use of visual and contextual cues, sound effects and onomatopoeias ((Dolakova, 2008; Setyarini, 2011, cited in Soleimani and Akbari 2013; Ellis and Brewster, 2014) and the acquisition of linguistic features as the rhythm, intonation and pronunciation of language (Ellis and Brewster, 2002). In addition, stories attend to the multiple intelligences and promote individual learning styles (Gardner 1993, 1999; Campbell, Campbell and Dickinson, 1996; Richards and Rodgers, 2001; Nolen, 2003) since they complement the linguistic information with visual aids, gestures and movements, sounds and songs; with daily-life mathematical problems, interpersonal issues or with the expression of emotions and feelings (Meyer, 1990; Kellerman, 1992;). They support curriculum development, while expanding the learners' knowledge on a particular topic as well as facilitate cultural learning (Ellis and Brewster, 1991, 2002; Taylor, 2000; Luque Agulló, 2001) and assess the learning process (Blaklock, 2008; Carr, 2001; Smith, 2003, cited in Blaklock, 2008).

Tales, then, are recognized as a valuable source of input. Since in the early stages of teaching a FL, the most important source of input is unquestionably the teacher's talk, stories can be employed as a methodological resource and source of contextualized input through which children are able to develop linguistic competence in the L2.

The use of comprehensible input, familiar topics, the interests and background knowledge of the learners and contextual cues or relevant context, all of which are key characteristics of storytelling, are accounted for by major second language acquisition theories. Krashen (1985) suggests that learners acquire a second language when they comprehend input while engaged in meaningful activities. Comprehensible input, at the level of input+1, in other words, input which is slightly ahead of the learner's current level of comprehension, is necessary for acquisition to take place. Thus, contextual cues used in stories, such as gestures, mime, visuals, etc., promote input+1 and, consequently, the acquisition of the L2.

Additionally, creating a stimulating learning environment in the classroom is an important aspect to bear in mind. As William (1991:204) defended "children learn

better and more if there is a predisposition to the activities they are engaged in". Storytelling is motivating as it arouses laughter, sadness, excitement and anticipation, and it can help build up the child's social, affective and emotional development too, satisfying, this way, their needs and interests (Malkina, 1995; Deacon and Murphy, 2001; Ellis and Brewster, 2014). According to Sole (1993) and Coll (1988), in order for the learners' learning experiences to be meaningful, they need to give meaning to the activities they are doing. As a consequence of loving stories, children's motivation and interest towards the target language is likely to increase. Krashen (1985) further suggested that the learner's affective filter is a psychological barrier that could either ease or hinder the acquisition of a L2. In this case, when the affective filter is low, in other words, when children are in a comfortable situation, feeling motivated and presenting low levels of anxiety, the acquisition of the L2 may be enhanced. In this sense, then, stories are a key resource for promoting low affective filters which, in turn, play an important part in learning an L2.

Other well-known authors such as Hatch (1978) or Swain (1985) maintain that while being exposed to comprehensible input is an essential condition for language development, it is not enough to fully develop communicative competence in the L2. Learners must produce language output so that adults can "scaffold" the learner's language and give feedback in order to help them improve their knowledge of the second language. As a result, the comprehension and production of the language in communicative and meaningful activities is the best way to promote successful L2 learning.

In this sense, Krashen (1982) and Swain (1985) agree on the fact that the L2 is learnt through activities in which the language is used and comprehended and which are founded on meaning negotiation. Basing his work on that statement, Zanón (1992) contemplates the learning of a L2 as the result of using it in meaningful activities in which the children understand the language and must produce it in order to promote comprehension and development of knowledge. Zanon's notion of the "*Sistema de Soporte Semiótico para el Aprendizaje del Lenguaje (SSAL)*" is based on Bruner's (1982) "*Language Acquisition Support System (LASS)*". Bruner emphasized the crucial role of adults when providing a social framework of "scaffolding" which helps children to learn. Therefore, Zanón highlights the role of the teacher when learning a second

language as he or she influences the use of the language that children make. In this way, teachers are the key, as they must plan activities in which children have to use the FL, both productively and receptively. As a consequence, Zanón's SSAL concerns three aspects: a) the logical structure of the activity; b) the logical structure of the linguistic contents; and c) the semiotic regulation of the activity. The first aspect refers to the creation of an activity structure or shared context in which the new input can be introduced. As children know how to participate in the activity, they only need the new linguistic patterns to take part in it. The second aspect states that limiting the topics to those related to the children's experiences and interest facilitates the creation of shared contexts in which the teacher introduces the new linguistic patterns. The third aspect maintains that the linguistic, kinesic, extralinguistic and paralinguistic systems work together to support children's comprehension of the new language. From this sociocultural perspective, the repetitive structure and topics of stories make them an activity that children recognize. Each sequence of the story is similar to the previous one, which facilitates the students' comprehension and production of the language. Furthermore, Zaro and Salaberri (1993) indicated that storytelling is an activity that requires interaction between the adult and the children. And that interaction embedded in a share context is a key factor to progress in language and culture learning (Vygostky, 1978; Bruner, 1984; Wertsch, 1988). In that way, by using stories, following Zanón (1992), we create a framework which is recognized by the learner and a structure which allows new linguistic contents to be assimilated in a meaningful context.

It is clear then that stories have the potential to be an invaluable tool in the practical implementation of CLIL. As with any tool, however, the realisation of its potential lies in how it is applied.

3.1 How to choose a story

The choice of a story is an essential aspect that contributes to the success of a storytelling lesson (Ioannou-Georgiou and Ramirez Verdugo, 2010). Teachers can select from a wide range of stories: traditional stories; fairy tales; modern retellings of fairy tales; picture stories with no text; rhyming stories; cumulative stories with predictable endings; funny stories; daily-life stories; animal stories; etc.

The selected story should include some points so it is accessible, useful and relevant for children (Zaro and Salaberri, 1993; Pedersen, 1995; Y. Coyle, 2000; Salaberri, 2001; Ioannou-Georgiou and Ramirez Verdugo, 2010; Ellis and Brewster, 2014):

- The students' age, interests, motivations and proficiency level must be contemplated so pupils enjoy the story at the same time that it holds their concentration and attention (Gárate Larrea, 1994).
- A clear storyline which allows children to follow and understand the story Pedersen, 1995; Y. Coyle, 2000; Salaberri, 2001; Ioannou-Georgiou and Ramirez Verdugo, 2010).
- The topic of the story should be linked to curricular content and aims. In the framework of CLIL teaching where language is combined with content learning, the story can either be the content itself, a springboard to activities or a supplement to the main content of the lesson (Zaro and Salaberri, 1993; Pedersen, 1995).
- Plenty of repetition: natural repetition or cumulative content is useful since children hear the language in various contexts and several times (Y. Coyle, 2000; Salaberri, 2001; Ioannou-Georgiou and Ramirez Verdugo, 2010).
- Participation: the teacher must create these opportunities in order to foster the children's learning process to maintain their attention as well as to check their understanding. These strategies may include guessing what will happen, discussing the picture, repeating a key phrase or answering to the characters' questions (Y. Coyle, 2000; Ioannou-Georgiou and Ramirez Verdugo, 2010).
- Appropriate linguistic level: The language used in the story should reinforce language and introduce new vocabulary so that the new words appear in meaningful contexts which help comprehension (Zaro and Salaberri, 1993; Y. Coyle, 2000; Ioannou-Georgiou and Ramirez Verdugo, 2010). The teacher can support understanding through linguistic and rhythm and intonation modifications, facial expressions and visual cues.
- Useful illustrations: when selecting the story, it is crucial to analyse the clarity and appropriateness of the illustrations, whether additional illustrations must be searched and whether they actually support understanding (Y. Coyle, 2000; Salaberri, 2001; Ioannou-Georgiou and Ramirez Verdugo, 2010)

- Didactic exploitation: it is essential to consider the potential to be the base for a syllabus in which learners practice the linguistic contents in different activities to develop the four language skills (Zaro and Salaberri, 1993; Y. Coyle, 2000).
- Potential adaptations: the teacher has to decide whether to choose an authentic story or whether to use a story written or adapted especially for language learners. Nevertheless, the text should be kept as close to its original form as possible so that it does not lose neither its authenticity nor message. The structure and the length of the text as well as the vocabulary and grammar used should suit the learners' knowledge and linguistic level (Pedersen, 1995; Ellis and Brewster, 2014). Similarly, Y. Coyle (2000) highlighted the importance of making short sentences, use action verbs, change the indirect speech to direct, eliminate irrelevant language, explain complex concepts or changing pronouns to names as some of the points to follow so that the story is simple but accessible and meaningful.

Once an appropriate story is selected, the teacher needs to prepare how it is going to be introduced and used in class.

3.2 How to use a story in class

When designing the lesson, the teacher must decide if the story will be told or read to the children. Both are effective options but telling a story creates a different, yet popular atmosphere among children. Another advantage is that telling a story allows teachers to maintain eye- contact with the children as well as modify their performance to respond to their general reactions (Pedersen, 1995; Miller, 1996; Stoye, 2009).

According to Salaberri (2001), there are three stages in storytelling: a) before; b) while; and c) after telling the story.

a) Pre-storytelling stage

The pre-storytelling stage prepares the students for the story. It involves raising their interest and motivations for their attention to be drawn to the story to be narrated. This implies setting the context for the story so that the children can use their background knowledge and experiences to comprehend the story. Furthermore, if the story contains new vocabulary, this is the stage where certain target words can be introduced in order for the narration to be more accessible.

To make that, and with the purpose of stimulating curiosity and interest, it is necessary to performed different warm up activities to introduce or revise vocabulary and to familiarise learners with the topic, context and characters of the story (Ellis and Brewster, 2014).

b) While-storytelling stage

The while-storytelling stage mainly involves activities that aim to maintain the students' attention and assist them in the comprehension of the story so they can become active participants in their learning process. Salaberri (2001) proposed activities such as asking the students to predict the continuation of the story, identifying and discussing pictures or characters or asking 'Yes-No' questions and 'wh-Questions'.

c) After-storytelling stage

This stage checks the students' understanding, but also expands and consolidates the language and contents presented in the story. As a result, the story may act as a base for a wide range of activities such as: projects, discussions about the story issues, role plays and drama, drawing pictures from the story, sequencing the story, puzzles, etc. (Salaberri, 2001).

By using stories in the classroom, teachers can scaffold children's language development in a natural way. From this perspective, the foreign language is a vehicle used to comprehend and communicate meanings. In this way, teachers must encourage learners to use the L2 in real communicative situations in the cooperative and interactive context of the classroom. Consequently, stories may be considered as a key method to foster learners' linguistic and communicative competence in the FL while simultaneously providing the thematic content of a sequence of activities and teaching units. Nevertheless, their efficacy and success depends on the adequate selection of the materials and the application of an appropriate methodology (Ioannou-Georgiou and Ramirez Verdugo, 2010).

4. CLIL: CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING

Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) is an innovative approach to the teaching of English as a FL that expresses the European multilingual and plurilingual

educational policies to provide more opportunities for language learning and, simultaneously, develop subject knowledge. It is a dual-focused approach because an FL is used for the teaching and learning of content and language (Mehisto, Marsh and Frigols, 2008; Coyle, Hood and Marsh, 2010).

CLIL encompasses most of the features that modern pedagogical theories contain, namely: active learning and teaching methods, use of authentic tasks and materials, student-centeredness, focus on project work and task-based learning (Mehisto et al., 2008). Moreover, it is based on several L2 acquisition theories which assume that language is acquired implicitly (Krashen, 1982, 1985), in interaction with the social environment (Long, 1996; Swain, 1985) and through scaffolding (Vygotsky, 1978). Knowledge is constructed when it is linked with background knowledge (Piaget, 1963), and both the academic and social aspects of language can be acquired simultaneously (Cummins, 1981, 1984, 1992). Therefore, learning is constructed while working co-operatively in groups. Likewise, it is also a manifestation of the holistic education view that advocates for integrating the learning process and not breaking it into different subjects and skills (Miller, 2007). According to Marsh (2006), CLIL is an educational response to the knowledge and skills demands of an increasingly ‘integrated’ world that provides a natural environment where FL learners are surrounded by numerous opportunities to acquire both language and skills (Marsh, 2000). Thus, learners as they are expected to acquire knowledge, develop cognitive skills while increasing language competence. CLIL provides the basic conditions under which humans successfully acquire any new language: by understanding and then creating meaning (Lightbown and Spada, 2006).

4.1 Core Features of CLIL

CLIL is a “*planned pedagogic integration of contextualized content, cognition, communication and culture into teaching and learning practice*” (Coyle et al. 2010: 6). This is what Coyle (2007) expressed as the ‘4Cs’ Framework (Content- Cognition- Communication- Culture), which offers a theoretical and methodological foundation for planning and implementing CLIL as well as designing CLIL materials (Coyle, 2006 cited in Meyer, 2010), which rests on four key building blocks:

- **Content:** The subject matter, theme, and topic forming the basis for the program, defined by domain or discipline according to knowledge, concepts, and skills (Natural Science, Physical Education (P.E) or Arts and Crafts, etc.).
- **Communication:** The language to create and communicate meaning about the knowledge and skills being learned (e.g.: stating facts about the sun, giving instructions on playing football, describing emotions in response to a picture or some music).
- **Cognition:** The ways that we think and make sense of knowledge, experiences, and the world around us (e.g. understanding, evaluating, reflecting, creating...).
- **Culture:** The ways that we interact and engage with the knowledge, the experiences as well as the world around us: socially (e.g. social conventions for expressing oneself in the L2); pedagogically (e.g. classroom conventions for learning and interactions); and according to a certain discipline (e.g. scientific conventions for preparing reports).

While Mehisto et al., (2008) defended that CLIL mainly focuses on three goals -use of language to teach content, use of content to teach language and development of learning skills-, Coyle (2006: 9) stated that “CLIL involves learning to use language appropriately whilst using language to learn effectively”. To achieve these goals, Coyle (2007) identified the pedagogical principles for effective CLIL that work across different contexts and settings, while incorporating all four key elements of underlying 4Cs framework:

- Subject matter is about the learners constructing their own knowledge and the relevant developing skills (Vygotsky, 1978; Lantolf, 2000).
- Acquiring subject knowledge, skills and understanding involves learning and thinking (cognition). In order for the learners to construct an understanding of the subject matter, the linguistic demands of the content as well as the methodology applied must be analysed and made accessible (Met, 1998).
- Thinking processes (cognition) requires performing analysis of their linguistic demands (Bloom, 1984; McGuiness, 1999).
- Language needs to be learned in a context. This means that a reconstruction of the subject themes and the cognitive processes must be done (Krashen, 1985; Swain, 2000).

- Interaction is essential so the learners “*have more opportunities for exploratory talk and writing*” (Mohan, 1986: 13). This has implications when the learning context operates through L2 (Pica, 1991; van Lier, 1996).
- The interrelationship between cultures and languages is complex (Byram, 2001) but it is an essential part of CLIL. This leads to transformative pedagogies, global citizenship, student voice and ‘identity investment’ (Cummins, 2004).

(Coyle, 2007: 550-551)

Similarly, Dalton-Puffer (2007) said that CLIL principles should contemplate: a) development of intercultural communication skills; b) preparation for internationalism; c) opportunities to study content through different perspectives; d) access to academic and subject language lexis; e) development of the L2 competence and communication; f) a variety of methodologies; and g) increment of the learners’ motivation towards the L2.

The CLIL approach is a flexible methodology that can be applied in multiples forms depending on several classroom factors. Nevertheless, some of the principles of good practice in education such as: “multiple focus, safe and enriching learning environment, authenticity, active learning, scaffolding and cooperation” (Mehisto et al., 2008: 29) are included in CLIL and support the effective delivery of these lessons.

4.2 Stories and CLIL

Stories do include the 4C’s needed for a successful CLIL lesson since they develop not only language and content, but also communication, cognition and culture (Coyle, 2007; Innaou Georgiou and Ramirez Verdugo, 2010). Moreover, stories can provide a natural and meaningful learning context to develop the four linguistic skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing), while learning about a particular content (Glazer and Burke 1994; Dickinson 2001; Penno, Wilkinson and Moore, 200, Richards and Anderson 2003 etc.). Hence, stories are effective tools to promote language learning but also to develop the principles involved within a CLIL programme (Innaou Georgiou and Ramirez Verdugo, 2010).

a) Stories and Content

Stories can work curricular contents and issues (Kelly, Shaw and Semler, 2013) while acquiring the L2 in a meaningful context (Jenning, 1991; Glazer and Burke 1994).

b) Stories and Communication

The active nature of storytelling promotes interaction and communication with the teacher and the classmates (Barreras, 2004; Miller and Pennycuff, 2008). Likewise, stories enhance participation as learners repeat the language and express their opinions and feelings (Innaou Georgiou and Ramirez Verdugo, 2010).

c) Stories and Culture

Stories spark the learners' interest and curiosity about other cultures. They can be useful tools to develop openness, tolerance, understanding and acceptance towards otherness, their beliefs and values in an enjoyable learning environment (Wright, 2003), fostering, then, the Intercultural Competence (Coyle, 2005).

d) Stories and Cognition

Stories are effective scaffolding learning resources (Innaou Georgiou and Ramirez Verdugo, 2010). The familiar and repetitive structure of stories let students comprehend and learn about a specific topic by predicting, guessing or searching for general meaning and linking it to their background knowledge. Therefore, stories support learners in their construction and reconstruction of knowledge (Gibbons, 2002).

In addition, stories allow teachers to design and to sequence classroom activities according to Bloom's Taxonomy (Bloom, 1956) or the learners' cognitive levels, encouraging the addition of the cognitive and learning strategies which lead to better understanding and learning. These cognitive levels go from the less demanding or LOTS (Low Order Thinking Skills) tasks which are understanding and remembering the plot, the characters, places, etc.; to the most complicated or HOTS (High Order Thinking Skills) exercises which range from practicing with new words and linguistic models, to analyse and compare actions and behaviours or create an alternative ending.

The findings outlined in the research presented above indicated that storytelling can provide an essential source of input that facilitates vocabulary learning in a meaningful and interactive context by exposing children, both monolingual and bilingual, to new lexis without the intervention of written words. During this activity, the adult telling the story gives additional information and provides visuals or gestures in order for the children to comprehend the oral discourse. Studies to date have pointed out the difficulties experienced by young L2 learners in acquiring especially expressive

vocabulary knowledge and have highlighted the potential benefits of using the L1 as a resource for facilitating vocabulary growth. However, further research is needed to investigate the efficiency of techniques such as bridging on the vocabulary acquisition of young EFL children, especially those who have limited knowledge of FL lexis. Although telling a story several times can help children to acquire new words incidentally, direct instruction of new lexis may also be required if a deeper knowledge of those words is desired. Meaningful exposure and direct instruction of the target words during shared storytelling through the use of L1 explanations could prove to be an effective strategy for facilitating deeper knowledge of English vocabulary, both receptively and expressively. This finding is particularly interesting in the case of children enrolled in CLIL courses, in which the development of conceptual knowledge takes place directly through the FL.

Given the lack of research on the L2 lexical acquisition of Primary School children in Spain, and particularly on the acquisition of conceptual knowledge by children in CLIL classrooms, the present study attempts to address this gap in the field by comparing the effects of the direct instruction of target vocabulary during repeated storytelling sessions, either with or without L1 expansions, on the lexical knowledge of young Spanish-speaking EFL learners enrolled in a bilingual classroom. In order to do so, the following research questions were formulated:

1. Do young learners enrolled in a CLIL programme benefit more from English-only direct vocabulary instruction or English supplemented with Spanish instruction during shared storytelling?
2. Does participating in storytelling sessions with lexical instruction in English supplemented with L1 Spanish lead to vocabulary learning?
3. Do children benefit more from English only or English plus Spanish vocabulary instruction during shared storytelling sessions?

5. METHOD

5.1 Data collection

5.1.1 Procedure

This exploratory study follows a pre-test and post-test experimental design with a storytelling intervention of three sessions for each group of children. The story used for the intervention “*The Beach Holiday*” was written by the researcher to specifically include the target words which were part of the 1st year of Primary School Natural Science contents to be taught. This story can be found in Appendix 1. Consequently, the words were unfamiliar to the participants as they had not learnt the target words previously. The four target words selected for this treatment were related to safety: lifejacket, helmet, sun cream and armbands. As the aim of the research is to find if children acquire vocabulary through stories, only four words were selected to ensure that participants could grasp the full understanding of the concepts. In addition, the story was created in order for the target words to appear four times in it.

The treatment was made up of three shared storytelling sessions in English with direct instruction of target words during fifteen minutes a day for a week (Elley, 1989). Each storytelling session was carried out in the audiovisual classroom with the children sitting on the floor. The children were called out of class in their small groups to listen to the story on the same days. In order to introduce the story, the researcher asked the children if they liked stories and, after that, proceeded to tell the story. When the story was finished, the participants returned to their classroom. Conversations initiated by any of the children were kept to a minimum, so as not to distract them from the story and comments in relation to behavior were employed when necessary. Direct instruction of words consisted of explicit explanations of those words. While two groups of children received English-only direct vocabulary instruction during the shared storytelling, the other two groups were given English supplemented with Spanish vocabulary instruction.

In the English-only vocabulary instruction groups, target words were explained in English as they appeared in the story following Brett, Rothlein, and Hurley (1996); Elley (1989); Justice et al. (2005) and Penno, Wilkinson and Moore (2002). The first time the word emerged, the children were asked to repeat the target word in English. In

each session, when a target item surfaced, a different semantic aspect of the word was explained. Thus, definitions of the target vocabulary were prepared in advance. Table 1 shows the three definitions in English and Spanish of the target words. For instance, on the first shared storytelling session, the children were required to repeat the word, which was repeated again in English by the researcher: “*Helmet. Look! This is a helmet.*” Then, in the second session, the researcher gave a definition of the word in English: “*You wear a helmet to protect your head when you ride your bike*”. Lastly, in the third session, a further definition was supplied: “*You wear helmets when you ride a bike or a skateboard or when you wear skates in case you fall off so you don’t hurt your head*”. The same procedure was carried out with the other target items.

Target word: Sun Cream		
	English Definition	Spanish Definition
<i>Definition 1</i>	Sun cream. See? This is sun cream	Sun cream. See? Crema protectora
<i>Definition 2</i>	Sun cream protects you from the bad effects of the sun when you are at the beach	La crema protectora te protege de los rayos malos del Sol cuando estás en la playa
<i>Definition 3</i>	You put sun cream on your body before you go out in the sun and after you swim <i>to prevent a sunburn</i>	Nos aplicamos crema protectora antes de tomar el sol y después de bañarnos, de forma que no nos quememos
Target word: Armband		
	English Definition	Spanish Definition
<i>Definition 1</i>	Armbands. Look! These are armbands	Armbands. Look! Manguitos
<i>Definition 2</i>	You wear armbands when you are learning how to swim.	Te pones los manguitos cuando estás aprendiendo a nadar.
<i>Definition 3</i>	You inflate armbands like you inflate balloons and you put them on your arms for swimming.	Los manguitos se inflan como los globos y te los pones en los brazos para nadar.
Target word: Lifejacket		
	English Definition	Spanish Definition
<i>Definition 1</i>	Lifejacket. See? This is a lifejacket.	Lifejacket. See? Chaleco salvavidas
<i>Definition 2</i>	Lifejackets are like a coat. We put them on when we go sailing on a boat in the sea or the river.	Los chalecos salvavidas son como un abrigo. Nos los ponemos cuando vamos a navegar en barco por el mar o el río.
<i>Definition 3</i>	We wear lifejackets when we are going sailing because lifejackets help you to float when you are in the water.	Llevamos los chalecos salvavidas cuando salimos a navegar porque los chalecos salvavidas nos ayudan a flotar cuando estamos en el agua.
Target word: Helmet		
	English Definition	Spanish Definition
<i>Definition 1</i>	Helmet. Look! This is a helmet.	Helmet. Look! Casco
<i>Definition 2</i>	You wear a helmet to protect your head when you ride your bike.	Nos ponemos un casco para proteger nuestra cabeza cuando montamos en bici.
<i>Definition 3</i>	You wear helmets when you	Nos ponemos los cascos cuando

ride a bike or a skateboard or you wear skates in case you fall off so you don't hurt your head.	montamos en bici, en monopatín o en patines. Así, si nos caemos, no nos haremos daño en la cabeza.
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Table 1. Definitions of the target words in English and Spanish

Alternatively, in the English supplemented with Spanish instruction groups, a similar procedure was followed although the language in which explanations were given was Spanish. Despite this, the story was always told in English and the target words were named in English too. Illustrations and gestures were used during the storytelling session to aid the children's comprehension of the story. For instance, during the shared storytelling sessions, when the target word "sun cream" appeared, the researcher showed a picture of a sun cream bottle. Then, when the adult continued to tell the story: "*But Tom didn't put sun cream on his body*", gestures of putting sun cream on were done. The same procedure was carried out with the other target items.

5.1.2 Vocabulary Tests

To be eligible for this study, the participants could not know any of the target words previously so that gains in vocabulary knowledge could be attributed to the instruction given during the storytelling sessions. To this effect, two researcher-made tests were elaborated and administered before and after the treatment to assess the expressive and receptive vocabulary knowledge of the target lexis of the participants (see Appendixes 2, 3 & 4 for examples of the images used in the tests). The research design is shown in Table 2.

<i>Class</i>	<i>Number of children</i>	<i>Week 1</i>	<i>Week 2</i>	<i>Week 3</i>
L2-ONLY GROUPS				
Group 1	3	Pre-tests	Story – L1 explanations	Post-tests
Group 2	3	Pre-tests	Story – L1 explanations	Post-tests
L2 + L1 EXPANSIONS GROUP				
Group 3	3	Pre-tests	Story – L2 explanations	Post-tests
Group 4	3	Pre-tests	Story – L2 explanations	Post-tests

Table 2. Treatment Design

Receptive tests

The receptive probe consisted of asking the child to point to or show the word being said from a choice of items that were semantically related. According to Rodhe and Tiefertal (2000), children can associate a word with its meaning by recognizing a

phonetic form of the word. Therefore, in order to be sure that the children did not recognize the target word prior to the intervention, the four pictures chosen for the test were similar semantically, for example: *armband*, *bracelet*, *hair band* and *sleeve*. In this case, *armband* was the target word and the rest are related to this word semantically. Additionally, in order to promote children's interest to the L2 and self-confidence, the rest of the vocabulary used in the receptive test, with the exception of the target words, was part of the contents already seen in the Science subject.

Expressive tests

The expressive test was composed of an expressive naming test and a concept-defining test. The naming part consisted in presenting pictures to the child individually and he/she was asked to label them in English. If the child named the word in Spanish, he/she was encouraged to do it in English. In the same way as in the receptive tests, to foster the children's motivation and self-esteem, the lexis used in the productive test, with the exception of the target words, was part of the contents already seen in their Science subject. After naming the words, the child was asked to tell the researcher something they knew about the word. Prompts such as "*tell me something about...*" or "*Can you say something about...?*" were employed so as to encourage the child to give a definition. If children could not say the definition in English, they were urged to say in Spanish by "*Dime algo que sepas sobre...*" so that they could express what they knew about the word with no vocabulary difficulties. The guidelines used for this procedure were as detailed by Lugo-Neris et al. (2010).

Tests Procedure

Both receptive and expressive tests were administered individually to each child in English a week before the beginning of the treatment. The purpose of those tests was to measure the children's knowledge of beach safety vocabulary and to establish that none of the learners were familiar with the target words. Although, instructions were given in Spanish sometimes so that the children understood the activity, the target words selected for this intervention were never said in Spanish. The expressive test was conducted before the receptive test to make sure that the children were not exposed to the unfamiliar words beforehand (Lugo-Neris et al, 2010). In order to analyze the data and to ensure fidelity to the procedure, both tests were audio-recorded for later scoring.

A week after the third shared storytelling session, both expressive and receptive tests were administered to individual children. The objective of this part of the intervention was to identify what information about the target words had been acquired for productive or receptive use one week after the treatment stage. As before, both productive and receptive tests were audio-recorded for later coding and to ensure fidelity to the procedure.

Post-tests interviews

A week after the post-tests, informal interviews were carried out in order to find out some participant's opinion about whether they preferred expansions in the story given in Spanish or English as a technique to facilitate the L2 target vocabulary acquisition and what the reason was that they could or could not express the target lexis in the expressive post-test. Furthermore, they were asked about the difficulty of learning the four target words. The participants were selected at random and the interviews were carried out individually in Spanish so that the subjects could express their opinions and did not feel limited by the use of the English language.

5.2 Participants

The study was carried out in a bilingual primary school located in a city in south-east Spain. The CLIL programme was implemented in the centre in 2010 and currently, in 2015-2016, it provides English instruction up to the 6th year of Primary School. English, Natural Science and Arts and Crafts are the subjects taught in English. In the 1st Cycle of Primary, Natural Science is allocated three hours, English four hours and Arts and Crafts one hour of instruction per week. As a result, the participants in the study received eight hours of English instruction per week, three of them corresponding to Natural Science.

Twenty participants, of whom nine were girls and eleven were boys, were drawn randomly by their Science teacher from a classroom of twenty-five children in their 1st Year of Primary School. The ages of the participants ranged from 6 to 7 years old and they all spoke Spanish as their L1. In addition, they did not have any sensory impairments or disabilities and twelve of them went to English extracurricular classes. Although the children had been learning English for over 4 years, this was their first year enrolled in the CLIL programme. For the intervention, the participants were

assigned by their Natural Science teacher to four small groups of five children according to their English proficiency. Thus, children who demonstrated lower proficiency in English were grouped with those who showed superior skills in the same language so that the four groups had a similar level of proficiency.

6. DATA ANALYSIS

The main data source for the study were the audio recordings of the pre- and post-tests, as well as the scoring sheets used by the researcher for each child. The scoring procedures are discussed below.

6.1 Coding

The scoring of the receptive vocabulary tests was the same for all the participants. The number of words each child could identify before and after the story intervention was counted and the totals added for each of the two groups (L2 only and L2 with L1 expansions). The expressive test consisted of two parts: i) naming the word in English and ii) providing an expressive definition. The word-naming pre and post-tests were counted in the same way as the receptive tests, depending on whether the child could label the words in English or not. The expressive conceptual definition test was coded using a modified version of the conceptual scoring schemes applied by Bedore, Peña, Garcia, and Cortex (2005) and by Justice et al. (2005). Table 3 presents a detailed description of the coding system used for the expressive definitions test. This scored system allowed children to answer in Spanish or English. Consequently, their answers were coded based on their ability to provide an accurate definition of the target word. This coding system is categorized into four groups: no knowledge, emergent knowledge, partial or incomplete knowledge and complete knowledge. The responses of each child obtained a score that ranged from 0 to 3. As a result, the total possible score for the expressive definitions was 12 points, 3 points for each of the total four words.

<i>Points</i>	<i>Criterion</i>	<i>Examples</i>
0	<i>No Knowledge</i>	
	- No response	- <i>No sé lo que es</i> (lifejacket)
	- Response of “I don’t know” or shrug of shoulders	- <i>Es ropa</i> (lifejacket)
	- Inappropriate definition	- <i>Es un chaleco</i> (lifejacket)
	- Only says the word in Spanish	- <i>Son manguitos</i> (armband)
		- <i>Es crema protectora</i> (sun cream)

1	<u>Emergent Knowledge</u>	
	- Vague, imprecise, or partial definition - Example of word in context (but does not define meaning) - A description with 1 example or characteristic of the word or item/person/object within the word category	- <i>Te lo pones en la cabeza</i> (helmet) - <i>Es como un sombrero</i> (helmet) - <i>Se usa en la playa</i> (sun cream) - <i>Para no quemarme</i> (sun cream) - <i>Te lo pones para flotar</i> (lifejacket)
2	<u>Partial or Incomplete Knowledge</u>	
	- 2 or more different attributes of the word or item/person/object within the word category - A description with more than 1 example or feature of the word or item/person/object within the word category	- <i>Te los pones en el agua cuando no sabes nadar</i> (armband) - <i>Nos los ponemos en los brazos para aprender a nadar</i> (armband) - <i>Te lo pones para navegar seguro en un barco</i> (lifejacket) - <i>Lo llevas por si te caes del barco</i> (lifejacket) - <i>Lo usas cuando vas en bici para no hacerte daño</i> (helmet)
3	<u>Complete Knowledge</u>	
	- Complete and precise definition - At least 2 or more descriptors - Narrows the possibility of confusing the target word with any other word	- <i>Te la echas cuando vas a la playa para no quemarte por los rayos del sol</i> (sun cream) - <i>Te los pones para aprender a nadar en el agua cuando eres pequeño</i> (armband) - <i>Me los pongo para nadar en la playa y no ahogarme</i> (armband) - <i>Lo usamos para navegar seguros en un barco porque así si nos caemos flotamos</i> (lifejacket)

Table 3. Coding System Used to measure the Expressive Definition Probe

Given the limited sample size, (L2 only group n= 10 and L2 with L1 expansion group n= 10), non-parametric statistics were applied to the data. Initially, a series of Wilcoxon signed rank tests were performed on the vocabulary test results for each storytelling condition to compare the mean ranks of the children's scores from the pre-test to the post-test within each group. In addition, descriptive statistics were applied to the data to obtain the means and standard deviation of the vocabulary scores for each group separately and to compare the total scores obtained in both groups. Finally, a Mann Whitney test was used to check whether the differences detected in the conceptual definition scores of both groups were statistically significant. The results of the study are reported below.

7. RESULTS

The purpose of this intervention was to examine the effects of English-only direct vocabulary instruction or English supplemented with Spanish instruction during shared storytelling sessions with young EFL learners in a CLIL classroom. The research questions we asked were the following:

- a) Does participating in storytelling sessions with lexical instruction in English only lead to vocabulary learning?**
- b) Does participating in storytelling sessions with lexical instruction in English supplemented with L1 Spanish lead to vocabulary learning?**
- c) Do children benefit more from English only or English plus Spanish vocabulary instruction during storytelling sessions?**

In order to answer these questions, three dependent variables were measured: i) the children's receptive vocabulary knowledge, ii) their ability to name the target vocabulary in English and iii) their expressive conceptual definitions of the target words. The results of the study are presented below, firstly for the English-only group and then for the English with L1 expansions group. Finally, the third research question will compare the results found within each group.

- a) Does participating in storytelling sessions with lexical instruction in English-only lead to vocabulary learning?**

Receptive and Expressive Vocabulary Test Results

The first research question addressed the potential acquisition of vocabulary by the children, both receptively and expressively, after participating in the three storytelling sessions in which the target vocabulary was presented and explained in English only. The results of the statistical analysis in the form of Wilcoxon signed rank tests, revealed that in the storytelling sessions in which the teacher had defined and explained the target lexis in English, there was statistically significant improvement in the children's receptive vocabulary scores from the pre-test to the post-test ($Z = -2.850$, $p = 0.004$). However the results for the children's ability to name the words in English were not statistically significant ($Z = -2.379$, $p = .017$). In the pre-test results carried out before the storytelling sessions, none of the participants in this group had been able to identify

any of the target words, receptively nor expressively. After the intervention, the children improved their ability to recognize the words in English to a greater extent than they were able to produce the same words verbally. The means and standard deviation (SD) for the English only group on both sets of tests can be seen in Table 4 below.

(n=10)	Receptive		Productive	
	<i>Pre-Test</i>	<i>Post-Test</i>	<i>Pre-Test</i>	<i>Post-Test</i>
Mean	.00	3.20	.00	1.70
SD	.000	.871	.000	1.486

Table 4. Receptive and expressive vocabulary scores in the English-only group

From the post-test results, we can see that although both the comprehension and production scores improved after the storytelling sessions, the average score for the learners' receptive knowledge was higher (3.20) than the expressive test score (1.70). This suggests that, out of the total four words, the mean for receptive knowledge in children from the English- only group was three words. However, regarding productive knowledge, the mean was lower as children could only name one or, in some cases, two words. In addition, the standard deviation from the mean was much higher in the expressive test (1.486), indicating that the production of the target words was not widely spread throughout the group as not all participants could name the four target words in the post-test.

In addition to these general results for the group as a whole, Table 5 shows the more detailed scores identified for the children for each of the four target words. This gives us a clearer idea of which words were more easily identified and produced and by how many of the learners. The results show that, while six of the ten children were able to recognize the target words “sun cream” and seven out of ten pointed to “helmet”, nine of them could identify the words “armbands” and “lifejacket”. In contrast, only two of the ten children were able to express verbally in English all four target words, while others failed to identify some words. This information is important as it coincides with the high standard deviations found in the expressive test results (1.486). The expressive production of vocabulary by the children in this group, then, is not uniformly distributed among all the learners. The results of both post-tests reveal that children appear to find it easier to identify the target words rather than to produce them in English and that the latter may depend on individual differences in children's proficiency levels.

Target Words	<i>English-only group Receptive Vocabulary Post-Test (N=10)</i>		<i>English-only group Expressive Vocabulary Post-Test (N=10)</i>	
	N (n=10)	%	N (n=10)	%
Sun cream	6	60	4	40
Armbands	10	100	5	50
Lifejacket	9	90	6	60
Helmet	7	70	2	20

Table 5. English-only group results on the Receptive and Expressive Vocabulary Post-Test

Results for Expressive Defining Test

The expressive defining test was designed to allow the children to provide definitions for the target words in their L1 (Spanish) or in the L2 (English), in order to see if their conceptual knowledge of the words improved after hearing the teacher's L2 definitions and explanations of the target lexis in the context of the story, following the procedure outlined by Lugo-Neris et al. (2010). Thus, their answers were not affected by their skills in one language versus another. A Wilcoxon signed rank test carried out on the tests scores showed that the children improved their ability to provide conceptual definitions of the lexical items after receiving direct instruction ($Z = -2.831$, $p = .005$).

Table 6 shows the means and standard deviation for the English-only group conceptual defining test results. The average score for the children in this group was 10 points out of 12 possible points (3 points per word) indicating that participants were able to partially define 3 to 4 words, or give complete definitions of 2 or 3 words. These complete definitions provide a full explanation of the meaning of the target words.

(n= 10)	Pre Test	Post Test
Mean	3	10
SD	0.458	1.4

Table 6. Conceptual defining test scores for the English-only instruction group

The English-only group participants showed a marked improvement in their expressive definition knowledge after the repeated shared storytelling sessions, as their explanation of the word meanings went from responses of “*No lo sé*”, saying the word in Spanish or offering a partial definition, to describe two or more attributes of the word or giving a precise definition that narrows the possibility of confusion with other words. Table 7 shows examples of how the English-only group definition responses for the four target words improved after the treatment. Learner 2 started the treatment not being able to

label the word “lifejacket” as he did not know what it was. However, after the three exposures in the shared storytelling sessions, it is evident that the child’s knowledge of the word improved, since he was able to supply a complete definition which included three attributes of the target word, namely: “*Son para salvar a las personas que se caen al agua y así no se ahogan.*”.

Definition of the target word: Sun Cream		
	<i>Pre Test</i>	<i>Post Test</i>
English- Only Group		
S1	Es crema y me la pongo en la playa y en la piscina	Es para que no nos quememos cuando da el Sol.
S3	Es crema de la playa	Es para que no te quemes cuando estás en la playa.
S5	Es crema de la playa	Te protege del Sol cuando estás en la playa
Definition of the target word: Armband		
	<i>Pre Test</i>	<i>Post Test</i>
English- Only Group		
S2	Son manguitos. Mi hermana los lleva en la playa.	Se usa para que puedas nadar y no te hundas cuando no sabes nadar.
S4	Son manguitos para nadar	Son para que nades cuando eres pequeño.
S6	Son manguitos y sirven para nadar.	Son para que no te hundas cuando no sabes nadar.
Definition of the target word: Lifejacket		
	<i>Pre Test</i>	<i>Post Test</i>
English- Only Group		
S7	¿Parece un chaleco?	Se utiliza en los barcos. Los llevamos todos para no ahogarnos si nos caemos.
S2	No sé lo que es.	Son para salvar a las personas que se caen al agua y así no se ahogan.
S8	No sé qué es eso.	Te lo pones en un barco por si te caes. Es por seguridad.
Definition of the target word: Helmet		
	<i>Pre Test</i>	<i>Post Test</i>
English- Only Group		
S9	Es un casco	Me lo pongo cuando monto en bici para no hacerme daño en la cabeza.
S10	Es un casco y me lo pongo en la cabeza.	Se pone en la cabeza y si alguien se cae, no se hace daño. Yo me lo pongo siempre.
S6	Es un casco de la bici.	Me lo pongo porque si me caigo de la bici para no hacerme daño en la cabeza.

Table 7. English- Only Group participants’ definitions of the target words before and after the stories.

b) Does participating in storytelling sessions with lexical instruction in English supplemented with L1 Spanish lead to vocabulary learning?

Receptive and Expressive Vocabulary Test Results

The second research question focused on the two sub-groups of children who had participated in the storytelling sessions in which the teacher defined and explained the target words in the children's L1. The results of the Wilcoxon signed rank tests were similar to those of the English-only group. Statistically significant scores were found between the pre and post-tests for receptive knowledge of the target vocabulary ($Z = -2.827$, $p = .005$), indicating improvement in the learners' ability to identify the new words. However, the expressive text results did not reveal significant differences with the pre-test ($Z = -2.388$, $p = .017$). Interestingly then, the results appear to indicate that providing L1 definitions and explanations of target words had little effect on the children's ability to produce those words in the L2. The means and SD for the English plus L1 Spanish group on both sets of tests can be seen in Table 8.

(n= 10)	Receptive		Expressive	
	<i>Pre-Test</i>	<i>Post-Test</i>	<i>Pre-Test</i>	<i>Post-Test</i>
Mean	.00	2.80	.00	1.70
SD	.000	1.166	.000	1.345

Table 8. Receptive and expressive vocabulary scores in the English plus L1 Expansion group

As with the English-only group, the scores for the pre tests are the same in both cases, indicating that the children were not able to identify or produce in English the target vocabulary contained in the story before the interventions. Concerning the post-tests, both comprehension and production scores showed improvement after the storytelling sessions. The average score for receptive knowledge was higher (2.80) than the expressive test score (1.70), demonstrating once again that the children's ability to recognize the target vocabulary was more evenly spread throughout the groups than their ability to verbally produce the same words. As it happened with the English-only group, individual differences between the learners in the groups would appear to have influenced the results.

Table 9 below provides a breakdown of the results of both tests for the four target items. The receptive post-test showed that although five children were able to point to the target word "helmet", six, nine and eight out of the total ten were able to show

comprehension of the words “sun cream”, “armbands” and “lifejacket”, respectively. A more detailed analysis of the scores (see Table 9) showed that two of the total ten children were able to verbally produce all four target words while others could not express any of the words. These results match the high standard deviations found in the expressive test results (1.345), indicating that the oral production of vocabulary by the children is not as homogeneously distributed among all the learners as their receptive word knowledge.

Target Words	<i>English plus L1 expansions group Receptive Vocabulary Post-Test (N=10)</i>		<i>English plus L1 expansions group Expressive Vocabulary Post-Test (N=10)</i>	
	N (n=10)	%	N (n=10)	%
Sun cream	6	60	3	20
Armbands	9	90	5	50
Lifejacket	8	80	5	60
Helmet	5	50	2	20

Table 9. English plus L1 Expansion group results on the Receptive and Expressive Vocabulary Post-Test

Results for the Expressive Defining Test

Regarding the conceptual defining test results in the English plus L1 Spanish group, the results of the Wilcoxon signed rank test once again showed statistically significant improvement between the pre-test and the post-test scores ($Z = -2.825$, $p = .005$), indicating that the children’s ability to provide more accurate definitions of the target lexis had increased. Table 10 shows the means and standard deviations for the English plus L1 expansions group’s conceptual defining test. The average score for the conceptual defining test of the English plus L1 group was 11 points out of a 12 possible points (3 points per word), indicating that the learners were able to give a definition that narrows the possibility of confusion with other words, a definition of 2 to 3 words or partially explain 3 to 4 words.

(n= 10)	Pre Test	Post Test
Mean	3	11
SD	0.8	1.077

Table 10. Expressive defining scores for the English instruction plus L1 expansions group

As with the English-only group, the scores for English instruction supplemented with L1 explanations indicated that the learners manifested greater gains in their conceptual

knowledge of the lexical items after the storytelling sessions. This was evident in their explanations of the word meanings, which progressed from responses such as “*No sé lo que es eso*”, giving the word in Spanish or offering a partial definition, to being able to provide more accurate descriptions of the vocabulary in Spanish which included two or more attributes of the target word or giving precise definitions. Both languages of instruction, Spanish and English, were permitted as participants were tested for their conceptual knowledge of the target word and not their English proficiency. Table 11 presents examples of how the English plus L1 explanation groups’ definitions for the four target words improved after the intervention.

Definition of the target word: Sun Cream		
	<i>Pre Test</i>	<i>Post Test</i>
English instruction plus L1 explanation		
S11	Es crema de la playa.	Te lo tienes que poner para no quemarte por el Sol porque duele.
S13	Es crema.	Para no quemarte los brazos, la piernas, la cara... por los rayos malos del Sol.
S15	Es crema. Me la pongo para no quemarte.	Para que no te quemes en la playa. Y cuando estamos al Sol.
Definition of the target word: Armband		
	<i>Pre Test</i>	<i>Post Test</i>
English instruction plus L1 explanation		
S12	Son manguitos. Te los pones para nadar.	Se los ponen los niños cuando eres pequeñito y no sabes nadar y así puedes aprender.
S14	Son manguitos.	Te los tienes que poner cuando vas a nadar en el agua porque así no te hundes.
S16	Son manguitos. Yo no me los pongo porque sé nadar.	Cuando no sabes nadar, te pones los manguitos y así no te hundes. Y cuando llevamos manguitos, aprendemos a nadar.
Definition of the target word: Lifejacket		
	<i>Pre Test</i>	<i>Post Test</i>
English instruction plus L1 explanation		
S17	Es un chaleco de los barcos.	Te lo pones cuando vas en un barco por si te caes y (así) no pasa nada.
S10	No lo sé	Se ponen en los barcos, por si te caes al agua, no te ahogues porque flota como los manguitos.
S18	No sé lo qué es.	Sirve para cuando vas en barco, por si nos caemos, nos tiran los chalecos, te lo pones y así flotamos y no nos ahogamos.

Definition of the target word: Helmet		
	Pre Test	Post Test
English instruction plus L1 explanation		
S19	Es un... casco.	Para protegerte la cabeza por si te caes cuando montas en bici.
S20	Es como un sombrero para la bici.	Para no hacerte daño cuando te caes de la bici o con los patines.
S15	Es un casco de la bicicleta	Te lo tienes que poner porque si te caes de la bici, no te haces daño en la cabeza.

Table 11. English instruction plus L1 explanation participants' definitions of the target words before and after the stories

In this group, English instruction supplemented with Spanish expansions, Subject 16 could label the target word “armbands” in Spanish only, yet, this participant failed to give a definition of the word. After the intervention, Subject 16 offered a complete definition of “armbands” by saying that *“cuando no sabes nadar, te pones los manguitos y así no te hundes. Y cuando llevamos manguitos, aprendemos a nadar”* in Spanish.

c) Do children benefit more from English only or English plus L1 Spanish vocabulary instruction during storytelling sessions?

Having reported the results for the two groups separately, the third research question was intended to compare both instructional methods to see which type of vocabulary instruction the children might benefit more from. Since the within-group results had shown that both groups had made significant improvements on the receptive vocabulary tests and on the expressive defining tests, a comparison of the scores achieved on both these tests was performed using the Mann Whitney test. However, the results of the comparison of the receptive test scores between both groups revealed that the differences were not statistically significant ($Z = -.723$, $p = .529$). Similarly, the comparison of the expressive defining test scores in both groups did not show significant differences between the groups ($Z = -.935$, $p = .393$).

These results indicated that children from both groups benefited from the instruction of new words during storytelling sessions despite the language (English or Spanish) used for that instruction.

Overall Vocabulary Growth in Shared Storytelling

Based on the procedures followed by Lugo-Neris et al (2010), pre- and post-tests scores were compared for each group on the three variables (receptive, expressive and expressive defining). The difference between the pre- and post-test scores was calculated so as to find the effect of direct L2 vocabulary instruction in English-only and of instruction supplemented with Spanish explanations on the learners' overall progress. Table 12 shows the pre- and post-test average scores for each group on all of the four target words in both interventions.

Dependent Variables	Pre Test		Post Test		Difference	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
English-only group						
<i>Receptive</i>	.00	.000	3.20	.871	3.20	.871
<i>Production</i>	.00	.000	1.70	1.486	1.70	1.486
<i>Expressive Defining</i>	3	.45	10	1.4	7	.95
English instruction plus L1 expansions group						
<i>Receptive</i>	.00	.000	2.80	1.166	2.80	1.166
<i>Production</i>	.00	.000	1.70	1.345	1.70	1.345
<i>Expressive Defining</i>	3	.8	11	1.07	8	.27

Table 12. Average growth scores for dependent variables across all participants divided in intervention groups (n = 6).

Learners from the English-only group scored an average of 3.20 points out of the possible four on the receptive test, meaning that they could recognize 3 to 4 of the target words. This group also scored an average of 1.70 points in the production vocabulary post-test, indicating that they could produce either one or two words. However, the expressive definitions test scores increased an average of 7 points out of the possible 12, showing that they could explain 1 to 2 words or partially define 3 to 4 words more on the post-test.

Regarding the English instruction supplemented with L1 explanations group, an average of 2.80 points out of four was scored in the receptive post-test, manifesting that children identified 2 to 3 more words in this test. Concerning production, the children scored an average of 1.70 points in this post-test, showing that they were able to verbally express one to two words after the treatment. In addition, the English instruction plus L1 explanation group's scores improved an average of 8 points, showing that the children

could offer full explanations of 1 to 2 words or partially define 3 to 4 words more after the intervention.

An additional comparison between the pre- and post-tests scores of the participants from both groups was made so as to determine the general effect of the direct instruction of new L2 vocabulary embedded in shared storytelling activities. Table 13 presents the average growth scores for dependent variables across all participants.

Dependent Variables	<i>Pre Test</i>		<i>Post Test</i>		<i>Difference</i>	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
<i>Receptive</i>	.00	.000	3	1.048	3	1.048
<i>Production</i>	.00	.000	1.70	1.417	1.70	1.417
<i>Expressive Defining</i>	3	0.653	11	1.284	8	0.631

Table 13. Average growth scores for dependent variables across all participants (n = 12)

These results provide evidence of overall improvement in the receptive and productive vocabulary knowledge of the target words, as participants from both groups could identify and express verbally three words and one or two words more, respectively, after the treatment. Moreover, comparison scores also confirm general gains in expressive definitions of the L2 words. Overall, the children could give complete definitions of 1 to 2 target words or partially explain 3 to 4 words more after the shared storytelling sessions. Hence, the total average growth scores across both groups reveal that there were gains in all the dependent variables after the storytelling interventions, with similar patterns in both treatment groups despite the languages of instruction.

Interviews

Informal interviews were carried out a week after the post-tests to find the learners' opinions on whether Spanish or English expansions in stories were better for learning new vocabulary and why they thought they could or could not express the four target words in the expressive post-test. In order to obtain a variety of responses, the four children who could produce all the target words were chosen. Additionally, four subjects, two from each intervention group, who could not name the target vocabulary, were selected. Six other children, three from each group, were randomly selected for the interviews.

Most of the interviewees agreed that they preferred the teacher to use English expansions of words in stories so as to learn more English. However, two children, both from the English supplemented with Spanish group, chose the Spanish expansions options, claiming that this technique improved their understanding of the concepts inherent to the target words.

Regarding their capacity to produce the four words in the expressive post-test, the four participants who had been able to name them, said that it was easy for them to learn the words. It must be said, however, that six of the interviewed learners attended extracurricular English classes during the study. However, the other interviewees did not attend any extra English lessons. Moreover, the four participants who were unable to express the target words verbally stated that it would be necessary for them to be exposed to the words again to learn them effectively.

8. DISCUSSION

Our aim in this study was to examine the effects of English-only direct vocabulary instruction or English supplemented with Spanish instruction on word learning during shared storytelling sessions with young EFL learners enrolled in a CLIL programme. The main research findings can be summarized as follows:

- a) Shared storytelling sessions in the L2 contribute to vocabulary acquisition**
- b) Children can recognize new words after limited exposure before being able to produce them**
- c) Individual differences in children's linguistic and cognitive abilities influence their acquisition of new L2 vocabulary**
- d) Explanations and expansions of target vocabulary in both the L2 and the L1 improve children's conceptual knowledge of target vocabulary**

a) Shared storytelling sessions contribute to L2 vocabulary acquisition

The results of the present study manifest significant differences between the receptive, productive and expressive defining pre- and post-tests in both groups of learners. Participants from both conditions made improvements in their receptive, expressive and

conceptual knowledge of the target words after the shared storytelling sessions. Thus, repeated exposures to a story accompanied by L1 or L2 explanations of the target words were both found to contribute to the development of children's vocabulary knowledge in the L2.

Our findings support earlier research by Biemiller (2003); Coyne et al. (2004); Justice et al. (2005); Lugo-Neris et al. (2010) and Senechal (1997), among others, all of whom found that young children are able to learn vocabulary incidentally, and that storytelling supplemented with direct vocabulary instruction can enhance receptive and expressive vocabulary knowledge in bilingual and monolingual children in the beginning and middle years of school. Moreover, evidence from these studies indicates that the most beneficial approach to teaching new words is a combined method of vocabulary instruction embedded in an incidental learning context such as that of stories and direct instruction of the vocabulary. In this sense, our findings support previous research and they provide further evidence of the benefits of direct lexical instruction combined with storytelling on L2 learners enrolled in a CLIL programme at the beginning of Primary School education.

b) Children can recognize new words after limited exposure before being able to produce them

Our results show that children are better at identifying vocabulary receptively after a brief exposure to target words than at producing them verbally. The process of developing lexical knowledge of new words, or full fast mapping, seems to take much longer. In consonance with the results presented by Rohde and Tiefenthal (2003), the process of mapping words onto meanings requires children to be exposed to the new words several times. Despite this, there is evidence that if the full process of fast mapping is not possible, young L2 learners are able to make "partial maps", that is, they memorize partial meanings, such as the general word field the new label belongs to. Although seven children across both groups did not produce the exact target word they were asked to name, they did say a word from the same semantic field of the selected target word, namely six children said "*jacket*" or "*coat*" instead of "lifejacket" and two children labeled "helmet" as "*hat*". These cases are evidence of "partial mapping", as the children knew that those new words referred to a garment worn around the upper

part of the body and a covering for the head, respectively. The children did not exactly remember the target word, yet, they chose an item that belonged to the same semantic field.

In general, the level of vocabulary production of the target words by the participants from both groups was very low, as the children's exposure to those words was limited. However, a higher level of receptive acquisition of the words was achieved after a few exposures. This could be because of the children's capacity for "fast mapping".

In this sense, our findings also coincide with Barnett, Yarosz, Thomas, Jung and Blanco (2007) and Ellis and Heimbach (1997) whose young learners showed greater gains in receptive lexical knowledge than in producing words verbally. Vocabulary knowledge, therefore, would seem to depend not only on cognitive and intellectual abilities, but also on the frequency with which the learners use the target words. In our study, the differences between receptive and expressive knowledge might have been influenced by contextual factors such as the limited exposure to the target words as participants only heard the four target words during the three shared storytelling sessions. This was found in children from both groups, English-only and English supplemented with L1 expansions. This would appear to indicate firstly, that the language of instruction does not directly affect lexical acquisition and secondly, that limited exposure to new vocabulary is not sufficient for productive knowledge to occur.

c) Individual differences in children's linguistic and cognitive abilities influence their acquisition of new L2 vocabulary

Although we conduct a small-scale study, with only twenty children sub-divided into two different conditions, there were in fact considerable individual variations within both groups when it came to producing vocabulary, with some children evidently finding this process easier than others. All the participants made gains in the acquisition of the target words after the three story presentations, both in their receptive knowledge and in their ability to provide more accurate conceptual definitions in the L1. In spite of this, only four children could name the words. Two of the four children attended English classes outside school. However, the other two did not. Therefore, with young learners, other factors, aside from individual differences in proficiency levels, would

seem to be important in explaining the results. It is possible that a child's L1 proficiency, general cognitive ability or motivation to learn the L2 could influence the process of acquiring new L2 vocabulary. Hence, vocabulary growth in the L2 may be linked to the child's current lexical knowledge in both languages (Oetting, Rice and Swank, 1995; Rice, Buhr and Nemeth, 1990).

During the informal interviews, the four subjects who could produce the four target words were asked why they thought they could name these words in the post-tests. Their responses revealed two types of strategies. While one participant linked "armbands" to the words "*arm*" and "*bags*" and "lifejacket" to "*jacket*"; the other three participants associated phonetic parts of the target vocabulary with words that belong to their background knowledge. In relation to this, a further factor to take into account might be that children may find it easier to identify and label some words rather than others. In the informal interviews, the participants were asked for their opinion on the difficulty of learning the target words. Their responses reflected that the words "armbands", "lifejacket" and "sun cream" were easier to learn as they contained phonological parts of words which were already familiar to them, namely "*arm*" for "armbands", "*jacket*" for "lifejacket" and, lastly, "*sun*" for "sun cream". In addition, the participants stated that the word "helmet" was the most difficult to learn because it was not related to any words they already knew. In accordance with Gathercole, Willis, Emslie and Baddeley (1992), once children have developed a repertoire of words, they use the sounds in those words to foster the acquisition of new vocabulary. Subjects' responses demonstrated that children could link novel words to familiar words to facilitate their learning. In this sense, children's existing lexical knowledge in the L2 and phonological ability to discriminate sounds could have accounted for the individual differences found among these young learners.

Another reason for the children's disparity in producing vocabulary might have been the lack of any explicit reason to learn the target words for instance, the need to communicate. As Ellis and Heimbach (1997) pointed out in their study, children may find it much easier to learn new words that refer to objects they are interested in. Therefore, in order to learn them, children will make an effort to produce the words. In this study, in order to participate in the storytelling, the subjects had to learn the words. However, as some of them mentioned in the interviews, a few exposures were insufficient to acquire the words productively.

d) Explanations and expansions of target vocabulary in both the L2 and the L1 improve children's conceptual knowledge of target vocabulary

Regarding the language of instruction for the target words and their definitions, we found no apparent difference between providing L1 and L2 explanations of the vocabulary. Both seemed to help children acquire vocabulary receptively and to improve their ability to give more accurate definitions of the target concepts. This data is consistent with the results reported by Lugo-Neris et al (2010), who found that the receptive, productive and defining knowledge of all the participants in their study grew after treatments in both languages. In contrast, the results of our study differ from other findings of Lugo-Neris et al. (2010), which suggested that children who received direct instruction of the target words in their L1 (Spanish) showed greater gains in receptive, productive and expressive defining knowledge of those words than the children who did not have the vocabulary expansions in Spanish. From their perspective, vocabulary learning was enhanced as the expansions of the target words were given in a more comprehensible way as younger learners have better language skills and knowledge in their L1. The process of using the child's first language as a 'bridge' to establish connections with the new vocabulary was thought to be responsible for furthering lexical acquisition in the L2.

However, while the subjects in the research carried out by Lugo-Neris et al. (2010) were 5 and 6 year old Hispanic children with limited English proficiency (LEP) enrolled on an intensive summer course; the participants in our study had been learning English for four years, since pre-school, and were currently enrolled in a CLIL programme which provides increased exposure to the L2 as well as more meaningful opportunities to use the target language to learn curricular content. Thus, the young learners in this research may have had a larger repertoire of English vocabulary, which could have actively supported and fostered the acquisition of new words directly in the L2.

9. CONCLUSIONS AND PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

In conclusion, the results of this research revealed that young language learners can learn novel words through listening to stories in the L2. However, although repeated shared storytelling sessions can enhance receptive and conceptual word learning,

limited exposure to new lexical items is insufficient for children to develop productive knowledge of the new words. Our findings also suggest that there is no apparent advantage in providing explanations of the target vocabulary in the learners' L1. Moreover, the study demonstrated that children's individual and personal characteristics influence their vocabulary learning.

Our study into lexical acquisition entails a number of important educational implications. A look at the participants' scores on the post-test revealed that children in the beginning of their school years are able to acquire new vocabulary through listening to stories. According to Krashen (1985), there are two necessary conditions for language acquisition to occur: the existence of comprehensible input and a low affective filter. In stories, new vocabulary is embedded in a meaningful and comprehensible context and children's motivation and interest towards stories can lower their levels of anxiety. As a result, shared storytelling might be an effective vehicle for teaching novel words to L2 learners and it could be further fostered by combining the story with direct instruction and explanation of the words. Additionally, the frequency of exposure to input plays an essential role in vocabulary acquisition since several exposures to novel vocabulary are required in order for children to learn new words.

Moreover, as Ellis and Heimbach (1997) stated, comprehending a word does not necessarily mean that the word will be remembered. This is important, since language learners in a CLIL programme are acquiring not only new words, but also new concepts in the L2. For this reason, children's expressive defining knowledge of vocabulary is a key factor that teachers must take into account. Therefore, when teaching Natural Science or Arts and Crafts through the L2, explicit vocabulary instruction supplemented with expansions and conceptual definitions is needed to support not only receptive learning, but also naming and expressive defining knowledge. Furthermore, stories could be selected to build on the concepts being acquired in other CLIL subjects, reinforcing, thus key vocabulary and content in a meaningful context, fostering interaction between the learners and interest towards the L2.

As we have seen, the findings of this study provide further evidence that children can learn vocabulary directly through the L2. By employing only the L2 in the classroom, children do get lots of practice of the four language skills (speaking, listening, reading and writing) in English. Likewise, it offers the opportunity to learn vocabulary and

linguistic models through interaction. It is also unquestionable that in a context like the Spanish one, children's exposure to the FL should be maximized as they have limited opportunities to hear and use the FL outside school. Consequently, teachers should aim to use the FL as much as possible in the classroom, as they are the main source of input and often the only models children have to show that English is a valued vehicle of communication. This means that teachers should try to encourage learners to communicate only in the L2 even when they could use their L1.

However, it is also true that the use of L1 expansions (or bridging) does not appear to slow down lexical acquisition in the L2. It is our suggestion, then, that this technique might be fruitfully used in CLIL or EFL classrooms as a tool to achieve specific goals. In some learning contexts in which FL learners present low proficiency levels in English or where there is a high proportion of migrant learners, supplying L1 explanations of new vocabulary may help such children improve their knowledge of the L2 since they are likely to benefit from receiving semantic definitions in Spanish. Neither can we discard "bridging" or giving Spanish expansions when it comes to teaching abstract and more specific conceptual words in older CLIL language learners. As CLIL content becomes increasingly difficult, these learners may need support from their L1 to make accurate associations between the target words and the new L2 label. Thus, the L1 can be presented as a connection that may promote the comprehension of new concepts. Hence, the L1 might be contemplated as a useful resource that can facilitate the learning process of L2 vocabulary and create a positive learning environment in CLIL language classrooms.

10. LIMITATIONS AND FURTHER RESEARCH

Any conclusions from this research should be treated with caution as the duration of the treatment and access to the population was limited. More solid evidence might have been obtained if a longer intervention could have been carried out and with a larger sample of participants. Additionally, information about the participants' cognitive abilities was not available. Further research is needed to explore the effects of instruction in both intervention languages with older children and learners who are not part of a CLIL programme in schools. Further research is also needed to examine the

effects of a combined approach of incidental learning accompanied by direct instruction of vocabulary on the learnability of word classes other than nouns.

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APPENDIX 1

“THE BEACH HOLIDAY” STORY

"THE BEACH HOLIDAY" STORY

I'm going to tell you a story. Do you like stories? Well, this story is about two children. It's about a boy and a girl.

Once upon a time there was a boy and a girl. The boy's name was Tom and the girl's name was Anna. They were brother and sister. Can you see them? This is Tom and this is Anna.

It was Saturday and Tom and Anna went to the beach with their mom and dad. Can you see them? This is Tom, Anna, mom and dad.

They went to the beach on Saturday. Tom and Anna were very happy. Tom could see the sea and ships. Anna could see the sand and the cliffs.

At the beach, Tom and Anna wanted to make a big sandcastle in the sand.

"Come on Anna" said Tom, "I want to make a big sandcastle!"

"Don't forget to put your sun cream on Anna!" said Dad "Look at the sun. Today is sunny and the sun is shining"

"Oh yes!" said Anna very happily

But Tom didn't put sun cream on his body. He started to make sandcastles with Anna and when they finished, do you know what happened? ...Tom saw that his arms and tummy were red like a tomato!

"Ooh! Mum! Look, look! My arms and my tummy! They hurt!" said Tom crying sadly

Mom went to Tom and wrapped him in a towel.

"Oh! Tom... You have to put sun cream on your body when you play in the beach to prevent sunburns. See? Your arms and your tummy are very red. Come here and sit under the beach umbrella and put your shirt on!" said Mom

"Ok" said Tom

"I am going to put sun cream on. Can you help me, please?" asked Anna

"Yes, of course" said Mom

After playing football in the sand, Tom and Anna went for a swim.

"Come on Anna!" said Tom "I want to swim!"

"Don't forget your armbands, Tom!" said Mom.

"Oh yes!" said Tom very happily

But Anna didn't put the armbands on. She ran to the sea and when she wanted to swim... she didn't know how!

"Help me Dad! I can't swim!" cried Anna very scared

Dad saw Anna and went to help her to get out of the sea.

"Oh Anna... You have to wear armbands because you can't swim alone! Here you are, put them on" said Dad

"Thank you" said Anna

"Dad, why don't you wear armbands?" asked Anna.

"Because I can swim. I learnt how to swim when I was a little child" said Dad

After swimming, Tom, Anna, Mom and Dad went sailing. Mom and Dad helped Tom and Anna to get on to the boat.

"Come on, Anna!" Said Tom

"Don't forget your lifejacket Tom!" said Anna. "Oh yes! Said Tom

But Tom didn't put his lifejacket on. He was playing with his ball and then... Do you know what? ... Tom fell out of the boat! Splashhhhh!

"Help me Dad! Help me!" cried Tom very scared

Dad jumped into the water and helped Tom to get on the boat again.

"Oh Tom! You have to put your lifejacket on when we go sailing! Here you are. Put it on" said Dad

"Thank you" said Tom

"Do you wear a lifejacket too, Dad?" asked Anna

"Yes, I do" said Dad

In the afternoon, Tom and Anna wanted to ride their bikes. So, they went with mom to buy food in the market near the beach.

"Come on Anna!" Said Tom

"Don't forget your helmet Tom!" said Mom.

"Oh yes!" said Tom

But Anna didn't put her helmet on. She was riding her bike when she stepped on a rock and suddenly... Bam!... Anna fell from her bike!

"Oh! My head! My head hurts!" cried Anna

Mom went to help Anna to stand up

"Oh Anna! You have to wear a helmet when you ride your bike. You have a little cut on your forehead, above your left eye. Come here, I am going to clean the little cut with a paper towel" said Mom.

"Thank you" said Anna

"Do you wear a helmet when you ride a bike, Mom?" asked Tom

"Yes, I do" said Mom

When Tom, Anna and Mom finished in the grocery store, they went home to help Dad to clean and tidy up. It was time to go home to Murcia. Next day was Monday and Tom and Anna had to go to school.

"Come on Tom and Anna!" said Mom "We have to go home!"

"Oh yes! Goodbye sea! Goodbye sand! See you soon!" said Tom and Anna.

APPENDIX 2

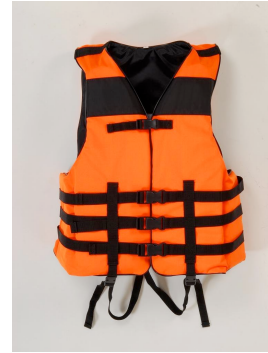
RECEPTIVE PRE-TEST IMAGES





APPENDIX 3

EXPRESSIVE PRE-TEST IMAGES



APPENDIX 4

EXPRESSIVE DEFINING PRE- AND POST- TESTS IMAGES

