Learner’s Strategy Use to Guess word Meanings during Interactive Read-Aloud: A Case Study

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Abstract

Story read-aloud has been advocated to be effective in promoting children's vocabulary acquisition (Robbins & Ehri, 1994; Elley, 1989), especially if the teacher adopts an 'extended instruction' approach to explain and teach word meanings (Collins, 2010; Coyne, McCoach & Kapp, 2013), and children actively participate through activities such as labelling words (e.g. Schechal, Thomas & Monker, 1995), answering open-ended questions (Whitehurst et al. 1988), and engaging in analysis and prediction as the stories are being read (Dickinson & Smith, 1994).

The current case study primarily investigates how the participant (listener), who was a 12-year-old Chinese native speaker and was learning English as a foreign language, used strategies to guess word meanings from story context. In addition, there are another two research areas: the teacher's (reader's) strategy used to elaborate word meanings and general effects of the child's vocabulary acquisition from listening to stories read aloud. Three storybooks were read interactively five times each during a period of ten days. The participant took two post-intervention vocabulary tests. The findings confirmed that interactive story read-aloud enhances the child's vocabulary acquisition. In addition, the reader used seven main strategies (e.g. Total physical response) to teach word meanings, and the listener four strategies to guess word meanings (e.g. checking illustrations).

The current study helps to identify further research areas such as a larger-scale study comparing the strategy use of children from different ethnical backgrounds or different age groups. It also provides advice for the teacher on how to help children learn vocabulary by reading stories aloud.
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Chapter 1- Introduction

1.1 Research Context

One of the most outstanding features of increased internationalization in this modern world seems to be the widespread of English, 'into even the remotest corners of this world (Feng, 2012:363).'

Following China's Open-door policy and its deepening contact with other countries and areas in the world, English language teaching and learning has become more of a national priority (Zhang, 2012; Knell, et al. 2007). In 2001, it was officially decided that, primary schools in general should gradually start teaching English from Grade three (Chinese Ministry of Education, 2001), but in 2008, the Grade to start learning English was lowered to Grade one of primary school (Chinese Ministry of Education, 2008). However, the English learning environment has not been particularly favourable to the students (Zhang, 2004). Chinese students who are learning English as a foreign language in China have limited access to authentic English language (ibid). English textbooks and English teachers, who are mostly native Chinese, provide the main input for English learning (ibid). To me, as a native Chinese speaker who has been studying English in China for many years and had the opportunity to study in a native English country, I personally have benefited from the intensive exposure to authentic English language input. I think it is essential to provide Chinese English learners more access to English which should be generally as authentic as possible.

This study concerns the use of storybooks in English language teaching. Stories generally appeal to children as they link magical literature to children's early childhood experiences; meanwhile, they embrace enjoyable activities with rich, authentic uses of foreign language (Cameron, 2001). I was thus interested to discover the use of authentic English children's storybooks for a Chinese learner of English as a foreign language. For a more specific study area, I focused on the potential of the child's vocabulary acquisition through listening to stories which are read aloud.
1.2 Background Research

Phillips & McNaughton (1990) found that pre-school children whose parents read them storybooks typically showed high achievements after they attended school. Story read-aloud has also been found to be an effective source for children to acquire vocabulary (Robbins & Ehri, 1994; Elley, 1989) particularly, but not exclusively, if the teacher adopted an 'extended instruction' approach to explain and teach word meanings (Collins, 2010; Coyne, McCoach & Kapp, 2007). Children's vocabulary acquisition is also found to be improved when they are actively encouraged to participate through activities such as labelling words (e.g. Senechal, Thomas & Monker, 1995), answering open-ended questions (Whitehurst et al. 1988), and engaging in analysis and prediction as the stories are being read (Dickinson & Smith, 1994).

1.3 Why the Current Study Is Necessary

Previous research has identified that the story reader's elaboration of vocabulary (e.g. Elley, 1989) and the listener's active participation (e.g. Dickinson & Smith, 1994) during story read-aloud promote listener's vocabulary acquisition. However, not much research has been conducted on how the story reader can utilize strategies to explain the vocabulary, and how the listener can utilize strategies to actively guess word meanings from the story context. Ames (1966) analysed the strategy use of 12 advanced doctoral students to guess word meanings using contextual cues such as referral clues and synonym clues. Nevertheless, there seems to be a lack of in-depth research on individual learner's actual use of strategies. Investigation into the strategy use of story reader and listener will hopefully add insights into how the reader and listener can interact with each other during story read-aloud, and the general effects of including strategy use on vocabulary acquisition from story read-aloud.
1.4 Purpose of the Current Study

The current study intends to investigate the overall effects of interactive story read-aloud on children's vocabulary acquisition, and the strategy use of the story reader and listener. Specifically, the research questions are:

**Research Question One:** To what extent can a child acquire vocabulary through listening to stories read aloud in an interactive manner?

**Research Question Two:** How does the listener utilize strategies to learn words from context during the interactive story read-aloud sessions?

**Research Question Three:** How does the reader utilize strategies to help the learner learn words from context during the interactive story read-aloud sessions?

1.5 Definition of Key Terms

**Interactive read-aloud:** There has been no fixed definition for an interactive read-aloud. Smolkin and Donovan (2003) broadly define interactive read-aloud as '(one) context in which a teacher genuinely shares, not abandons, authority with the children' (p. 28). Wiseman (2011) proposes, at a more detailed level, that 'an interactive read aloud consists of a teacher selecting books that meet students' interests as well as their social and developmental levels, modelling fluent reading, and encouraging students to contribute in active ways' (p. 432). Based on both definitions, there may be various ways of interacting between the reader and the listener, with one core feature of interactive read-aloud being the incorporation of active participation from both the reader and the listener (Barrentine, 1996). 'Interactive read-aloud' specifically defined in the current study draws on the notion of shared authority (Smolkin & Donovan, 2003) and inclusion of learner's active participation (Wiseman, 2011). It refers to the context where the reader and listener are co-contributors to story discussion and word meanings, and the listener is allowed and encouraged to actively and spontaneously get involved throughout the reading sessions.
**Extended instruction:** Beck, McKeown and Kucan (2002) proposed the concept of 'extended instruction' as one approach which 'offers rich information about words and their uses, provides frequent and varied opportunities for students to think about and use words, and enhances students' language comprehension and production' (p. 2).

**Strategies:** In the current study, strategies refer to self-regulated second language learning strategies under Oxford's (2011) Strategic Self-Regulation (S²R) Model, which is defined as the deliberate, goal-directed attempts to manage and control efforts to learn the L2. Examples include 'Reasoning' and 'Conceptualizing with details' (ibid).

**1.6 Dissertation Overview**

Chapter 1 has generally introduced the social context for conducting this research, existing research which is relevant to the field of the current study, the significance and purposes for conducting this research, and the definitions of key terms. In chapter 2, some theories relevant to children learning a second language and a detailed discussion of previous empirical studies in this field will be presented. In chapter 3, research methods and data analysis methods adopted for this study will be introduced and this will be followed by chapter 4, where research findings will be presented and interpreted. Chapter 5 concludes this dissertation and will evaluate the extent to which the research questions have been answered, propose some pedagogical implications and make suggestions for further research.
Chapter 2- Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to provide background theories and research relevant to the current study. Firstly, three main theorists’ views on children development will be discussed (section 2.2), followed by three important language learning hypotheses (section 2.3). The Strategic Self-Regulation (S²R) Model of Language Learning will be introduced in section 2.4. In section 2.5, empirical studies which have been conducted in relevant areas of research will be introduced. At the end of this chapter, building and developing on existing research, the research questions for this current study will be proposed.

2.2 Theories on Children's Development

There are three main theorists related to children's development: Piaget, Vygotsky and Brunner. One of the main differences between their theories is the extent to which social factors are recognized to influence children's development. The following section will discuss the main views proposed by each of them.

2.2.1 Piaget

Jean Piaget was concerned with the way children interact with the surrounding world and how this interaction influences their mental development (Cameron, 2001). Piaget suggested that children develop knowledge by actively making sense of the environment around them and taking action to solve problems presented by the environment (Cameron, 2001; Pinter, 2006), and referred to this process as 'constructivism' (Pinter, 2006). Piaget observed two ways in which children's knowledge actively develops: assimilation and accommodation. Through assimilation, children assimilate information to interpret the world based on their existing ways of thinking; through accommodation, children change or accommodate their existing ways.
of thinking to interpret new information. For example, a child who knows that chicks and ducklings are hatched from eggs may assume that piglets are also hatched from eggs (*assimilation*). After the parents explain to him/her that piglets are not hatched from eggs, the child will adapt this presumption and accommodate this new idea (*accommodation*) (Pinter, 2006).

Piaget suggested that 'a child's thinking develops as gradual growth of knowledge and intellectual skills towards a final stage of formal, logical thinking.' (Cameron, 2001:3). He developed his framework which depicts the developmental stages that children experience (Pinter, 2006: 7. Appendix A). This framework, however, was criticized. The claim that children go through universal stages emphasized biological basis for development, and largely neglected social influences of social environment, cultural context, and other social parties in contact with children (their peers, parents and teachers, etc.) (Pinter, 2006).

### 2.2.2 Vygotsky

Lev Vygotsky developed the *social constructivism* theories by studying children's development in a social context. Vygotsky shared Piaget's idea that children play an active role in constructing their knowledge in a learning process (Pinter, 2006). However, unlike Piaget who de-emphasized the social context of children's development, Vygotsky recognized the influence of other people in society on children's development (ibid). As summarized by Mercer and Littleton (2007), Vygotsky's theories are different from Piaget's in that,

> Rather than being predominantly based on direct encounters with the physical world, for Vygotsky, the construction of knowledge and understanding is an inherently social activity. Thus the child's interactions with other people, notably those who are more advanced and capable members of the society in which the child is growing up, mediate the child's encounters with the world-to-be learned-about (p.13).
Vygotsky believed that more knowledgeable parties can *mediate* the world for children and make it accessible to them (Cameron, 2001: 6). He defined the 'Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD)' as 'the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers.' (1978:86). Within the ZPD, learning potentially happens as it builds on children's current knowledge to the immediate next level they can move on to (Pinter, 2006).

**2.2.3 Bruner**

Building on Piaget's and Vygotsky's theories, Bruner was interested in how adults can mediate the world for children by providing scaffolding, which was defined as the process that 'enables a child or novice to solve a problem, carry out a task or achieve a goal which would be beyond his unassisted efforts.' (Wood, Bruner & Ross, 1976). Bruner's notion of 'scaffolding' is closely linked to Vygotsky's 'zone of proximal development', in that more knowledgeable parties can mediate children's learning process in the ZPD with appropriate scaffolding.

Brunner further identified the particular function of adults reading storybooks to children as a way of providing systematic scaffolding in children's language learning. By describing the characters and pictures in storybooks, involving children by using instructions and tag questions, embedding repetition and appropriately adjusting language to suit children's different levels, the adults mediate the storybooks to be approachable to the children (Cameron, 2001).
2.3 Theories on Language Learning and Development

This section will first introduce two language learning theories: the input hypothesis and the affective filter hypothesis. Both theories are relevant and significant in understanding second language acquisition. In addition, of close relevance to the current study is the private speech theory. In particular, the relationship between children's private speech and their cognitive and mental development will be analysed.

2.3.1 Krashen's Input Hypothesis

Krashen (2009: 21) put forward the input hypothesis,

The input hypothesis makes the following claim: a necessary (but not sufficient) condition to move from stage $i$ to stage $i+1$ is that the acquirer understand input that contains $i+1$, where 'understand' means that the acquirer is focused on the meaning and not the form of the message.

The $i + 1$ means that learners acquire language by understanding language structure which is a bit beyond his/her current level of competence. How can a learner understand language structure which is beyond his/her current competence? The answer suggested by the input hypothesis is that the learner uses more than his/her linguistic competence to understand, such as the use of context, knowledge of the world and extra-linguistic information (Krashen, 2009).

The claim in the input hypothesis that understanding message of the $i + 1$ language structure is a necessary requirement for acquisition leads to the notion of 'comprehensible input'. It is suggested that optimal input should be comprehensible to the learner; otherwise, input will just be 'noise' which will not be acquired (Krashen, 2009). Thus, one of the essential functions of language teachers is to help make input comprehensible (Krashen, 2009; Harmer, 2007).
2.3.2 The Affective Filter Hypothesis

The affective filter theory states that a learner can subconsciously screen language input based on 'affect': 'the learner's motives, needs, attitudes, and emotional states' (Dulay, Burt & Krashen, 1982: 46). Krashen (2009) summarized three categories of affective variables: motivation, self-confidence and anxiety and depicted the relationship between those variables and second language acquisition (SLA): high motivation, high self-confidence and low anxiety are generally conducive to SLA.

2.3.3 Children’s Private Speech

Children have been frequently observed to 'talk out loud to themselves as they went about their daily activities (Berk, 1992: 17).' This talk was variously termed egocentric, private or self-directed speech (ibid). Vygotsky noted that children's private speech was not simply an accompaniment to their activity; instead, it developed into an 'instrument of thought' in seeking and planning the solution of a problem (1962: 16). This notion has been recognized and shared by other researchers. Goal-oriented private speech is essentially self-regulatory in nature (Rubin & Dyck, 1980), in that it 'directs and controls action, influences perception and facilitates memory' (Saville- Troike, 1988: 569). Vygotsky (1962) further found the different behaviour of older children: when they searched for problem solutions, they did not speak aloud, but kept silent. When asked about their thinking process, those older children were found to have gone through similar mental operations as younger children (who maintained private speech during problem-solving). This soundless mental process is termed as 'inner speech' (Vygotsky, 1962), and it 'continued to play an important role in regulating and controlling behaviour (Wertsch, 1985, as cited in Cameron, 2001: 5)
2.4 The Strategic Self-Regulation (S²R) Model of Language Learning

2.4.1 Definition of the S²R Model

In the S²R Model, self-regulated L2 learning strategies refer to deliberate, goal-directed attempts to manage and control efforts to learn the L2 (based on Afflerbach, Pearson, & Paris, 2008; as cited in Oxford, 2011: 12). There are three broad dimensions of L2 learning strategies: cognitive strategies help learners construct, transform and apply L2 knowledge; affective strategies help learners maintain positively motivated in L2 learning; and SI strategies help learners with social communication in L2 learning (Oxford, 2011: 14). Accordingly, three broad categories of metastrategies help learners control and manage the application of strategies: metacognitive strategies help learners control cognitive strategies; meta-affective strategies control affective strategies use, and meta-SI strategies control SI strategies use.

2.4.2 The Roles of the Learner and the Mediator in the S²R Model

The S²R Model draws on ideas from the social constructivism theories. First, the learner is recognized to actively control his/her learning process by controlling the effective use of learning strategies (Oxford, 2011). Learners may choose different strategies under different situations for various purposes, and actively assess his/her strategy use (ibid). Second, learning strategies can be developed through the mediation and assistance from other parties in interaction (ibid). One example is the sociocultural-interactive strategy 'Interacting to Learn and Communicate' (ibid).

2.4.3 Deep Processing Strategies in the S²R Model

The cognitive and metacognitive strategies in the S²R Model (Table 2.1) are deep processing strategies, in that they 'facilitate understanding, increase meaningful mental associations, and are the most useful strategies for long-term retention of information.' (Oxford, 2011: 30).
### Metacognitive Strategies vs. Cognitive Strategies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Metacognitive Strategies</th>
<th>Cognitive Strategies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Paying attention</td>
<td>Using the sense to understand and remember</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planning</td>
<td>Activating knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Obtaining and using resources</td>
<td>Reasoning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizing</td>
<td>Conceptualizing with details</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Implementing plans</td>
<td>Conceptualizing broadly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orchestrating strategy use</td>
<td>Going beyond the immediate data</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monitoring</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluating</td>
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Table 0.1: Metacognitive & Cognitive strategies (based on Oxford, 2011: 16)

### 2.5 Learning and Teaching Vocabulary

#### 2.5.1 Knowing a Word: Distinguish Receptive and Productive Vocabulary

The question 'what is involved in knowing a word' is not one with clear-cut answers, and many scholars have contributed their own insights into the different aspects of word knowledge (e.g. Ellis & Sinclair, 1990:99; Schmitt, 2000; Nation, 2001). Nation (2001) particularly categorized word knowledge into word form, meaning and use. Furthermore, he drew the influential distinction between receptive and productive word knowledge. Receptive vocabulary use involves perceiving the form of a word through listening or reading and retrieving the word meaning. Productive vocabulary use involves the ability to retrieve and produce the appropriate spoken or written word form in speaking and writing (Nation, 2001: 25).

#### 2.5.2 Teaching Vocabulary

Sokmen (1997) identified some key vocabulary teaching principles after conducting surveys. Examples include:
• integrate new words with the old
• provide a number of encounters with a word
• promote a deep level of processing
• facilitate imaging and concreteness
• use a variety of techniques
• encourage independent learning strategies

2.5.3 Learning Vocabulary through Stories

Stories can offer rich opportunities for learning vocabulary. The particular language features (e.g. repetition of language and words with interesting rhymes) in stories, the context created by the story, the predictable patterns of language and events, and the pictures illustrating plots or objects can all help listeners understand the meaning of new words (Cameron, 2001). Nation (2001) summarized some conditions which can predict the learnability of words from listening to stories:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Conditions</th>
<th>Suggestions in reading stories for vocabulary learning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Interest</td>
<td>Use interesting material</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comprehension</td>
<td>Choose easy material; Use pictures.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Repeated retrieval</td>
<td>Reread/retell the same stories</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decontextualization</td>
<td>Encourage negotiation; Define simply; Translate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deep processing</td>
<td>Use contextual definitions; Retell differently</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 0.2: Conditions & Suggestions in Using Stories for Vocabulary Learning (based on Nation, 2001: 122)
2.6 Empirical Studies on Children's Vocabulary Acquisition through Story Read-Aloud

2.6.1 The Effects of Multiple Exposure and Reader Explanation

Storybook reading between parents and preschool children is not a new topic being researched into. Phillips and McNaughton (1990) investigated the practice of parents reading storybooks to children in 10 mainstream New Zealand families. Storybook reading sessions were recorded and analysed. Analysis results showed that both the reader and the child focused more primarily on constructing meaning, clarifying what was being read, and anticipating what was to follow; children participation was encouraged by the parents. Those children from mainstream families in New Zealand were found typically to show high achievement potentials when they attend school.

Researchers were interested in the efficacy of incorporating stories read-aloud into school setting. Particularly, some studies have been done which suggest the effects of story read-aloud on children's vocabulary acquisition. One study which has been influential in the field and in particular for the current study is that of Elley (1989), who conducted a series of studies to identify children's potential vocabulary gains from listening to stories which were read aloud under different interventions from the reader.

Elley's (1989) main study drew on the findings of his three pilot studies which involved reading a storybook to children aged 9 to 11. Those children, who were all from Pacific Islands, were learning English as their second language and had achieved initial literacy in their first language. Three classes were read the story under three different treatments. The first class received three readings of the story and was not given any explanations of the target words. The findings showed a mean pre-to-post vocabulary gain of 19 percent. The second class received one reading of the story, with target words briefly explained, and they showed a mean vocabulary gain of 20 percent. The third class received three readings, as well as brief explanations, and they achieved a mean vocabulary gain of 33 percent from the pre-test to the post-test. The children made no gains on the control words which did not appear in the story and were included in the pre and post tests. Despite the small sample size, the pilot studies indicated the
potential effects of multiple exposures and reader explanations of the target words on children's vocabulary gains.

Following the pilot studies, Elley (1989) conducted two other studies with larger samples. In the first one, the sample included 157 seven-year-old children from seven schools in Christchurch, New Zealand, who spoke English as their first language. One storybook different from the pilot studies was chosen and was read three times over one week, without any explanations on the target words during any time of the reading sessions. The results showed that the children made a mean pre-to-post-test gain of 15.4 percent. In the second study, two different storybooks were chosen and read three times to 8-year-old children over one week. The children were also from Christchurch, New Zealand. There were two experimental groups (72 children in group A and 55 Children in group B) and a control group (Group C, 51 children). The purpose of this study was to compare the effects of reading with and without reader explanations on the target words. Under the first treatment, the teacher read the stories aloud and explained the word meanings as they came across the target words. Teachers followed guidelines directing how they could explain the words in one of three ways: first, by using a synonymous phrase; second, by role-playing; third, by pointing to the picture illustrating the target word. The result analysis showed that for one of the stories, the group who listened to the story without explanations of the target words made a pre-to-post-tests vocabulary gain of 14.8 percent; while the group listening to the same story with explanations made a much higher vocabulary gain: 39.9 percent. For the other storybook, the mean vocabulary gains were 4.4 percent for the group without explanation and 17.1 percent for the group with explanation. The control group, who received no story-reading input, made less than 2 percent improvement; and the gains for 5 control words were negligible for all three groups. While there were significant differences in terms of the actual vocabulary gains between the findings of the two storybooks, for both stories, the group who received vocabulary explanations made more gains than the group with no explanations. These studies by Elley (1989) suggest that children can learn new words from being multiply exposed to stories read aloud and that reader explanations of the target words can substantially increase the vocabulary gain.
2.6.2 The Effects of Extended Instruction

In Elley's (1989) and Penno, Wilkinson and Moore's (2002) studies, vocabulary explanations during story read-aloud were provided using limited techniques: using a simpler synonym, role-playing or pointing to illustrations in the book. Apart from this embedded explanation approach (Coyne, McCoach & Kapp, 2007), an extended instruction approach was proposed by Beck, McKeown and Kucan (2002) as one approach 'offers rich information about words and their uses, provides frequent and varied opportunities for students to think about and use words, and enhances students' language comprehension and production' (p. 2).

Studies have been conducted to investigate the effects of extended vocabulary instruction on vocabulary acquisition from story read-alouds. Coyne, McCoach and Kapp (2007) provided extended vocabulary explanation, by:

1) Providing simple definition of the word
2) Restating the sentence and replace the target word with its definition
3) Repeating the target words to reinforce phonological representations
4) After the story-reading sessions, providing opportunities for deep processing of the target word, extended opportunities to interact with target words in various and meaning contexts, for example, the reader prompt the listener to give extended response demonstrating a fuller understanding of the target word.

The researchers compared the effects of providing extended instruction against embedded instruction (only simple definitions were provided when target words were encountered in the stories.) and incidental exposure (no explanations were provided at all). Results showed that extended instruction resulted in greater word learning than the other two instruction approaches. Similarly, Collins (2010) provided rich vocabulary definitions using a variety of techniques including 'making a gesture of the word, where applicable', and 'using the word in a context different from that of the book' (p. 88). Based on statistical analysis, he found that rich explanation was a significant contributor to target word learning.
2.6.3 The Effects of Listeners' Active Participation

Elley's (1989) stance on the positive effects of reader explanations and multiple exposures in story read-aloud on listeners' vocabulary gain were confirmed by other researchers (e.g., Penno, Wilkinson & Moore, 2002; Senechal, 1997; Robbins & Ehri, 1994; Justice, Meier & Walpole, 2005). According to social constructivism theories, learning develops through social interaction between the learner and more able parties and the learners play an active role in that process (Vygotsky, 1978). However, during reading interventions where the reader simply repeatedly read the stories, or provided explanations when target words occur, following the way described in Elley's (1989) study, where listeners' initiation was minimized (Penno, Wilkinson & Moore, 2002), there was very little active participation from children.

One influential study reflecting the role of actively involving the listeners during story read-aloud was conducted by Whitehurst et al. (1988). They trained parents in the experimental group to interact more with their children by asking more open-ended questions, using more praise/confirmation, asking children to label the words, etc. Results showed that children from the experimental group outperformed their counterparts from the control group in a standardized post-treatment vocabulary test.

Senechal, Thomas and Monker (1995) tried to encourage active participation from the listeners (children) by labelling the pictures using target words from the stories, or pointing to the pictures representing the target words while reading. Ewers and Brownson (1999) and Senechal (1997) encouraged learners' active participation by asking 'what' or 'where' questions, which were aiming at the retrieval of target words from the children. The findings generally showed that children who participated either by pointing, labelling or answering questions performed better in vocabulary post-tests than children who listened to stories read aloud without participation.

Dickinson and Smith (1994) went into great detail to analyse the patterns of talk in 25 classrooms where teachers read stories aloud to 4-year-old children. They found a single variable which had statistical significant effect on children's scores in vocabulary and comprehension post-tests: the proportion of prompted and responsive analysis, prediction, and utterances of both teachers and children during the reading. This study
is influential in that it analysed the data on a detailed utterance-level, and the findings suggested the importance of particular active interaction between the teacher and children. This finding was confirmed by Brabham and Lynch-Brown (2002). They found that children's vocabulary acquisition was increased by interactive reading during which discussion on the story, words, details and student questions were encouraged, compared to single reading and performance reading, where no discussion was allowed during the story being read aloud.

2.6.4 Summary of Existing Research

Details of the main current research on children's vocabulary acquisition from story read-aloud are summarized in Appendix B. Previous studies have investigated the effects of story read-aloud on children's vocabulary acquisition in mainly three areas:

1) General effects of story read-aloud on children's vocabulary acquisition (e.g. Elley, 1989; Robbins & Ehri, 1994)

2) The effects of reader's elaboration of vocabulary (e.g. Justice, Meier & Walpole 2005), and rich instruction where the reader utilized a wide range of techniques to explain vocabulary. For example, providing a synonym, and making a gesture of the word (Collins, 2010).

3) The effects of listener's active participation during story read-aloud, for example, labelling target words (Schechal, Thomas & Monker, 1995), answering open-ended questions (Whitehurst et al. 1988), engaging in analysis and prediction (Dickinson & Smith, 1994).
2.6.5 Identifying the Gap: Listeners’ Active Participation Using Strategies to
Guess Word Meanings from the Story Context

Guessing word meanings from context is an important strategy in vocabulary learning
(Cameron, 2001). Ames (1966, as cited in Nation, 2001: 244) carried out a study and
found out a system of contextual clues which helped learners guess word meanings
from context (Table 2.3).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ames's category</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Words in series</td>
<td>sonnets and plays in William Shakespeare</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modifying phrases</td>
<td>slashed her repeatedly with a knife</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Familiar expressions</td>
<td>expectation was written all over their faces</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cause and effect</td>
<td>He reads not for fun but to make his conversation less boring.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Association</td>
<td>All the little boys wore short pants.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Referral clues</td>
<td>Sweden 15.3 etc. These statistics carry an unpleasant message.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Synonym clues</td>
<td>it provokes, and she provokes controversy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Definition or description</td>
<td>some looked alive, though no blood flowed beneath the skin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preposition</td>
<td>He sped along a freeway.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Question and answer</td>
<td>Now, what about writing…?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comparison or contrast</td>
<td>Will it be a blessing or a bane?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Main idea and detail</td>
<td>I soon found a practical use for it. I put orange juice inside it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-restrictive clauses</td>
<td>24 hours - hardly a significant period of time</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 0.3: Ames's (1966) Categories of Context Clues (cited in Nation, 2001: 244)

Building on previous studies, this current study aims to address the area which has not
been extensively researched: how the listener can actively utilize strategies to guess
word meanings from context, and how the reader can use strategies to help the listener
guess and learn word meanings during story read-alouds. Meanwhile, participants in
previous studies were mostly non-Chinese (if there were any). Even if there were Asian
participants, they were more likely to be learning English as a second language, as
previous studies were mostly carried out in English-speaking countries. Also, previous
studies probably included more quantitative analysis, as the sample sizes were mostly
over 20. The current study thus took the form of a case study and chose a Chinese
participant who was learning English as a foreign language in China. It is hoped that a participant from a new language background and an intensive in-depth case study would contribute to the research field of children's vocabulary acquisition from story read-alouds.

Specifically, the current study aims to address the following research questions:

**Research Question One:** To what extent can a child acquire vocabulary through listening to stories read aloud in an interactive manner?

**Research Question Two:** How does the listener utilize strategies to learn words from context during the interactive story read-aloud sessions?

**Research Question Three:** How does the reader utilize strategies to help the learner learn words from context during the interactive story read-aloud sessions?
Chapter 3- Methods and Procedures

3.1 Introduction

This chapter will firstly describe the detailed procedures through which data were collected. The participant and the materials (vocabulary tests and storybooks read aloud) will be introduced. The rationale for research methods (case study) and data collection techniques (introspective methods) will be discussed. In addition, the techniques used to provide data validity and reliability will be evaluated. This chapter concludes with a brief introduction of the data analysis methods to be used in chapter 4.

3.2 The Participant

The participant was a 12-year-old Chinese boy who was studying in a small city in Hebei Province, China. He was attending the last year of primary school (Grade Six) and had been learning English as a foreign language from Grade Three. In his primary school, English was a required subject and he attended one 45-minute English class daily during weekdays. Apart from his English classes, he had very limited access to using and learning English.

3.3 The Research Methods: A Qualitative Approach

One of the primary distinctions in research methodology is that between qualitative and quantitative research. This distinction indicates not only using numbers versus non-numbers, but also different data collection methods and data analysis methods (Davies, 1995). Dornyei (2007) provided the definitions of these two approaches:

Quantitative research involves data collection procedures that result primarily in numerical data which is then analysed primarily by statistical methods. Typical example: survey research using a questionnaire, analysed by statistical software such as SPSS (P. 24).
Qualitative research involves data collection procedures that result primarily in open-ended, non-numerical data which is then analysed primarily by non-statistical methods. Typical example, interview research, with the transcribed recordings analysed by qualitative content analysis (P. 24)

However, as indicated by the underlined word 'primarily' in Dornyei's definitions, the qualitative-quantitative distinction is not an extreme but rather a continuum (Dornyei, 2007), as qualitative research may involve some numerical data and similarly, quantitative research may involve non-numerical data (Richards, 2005). This is well supported in the current study, which mainly adopted a qualitative approach, but collected both qualitative (e.g. strategy use) and quantitate data (e.g. test scores).

The current study mainly adopted a qualitative research approach, and more specifically, in the form of a case study. Also, during the data collection process, introspective methods (think-aloud procedure and retrospective verbal report) were involved. The rationales for using a case study and introspective methods in the current study are provided as follows.

3.3.1 Case Study

Stake (1995: xi) describes a case study as the study of the 'particularity and complexity of a single case '. Case study provides a 'thick description of a complex social issue embedded within a cultural context' (Dornyei, 2007: 155), and offers insights which cannot be gained with any other common research methods (Dornyei, 2007: 155; van Lier, 2005:195).

A major concern with case study research is the inability to generate the findings from a single case to a larger population (Duff, 2008; Dornyei, 2007; Yin, 2014). Regarding this weakness, it is proposed that instead of generalizing to populations, case studies can be generalized to theoretical prepositions (Yin, 2014), or alternatively, theoretical models (Duff, 2008), which is an 'analytical generalization' (Yin, 2009: 43; Duff,
Dornyei (2007) supported the *analytical generality* view, pointing out that many early studies in applied linguistics had laid foundations for several theoretical principles which are still essential today.

The current study is in the form of a case study, and this is largely determined by the research questions to be answered (for reference of the research questions, check p. 27 Table 3.1). The investigation of the current study involves extensively the interaction between the story reader and listener, and the research questions largely concern with the cognitive process of the two parties. A case study is more appropriate than a large-scale experiment since it focuses on the single subject and will provide in-depth data upon which rich insights will be gained.

### 3.3.2 Introspective Methods

'Introspective methods' is a broad term for two specific techniques: 'think aloud' and 'retrospective reports' (Dornyei, 2007). Think aloud, or alternatively, concurrent verbal report, concerns the subject providing direct verbalization of his/her cognitive process when performing an on-going cognitive task; while retrospective verbal report concerns the subject providing recall of his/her cognitive process during a prior experience (Ericsson and Simon, 1980; as cited in Fonteyn, Kuipers & Grobe, 1993). Concurrent verbal report, as Ericsson (2002: 983) commented, signals 'the closest connection between thinking and verbal reports', since 'participants were instructed to focus on the task while verbalizing their ongoing thoughts'. Meanwhile, retrospective verbal report should be given by the subject immediately after the task is finished, when the short term memory on the prior cognitive process can be easily accessed (Ericsson & Simon, 1987).

Historically, many psychologists have strong doubts over the suitability of subjects' verbal report as verifiable scientific data, especially for responses to experimenters' probes and retrospective accounts of prior behaviour (Ericsson & Simon, 1993). Nevertheless, as evidenced by studies collected in Færch and Kasper's (1987) book,
verbal report is a significant data collection technique in second language research. As Kormos (1998) highlighted, verbal report enables researchers more insight into the cognitive and psycholinguistic process in learners' language acquisition compared to other common practices which largely analyse L2 speakers' competence solely based on (non-cognitive) performance data.

During the interactive reading sessions, I used a think-aloud procedure to gather data on the participant's cognitive process when he extracted word meanings from the story context. As the current study intends to answer the question 'How does the listener utilize strategies to learn words from context during the interactive story read-aloud sessions?', the participant's invisible cognitive process is best converted to be audible by asking him to think aloud. He reported his thinking process in response to my question 'why (did you think it means...)?'.

Directly after the first vocabulary test was finished, I checked the test and asked the participant some questions concerning how he made choices in certain questions. This is a retrospective verbal report procedure, and the main purpose was to get data on the cognitive process undertaken by the participant when he tried to answer some questions in the vocabulary test. The findings from the verbal report will be discussed in the following chapter.

**3.4 Description of Data Collection Sessions**

This is a case study looking into a child's vocabulary acquisition through listening to stories which were read aloud in an informal family context. Three storybooks were selected and read aloud to the child 5 times for each book, over a period of 10 days. The participant chose which book was to be read aloud in each session. After the reading interventions, two vocabulary tests were conducted to assess the participant's vocabulary acquisition from the stories. The following sub-sections give detailed accounts of each story reading procedure and the vocabulary tests.
3.4.1 The Pilot Reading

Before the actual data collection procedures, a pilot reading session was conducted. I prepared 8 storybooks, and asked the participant to choose one to be read aloud. The book *Zog* (Donaldson, 2011) was chosen and read twice. The first time, I read the story verbatim, without any explanation or interaction. The second time, I read the story again and paused to explain some words which were likely to be unknown to the participant as they occurred. Before providing explanations, the participant was asked to guess word meanings first, largely by himself with little help provided by me. It was reported by the participant that the stories, which were all written and read in English, were too difficult to understand. I considered that this might have discouraged the participant from understanding the story content, also from guessing word meanings. As a result, I decided to include discussions of story content in the actual story reading sessions, as to mitigate difficulty levels of the stories and vocabulary.

3.4.2 The First Reading: Verbatim Reading

During the actual story reading sessions, each chosen storybook was read five times during a period of 10 days. The reading procedures for each book were approximately the same. At the beginning of the first reading, the child was shown the cover of the book, and asked to predict the story content by looking at the cover (The discussion of the cover of storybook *Mr Bear to the Rescue* (Gliori, 2001) has been transcribed and included in Appendix D). After this, the reader told the child 'Now I'm going to read the story once, and you look at the book and just listen to the reading, ok? (In Chinese)’ then the story was read verbatim: I read the story sentence by sentence, without word explanations or interaction with the participant. The book was shared between the reader and the listener, and the listener was free to check the illustrations and turn pages.
3.4.3 The Second to Fifth Reading: Interactive Reading

During the second to fifth readings, the book was also shared between the reader and child. The child listened to the stories and was encouraged to actively participate. These reading sessions were characterized by:

1) the reader and listener extensively discussing story contents;

2) the reader supporting the child to guess word meanings from the story context, or providing explanations of word meanings by using various methods, such as directing the child to look at the pictures illustrating the word, performing the action, and giving Chinese translation.

3) the child actively extracting word meanings from context, by using various methods including checking illustrations in the book, checking surrounding context of the story and utilizing grammar cues.

To provide a detailed account of the interactive reading sessions, the full transcription of a representative interactive reading session has been appended (Appendix E).

3.4.4 The First Vocabulary Test

It is worth pointing out first that before the story read-aloud interventions, no tests on the child's vocabulary knowledge of the 49 target words were conducted. However, the first time a target word occurred during the reading sessions, I asked the question 'Have you learnt it before?', and the target words were all reported by the child to be new to him. I assume that what the child reported was true, and the scores for pre-knowledge of each target word was thus zero.

The first vocabulary test included 49 items, 18 of them were picture multiple-choice questions, and 31 of them were fill-in-gap questions (the full first vocabulary test is included in Appendix F). The picture multiple-choice questions were of similar form to the ones used in Elley's (1989) study. Each multiple-choice question was accompanied by three picture options. The participant would choose the picture which he thought represented the word being examined in the question. The three pictures used in each multiple-choice question were not from the stories, but one of them represented the
concept of the word tested. For the fill-in-gap questions (Scrivener, 2011), several sentences were given, with one or two words missing from each sentence. The missing words, as well as one irrelevant 'distracting' word, were presented in a box. The participant was expected to fill in the gaps in each sentence with appropriate words chosen from the box.

### 3.4.5 The Follow-Up Vocabulary Test

After the first vocabulary test, I found that proportionately more multiple-choice questions were correctly answered than fill-in-gap questions. There was considered to be a possibility that the test result could be biased. For the fill-in-gap questions, the participant needed to understand the whole sentence before he was able to select the appropriate word, while the pictures in multiple-choice questions may have been retrieval clues, which may have helped the participant to more easily connect the word form and meaning. As a result, I prepared a follow-up test, where some of the vocabulary items which were tested in picture multiple-choice questions in the first vocabulary test were tested in fill-in-gap questions; and some vocabulary tested in fill-in-gap questions were then tested in picture multiple-choice questions, or fill-in-gap questions with sentences being more simplified compared to in the first vocabulary test. The follow-up test (Appendix G) was conducted three days after the first vocabulary test was finished.

### 3.5 The Reading Materials

I prepared eight storybooks and asked the participant to choose three books to be read aloud. The chosen books were: *Zog* (Donaldson, 2013), *Mr Bear to the Rescue* (Gliori, 2001), and *The Happy Prince* (Ray, 1994).
3.6 Data Analysis Methods

The data analysis is based on the research questions. Table 3.1 presents how the data was collected and analysed in order to answer each research question.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research Question</th>
<th>Data Analysis Method</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>One: To what extent can a child acquire vocabulary through listening to stories read aloud in an interactive manner?</td>
<td>Participant's scores of target words on post-reading vocabulary tests were calculated and compared.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two: How does the listener utilize strategies to learn words from context during the interactive story read-aloud sessions?</td>
<td>The recordings of each reading session were analysed to categorize strategy use and calculate the frequency of each strategy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Three: How does the reader utilize strategies to help the learner learn words from context during the interactive story read-aloud sessions?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 0.4: Data Analysis Method Based on Research Question
Chapter 4- Presentation of Data & Discussion

4.1 Introduction

This chapter will present the main findings of the current study that are relevant to the proposed research questions, followed by interpretations of the findings. The data for this study consists of transcriptions of story read-aloud sessions, and results for tests conducted after the story read-aloud sessions. To answer each research question, data (both quantitative and qualitative) was categorized and analysed. The discussion sections relate back to the Literature Review chapter, and evaluate how findings from the current study confirmed or rejected relevant theories and findings from previous studies. Since many extracts from the transcriptions will be used, the full transcription key (which is also appended in appendix C) is included here, so that readers will be able to better understand forthcoming examples.

The transcription system
R: The reader who read the story aloud
L: The listener who listened to the story
[] Left and right brackets indicate where speakers' talk overlaps.
(1.0) Numbers in parentheses indicate silence, shown in tenths of a second
. Falling, or final, intonation.
? Rising intonation, not necessarily a question.
, Slightly rising or flat intonation, which is noticeably incomplete.
! Emphatic intonation (high fall).
**Hero** Underlining represents a stressed word
:: A colon follows a lengthened sound. The more colons, the longer the sound.
((The listener nodding his head.)) Double parentheses enclose transcriber's comments.

为什么是秋天？(Why is Autumn?) Sentences in parentheses are the English translations of what was uttered in Chinese. It is worth reminding the readers that sentences not in parentheses were all utterances by the speakers; usually the utterances include mixtures of Chinese and English.
4.2 Research Question One: To what extent can a child acquire vocabulary through listening to stories read aloud in an interactive manner?

To answer research question one, two vocabulary tests were conducted: vocabulary test one and the follow-up test. The following sections will analyse the results of the two tests.

4.2.1 Data Presentation for the First Vocabulary Test

The first vocabulary test (referred to as test one hereafter) was conducted one month after the story read-aloud interventions. It contained 49 target words. There were two question types: 18 questions were picture multiple-choice questions (MCQs) (Elley, 1989), and the other 31 were fill-in-gap questions (Scrivener, 2011). The participant got '1' score for each question correctly answered; and got '0' score for questions incorrectly answered (when he either gave no answers or gave wrong answers). Results show that the participant scored 23 out of 49 (46.9% words correctly answered). Of the 23 questions correctly answered, 17 of them were picture multiple-choice questions, and 6 of them were fill-in-gap questions. Proportionally, 94.4% (17/18) of the picture multiple-choice questions were correctly answered; and 16.1% (6/31) of the fill-in-gap questions were correctly answered. Appendix H presents the detailed information about test one, including each target word which was tested, the question forms and how the participant scored for each word.

4.2.2 Data Presentation for the Follow-up Test

In test one, 94.4% of picture MCQs were correctly answered while only 16.1% of Fill-in-Gap questions were correctly answered. These results indicated the test form may have an influence on test results, in that the participant was inclined to make proportionally more correct choices when words were tested in picture MCQs than in Fill-in-Gap questions. The researcher was then interested to see whether changing the question forms of some words correctly answered in test one would change the participant's scores on those words. Thus, a follow-up vocabulary test (referred to as
test two hereafter) was conducted. Twenty-three words which were previously assessed in test one were re-tested in test two, but there were some changes in the question forms in which the words were tested. Firstly, some words previously tested in picture MCQs in test one were tested in Fill-in-Gap questions in test two. Secondly, some words previously tested in Fill-in-Gap questions in test one were tested in picture MCQs in test two. Lastly, some words previously tested in Fill-in-Gap questions in test one were tested in simplified Fill-in-Gap questions in test two. The simplified Fill-in-Gap questions were presented in sentences which were shorter in length and contained simpler vocabulary. (For the examples of how the question forms were changed from the first vocabulary test to the follow-up test, please refer to Appendix I.)

Table 4.1 compares the test forms and scores of each word tested in test two with that in test one. Nine words originally tested in Fill-in-Gap questions in test one were simplified in test two, and no words were correctly answered in either test (Rows 1-9 in Table 4.1). Eight words originally tested in picture MCQs in test one were changed into Fill-in-Gap questions in test two, and six words which were correctly answered in test one were then incorrectly answered in test two (Rows 10-17). Six words originally tested in Fill-in-Gap questions in test one were changed into picture MCQs in test two, and all were correctly answered. Among them, one word was correctly answered in both tests (Rows 18-23).
In the follow-up test, proportionally, 100% (6/6) of words tested in picture MCQs were correctly answered; and 11% (2/17) of words tested in Fill-in Gap questions were correctly answered. Generally, the follow-up test confirmed the findings from the first test, that proportionally, the participant correctly answered more picture multiple-choice questions than fill-in gap questions.

Combining test results from both test one and test two, there are mainly two findings for Research Question One: 1) the participant correctly answered 46.9% of the 49 target words which were encountered and explained throughout the story-read-aloud sessions; 2) proportionally, the participant correctly answered more questions tested in picture multiple-choice-questions than in fill-in-gap questions. The following Discussion
section to Research Question One will be grouped according to each of these two main findings.

4.2.3 Discussion to Finding One of Research Question One

The first finding to Research Question One was that the participant correctly answered 46.9% of words in test one. It suggests that interactive story read-aloud is effective in promoting children's vocabulary acquisition. This is consistent with overall findings of previous studies that story read-aloud promotes children's vocabulary acquisition (e.g. Brabham & Lynch-Brown, 2002; Elley, 1989; Robbins & Ehri, 1994.). A closer comparison reveals that the percentage of vocabulary acquisition after story read-aloud input in the current study, 46.9%, is higher than the percentage in Elley's study (1989), 39.9%. The possible underlying reasons for this are discussed below.

4.2.3.1 Increased Exposure of the Stories

The first reason may be the increased exposure in the current study. In Elley's (1989) study, the two storybooks were read 3 times each. However, in the current study, the 3 storybooks were read 5 times each. Based on empirical studies (e.g. Penno et al. 2002; Elley, 1989) which suggested that increased exposure to story read-aloud would promote vocabulary acquisition, it is possible that in the current study the increased exposure may have positively contributed to the participant's vocabulary acquisition.

4.2.3.2 The Listener's Active Participation

Another reason might be the active participation of the participant throughout story read-aloud sessions. For example, he actively guessed word meanings utilizing cognitive strategies (such as by checking grammar knowledge). As shown in previous studies, leaner's active participation in story read-aloud sessions, either labelling vocabulary (e.g. Ewers & Brownson, 1999; Senechal, 1997; Schechal, et al. 1995.), or
engage in analytical talk (Dickinson & Smith, 1994), would positively contribute to vocabulary acquisition.

**4.2.3.3 The Reader's Increased Use of Teaching Strategies**

A third reason might be the reader's use of various strategies to help the listener guess and learn word meanings throughout the story read-aloud sessions. In Elley's (1989) study, the story-readers explained word meanings in three ways: giving synonym, role playing and checking illustrations. However, in the current study, the story-reader used seven strategies: Give L1 translation of sentences and target words; Analyse word parts; Total physical response; Direct the listener to check illustrations; Explain words in various contexts of use; Link the target word to learner's practical experience; Repeat target words when they appeared more than once. As suggested by Collins (2010) and Coyne et al.'s (2007) studies, rich instruction, where the teacher adopted various teaching techniques, would promote learner's vocabulary acquisition.

**4.2.4 Discussion to Finding Two of Research Question One**

The second finding for Research Question One is that proportionally, the participant correctly answered more questions tested in picture multiple-choice-questions than in fill-in-gap questions. The possible reasons are discussed below.

**4.2.4.1 Different Task Demand & Support**

The differences between the participant's performances on the two different types of questions may be explained by the different amount of demand required in answering them. Based on Cameron's (2001) guidance on analysing task demands and support, the task demands and support for the participant to answer the picture MCQs and Fill-in-Gap questions are summarized in Table 4.2. As can be observed from Table 4.2, there is more language demand, and less task support for a Fill-in-Gap question than a picture MCQ. To correctly answer a Fill-in-Gap question, the participant was expected
to understand the meaning of each word provided in the box, including the extra word which did not fit into any gap; to understand the general meaning of each sentence; to connect the word's written form to its meaning; and to fit each word into the right sentence. Little support, except that instructions in the first language were given, was provided. For the picture MCQ, however, there was less language demand: to recall word meaning and relate it to the word form. Task support was various, including pictures which would help the recalling of word meaning. Also, the participant did not need to read sentences and comprehend the meanings since pictures are visual and tend to be easily recognizable.

To summarize, it is possible that the less task demand and more task support in picture MCQs had decreased the task's difficulty level for the participant, so that proportionally, he was able to recall more words tested in picture MCQs than in Fill-in-Gap questions.
### Table 0.6: Task Support & Task Demand in picture MCQs and Fill-in-Gap Questions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cognitive Demand</th>
<th>Picture MCQ</th>
<th>Fill-in Gap Question</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Understand that the word in red is to be tested.</td>
<td>Understand that there is one word in excess of the gaps provided.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognize and distinguish the pictures provided.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language Demand</td>
<td>Recognize the written form of the word.</td>
<td>Recognize the extra word which does not fit into any gaps.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recall the meaning of the word based on pictorial cues from the three options.</td>
<td>Understand the overall meanings of each sentence.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relate the written form of the word tested to the correct picture, out of three options.</td>
<td>Understand the meanings of each word provided in the box.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task Support</td>
<td>The instructions are provided in Chinese.</td>
<td>The instructions are provided in Chinese.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The word to be tested was highlighted in red.</td>
<td>Instructions explicitly explain that there is one word in excess of the gaps provided.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Picture options are supplied, which may be easier to be recognized.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pictorial cues for recalling word meaning.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 4.2.4.2 Sensory Preferences

The participant's better performance on picture multiple-choice questions over the contextual gap-fill questions may suggest the 'sensory preferences' hypothesis. Researchers in the field of NLP (Neuro-Linguistic Programming) proposed that humans tend to have different sensory preferences (Scrivener, 2011). For example, some are more visual-oriented, while others are more auditory-oriented (ibid). As stressed by Ur (2012: 259), 'sight is a very dominant sense' and a clear, interesting and colourful picture is obviously visually attractive for children. From this perspective, the participant in the current study might have been more visually stimulated by the pictures in the multiple-choice questions, which may have positively contributed to his
test results. In the following section, the participant's use of inner speech (Vygotsky, 1962) while he was answering a picture multiple-choice-question seems to provide some support for this interpretation.

4.2.4.3 Participant's Inner Speech during the Vocabulary Tests

Instantly after the participant finished the first vocabulary test, he was interviewed by the researcher so he could report on his mental process while he had answered several questions. The following Extract 1 presents the transcription of the participant's verbal report on his mental operation to answer the question presented in Example A.

This verbal report revealed the participant's inner speech, which was originally soundless, when he made his choice to the question. He seemed to connect 'grown' to natural development, in this case, the growing roses in picture A (line 4). Also, he connected 'up' with 'upward', and used this knowledge to confirm his choice (line 10). This proved Vygotsky's (1962) notion of inner speech as an instrument to direct children's problem-solving behaviour. This inner speech might reflect how the pictures in the multiple-choice questions acted as pictorial cues and stimulators to help the participant cognitively solve the problem. It might be possible that in a Fill-in-Gap question, the participant found difficulty understanding overall meaning of the sentences and words to be chosen from. Meanwhile, he was not provided with pictures which would help him to recall word meanings, thus he was less able to conduct the whole mental process when he was answering Fill-in-Gap questions, and this may be one reason why he failed to correctly answer many Fill-in-Gap questions.

In the following extracts, the transcription key adopted is:

R: the Reader
L: the Listener (participant)
(in) words in parentheses indicate the transcriber's guess of what has been left out in the participant's utterances.
生长[Grow] words in brackets are English translations of what were uttered in Chinese.
Extract 1: The participant's Inner Speech

1. R: 图片A 是什么意思[What does picture A represent?]

2. L: 生长[Grow]

3. R: 为什么图片A指生长? [Tell me why picture A represents 'grow']

4. L: 因为只有那个是向上, 冒出来[Because only (in) that one (the flowers) are upward, out of (the ground).]

5. R: 图片B呢? [What about picture B?]

6. L: 咬苹果 [Biting an apple]

7. R: C呢? [ And picture C?]

8. L: 玩具 [A toy]

9. R: 你为什么选A? [umm, why did you choose A?]

10. L: 'grow' 指生长, 就算不是, 'up' 也是向上 ['Grow' means 'develop'; even if it does not, 'up' means 'upward']

Example A: The Picture MCQ involving Participant's Inner Speech

Which person is grown up? ___ A.
4.3 Research Question Two: How does the listener utilize strategies to learn words from context during the interactive story read-aloud sessions?

4.3.1 Data Presentation for Research Question Two

In the current study, three stories were read aloud. The strategies used by the listener to guess word meanings during read-aloud sessions are summarized in Table 4.3. Overall, 'Guess word meaning based on discussion of story content' was the most frequently used strategy (45 times). It suggests that the reader's inclusion of extended discussion of story content provided important scaffolding to the listener when he guessed word meanings. 'Retrieving words from memory' was also frequently used (16 times). The listener was able to remember words when they repeatedly occurred in the story or stories. This suggests that repeated exposure aids vocabulary learning. The listener frequently 'guessed word meanings by checking illustrations' (12 times). The three books all included plenty of colourful and vivid pictures. The reader frequently paid close attention to illustrations; it was often observed that he would not turn pages before he had finished looking at illustrations. The least frequently used strategy was 'Guess word meanings by checking grammar' (11 times). The listener did not seem to possess extended grammar knowledge, but he was able to fully utilize what he already knew to guess word meanings. For example, he knew 'by' signals 'passive' (For details, refer to Example 3, page 42).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Listener's strategy</th>
<th>Incidences of strategy use in 3 storybooks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Book 1: Mr Bear to the Rescue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guess word meaning based on discussion of</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>story content</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retrieving words from memory</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guess word meaning by checking illustrations</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guess word meanings checking grammar</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>knowledge</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 0.7: LISTENER's Strategy Use in Each Story Book

4.3.2 Listener's Use of Strategies

This section illustrated strategies used by the listener using examples.

1. **Guess word meanings based on discussion of story content**

In example 1, the reader and the listener had an extended discussion about the 'wild and windy' night in which the story about Mr Bear's rescue happened (lines 1-10). Following this discussion, the listener was able to respond to the reader's question 'This kind of night, where is the best place to be?' (line 11), and then able to guess the meaning of 'indoors', as 'at home' (line 12), and then linked the word form 'indoors' with its meaning 'at home' (line 14).
Example 1:

1. R: It was a wild and windy night in the forest. 是怎样的一个夜晚？(What kind of night is it?)
2. L: 有风，刮着风。 (There's wind. Wind blowing.)
3. R: Wild and windy.
4. L: 下着雨。不是。 (Raining. No.)
5. R: Windy是有风的。 ((The reader gives Chinese translation of 'Windy'.))
6. L: ((The listener nodding his head.))
7. R: Wild 是指狂野。 ((The reader gives Chinese translation of 'Wild'.))
8. L: 狂风! (Wild wind!)
9. R: 对，很狂，狂风大作。 (Yes, wild, wild wind blowing.)
10. L: ((The listener nodding his head.))
11. R: The kind of night where the best place to be was indoors, snug and warm, with windows and doors tightly shut to keep the weather out. 这样的夜晚，最好的地方，是在哪里？(This kind of night, where is the best place to be?)
12. L: 就是家(:)里。 (at home.)
13. R: 哪一个词表示"在家里"？ (Which word means 'at home'?)

2. Guess word meaning by checking illustrations

In Example 2, Mr Bear climbed up onto a tree, trying to save Baby Rabbit who was sleeping wrapped in a blanket on the tree (Figure 4.1). There is a picture showing the blanket fanning out to be a parachute. The listener understood the 'brilliant idea' occurred to Mr Bear (line 2) and then he was able to link the word meanings and forms of 'blanket' and 'parachute' (line 3-4), although the he could not pick out exactly which word was 'blanket', and which word was 'parachute'. This example showed that the
picture helped the listener to understand the story content, based on which he was able to guess word meanings and link them to word forms.

**Example 2:**

1. R: 'Gosh, what a good idea,' said Mr Rabbit-Bunn as Flora's blanket fanned out into a perfect parachute...它现在怎么着？(What happens to him now?) 又想到了一个主意，是什么？(Another idea, what's it?)

2. L: 把毯子变成降落伞。(Changing the blanket into a parachute)

3. R: 哪一个指降落伞？(Which one means 'parachute'?)

4. L: ((pointing)) 这个或者那个。(This, or that one.)

5. R: 这个或者那个，是吧？(This or that, right?)

6. R: 对，这个指毯子，那个指降落伞。 (Yeah. This one means 'blanket', and that is 'parachute')

![Figure 4.1: A Brilliant Idea](image-url)
3. Guess word meaning by checking grammar knowledge

In example 3, the listener was able to first initiate the meaning of 'surrounded' (line 2). This might have been helped by the discussion of the story content (line 1), and the picture included in the story which illustrated this scene (Figure 4.2). In addition, there is evidence that the listener utilized his grammar knowledge of 'by' to connect the word form and word meaning of 'surrounded' (lines 7-10). Although he was not quite capable to explain clearly that 'by' can be used in passives, he was able to pick out 'by' (lines 7 and 8) and recognize word form 'surrounded' (line 5).

Example 3:

1. R: 然后熊先生到处都被兔子, rabbit, owls and bees, (Then Mr Bear was ___ by Rabbits, owls and bees)

   ......

2. L: 围住。('surrounded')

3. R: 对，还有蜜蜂，被他们围住。(yes, and bees, surrounded by them.)

4. R: 哪一个是指围住？(Which one is 'surrounded'?)

5. L: (2.0) umm, ((Pointing to 'surrounded'))

6. R: 你怎么知道？(How did you guess?)

7. L: umm, (2.0), 'by' 形容什么的 (by' means something.)

8. L: 然后by 前边是那个, (Then before 'by', it's.)

9. R: 对。(Yes)

10. L: 'by' 形容什么的 ('by' means something)

11. R: by 代表被，对不对？(by' means 'is done', right?)

12. L: 嗯。(yes)
4. Retrieving words from memory

Some of the target words occurred repeatedly in a storybook, or repeatedly across different storybooks. When it happened, the listener was able to retrieve words from his memory (line 4 in Example 4).

*Example 4:*

1. R: 'Please help,' said a very small voice somewhere around Mr Bear's ankles. 'ankles' 指什么？(What are 'ankles'?)

2. L: 这儿，这儿。(Here, here,) (Listener pointing to his ankles).

3. R: 对，你怎么知道的？(Yes. How do you know?)

4. L: 你以前讲过。(You told me before.)
4.3.3 Discussion to Research Question Two

4.3.3.1 The Strategic Self-Regulation (S²R) Model

The findings for research question two suggest that the listener actively utilizes a wide range of strategies to construct word meanings during interactive story read-aloud sessions (as presented in Table 4.4). This seems to confirm the Strategic Self-Regulation (S²R) Model (Oxford, 2011), in that L2 leaners can actively utilize a variety of L2 learning strategies. Oxford (ibid) summarized six cognitive strategies, and in the current study, some examples correspond to those cognitive strategies which were utilized by the listener can be identified (Table 4.4).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cognitive Strategies in the S²R Model</th>
<th>Strategies used by the Listener in Current Study</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Using the sense to understand and remember</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Activating knowledge | -Retrieving words from memory  
-Guess word meaning by checking grammar knowledge |
| Reasoning | -Guess word meanings based on discussion of story content |
| Conceptualizing with details | Guess word meaning by checking illustrations |
| Conceptualizing broadly | - |
| Going beyond the immediate data | - |

Table 0.8: Cognitive Strategies in the S²R Model vs. Listener's Strategies Use in Current Study

Another important aspect in the S²R Model is the role of another party who can provide mediation and assistance for the learner to develop L2 learning strategies. In the current study, there is evidence that the listener was able to utilize cognitive strategies, often with some help from the reader. In examples 2 and 3 on page 49-50, the listener was able to guess the word meaning of 'upstairs' based on the prefix 'up'. This strategy might have been modelled by the reader when she drew the listener's attention to the prefix 'down' as a strategy of learning the word 'downstairs'.

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4.3.3.2 Ames's Classification of Contextual Cues for Guessing Word Meanings

Ames (1966) summarized contextual clues which were used by learners when they guessed word meanings from context. The findings of Research Question One seem to confirm Ames' findings in that the participant was able to guess word meanings from contexts, using strategies such as checking grammar knowledge, checking illustrations, retrieving from memory and guess word meanings based on discussion of story content. However, in the current study, there are two aspects where the findings are different from Ames'. Firstly, the participant in the current study used 4 main categories compared to participants in Ames' study who used 12 categories (Table 4.5). Secondly, the participant's strategy use was often the result of assistance by the reader (examples provided at the end of this paragraph). This could be due to the differences between the participants of these two studies. The participant in the current study was a 12-year-old Chinese boy, while the participants in Ames' study were 12 advanced graduate students pursuing doctoral programs in various fields of education. As pointed out by Saville-Troike (2012), there are essential differences between younger and older learners in second language acquisition. For example, older language learners have better analytical ability and pragmatic skills than the younger ones. Reasonably, there are expected to be essential differences in linguistic knowledge and cognitive levels of the 12 year-old boy and the advanced doctoral students which influenced their use of strategies to guess word meanings. For example, the advanced doctoral students were able to use contextual cues such as 'cause and effect' and 'comparison or contrast'; the 12-year-old boy might be less able and not be as cognitively developed to use those strategies. Also, contextual cues such as 'words in series', 'modifying phrases' and 'non-restrictive clauses' in Ames' study required the reader to understand a wider range of vocabulary and grammar structures. In this respect, the participant in the current study might be less developed cognitively than the participants in Ames' study, consequently, he was less able to utilize as many strategies. Likewise, due to the lower cognitive and linguistic development level of the 12-year-old Chinese boy, he needed more scaffolding from the researcher (story-reader) to make the texts more approachable to him. In Examples 3, the participant might not have been able to use the strategy 'guess word meaning by checking grammar knowledge without the reader's discussion of the story content (line 1-3 of Example 3, page 42).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ames's category</th>
<th>Examples from Ames’ study</th>
<th>Listener's strategy use in Current Study</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Words in series</td>
<td><em>sonnets</em> and plays in William Shakespeare</td>
<td>Retrieving words from memory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modifying phrases</td>
<td><em>slashed</em> her repeatedly with a knife</td>
<td>Guess word meaning by checking grammar knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Familiar expressions</td>
<td>Expectation was written all over their <em>faces</em></td>
<td>Guess word meanings based on discussion of story content</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cause and effect</td>
<td>He reads not for fun but to make his conversation less <em>boring</em>.</td>
<td>Guess word meaning by checking Illustrations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Association</td>
<td>All the little boys wore short <em>pants</em>.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Referral clues</td>
<td>Sweden 15.3 etc. These <em>statistics</em> carry an unpleasant message.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Synonym clues</td>
<td>It provokes, and she <em>provokes</em> Controversy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Definition or description</td>
<td>Some looked alive, though <em>no blood</em> flowed beneath the skin</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preposition</td>
<td>He sped along a <em>freeway</em>.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Question and answer</td>
<td>Now, what about <em>writing</em>…?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comparison or contrast</td>
<td>Will it be a blessing or a <em>bane</em>?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Main idea and detail</td>
<td>I soon found a <em>practical</em> use for it. I put orange juice inside it.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-restrictive clauses</td>
<td>24 hours - <em>hardly</em> a significant period of time</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 0.9: Ames’ Classification of Contextual Cues vs. Listener’s Strategies Use in Current Study

4.3.3.3 Krashen's Input hypothesis

The strategy most frequently used by the listener is 'guess word meaning based on discussion of story content'. This strategy involved extended discussion of the texts led by the reader. The reader used a lot of L1 (Chinese in this case) to involve the listener to guess word meanings. This was essential to make input more comprehensible to the
According to Krashen's (2009) input hypothesis, language acquisition occurs when the learner is able to understand language structures which are about the learner's current competence. One essential expectation of language teachers is to make input more comprehensible to the learner (ibid). At the beginning of story read-aloud sessions, the researcher did a pilot reading of 'Zog' to the participant. Not much discussion of story content was included at that time. The listener then reported that he could not really follow the story readings, 'It is too difficult... I can't understand.' As a result, the researcher included extended discussions of the story contents. The reason to use L1 was in consideration of the participant's limited language proficiency level of the target language. In the following example, the reader explained story content in L1 (line 1), and the listener's response showed that he was spontaneously interested in finding out what would follow (line 2), and actively participated in guessing meaning within context (line 5 and 7).

Example:
1. 'I have some more things for that Daddy to fix. 熊先生就睡着了, 熊夫人说, 其实, 我还有很多东西让它修补((Chinese translation of the sentence))

2. L: 什么？(What?)

3. ……

4. R: 对, 我们看一下要让它修什么。(Yes. Let's see what is to be fixed.) There's the squeaky bathroom door,

5. L: umm, bathroom, 卧室的门。(bedroom door)

6. R: Bathroom 是浴室。((Chinese translation of 'bathroom'))

7. L: 哦, 浴室的门 (oh, bathroom door)
4.4 **Research Question Three:** How does the reader utilize strategies to help the learner learn words from context during the interactive story read-aloud sessions?

4.4.1 **Data Presentation for Research Question Three**

In the current study, three stories were read aloud. The reader's strategies used to help the listener guess word meanings from context during read-aloud sessions are summarized in Table 4.6. Overall, 'Give L1 translation of sentences and target words' was the most frequently used strategy by the reader (49 times). This is an essential strategy which enabled the listener to better comprehend story contents and to guess word meanings based on this understanding. Other strategies occurred at similar frequencies. The exception was 'Linking the target word to learner's practical experience' which occurred the least frequently (7 times).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reader's strategy</th>
<th>Incidences of strategy use in 3 storybooks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Book 1: Mr Bear to the Rescue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Give L1 translation of sentences and target words</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Repeat target words when they appeared more than once</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analyse word parts</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Directing the listener to check illustrations</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total physical response</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explain words in various contexts of use</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linking the target word to learner's practical experience</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 0.10: READER's Strategy Use in Each Story Book
4.4.2 Reader's Use of Strategies

This section illustrates strategies used by the listener using examples.

1. **Give L1 translation of sentences and target words**

The reader often discussed story content by giving Chinese translations of some sentences where appropriate. This aided the listener's story comprehension, and helped him to guess word meanings based on the discussions (lines 1-4 in Example 1). Also, the reader repeated word meanings in Chinese (line 7).

*Example 1:*

1. **R:** Then Mr Bear sank into a chair with a groan. Baby Bear clambered onto his tummy. 熊先生就睡在一张椅子上, 然后小熊怎么样？ (Then Mr Bear sleeps on a chair, what happened to baby bear?)

2. **L:** 躺在它的肚子上。(Lying on his tummy.)

3. **R:** 哪一个指肚子？(Which one means 'tummy'?)

4. **L:** his tummy

5. **R:** tummy

6. **L:** tummy

7. **R:** Yes, 'tummy' is肚子。((repeat Chinese translation of 'tummy'))

2. **Analyse word parts**

The reader engaged the listener to analyse word parts to help the listener learn word meanings (line 3 in Example 2). This strategy was later utilized by the listener himself to guess the meaning of other words (lines 4 and 6 in Example 3).

*Example 2:*

1. **R:** 他走下楼，它走下楼。(He went downstairs. He went downstairs.) 哪一个是指下楼？ (Which one means 'downstairs'?)

2. **L:** (3.0) ((silent))

3. **R:** downstairs. 看到 ‘down’, ok? (See 'down', ok?) 'Down' 是不是向下？ (‘Down’ means downward, right?) 'Stairs' 指楼梯’ (Chinese translation of 'stairs').
Example 3:
1. R: She said, tucking a blanket around Mr Bear and the baby and heading upstairs. 'upstairs'是什么意思？(Guess, what 'upstairs' mean?)

2. R: 我们说 ‘downstairs’ 是下楼 ((Repeat Chinese translation of 'downstairs'))

3. R: Upstairs

4. L: 上楼。((Chinese translation of 'upstairs'))

5. R: Yeah, very good. 为什么？ (Why?)

6. L: 'up' 是向上的意思 (‘up' means 'upward'.)

3. Total physical response

Total physical response (TPR) is a language teaching approach developed in the 1970s by American psychologist James Asher (Harrasi, 2014). In the TPR approach, learners learn language by responding to commands and doing physical actions (Asher, 1969). The reader utilized the TPR approach in explaining word meanings throughout the story reading sessions.

In Example 4, the reader acted out the action of 'snoring' (line 6), which helped the listener identify the word meaning (line 7). In Example 5, the listener was asked to echo the sound of wind 'howling' (line 2). In Example 6, the listener was asked to point to his 'ankles' (line 2).

Example 4:
1. R: Mrs Bear had been busy organizing beds for everyone and, much later, when her hot nettle soup had warmed every tummy, large and small, the Bear house filled with snores.

2. R: 当一切都忙完了，动物们入睡了，房间里充满了什么？(when everything is finished, animals all went asleep, and what filled the room?)

3. L: ((silent))
Example 5:
1. R: Howling. 什么样地声音？你能模仿吗？What kind of noise, can you echo it?
2. L: 呜呼：((Listener echoing the sound of wind howling))

Example 6:
1. R: 'Please help,' said a very small voice somewhere around Mr Bear's ankles. 'ankles' 指什么？(What are 'ankles'?)
2. L: 这儿，这儿。 (Here, here,) ((Listener pointing to his ankles)).

4. Directing the listener to check illustrations

The reader helped the listener to guess word meanings by directing him to check pictures which illustrated the target words in the story (line 3 & 4 in Example 7).

Example 7:
1. R: Clinging onto the doorstep was Mr Rabbit-Bunn. 兔子先生怎么样？(What is Mr Rabbit-Bunn doing?)
2. L: (3.0)
3. R: 看图，它在干嘛？(Look at the picture, what is he doing?)
4. L: 攀附在这儿。(Clinging here.)
5. 哪一个指‘攀附’？(Which one means 'Clinging'?)
6. L. (Listener pointing in the book)
7. R: Clinging.
8. L: Clinging.
5. **Explain words in various contexts of use**

The reader explained target words by introducing different contexts where the target words could be used (line 4 in Example 8).

*Example 8:*

1. R: Howling. 什么样地声音？你能模仿吗？What kind of noise, can you echo it?
2. L: 呜呼：((Listener echoing the sound of wind howling))
3. R: 对。 (Yes.)
4. R: Ok. Wind howling outside. 也可以说怪兽吼叫，也可以是风地声音。(Also can be used to say beasts howling, also wind howling.)

6. **Linking the target word to learner's practical experience**

The reader aided the listener's understanding of a target word by asking the listener to give his experiences about the word (Example 9).

*Example 9:*

1. R: 你家里走到遗漏需要下几层楼？(How many floors do you have to go downstairs, from your flat to the basement floor?)
2. L: (5.0) ((Reader smiling and counting with fingers))
3. L: 七楼。(Seven floors.)
4. R: 对。 (Yes.)
5. L: 太高了，七楼。(Too high, seven floors.)

7. **Repeat target words when they appeared more than once**

When a target word occurred repeatedly in the stories, the reader tried to help the listener retrieve his memory of the target word, by providing the context where the word was encountered (lines 5, 10, 12 in Example 10). In Example 10, the listener was
actively reacting to the reader's contextual clues (lines 6,8,11, 13) and retrieved the word meaning of 'rescue' from his memory (line 15).

Example 10:
1. R: 'Even brilliant Mr Bears need a bit of rescuing at times,' she said, tucking a blanket around Mr Bear and the baby and heading upstairs.
2. ......
3. R: rescue是什么？(What is 'rescue'?)
4. ......
5. R: 'rescue', 在<Zog>里面, 骑士说，(in <Zog>, the knight said,) 'I'm here to rescue Princess Pearl'
6. L: 医生，不是，(Doctor, no)
7. R: 对。(yes)
8. L: 听诊器。(stethoscope)
9. R: No
10. R: rescue. Princess Pearl said, 'no, don't rescue me'
11. L: 我不想，(I don't want.)
12. R: 我不想你们来，怎么样？(I don't want you to, do what?)
13. L: 拯救我 (rescue me).
14. R: 对，所以rescue是什么？(Yeah, so what does 'rescue' mean?)
15. L: 拯救 ((Giving Chinese translation of 'rescue'))

4.4.3 Discussion to Research Question Three

4.4.3.1 Social Constructivism

The story read-aloud sessions showed how the reader provided support to the listener and how the listener actively participated during the learning process. This confirms Vygotsky's (1978) social constructivism theories which stressed children's
development through social interaction with other more knowledgeable parities and Brunner's (Wood, Bruner & Ross, 1976) notion of 'scaffolding'. The following section will demonstrate specifically how the reader provided support to the listener, and how the listener actively interacted with the reader, which is shown in the extract taken from the fuller example in Appendix J.

In the extract (Appendix J), the reader utilized several techniques to provide scaffolding (Wood, Bruner & Ross, 1976) to the listener. Firstly, she used Chinese to guide the listener to focus on the flow of story content and keep on task.

3. L: 什么？(What?)
4. R: 看一下是什么。(Let's see what it is.)

She confirmed and extended the listener's answers (line 19, 'yes, smoky chimney. The chimney is blocked').

18. L: Umm, (1.0), 烟卤！(chimney!)
19. R: 对。冒烟的烟囱 (yes, smoky chimney), 烟卤被堵了。(The chimney is blocked)

She paused after reading a sentence, which provided opportunity for the listener to guess sentence meanings (e.g. line 8 'There's the squeaky bathroom door,')

8. R: 对，我们看一下要去修什么。(Yes. Let's see what is to be fixed.)

There’s the squeaky bathroom door,

She chose topics which were familiar to the listener to help him construct meanings (line 17, the question about 'Santa Clause' helped the listener guess the word 'chimney')

17. R: 圣诞老人从哪里下来？(from where does Santa Claus get down?)
18. L: Umm, (1.0), 烟卤！(chimney!)

The listener also actively interacted with the reader during story read-alouds. He actively guessed word meanings, usually in response to the reader's 'wh-' question (Doff, 1988). In line 7, he recalled word meaning of 'snore' in response to reader's 'what' question.

6. R: 什么是snore？(What's 'snore'?)
7. L: 呼噜声。(Chinese meaning of 'snore')
He spontaneously guessed sentence meanings after the reader finished reading and paused. Lines 20-23, the listener was actually able to guess the meaning of the whole sentence 'but they can all wait until tomorrow' based on his knowledge of the single word 'tomorrow', and perhaps the understanding of story contents.

20. R: '... but they can all wait until tomorrow,' said Mrs Bear.
21. L: 他们可以明天修。((Chinese translation of the sentence))
22. R: 对，你怎么猜的，哪个词？ (Yes, how did you guess? Which word?)
23. L: tomorrow

He repeated and extended the reader's explanations. In line 11, he corrected his guess 'bedroom door' (line 9), based on the reader's explanation of 'bathroom' (line 10).

9. L: umm, bathroom, 卧室的门。(Bedroom door)
10. R: Bathroom 是浴室。((Chinese translation of 'bathroom'))
11. L: 哦，浴室的门 (oh, bathroom door)

He confirmed the reader's explanations (line 13.)
12. R: 浴室门坏了。(Bathroom door is broken.)
13. L: ok

4.4.3.2 The Affective Filter

Under the affective filter hypothesis (Dulay, Burt & Krashen, 1982; Krashen, 2009), when learner's affective filter is low, language input will be more effectively absorbed and processed (Harmer, 2007). Thus, classrooms should provide a low-anxiety environment which put students 'off the defensive' and promotes learner motivation and self-confidence (Stevick, 1976; Krashen, 2009).

The following section will use the extract included in Appendix K to demonstrate the techniques used by the reader to lower the listener's affective filter (Krashen, 2009) during story read-alouds.
The reader confirmed the listener’s response (‘yes’, line 2 and 4), even when he was talking off-task (‘Look, it's cute’, line 3). The reader joined the listener's off-task talk (‘Yes, and he is not angry at his dad taking back so many strangers.’), and did not correct his mistake when he attempted to say the sentence 'what's mean' (line 5) for 'what's the meaning'. Making mistakes means that the listener was actively experimenting with language, taking risk and trying out how to say it (Scrivener, 2011). This suggests that the reader's supportive responses might have effectively made the listener feel more relaxed and confident. In lines 10-18, the listener was guessing the meaning of the sentence 'What a hero you are' (line 9). He made amusing guesses (e.g. 'How did you get up, you are so heavy'. Lines 10, 12, 16 and 18), and the listener showed a welcoming attitude by simply laughing (lines 11, 13, 17, 19), and providing clues for him to guess the meaning of 'hero' (line 19, ‘what's 'superman'?). The listener seemed to be enjoying his interesting guesses too, and was excited to shout out the right guess at last (line 21).
Chapter 5- Conclusions & Recommendations

5.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to summarize the overall findings of the current study and evaluate how far they have answered the research questions proposed in this study. In addition, overall recommendations will be made to school teachers and children storybook writers based on current research findings. This will be followed by an evaluation of the limitations and delimitation techniques for the study, before giving recommendations for further research.

5.2 Research Question One: To what extent can a child acquire vocabulary through listening to stories read aloud in an interactive manner?

The first finding to this research question shows that the participant correctly answered 46.9% of the target words assessed in test one. This suggests that interactive story read-aloud is an effective technique for promoting children's vocabulary acquisition. In this respect, this research question is answered.

However, the second finding to research question one shows that proportionally, the listener correctly answered more questions tested in picture multiple-choice-questions than in fill-in-gap questions. This suggests that different test forms may have different influences on the participant's vocabulary test results. Although potential reasons have been interpreted in the discussion section, they still need to be examined and clarified through further research. Thus, the first research question is partially answered.
5.3 Research Question Two: How does the listener utilize strategies to learn words from context during the interactive story read-aloud sessions?

This research question is concerned with the listener's use of strategies. Findings identified four main strategies utilized by the listener (Table 5.1, ranked according to decreasing frequency of use). Thus, this research question is answered.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LISTENER's Strategies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Guess word meaning based on discussion of story content</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retrieving words from memory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guess word meaning by checking illustrations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guess word meanings checking grammar knowledge</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 0.11: LISTENER's Strategy Use Summary

5.4 Research Question Three: How does the reader utilize strategies to help the learner learn words from context during the interactive story read-aloud sessions?

This research question is concerned with the story reader's use of strategies. The findings identified seven main strategies utilized by the reader (Table 5.2, ranked according to decreasing frequency of use). Thus, the third research question is answered.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>READER's Strategies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Give L1 translation of sentences and target words</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Repeat target words when they appeared more than once</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analyse word parts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Directing the listener to check illustrations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total physical response</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explain words in various contexts of use</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linking the target word to learner's practical experience</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 0.12: READER's Strategy Use Summary
5.5 Pedagogical Implications

This section gives suggestions on teacher's practical teaching, in particular, vocabulary teaching using story read-aloud. In addition, some advice is given to storybook writers, as to provide more attractive storybooks.

5.5.1 Suggestions to Teachers

Read stories repeatedly: Teachers are suggested to read storybooks repeatedly to children in order to aid their vocabulary acquisition. Repeated exposure is necessary for vocabulary to be learnt (Penno et al., 2002; Elley, 1989).

Use wide range of strategies: Teachers can include a wide range of strategies to explain and direct children to guess word meanings from the story context. For children beginning to learn English as a second language, it may help to include some discussion of story content and provide word meanings in the First Language, as this may facilitate children's comprehension of the story, thus help them to guess word meanings from context. Also, guiding children to utilize contextual clues, such as illustrations, familiar words or word parts may help them guess word meanings. Whenever applicable, explain word meanings using Total Physical Response (TPR), and ideally involve the learners to join TPR and 'experience' the words. Linking the words to the practical experiences of learners may make the word learning experience more personalized to learners and help them to better understand word meanings. Explaining word meanings in various contexts of use may provide the learner a richer source of word meaning and use.

Encourage learner's participation: Teachers should encourage learner's participation throughout the story read-aloud and explore their potential of utilizing learning strategies to guess word meanings and construct meanings for sentences and story contents. The use of open-ended 'what' and 'why' questions may stimulate their deep thinking process.
Lower Learner's Affective Filter: Confirming and extending learners' responses helps build up their confidence and lower their anxiety level. Allow listener's spontaneous comments throughout story read-aloud sessions. Smiling frequently may encourage the learner to feel relaxed and willing to participate.

Raise learners' awareness of active strategy use: Teachers should consciously raise learners' awareness of active strategy use in story read-aloud. This can be done by demonstrating how to use strategies to guess word meanings (for example, analyse word parts and encourage learners to pay attention to illustrations).

Embed grammar teaching together with vocabulary teaching: When teaching vocabulary, teachers are suggested to also introduce the relevant grammar knowledge associated with certain vocabulary. The participant in the current study was able to utilize his limited grammar knowledge (e.g. 'of') in guessing word meanings ('of' can be followed by a noun). This reminds teachers that grammar teaching may facilitate vocabulary learning.

5.5.2 Suggestions to Writers of Children's Storybooks

Include colourful and vivid illustrations: For children's storybook writers, it is suggested that they include a large amount of colourful and vivid illustrations, which may provide pictorial cues for children to guess story content and word meanings. Also, they may be simply eye-catching and help to maintain learners' high interest in story readings.

5.6 Limitations & Delimitations

The current study is a small scale case study. The biggest concern with a case study is its inability to be generalized to a large scale (Duff, 2006; Dornyei, 2007; Yin, 2014). This issue was addressed by the notion of qualitative study's 'analytical generalization': instead of generalizing to populations, case studies can be generalized to broader theories or models (Yin, 2009: 43; Duff, 2008: 176). Compared to large-scale quantitative studies, one benefit essential to a case study is that it provides a 'thick
description of a complex social issue embedded within a cultural context' (Dornyei, 2007: 155), and offers insights which cannot be gained with any other common research methods (Dornyei, 2007; van Lier, 2005). There has been limited research investigation directly into the area of the current study, that is, the strategy use of the reader and listener during interactive story read-aloud. The use of a case study in the current research provided in-depth individual experiences of strategy use, specifically concerning a Chinese child who was learning English as a foreign language. One potential contribution of the current study is that the detailed research findings on an individual learner's strategy use provide information for follow-up research on a larger scale.

5.7 Recommendations & suggestions for further research

The second finding to Research Question One was that, proportionally, the listener correctly answered more questions tested in picture multiple-choice-questions than in fill-in-gap questions. This identifies a further research area to investigate how and why different vocabulary test forms (e.g. picture MCQs and Fill-in-Gap questions) influence the listener's test results for vocabulary acquisition. This small-scale research indicates the strategies utilized by an individual Chinese learner to guess word meanings from story context. A larger scale study could be conducted to compare the strategy use of different learners, maybe from different ethnical backgrounds or different age groups. Further research may also adopt a quantitative approach and analyse the causal relationships between learners' strategy use and their vocabulary acquisition. That is, to what extent each strategy use can influence vocabulary acquisition.


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Appendix A: Piagetian Framework for Children's Development Stages (Pinter, 2006: 7)

**Sensori-motor stage** (from birth to two years of age)

- The young child learns to interact with the environment by manipulating objects around him.

**Pre-operational stage** (from two to seven years of age)

- The child's thinking is largely reliant on perception but he or she gradually becomes more capable of logical thinking. On the whole this stage is characterized by egocentrism (a kind of self-centredness) and a lack of logical thinking.

**Concrete operational stage** (from seven to eleven years of age)

- Year 7 is the 'turning point' in cognitive development because children's thinking begins to resemble 'logical' adult-like thinking. They develop the ability to apply logical reasoning in several areas of knowledge at the same time (such as maths, science, or map reading) but this ability is restricted to the immediate context. This means that children at this stage cannot yet generalize their understanding.

**Formal operational stage** (from eleven years onwards)

- Children are able to think beyond the immediate context in more abstract terms. They are able to carry out logical operations such as deductive reasoning in a systematic way. They achieve 'formal logic'.
### Appendix B: Summary of Selected Existing Studies on Children's Vocabulary Acquisition from Story Read-Aloud

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key word</th>
<th>Work</th>
<th>Key findings:</th>
<th>Sample size</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Participant's Ethnicity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The effects of Read-aloud</td>
<td>Robbins &amp; Ehri, 1994</td>
<td>More words from stories are learnt than words not from the story.</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>kindergarteners</td>
<td>Native English-speaking (Ethnicity not specified)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Elley, 1989 (Experiment 1)</td>
<td>Vocabulary can be acquired through story read-alouds.</td>
<td>157</td>
<td>7-year-olds</td>
<td>New Zealand (Ethnicity not specified)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Elley, 1989 (Experiment 2)</td>
<td>Teacher explanation increases vocabulary acquisition.</td>
<td>127</td>
<td>5-8 year-olds</td>
<td>African American, Caucasian &amp; Asian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Justice, et al., 2005</td>
<td>Significantly greater gains for elaborated words than non-</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>mean age 5.6</td>
<td>Pacific Island, Maori, European &amp; Asian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Penno et al., 2002</td>
<td>Elaboration promotes vocabulary acquisition.</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>Mean age 6.4</td>
<td>Portuguese (second language English)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Interactive read aloud</td>
<td>Brabham &amp; Lynch-Brown, 2002</td>
<td>Interactional reading more effective than just reading &amp;</td>
<td>246</td>
<td>First &amp; second graders</td>
<td>Asian, Asian American, African American, Caucasian Americans</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Collins, 2010</td>
<td>Rich explanation more effective than simple exposure.</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>4-5</td>
<td>Portuguese (second language English)</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>Coyne, et al. 2007 (study 1)</td>
<td>Extended instruction more effective than simple exposure</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>Kindergartners</td>
<td>Hispanic &amp; Caucasian</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Coyne, et al. 2007 (study 2)</td>
<td>Extended instruction more effective than embedded instruction</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>Kindergartners</td>
<td>Hispanic, African American, Asian &amp; Caucasian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Study</td>
<td>Effect of Listener's Participation</td>
<td>Methodology</td>
<td>Sample Size</td>
<td>Age</td>
<td>Ethnicity</td>
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<tr>
<td>Dickinson &amp; Smith, 1994</td>
<td>Analysis, prediction and 25</td>
<td>Vocabulary utterance by reader &amp; listener</td>
<td>4-year-olds</td>
<td></td>
<td>White, African American &amp; Hispanic</td>
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<td></td>
<td>vocabulary significantly promotes</td>
<td>on the 4-year-olds</td>
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<td></td>
<td>acquisition</td>
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<tr>
<td>Schechal, et al. (1995)</td>
<td>Labelling or pointing</td>
<td>48, more effective than passive listening</td>
<td>Around 4</td>
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<td>(Experiment 2)</td>
<td>more effective than passive listening</td>
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<td>Senechal, 1997</td>
<td>What questioning (labelling) is</td>
<td>60, 30 3-year-olds &amp; 30 4 year-olds</td>
<td>Caucasian &amp; Asian</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>more beneficial than just</td>
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<td>repeated reading</td>
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<td>Ewers &amp; Brownson, 1999</td>
<td>What or where questioning (labelling)</td>
<td>66, Mean age 6</td>
<td>Caucasian</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Whitehurst et al. 1988</td>
<td>Listeners' answering</td>
<td>29, 21- to-35 months</td>
<td>American</td>
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<td></td>
<td>open-ended promotes</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>vocabulary acquisition</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Appendix C: The transcription system

R: The reader who read the story aloud
L: The listener who listened to the story
[] Left and right brackets indicate where speakers' talk overlaps.
(1.0) Numbers in parentheses indicate silence, shown in tenths of a second
. Falling, or final, intonation.
? Rising intonation, not necessarily a question.
, Slightly rising or flat intonation, which is hearably incomplete.
! Emphatic intonation (high fall).
Hero Underlining represents a stressed word
: A colon follows a lengthened sound. The more colons, the longer the sound.

((The listening nodding his head. )) Double parentheses enclose transcriber's comments.

为什么是秋天？(Why is Autumn?) Sentences in parentheses is the English translation of what was uttered in Chinese. It is worth reminding the reader that sentences not in parentheses were all utterances by the speakers, usually the utterances include mixtures of Chinese and English.

Transcription system adapted based on

Appendix D: Transcription for Initial discussion of the cover page (Mr Bear to the Rescue)

R: Mr Bear to the Rescue. ((The reader read the title of the story.))
R: 你看一下封面，你觉得会是关于什么的？ (Look at the cover page. What do you think this story is about?)
L: 熊先生在秋天的时候从树上救下来了一只兔子。 (Mr Bear saved a rabbit from the tree, in autumn.)
R: 为什么是秋天? (Why is Autumn?)
L: 因为这叶子都落了，而且树枝上都没有叶子了。 (Because the leaves have fallen down, and there're no leaves on the branches.)
R: 嗯， 对。 (Yes, right.)
R: 你觉得是白天还是晚上呢? (Do you think it's day or night?)
L: 晚上:吧。 (Night, perhaps.)
R: 嗯. (3.0) 为什么呢? (umm. (3.0). Why?)
L: 因为这都黑了。 (Because it's all dark.)
Appendix E: Transcription of the second reading session for the story Mr Bear to the Rescue

R: Mr Bear to the Rescue. It was a wild and windy night in the forest. 是怎样的一个夜晚？(What kind of night is it?)

L: 有风，刮着风。(There's wind. Wind blowing.)
R: Wild and windy.

L: 下着雨。不是。(Raining. No.)
R: Windy 是有风的。((The reader gives Chinese translation of 'Windy').)

L: ((The listening nodding his head.))
R: Wild 是指狂野。((The reader gives Chinese translation of 'Wild').)

L: 狂风！(Wild wind!)
R: 对，很狂，狂风大作。(Yes, wild, wild wind blowing.)

L: ((The listening nodding his head.))
R: The kind of night where the best place to be was indoors, snug and warm, with windows and doors tightly shut to keep the weather out. 这样的夜晚，最好的地方，是在哪里？(This kind of night, where is the best place to be?)

L: 就是家里。(at home.)
R: 哪一个词表示“在家里”？(Which word means 'at home'?)

L: (2.0). Indoors.
R: Indoors，猜一下是什么意思。(Guess what it means.)

L: 家里。(At home.)
R: 对，户内，在家里。(Yes, indoors, at home.)
R: 你怎么知道的？(How did you know?)

L: 嗯...猜的。(umm... Guessed.)
R: 蒙的，是吧？(Guessed? Right?)

L: 对。(Yes.)
R: Snug and warm. 怎么样？在家里是怎样的？(How? How it is to be at home?)

L: 晴朗还有暖和的。(Sunny and warm.)
R: umm…'snug' 是指“舒适的”((Reader gives Chinese translation of 'Snug').)
L: 哦，舒适的还有暖和的。(Listener repeats Chinese translations of 'Snug and warm').
R: 对，晴朗一般是说“天”。(‘Sunny' usually refers to weather.)
L: Sunny
R: With windows and doors tightly shut to keep the weather out. Mr Bear was tucked up in bed listening to the wind howling outside. (Reader gives Chinese translation of this sentence.)

L: 是的。（Yes）

R: Mr Bear was tucked up in bed listening to the wind howling outside. 熊先生在怎么样？（What is Mr Bear doing?）

L: 在躺在床上。（Lying on bed.）

R: 然后呢？ 在干嘛？（Then, doing what?）

L: 嗯（umm），看，（reading a book），悠闲地躺着（Lying cozily）。

R: 从图片上猜的吗？（You guess from pictures？）

L: （Listener nodding his head.）

R: 然后呢？看一下文字，上面说什么？（Then? Look at the words, what do they say?）

L: In bed, listening to the wind, （4.0）. 听着风！（Listening to the wind!）

R: 对。（Yes.）

L: 吼啸地声音。（Howling）

R: 对。（Yes.）, 哪个表示吼啸？（which word means 'Howling'?）

L: （The listener looking at the book）（1.0） Howling.

R: Howling.

L: （Listener nodding his head）

R: Howling. 什么样地声音？你能模仿吗？What kind of noise, can you echo it?

L: 呜呼：（Listener echoing the sound of wind howling）

R: 对。（Yes.）

R: Ok. Wind howling outside. 也可以说怪兽吼叫，也可以是风地声音。（Also can be used to say beasts howling, also wind howling.）

L: 嗯。 （Yes.）

R: 'Do you hear that?' said Mrs Bear. 'It sounds like someone calling help!' 熊夫人说，你听到了吗？有人在叫：（Mrs Bear said, 'do you hear that? someone is called:’）

L: 救命！（Help!）

R: 对。 （Yes.） 'help!'. 'It's just the wind, dear,' said Mr Bear. 熊先生说什么？（What does Mr Bear say?）

L: 亲爱的，那只是寒冷的。Dear, that's just cold.

R: Umm? 那只是寒冷的？（That's just cold?）

L: （2.0）仅仅，（Just.）仅仅，（just.）
R: 对，仅仅是，仅仅是什么？（Yes, Just what? (1.0) What?）
L: 是，(1.0)，仅仅是，(is, just is, (1.0), just is,)
R: 这里，看一下写的文字。（Here, have a look, what is written） ((Reader directs listener to look at the text))
L: 风的。（Windy）
R: windy 是有风的。‘Windy' means 'with wind'.） wind 是什么？（What is 'wind'?）
L: (1.0) 风！（Listener says the Chinese translation of 'wind'）
R: Yes.
L: 风，仅仅是风，亲爱的。（Wind, just wind, dear.）
R: 'Help!' said a small voice. 一个很低地声音，说什么？（a small voice, what does it say?）
L: 救命！（help!）
R: 用英文说。（In English.）
L: Help.
R: 'There,' said Mrs Bear, 'I did hear someone. Go and see who it is, dear?’ 我确实听见了救命的声音。去看一下是谁。（reader gives Chinese translation of the sentence）
L: 亲爱的（Dear）
R: Yes, dear.
R: 然后呢，熊先生就去看了。（Then, Mr Bear went to see.）’Mr Bear went downstairs and opened the front door.’ 它做了什么？（What did he do?）
L: 小心翼翼地（carefully.）
R: 对，（Yes.）
L: 不是，（No.）
R: went, went, 'went' 是什么？（what is 'went'?）
L: (2.0) 走。（Chinese translation of 'went'）
R: 对，它走，它走去哪里？（Yes, he went, where did he went?）
L: 楼梯。（stairs）
R: 对。（yes.）
L: 楼梯。（stairs）
R: 对。（yes.） and opened the front door. 'front door' 是什么？（What is 'front door'?）
L: 门。（door.）
R: 他走下楼，它走下楼。（He went downstairs. He went downstairs.) 哪一个是指'下楼'?（Which one means 'downstairs'?）
L: (3.0) (silent)
R: downstairs. 看到 'down', ok? (See 'down', ok?) 'Down' 是不是'向下'?（'Down' means downward, right?）'Stairs' 指楼梯' （Chinese translation of 'stairs'). 向下的楼梯就是下楼。（'downstairs' means going downward along stairs.） 以前学过吗?（Have you learnt it before?）
L: 没有。（No.）
R: Downstairs. Opened the front door. Downstairs 是下楼, ok? ((Reader repeats Chinese translation of 'downstairs'))
L: 对。（Yes.）
R: 你家里走到一楼需要下几层楼? (How many floors do you have to go downstairs, from your flat to the basement floor?)
L: (5.0) ((Reader smiling and counting with fingers))
L: 七楼。（Seven floors.）
R: 对。（Yes.）
L: 太高了, 七楼。（Too high, seven floors.）
R: 'Please help,' said a very small voice somewhere around Mr Bear' s ankles. 'ankles' 指什么?（What are 'ankles'?）
L: 这儿, 这儿。（Here, here.） ((Listener pointing to his ankles)).
R: 对, 你怎么知道的?（Yes. How do you know?)
L: 你以前讲过。（You told me before.）
R: Then, 'clinging' 是什么意思?（What is 'clinging'?）
R: Clinging onto the doorstep was Mr Rabbit-Bunn. 兔子先生怎么样? （What is Mr Rabbit-Bunn doing?）
L: (3.0)
R: 看图, 它在干嘛? （Look at the picture, what is he doing?)
L: 攀附在这儿。（Clinging here.）
R: 对，攀附在这儿。（Yes. Clinging onto the doorstep.） 哪一个指'攀附'?（Which one means 'Clinging'?）
L: (Listener pointing in the book)
R: Clinging. L:
Clinging.
R: 对, 'clinging'.（Yes, clinging.）
R: 你还可以攀附在哪里？(Where else can you cling onto?)
L: 楼梯扶手。(Stairs rails.)
R: Yes. 'Our warren has collapsed,' he wailed. The Hoot-Toowits' nest has blown away, and the Buzzes' hive is ruined and we can't find baby Flora anywhere, 'and Mr Rabbit-Bunn vanished into the night.
R: 'Ruined'. The Hoot-Toowits' nest has blown away, and the Buzzes' hive is ruined. 'Ruined'是什么意思？(What does 'ruined' mean?)
L: 嗯，（1.0）毁坏。（Listener gives the Chinese translation of 'ruined')
R: 对，然后熊先生说，第一句。(Yes, then Mr Bear says, the first sentence.)
L: 帮助他们。(Help them.)
R: 对，他说，(Yes, he says,) 'Help is on its way,' 马上就来帮你((Chinese translation of this sentence))
L: 嗯 (yes).
R: 然后他抓了什么？(Then, what does he grab?)
L: 灯。(One lamp.)
R: 对，然后他说，(Yes, and then he says)
R: 然后他就走，(Then he went,)
L: 对。(Yes.)
R: 然后呢？(and then?)
L: It was a long way to the Rabbit-Bunns' house.
R: Yes, and then? Mr Bear,
L: Mr Bear,
R: tripped and stumbled
L: tripped, tripped and…
R: stumbled
L: stumbled over fallen R:
fallen branches.
L: branches, and R: Yeah,
go on.
L: and seve…wel
R: several
L: several times, his
R: lantern
L: lantern
R: lantern
L: lantern R: yeah.
L: nearly L: blangn
R: yeah
L: out
R: what's the meaning? 什么意思？(what's the meaning?)
L: (3.0)
R: 想一下。(Think about it.)
L: 步伐。 (steps).
R: 嗯，(umm,) L: 不是
, (No,)
R: 嗯，看一下他拿着什么？(umm… Look what he is holding?) L: 灯
(Chinese translation of 'lantern').
R: 那个是什么？(what is that?) L: 油灯
(oil lamp).
R: 对，油灯，它的灯笼。(Yes, his oil lamp, his lantern.)
L: 掉了，不是，(fell, no, )
R: 对,(yes)
L: 几次被风吹灭。 (several times nearly blown out by the wind.)
R: Yes. blow out 是吹灭的意思。((Chinese translation of 'blow out'))
R: 然后他说，(Then he says, )
R: 对，'lantern' 指油灯。((repeat Chinese translation of 'lantern').))
R: 翻吧。(Turn the page.) ((Listerner turning the page))
R: 'Aaaaargh!' shrieked Mr Bear as a tangle of feathers and claws blew into his face.
L: Aaaaargh!
R: Yes,
L: (2.0) Oh, it's you!
R: Oh, it's you! they both cried in unison. 他们同时喊了起来((Chinese translation of this
sentence)). 然后熊先生就说（then Mr Bear says），'I can't see your house anywhere,' said Mr
Bear, peering into the darkness.
L: 我没看见你的家。((I can't see your house))
R: 对，然后他说，然后猫头鹰怎么说？(Yes, and then, what did the Owl say?)
L: 你正坐着，不是，(You're sitting, no.)
R: Standing, (1.0), stand, stand
L: ((Listener shaking his head))
R: stand up, stand
L: (Chinese translation of 'stand')
R: He says, 你正站在上面呢 (You're standing on it), Then, There lay the remains of the tree that the hoot-toowits had shared with the buzzes and the Rabbit-Bunns.
R: 猜一下什么意思，(Guess what's the meaning.)
R: 它说，你正站在上面，(He says 'You're standing on it.').
R: 然后，在地上发现了那一棵，他们以前的家。(Then, he found the tree, their previous home.)
R: 蜜蜂，猫头鹰，熊，不是，和，(Bees, Owls and Bear… no, and.)
L: 兔子。(Rabbits)
R: 一块儿住的那棵树，被暴风雨摧毁了。(They lived together in that tree, now being ruined by the storm.)
L: 对。(Yes.)
R: 那棵树还剩下什么？(What's left with that tree?)
L: ((Listener looking at the picture)) 蜜蜂和兔子。(Bees and Rabbits.)
R: umm, 那棵树还剩下什么？(What's left with that tree?)
L: 树干。(trunk)
R: 剩下一些残枝落叶，废墟，对。(There're some fallen leaves and branches. Remains are left, right.)
L: 对。(right.)
R: 还剩下废墟，哪一个表示废墟？(Remains are left, which one means 'remains'?)
L: ((Listener pointing at the book)) 这一个
R: No
L: ((Pointing in the book, at 'remains'))
R: Of the tree. 对，你怎么知道的？(Yes, how did you guess?)
L: umm, (1.0), 'of' 指什么，'(of) refers to something."
R: 什么的，(Something's)"
L: 对。(Yes.)
L: 然后是，什么的树，树不是被吹垮了吗？然后肯定是剩下废墟。 (Then, of the tree, The tree was blown down, then 'of' the tree must be the remains)

R: 对， 'remains' 是废墟的意思。(Chinese translation of 'remains')

R: (13.0). 然后兔子夫人说，你终于来了！(Then Mrs Rabbit says, you came at last!)

R: 'Can you help us find Flora?'你能帮我们找到Flora吗？(Chinese translation of this sentence)

L: 嗯，(Yes) and can you

R: fix our hive? 然后他说nest，(And he says 'nest'), 猫头鹰的穴，(the Owls' nest.)

R: 然后熊先生到处都被兔子， rabbit, owls and bees，(Then Mr Bear was by Rabbits, owls and bees)

L: 围住。(Chinese translation of 'surrounded')

R: 'Owls'是什么？(What is 'Owls'?)

L:猫头鹰。(Chinese translation of 'owls')

R: 对，还有蜜蜂，被他们围住。(yes, and bees, surrounded by them.)

R: 哪一个是指围住？(Which one is 'surrounded'?)

L: (2.0) umm, ((Pointing 'surrounded'))

R: 你怎么知道？(How did you guess?)

L: umm, (2.0), 'by' 形容什么的 ('by' means something, )

L: 然后by 前边是那个，(Then before 'by', it's,)

R: 对。(Yes)

L: 'by' 形容什么的'('by' means something)

R: by 代表被，对不对？('by' infers 'is done', right?)

L: 嗯。(yes)

R: 所以它是被围住了。(so he is 'surrounded')

L: 对，(yes), ((Nodding his head))

R: 对，然后兔子先生，不是，熊先生说，我也不知道该怎么办。(yes, then Mr Rabbit, no Mr Bear says, 'I don't know what to do either.' )

R: 然后它从它的工具箱里，(Then he searched from his toolkit,) He scrabbled around in his toolkit and found his honey sandwich. A brilliant idea suddenly occurred to him.

L: 三明治。(Sandwich)

R: Yeah, 找到了一个三明治。(found a sandwich)

R: A brilliant idea suddenly occurred to him.

L: 给他们吃。(Feed them)
R: to him, him
L: 他的。
R: 对, (yes), a brilliant idea,
L: 一个好主意。(a good idea.)
R: yes, ok
L: 在他脑子里生出, (occurred to him)
R: 对, 它想到一个好主意。(yes, he thinks of a good idea.)
R: So which one, 哪一个是好的, 极好的? (so which one means 'great'?)
L: ((Pointing to 'brilliant'))
R: brilliant
L: 嗯。（yes)
R: 对。 (yes, brilliant)
R: 然后它说, (then he says,) 'what's that for? 那是干嘛的? ((Chinese translation of the sentence))
R: 'Glue,' said Mr Bear, peeling the sandwich apart. 'Hive-glue, in fact. Look, I'll spread a little bit here and another dollop there and…'
'End up with a sticky mess,' groaned a small Buzz.
'Oh, dear,' said Mr Bear. 'Mrs Bear will fix that. She's very good at that sort of thing.'
R: 它把蜂蜜三明治拿出来, 你猜它会做什么? (He takes out the sandwich, what do you think he is going to do?)
L: 粘在这儿, 把上面的蜂蜜。 (Stick there, the honey on it)
R: 对。 (Yes)
L: 粘在蜂巢上。 (stick on the hive)
L: 然后放一个盖在上面, 粘在上面。 (then put a cover on it, stick on it)
R: 对。 (yes) 它把蜂蜜好像胶水一样把它补起来, 对不对? (He mend the hive, stick the honey like glue, right?)
L: 对。 (yes.)
R: 然后, (Then,) (4.0)
R: 然后它说怎么来补巢穴, (then he says how to mend the nest,) 'What about my nest?'
R: what is a 'nest'?
L: 巢穴。 ((Chinese translation of 'nest'))
R: yeah, what about my nest, 学过吗? (have you learnt it before?)
L: ((Shaking his head))
R: 从这本书上学到的? (learnt from this story?)
L: 嗯，对。(yes)
R: what about my nest?
'Let' see,' said Mr. Bear, picking it up.
The nest fell apart in his paws.
R: 那个巢穴在它手掌里怎么了？(what happened to the nest in his paws?)
L: 掉了。(umm, fall)
R: 散架了。(fallen apart.), 然后它说，(then he says.)
'Um, yes,' said Mr Bear. 'Mrs Bear will knit you anther in no time.'
L: Umm, (1.0). 没有时间修你的巢穴了。(Now there's no time to fix your nest.)
R: Hehe ((laugh)). in no time, 你可以说没有时间，(you can say 'there's no time'), 但是这里表示马上，(but it means 'at once' here).
L: oh
R: 很快的。(very quickly)
R: 然后下一步干嘛？(then what's the next step?) 它修了蜂巢，猫头鹰的巢也弄好了，它现在怎么办？(He fixed the hive, mended Owls' nest, and what is he doing now?)
L: 救小兔子。(save the little rabbit)
R: 怎样救？(How is he going to save?)
L: 先找到它。(find her first)
R: 对，先找到。(yes, find first), then,
R: The animals put the sticky hive and broken nest into Mr Bear's toolkit, just as the heavens opened.
All the animals put something into, put something into Mr Bear's toolkit. 所有动物把什么东西放到熊先生的工具车里。((Chinese translation of this sentence))
L: 地图，不是，(the map! no)
R: No, (1.0). 蜂巢和什么？(the hive and what?)
L: 鸟巢。(nest)
R: 对，(Yes). 因为他们弄不好，要拿回去让熊太太修补一下。(Because they can't mend it, it will be taken back to Mrs Bear to knit.)
The rain poured down through the trees, and the animals ran for shelter.
什么意思？(What's the meaning?)
L: 下雨啦。(Raining)
R: 对。(yes.) 'pour', 好像倒水一样 (like pouring water), 说明雨下得很大，对不对？(It rained heavily, right? too heavy.)
R: Then, animals ran for shelter. 他们跑去找什么？(what they are looking for?)
L: 熊宝宝，不，兔宝宝。(Baby Bear, no, Baby Rabbit.)
R: 对，他们要找兔宝宝。(Yes, they're looking for Baby Rabbit.) 下雨了你一般跑去什么地方？(When it rains, what you will look for?) 你没带伞，(You do not have an umbrella,) 你需要，(you need to,)
L: 可以避雨的地方，(somewhere to take a shelter)
R: 对，哪个指避雨的地方？(yes, which one means 'shelter'?)
L: 这个 (This) (Pointing))
R: 读作shelter，(it's pronounced 'shelter')
L: shelter
R: 表示避雨的地方。((Chinese translation of 'shelter'))
L: 遮蔽。((repeat Chinese translation of 'shelter'))
R: 你可以避雨， 也可以说天气特别冷，你找一个遮蔽的地方。(you can take a shelter against the rain, also, when you feel cold, you find a shelter,
R: 所以是'shelter'. (so it's shelter)
L: shelter
R: 谁是你的港湾，遮风避雨的地方？（who is your shelter, the place to protect you against wind and rain?)
L: (1.0) 家。(home)
R: Home can be a shelter. 然后动物们跑了，(Then animals ran.)
Mr Bear' lantern hissed, fizzled and went out.
R: 它的灯笼，(his lantern), 它的灯笼熄灭了，(his lantern went out.) and then,
'How will we ever find Flora now?' wailed Mrs Rabbit-Bunn. 什么意思？(what's the meaning?)
L: ((shaking his head))
R: 我们怎么找到，(How will we find,)
L: 熊宝宝，不，兔宝宝（Baby Bear, no, Baby Rabbit)
R: then, Mr Bear anxiously looked up at the sky.
L: 熊先生指着天空。(Mr Bear pointing at the sky)
R: Yes, 'Good grief,' he cried. 'I've found her!' 我找到它了。(I've found her!)
There, high in the branches of the sheltering tree, was a tiny rabbit, wrapped in her blanket and fast asleep. 他怎么了？(What is he doing?)
L: 睡着了。(He's asleep)
R: 对，哪一个睡着？(Yes, which one means 'asleep')?
L: asleep
R: 'asleep'是睡着的。（reader giving the Chinese translation of 'asleep').
R: 以前学过嘛？（Have you learnt it before?）
L: 学过 'sleep', （I've learnt 'sleep'.）
R: 但没学过asleep？(But not 'asleep'?)
L: 没有。(No.)
R: sleep 是睡 觉, asleep 是睡着的。（reader gives Chinese translations of 'sleep' and 'asleep')
L: 嗯。(Ok.)
R: 'I'll just clime up and [get her],' said Mr Bear.我要爬上树找到它，把它弄下来。（Giving the Chinese translation of this sentence）
L: 把它弄下来 [get her].
R: 'What a hero you are,' sighed Mrs Rabbit-Bunn.
L: 你怎么上去的。(How did you get up? )
R: (Laughing)
L: 你那么重。(You're so heavy.)
R: (laugh), yeah, (laugh), 'hero'指什么？(what's 'hero'?)
L: 重的。(heavy).
R: 'hero'指什么？(what's 'hero'?)
L: 你怎么下来。 (How did you get down?)
R: (laugh). 'Hero' is, superman 是什么？(what's 'superman'?)
L: 裤衩。(underwear)
R: (Laugh). 'superman' 是不是拯救世界的英雄？(Isn't superman a hero who saved the world?)
所以 'hero' 指英雄。（giving Chinese translation of 'hero').
R: 它说他要救兔宝宝，兔妈妈很感动，说。(He said he was going to save Baby Rabbit, so
Mother Rabbit was touched, and said,)
L: 你真是个英雄！(You're such a hero!)
R: 对 (Yes), but when Mr Bear was climbing the tree, he didn't feel heroic.
L: 对。(Yes)
R: 树怎么了？(What happened to the tree?)
L: 颤抖。(shaking)
R: Yes, he disentangled the blanket, cradled Flora in his arms and...最后它把小毯子展开，把小兔子抱在怀里，然后...(giving Chinese translation of the sentence)

R: 'Aaaaargh!' yelled Mr Bear.

'Wheeeeeee!' said Flora, waking up.

R: Flora怎么了？(What happened to Flora?)

L: 醒了。(Wake up.)

R: 'Gosh, what a good idea,' said Mr Rabbit-Bunn as Flora's blanket fanned out into a perfect parachute...它现在怎么着？(What happens to him now?) 又想到了一个主意，是什么？(Another idea, what's it?)

L: 把毯子变成降落伞。(Changing the blanket into a parachute)

R: 哪一个指降落伞？(Which one means 'parachute'?)

L: ((pointing)) 这个或者那个。(This, or that one.)

R: 这个或者那个，是吧？(This or that, right?) 对，这个指毯子，那个指降落伞。(Yeah. This one means 'blanket', and that is 'parachute')

R: Parachute

L: parachute

R: parachute

R: What a brilliant Mr Bear!' said Mrs Rabbit-Bunn, hugging Mr Bear's knees,

兔夫人特别感动，'你真是一个伟大的熊先生啊！'，然后它就抱住了熊先生的哪个地方？(Mrs Rabbit was very moved, "what a brilliant Mr Bear!" and then, where did she hug Mr Bear?)

L: 肚子。(tummy)

R: 他够着吗？(Can she reach?)

L: 不是，腿。(No, legs)

R: 对。(Yes)

L: 脚。(feet)

R: 膝盖。你下跪的时候哪里着地？(knees. Which parts are on the ground when you put your keens down?)

L: ((Pointing his knees)). 膝盖。(Knees)

R: 对，它抱住了熊先生的膝盖。(yes. He hugged Mr Bear's knees.)

R: 膝盖是复数，因为我们有两个膝盖。('Knees' are plural because we have two knees.)

L: 对。(Yes.) (1.0) 但是，它这么大，它怎么能抱住两个膝盖呢？(But he, he is so big, and how can she hug two knees?)

R: umm，可能抱完一个再抱一个。(perhaps one after another.)
Mr Bear relit his lantern and loaded all his friends into his toolkit.

熊先生点着了什么？(What does Mr Bear light?)

灯笼。(lantern)

对，然后把它朋友放到他的，(Yes, and put his friends in his,) 工具车。(toolkit)

Yes. 'Hold tight!' he said. 'I'm taking you home.'

太晚了，你们可以在我家里睡。(It's too late, and you can sleep in my house.)

Yes, 'Hold tight' 指'抓紧了'。(giving Chinese translation of 'hold tight')

Back through the storm they went till they reached the top of the hill and could see Mr Bear's house in the distance with his lights on. 他们一直向前走，然后走到山顶上，一直到能看见他家房子的地方。

((Nodding his head)) 'Not far now,' he said. 'We're nearly there.' nearly是指什么。(What's 'nearly'?)

只是，不，仅仅。(only, no, just)

几乎。(Giving Chinese translation of 'nearly') 几乎。(repeat Chinese translation of 'nearly'). 我们几乎要到了。(We are nearly there.)

Mrs Bear had been busy organizing beds for everyone and, much later, when her hot nettle soup had warmed every tummy, large and small, the Bear house filled with snores.

什么意思？(What's the meaning?)

它正在修补蜂巢和鸟巢。(She is mending hive and nest.)

对。(Yes.) 然后，所有动物回家了，它需要给他们准备地方，(Then, all the animals came back and she needs to prepare beds for them)

嗯。(Yes)

准备晚餐。 (prepare dinner for them)

嗯。(yes)

当一切都忙完了，动物们入睡了，房间里充满了什么？(and when everything is finished, animals all went asleep, and what filled the room?)

((silent))

一种声音。(One sound.)

((Silent))

((Making the sound of snores))

呼噜声！(snores!)
R: 哪一个指'snore'？(Which one is 'snore')?
L: ((Pointing at 'snores' in the book))
R: 为什么？(Why?)
L: with snores
R: filled with something 被什么充满((Chinese meanings of 'filled with')), 对不对？(right?)
L: 嗯。 (Yes)
R: 所以是'snore'。 (so filled with 'snores', right?)
L: 对。 (Yes)
R: (2.0) 为什么是复数？(Why in plural?)
R: 为什么是 's'？(Why with 's')?
L: ((Silent)). (3.0) snore 是可数名词。('snore' is countable)
R: 对。 (yes)
L: Look, it's cute ((Listener pointing to the Baby Bear)).
R: Yes, and he is not angry at his dad taking back so many strangers.
L: what's mean?
R: 他爸爸带了那么多陌生人回来，他很欢迎 ((Chinese translation of the sentence))
L: 嗯。 (yeah)
R: Then Mr Bear sank into a chair with a groan. Baby Bear clambered onto his tummy. 熊先生就睡在一张椅子上, 然后小熊怎么样？((Then Mr Bear sleeps on a chair, what happened to baby bear?))
L: 躺在它的肚子上。(Lying on his tummy.)
R: 哪一个指肚子？(Which one means 'tummy')?
L: his tummy
R: tummy L: tummy
R: Yes, 'tummy'是肚子。((repeat Chinese translation of 'tummy'))
R: 'What a brilliant Mr Bear your Daddy is,' said Mrs Bear. 什么意思？(What's the meaning?)
L: ((Silent))
R: a brilliant idea, (1.0) occurred to him
L: 好主意 (good idea)
R: 对，好的，极好的。(Yes, 'good', 'great')
R: 'In fact,' continued Mrs Bear,
'I have some more things for that Daddy to fix. 熊先生就睡着了，熊夫人说，其实，我还有很多东西让它修补((Chinese translation of the sentence))

L: 什么？(What?)

R: 看一下是什么。(Let's see what it is.) 'There's the squeaky bathroom door, the blocked sink and the smoky chimney…'

Mr Bear gave a loud snore.

R: 什么是snore？(What's 'snore'?)

L: 呼噜声。(Chinese meaning of 'snore')

R: 对，我们看一下要让它修什么。(Yes. Let's see what is to be fixed.) There's the squeaky bathroom door,

L: umm, bathroom, 卧室的门。(bedroom door)

R: Bathroom 是浴室。(Chinese translation of 'bathroom')

L: 哦，浴室的门 (oh, bathroom door)

R: 浴室门坏了。(bathroom door is broken.)

L: ok

R: the blocked sink. 'blocked', 被堵塞的 ((Chinese translation of 'blocked'))

L: 厕所被堵了。(The toilet is blocked)

R: 厕所的门坏的，别的就没问题了。(No, the bathroom door was broken, no other problems.)

'sink' 指水槽。((Chinese translation of 'sink'))

R: 'and the smoky chimney…' chimney 是什么？(what is 'chimney')

L: ((Silent))

R: 圣诞老人从哪里下来？(from where does Santa Claus get down?)

L: Umm, (1.0), 烟囱！(chimney!)

R: 对。冒烟的烟囱 (smoky chimney), 烟囱被堵了。(the chimney is blocked)

R: '…but they can all wait until tomorrow,' said Mrs Bear.

L: 他们可以明天修。(Chinese translation of the sentence))

R: 对，你怎么猜的，哪个词？(yes, how did you guess? Which word?)

L: tomorrow

R: 对，(Yes), tomorrow

R: 'Even brilliant Mr Bears need a bit of rescuing at times,' she said, tucking a blanket around Mr Bear and the baby and heading upstairs.

什么意思？(What's the meaning?)

L: 太好了 (Great), 不是， (no)
R: umm, ((silent))

L: 心好的熊先生 (kind-hearted Mr Bear)

R: 对。 (yes)

L: 需要一个, (need a), bit,

R: a bit of, 一点。((Chinese translation of 'a bit of'))

L: 需要点时间。 (need a bit of time)

R: rescue是什么？ (What is 'rescue'?)

L: ((silent))

R: 记不起来了？ (Can't remember?)

L: ((nodding his head))

R: 'rescue', 在<Zog>里面，骑士说， (in <Zog>, the knight said,) 'I'm here to rescue Princess Pearl'

L: 医生，不是， (Doctor, no)

R: 对。 (yes)

L: 听诊器。 (stethoscope)

R: No

R: rescue. Princess Pearl said, 'no, don't rescue me'

L: 我不想， (I don't want,)

R: 我不想你们来，怎么样？ (I don't want you to,)

L: 拯救我 (rescue me).

R: 对，所以rescue是什么？ (Yeah, so what does 'rescue' mean?)

L: 拯救 (Giving Chinese translation of 'rescue')

R: 对。 (Yes.)

R: 即使是最优秀的熊先生需要一些拯救。(Even brilliant Mr Bears need a bit of rescuing at times)

R: she said, tucking a blanket around Mr Bear and the baby and heading upstairs. 'upstairs'是什么意思？ (Guess, what 'upstairs' mean?)

R: 我们说 'downstairs' 是下楼 ((Repeat Chinese translation of 'downstairs'))

R: Upstairs

L: 上楼。((Chinese translation of 'upstairs'))

R: Yeah, very good. 为什么？ (Why?)

L: 'up' 是向上的意思 (up' means 'upward').

R: 对，所以upstairs， (Yes, so upstairs，)

L: 上楼的意思. ((Chinese translation of 'upstairs'))
Appendix F: The Full version of Vocabulary Test One

Acknowledgement: All images used in this vocabulary test had been accessed using a Google Image search, from [https://www.google.co.uk](https://www.google.co.uk)

阅读下面的题目，根据红色单词的意思，选择相应的图片，把选项填在横线上。Please choose the appropriate pictures which show the meanings of words in red.

1. Which person is grown up? ___

A. 

![Image A](image1)

B. 

![Image B](image2)

C. 

![Image C](image3)
2. He finally found his perfect (1) ___ as a doctor and (2) ___ people when they got sick.

3. The little lions are learning how to ___ under the guidance of their mother.

4. The little bird got hurt in its ___ tip, so it couldn't fly high in the sky.

5. The flying dragon was smiling at the little girl as he ___ across the sky.

6. The girl doesn't want to be a ___ and stays in the King's palace forever. Instead, she wants to travel and meet other people.

7. Which car has crashed? ___

A. delicious B. roar C. princess D. career E. wing F. zigzagged G. nursed
8. Which one is a sword? ___

A.  

B.  

C.  

9. The little boy’s clothes caught ___ as he was playing with fire.

10. After years of practicing, he regards himself as a/an ___ piano player.

11. Mike is the ___ student in his class. Every day, he tries his hardest to win a golden star from his teacher.

12. You’d better wear your ___ to protect your head when you ride your bike.
13. The little girl was ___ her hand at her mom as she got on the bus.

14. The little rabbit got trapped in the fire, and all her friends came to ___ her.

15. Which picture shows a **statue**? ___

   A.  
   ![Image of a statue]

   B.  
   ![Image of a swan]

   C.  
   ![Image of a window]
16. Which one is a *swallow*? 

A. 

B. 

C. 

17. Which picture shows baby's *cheeks*? 

A. 

B. 

C. 

D. 

E. 

F.
18. Which picture shows tears? ___
19. The wicked Queen wanted to be the most beautiful woman in the world. After she knew that Princess Snow White was more beautiful than she was, she tried so hard to ___ and kill Snow White.

20. As soon as the seven dwarves heard the news of Princess Snow White being killed by the Queen, they rushed back to their home; when they saw the body of Snow White, they felt so sad and began to ___ for their beloved friend.

21. As it was cold and icy outside, the whole family stayed ___ to keep warm.

22. The king has never left his golden palace, so he has never seen the ___ of the poor people in his country.

23. The knight ___ out the great ruby from his sword hilt, and gave it to the poor people who needed help.

24. A good doctor should be responsible and really take good ___ of his patients.

25. I wonder if ___ exists, where there is no hunger, poverty or misery. All people are happy and friendly together all the time.

26. Which one is a messenger? ___

A.

B.
27. Which picture shows water's edge? ___

A.

B.

C.
28. Which picture shows a *shoulder*? ___
A.

B.

C.

29. Which picture shows a *crystal*? ___
A.

B.
30. Which picture shows a beggar? ____

A.

B.
31. Which picture shows that someone is going downstairs?

A.

B.

C.
32. Which picture shows an ankle? ___

A.

B.

C.

33. Which picture shows people clinging onto something? ___

A.
Select the proper words in the blanks of each sentence; there is one word more than it is needed.

A. brilliant  B. adorable  C. surrounded  D. remains  E. nest  F. tomb  G. ruined

34. The forest was (1) ___ in the fire and we could only see the (2) ___ of some trees.

35. Superman found himself (1) __ by people who needed his help. How to save his friends? He thought for some time and then had a (2) ___ idea.

36. The little swallow's ___ fell apart in the heavy rain.

37. The Prince died at a very young age and his father spent a lot of money to build him a great ___.
38. Which picture shows somebody going upstairs? ___

A.

B.

C.
39. Which animal is asleep? __

A.  

B.  

C.  

40. The mother covered her baby with a ___ to keep her warm.

41. The wind was so strong, and you could hear it ___ outside the whole night.

42. With enough practice, you will become a ___ ping-pong player.

43. The wind was so strong it blew out his ___ so he could not see his way in the darkness.

44. After walking all day, baby Bear was hungry, so Mrs. Bear cooked her hot pumpkin soup to put some food into her child’s (1) ___. Mr. Bear had been busy working the whole day. Before the
soup was served, he had already fallen asleep in his chair. Listen, you could hear his loud (2) ___.

45. Which picture shows a parachute? ___
A. 
B. 
C.
Appendix G: the Full Version of Follow-up Test

Acknowledgement: All images used in this vocabulary test had been accessed using a Google Image search, from https://www.google.co.uk.

阅读下面的题目，根据红色单词的意思，选择相应的图片，把选项填在横线上。如果你不确定答案，请在横线上填"1"。Please choose the appropriate pictures which show the meanings of words in red. Insert "1" if you are not sure about which option to choose.

1. Which picture shows a **princess**?

   ![Image A](imageA.png)
   ![Image B](imageB.png)
   ![Image C](imageC.png)

2. Which picture shows a **lantern**?

   ![Image A](imageA.png)
   ![Image B](imageB.png)
   ![Image C](imageC.png)
A. asleep  B. roar  C. plastic  D. crystal  E. howling

3. It's a windy night, and you can hear the wind ___ outside the house.

4. Father is very tired. He falls ___ very soon.

5. The mother lion is teaching little lions to ___.

6. The King paid a lot of money to buy a ___ for his daughter.
7. Which picture shows a blanket?

A.  
B.  
C.  

8. The little dragon couldn't fly very well; sometimes, he ___ into a tree.

9. The mother told her children, "I hope you are still so happy when you are ___ up."

10. The knight took out his ___ to fight the big bad dragon.
11. The baby is crying and ___ are running down his face.

阅读下面的题目，根据红色单词的意思，选择相应的图片，把选项填在横线上。如果你不确定答案，请在横线上填"1"。Please choose the appropriate pictures which show the meanings of words in red. Insert "1" if you are not sure about which option to choose.

12. Which picture shows a nest?

A.  

B.  

C.  

第13-17题，选择合适的单词在横线处，把相应单词的序号填在横线上（其中有一个单词是多余的）。如果你不确定答案，请在横线上填"1"。Select the proper words in the blanks of each sentence; there is one word more than it is needed. Insert "1" if you are not sure about which option to choose.

A. capture  B. obey  C. care  D. plucked  E. misery  F. weep

13. The prisoners escaped so the police had to try and ___ them again.

14. The boy died in the war, and his mother was so sad. She began to ___ for him.

15. The rich, happy King always stays in his palace. He never knows the ___ of his people.

16. The King ___ out the gold star from his hat, and gave it to the poor people.
17. He is very kind and always shows ___ to his friends.

阅读下面的题目，根据红色单词的意思，选择相应的图片，把选项填在横线上。如果你不确定答案，请在横线上填"1"。Please choose the appropriate pictures which show the meanings of words in red. Insert "1" if you are not sure about which option to choose.

18. Which picture shows wings?

A.  

B.  

C.  

第19-22题，选择合适的单词在横线处，把相应单词的序号填在横线上（其中有一个单词是多余的）。如果你不确定答案，请在横线上填"1"。Select the proper words in the blanks of each sentence; there is one word more than it is needed. Insert "1" if you are not sure about which option to choose.

A. Ceiling b. Snores c. Edge d. paradise E. beggar

19. In ___, people are happy and friendly together all the time.

20. Do not walk near the ___ of the cliff, it is not safe.

21. The big dragon is sleeping. You can hear his loud ___.

22. A ___ usually has no money and asks for help from other people.
23. Which picture shows a tummy?
Appendix H: Full Results of Vocabulary Test One

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word Tested</th>
<th>Question Form</th>
<th>Whether Correctly Answered</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fill-in Gap</td>
<td>Picture MCQ</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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Appendix I: Examples of Question's Changes from Vocabulary Test One to the Follow-up Test

The word 'Princess' was tested in the first vocabulary test, in the form of Fill-in-Gap question, as follows:
A. delicious B. roar C. princess D. career E. wing F. zigzagged G. nursed

46. He finally found his perfect (1) ___ as a doctor and (2) ___ people when they got sick.
47. The little lions are learning how to ___ under the guidance of their mother.
48. The little bird got hurt in its ___ tip, so it couldn't fly high in the sky.
49. The flying dragon was smiling at the little girl as he ___ across the sky.

50. The girl doesn't want to be a ___ and stays in the King's palace forever. Instead, she wants to travel and meet other people.

In the follow-up test, 'Princess' was tested in the form of picture MCQ, as follows:

24. Which picture shows a princess?
The word 'roar' was tested in a Fill-in-Gap question in the first vocabulary test, as follows:

A. delicious B. roar C. princess D. career E. wing F. zigzagged G. nursed

1. He finally found his perfect (1) ___ as a doctor and (2) ___ people when they got sick.

2. The little lions are learning how to ___ under the guidance of their mother.

3. The little bird got hurt in its ___ tip, so it couldn't fly high in the sky.

4. The flying dragon was smiling at the little girl as he ___ across the sky.

5. The girl doesn't want to be a ___ and stays in the King's palace forever. Instead, she wants to travel and meet other people.

The word 'roar' was tested in a simplified Fill-in-Gap question in the follow-up test, as follows:

A. asleep B. roar C. plastic D. crystal E. howling

1. It's a windy night, and you can hear the wind ___ outside the house.

2. Father is very tired. He falls ___ very soon.

3. The mother lion is teaching little lions to ___.

4. The King paid a lot of money to buy a ___ for his daughter.
Appendix J: Extract on How the Reader and Listener Interacted during Story Read-aloud

1. R: 'In fact,' continued Mrs Bear,

2. 'I have some more things for that Daddy to fix. 熊先生就睡着了，熊夫人说，其实，我还有很多东西让它修补 ((Chinese translation of the sentence))

3. L: 什么？(What?)

4. R: 看一下是什么。(Let's see what it is.) There's the squeaky bathroom door, the blocked sink and the smoky chimney…'

5. R: Mr Bear gave a loud snore.

6. R: 什么是snore？ (What's 'snore'?)

7. L: 呼噜声。(Chinese meaning of 'snore')

8. R: 对，我们看一下要让它修什么。(Yes. Let's see what is to be fixed.) There's the squeaky bathroom door,

9. L: umm, bathroom, 卧室的门。(bedroom door)

10. R: Bathroom 是浴室。((Chinese translation of 'bathroom'))

11. L: 哦，浴室的门 (oh, bathroom door)

12. R: 浴室门坏了。(bathroom door is broken.)

13. L: ok

14. ……

15. R: 'and the smoky chimney…' chimney 是什么？(what is 'chimney'?)

16. L: ((Silent))

17. R: 圣诞老人从哪里下来？(from where does Santa Claus get down?)

18. L: Umm, (1.0), 烟囱！(chimney!)

19. R: 对。冒烟的烟囱 (yes, smoky chimney), 烟囱被堵了。(the chimney is blocked)

20. R: '…but they can all wait until tomorrow,' said Mrs Bear.

21. L: 他们可以明天修。((Chinese translation of the sentence))

22. R: 对，你怎么猜的，哪个词？(yes, how did you guess? Which word?)

23. L: tomorrow
Appendix K: Extract on How the Reader Lowered the Listener's Affective Filter

1. L: ((Silent)). (3.0) snore 是可数名词。('snore' is countable)

2. R: 对。 (yes)

3. L: Look, it's cute ((Listener pointing to the Baby Bear)).

4. R: Yes, and he is not angry at his dad taking back so many strangers.

5. L: what's mean?

6. R: 他爸爸带了那么多陌生人回来，他很欢迎 ((Chinese translation of the sentence))

7. L: 嗯。 (yeah)

8. ……

9. R: 'What a hero you are,' sighed Mrs Rabbit-Bunn.

10. L: 你怎么上去的。 (How did you get up?)

11. R: ((Laughing))

12. L: 你那么重。 (You're so heavy.)

13. R: ((laugh)), yeah, ((laugh)), 'hero'指什么？(what's 'hero')?


15. R: 'hero'指什么？ (what's 'hero')?

16. L: 你怎么下来。 (How did you get down?)

17. R: ((laugh)). 'Hero' is, superman 是什么？ (what's 'superman')?

18. L: 裤衩。 (underwear)

19. R: ((Laugh)). 'superman' 是不是拯救世界的英雄？ (Isn't superman a hero who saved the world? ) 所以 'hero' 指英雄。 ((giving Chinese translation of 'hero')).

20. R: 它说他要救兔宝宝，兔妈妈很感动，说， (He said he was going to save Baby Rabbit, so Mother Rabbit was touched, and said.)

21. L: 你真是个英雄！ (You're such a hero!)