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初探台灣以英文為外語之學童的口語敘事發展：以中文與英文故事

「青蛙，你在哪裡？」為例

Narrative Development of Taiwanese EFL Children: A First Glance at the

Children's Story "Frog, Where are you?" in English and Chinese

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　　　　　「青蛙，你在哪裡？」為例
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中文摘要

　　有鑑於外語學習在台灣日漸興盛，兒童語言習得(children's language acquisition)已是當下廣為探究的領域之一。為深入了解兒童語言習得的過程及發展，口語敘事能力(oral narrative ability)儼然成為不可或缺的一環。因此，孩童的口語敘事發展(oral narrative development)更是與其能力的培養息息相關。

　　本論文主要在探討台灣以英文為外國語言的兒童，其口語敘述之發展，主要是針對敘事結構(narrative structure)，又稱故事結構(story grammar)，做深入的分析及探究。除了探討不同年齡層孩童之間的敘事發展之外，亦比較跨語言的敘事差異。

　　本研究對象是 21 名全美語幼稚園學童(English-immersion kindergarten) 及 23 名參與該機構之課後輔導(after-school program)的國小學童。這些孩童根據研究者所提供的一本無字圖畫書(*Frog, Where Are You?* Mayer, 1969)，分別以中文和英文敘述出書中的內容。其敘述的內容被進一步轉譯，並針對故事結構成分(story grammar components)及故事結構等級(story grammar levels)予以分析歸類。

　　研究結果顯示，大部分學童的敘述能力皆符合既有的分級；以學齡前學童而言，主要都被分類至三個等級中：(1)行為順序(action sequence)，(2)反應順序(reactive sequence)，以及(3)簡易情節(abbreviated episode)。然而，國小學童的表現，相較學齡前孩童，包括更多的層級：(1)反應順序(reactive sequence)，(2)簡易情節(abbreviated episode)，(3)完整情節(complete episode)，(4)複雜情結(complex episode)，以及(5)嵌入性情節(embedded episode)。

再者，研究結果亦顯示了跨年紀及跨語言的差異。以跨年紀的敘事發展而言，學齡前學童相較於國小學童者，有以下的幾點敘事特徵：(1)較無法依照書中的正確順序將情節描述出來，(2)較容易說出錯誤的資訊及內容，(3)較不容易洞察主角的情緒狀態，(4)說出較多重覆的句子，以及(5)無法像學齡孩童一樣，使用較複雜的句子及故事慣用語式 (formulaic expression)，來開啟故事及做結尾。在跨語言的差異方面，兩組學童的中文故事，相對於英文故事而言，較能提供正確的資訊內容以及較少說出重覆的句子。

　　此外，本研究希望藉由此研究成果，協助英語學習者發展敘事能力。並且，能對關切及投身於語言教學的老師及家長們，有所助益。

ABSTRACT

The purpose of the present study was to examine the narrative performance of Taiwanese EFL children in both Chinese and English. The developmental changes in children's stories across two age groups and the similarities and differences of children's story structures in the two languages were explored.

Twenty-one children from an English-immersion kindergarten program and 22 elementary-school children from an English afterschool program participated in this study. Both groups of children were asked to tell a story in Chinese and English respectively from a wordless picture book, *Frog, Where Are You?* (Mayer, 1969). Children's stories were segmented into modified C-units and were further analyzed using the story grammar components (Stein & Glenn, 1979). Each of the children's story was also categorized into different story grammar levels (Westby et. al., 1984; 1986).

The overall descriptive analyses showed that the Taiwanese EFL children of the present study told their Chinese and English stories roughly matched Westby et al.'s eight-stage story grammar (1984; 1986). The preschool children's narratives mainly fell into three levels: action sequence, reactive sequence, and abbreviated episode; in contrast, the school-aged children's story levels were more varied, ranging from the simpler story structure such as reactive sequence to more complex structure such as abbreviated episode, complete episode, complex episode, and embedded episode.

The cross-age comparisons revealed that the preschool children had lesser ability than the school-aged children in the following aspects: (1) story sequencing, (2) correct information provided, (3) the awareness of psychological states, (4) effective use of repetitions, and (5) story opening and ending.

The present study further compared differences of the children's stories across

Chinese and English. The results showed that the children's English stories contained more incorrect information, and the preschool English stories showed extensive but futile instances of repetitions.

In view of the findings, the present study presented a preliminary investigation that examined Taiwanese EFL children's narrative development in Chinese and English and hoped to provide a preliminary understanding for teachers and parents when they are involved in children's narrative and language development.

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I can never imagine I could ever finish my master's thesis. In the beginning, it was almost mission impossible for me. However, something magic happened. Full of joyfulness and ecstasy, I would like to show my sincere gratitude to all people surrounding me.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

A	Attempt
AE	Abbreviated Episode
AS	Action Sequence
B	Behavior
C	Consequence
CE	Complete Episodes
CXE	Complex Episodes
DS	Descriptive Sequence
E	Ending
EE	Embedded Episode
ID	Isolated Description
IE	Initiating Event
IP	Internal Plan
IR	Internal Response
IS	Internal State
R	Resolution/Reaction
RS	Reactive Sequence
S	Setting
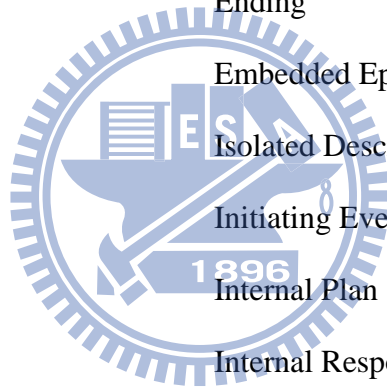
CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Narratives play an important role in human communication for thousands of years. Ancient people conveyed their wisdom and culture through narrating stories to next generations. We narrate to entertain, to explain, to express, or to reflect on our own experiences and the experiences of others. The study of narrative is the study of the ways humans experience the world (Connelly & Clandinin, 1990).Through narratives, we come to realize ourselves and others. It is the basic scheme of thought that happens all around our lives. According to Hardy (1978), "…we dream in narrative, daydream in narrative, remember, anticipate, hope, despair, doubt, plan, revise, criticize, construct, gossip, learn, hate and love by narrative" (p. 13).

In addition, competence in narration is an essential skill for everyone in any community. Although almost everyone can achieve sufficient competency in daily conversation, there are still large number of people with limited skills in narrative language essential for better literacy and school performance. It is critical that educators and researchers understand the nature of narratives. Given the significance of narratives, abundant studies in this area have been undertaken.

Narrative is a text or discourse composed through signed, written or spoken medium, and the production of a narrative includes the coordination of three cognitive domains: linguistic, pragmatic, and cognitive abilities. First of all, linguistic devices are performed within and across sentences, while the bigger discourse units could enclose episodes or settings (Peterson & McCabe, 1990). Second, with regard to pragmatic abilities, which are recognized to contribute to overall functional and communicative competence (Manochioping, Sheard, & Reed, 1992), Hudson and Shapiro (1991) further considered them as central in producing and comprehending

narratives. Their high emphasis on pragmatic abilities also prompted the awareness of being a better conversation partner or conformed to the addressee's information needs. In other words, the concept reflects the fact that to become a competent speaker requires more than proficiency in grammar, vocabulary or native-like pronunciation (e.g., linguistic abilities). Moreover, narratives are not only a reflection of speakers' linguistic ability, but could also reveal their understanding of the world. With respect to cognitive abilities, performance such as working memory or information processing of continuously amounts of information is also involved (Eisenberg, 1985). A relevant concept about cognitive abilities which is worth mentioning is to understand that, narratives like stories require the operation of both the local (microstructure) and global (macrostructure) level. The local or microstructure level refers to the presentation of linguistic abilities, such as the use of connectives and the expression of causality. On the other hand, the global or macro level refers to the content or conceptual level, usually including the overall structure and organization of a story (Hudson & Shapiro, 1991). In addition, people from different cultures might differ in the perceptions, conceptualizations, or interpretation of the world due to the different abilities and understanding in cognitive processing.

Studies of narratives have become an emerging filed of research that has attracted great attention of researchers from diverse disciplines, including educators, linguists, philosophers, or psychologists. Different disciplines analyze narratives focusing on different aspects, and studies on children's narrative development have been of major concerned in the recent years.

A growing number of studies are now available to provide better understanding of children's narrative development. For example, research on children's narrative development across different age groups has been extensively examined (Applebee,

1978; Miller & Sperry, 1988; Umiker-Sebeok, 1979). Similarly, studies on bilingual children's narrative performances are also getting considerable attention (Barley & Pease-Alvarez, 1997; Dart, 1992; Guiterrez-Clellen, 2002; Minaya Portella, 1980; Silliman, Huntley Bahr, Brea, Hnath-Chisolm, & Mahecha, 2002).

Given the importance and need of examining children's narrative development, the ways of assessing narrative production is also an issue worth discussing. Narrative assessment provides an avenue to evaluate individual's schema knowledge, social cognition, and linguistic discourse skills (Hedberg & Westby, 1993). Among various assessment systems (e.g., narrative analysis systems), story grammar analysis is commonly used to examine children's story structure. Story grammar is the story structure or the set of rules for making up a story (Bamberg, 1987). According to Hedberg and Westby (1993), story grammar analysis examines children's ability to use the macrostructure elements in telling stories. In the meanwhile, information about content or organization is also provided. It also shows the natural components of a story, which includes the interrelationships and characters within the story.

Various kinds of story grammar models have been developed. Among them, two most common models will be illustrated. One is Labov's definition (1972) of a well-formed narrative structure; the other is Stein and Glenn's story grammar model (1979), which illustrated that a model of story grammar has some related episodes. The episodes contain components that consist of setting, initiating events, reactions and attempts, consequence, reaction or resolution, and ending. Most studies examining children's narrative development across languages and ages, however, used the story grammar model proposed by Stein and Glenn (1979) (e.g., Applebee, 1978; Gillam, McFadden, & van Kleeck, 1995; Hughes, McGillivray, & Schmidek, 1997; Mandler & Johnson, 1977; Westby, 1984), and several other studies were also done to

investigate children with language disorders using the story grammar model (Gillam, McFadden, & Van Kleeck, 1995; Merritt & Liles, 1987; Roth & Spekman, 1986). For example, Merritt and Liles (1987) used this story grammar model to analyze children's narratives in their study, which aimed to examine and compare the narrative performances between language-impaired children with normal children.

Story grammar analysis is not only used to examine children's narrative development or abilities, it has also been adopted as an intervention or teaching tool. In Taiwan, some studies have conducted the story structure teaching to learning situation, and the results showed that story structure teaching could enhance preschool children's reading comprehension and perception (Cheng, 2006; Hung, 2007; Liu, 2007).

Although numerous studies on narrative development of monolingual and bilingual children and of many languages have been conducted, relatively scant research examined narrative development of Taiwanese children who are learning English as a foreign language (EFL) at an early age. Among the limited studies examining Taiwanese children's narratives, some focused on children's referential strategies or abilities in either elementary or preschool levels (Sung, 2004; Yang, 2008), while some paid attention to preschoolers' narrative structure in personal storytelling (Shu, 2007). The present study differed from prior studies by specifically exploring the developmental changes and cross-language differences in the narrative structure of Taiwanese children from two age groups.

Purposes and the Significance of the Study

The goal of this study, as briefly mentioned above, was to document Taiwanese EFL children's oral narratives in Chinese and English. More specifically, the

developmental changes in children's stories and cross language differences were explored. The following research questions were addressed in this proposed thesis study:

1. How do Taiwanese preschool children's Chinese and English stories differ from school-aged children's stories in terms of macrostructures?

2. How do Taiwanese children's Chinese stories differ from their English stories?

To answer these two questions, two groups of Taiwanese EFL children participated in this study, and their Chinese and English narratives were collected using the wordless picture book, *Frog, Where Are You?* (Mayer, 1969). Story grammar model proposed by Stein and Glenn (1979) was used to analyze their stories. The answer to these questions will provide preliminary pictures of EFL children's narrative development of story structures in their native as well as foreign languages. It is also hoped that the results will inform EFL teachers regarding the implications of incorporating narrative skills in teaching English.

The thesis consists of five chapters and is organized in the following manner. Chapter One discusses the importance of research in narrative development, briefly introduced the history of story grammar research. The purpose of the study and the two research questions are also stated in this chapter. Chapter Two will review related literature on children's narrative development, focusing on the two major groups of research participants, that is, monolingual and bilingual children. In addition, a detailed definition of story grammar and previous studies utilizing story grammar analysis will be illustrated. Chapter Three will describe the methodology, including participants, materials, data collecting procedures, coding method, and data analysis. Chapter Four will present the descriptive results of the study. Chapter Five will

discuss the results and provide conclusions. The implications and limitations of the

present study as well as the suggestions for further research will also be included.
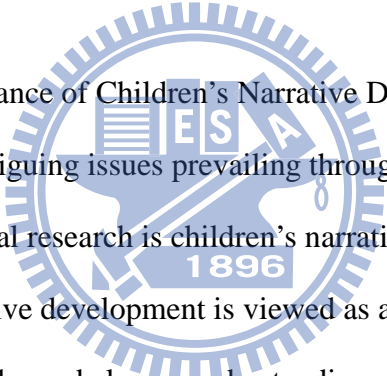
CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

The purpose of the present study was to examine the macrostructure of EFL

children's narrative development in two languages. The first section of this

chapter highlighted the importance of narrative development. The second section

reviewed the studies on the narrative development of monolingual and bilingual

children. Finally, detailed descriptions of a story analysis system, namely story

grammar analysis (Labov, 1972; Stein & Glenn, 1979) were introduced.

Examples of narrative studies using story grammar analysis will also be

presented.

The Importance of Children's Narrative Development

One of the more intriguing issues prevailing throughout the last few decades

of language developmental research is children's narrative development. The

study of children's narrative development is viewed as an important aspect with

which to manifest a broader and clearer understanding of the developmental

process of language acquisition (Karmiloff-Smith, 1986). Over the past few

years, the focus of studies about children's narrative development has shifted

from the micro-level (e.g., pronunciation, vocabulary, or grammar) to the

investigations of extended discourse ability (e.g., the ability to use conjunctions

to link different sentences). According to Karmiloff-Smith (1986), preschool and

elementary school children's extended discourse ability could be observed , and

among the different abilities discussed in extended discourse, oral narrative

ability is the most commonly examined.

Chang (2006) suggested some of the most acknowledged reasons which

account for the increasing attention paid to children's narrative development. First, according to Chang (2006), there is a relationship between children's narrative abilities and their literacy skills. Second, children's language developmental problems could be predicted by examining their narratives. In addition, children's stories could show their thoughts, and parents or educators could understand what the children are thinking by analyzing their narratives. Last, narratives are often viewed as a way to socialize with others.

It has been proved that there is a positive correlation between children's narrative skills and their literacy ability. Some studies have shown that children who are good at narrating will most likely perform better in writing and reading (Richard & Snow, 1990; Snow, 1983; 1991; Snow & Dickinson, 1991). A recent large-scale study by Miller et al. (2006) provided evidence for this statement. In this study, they examined whether oral language collected from bilingual children could predict reading achievement both within and across languages. There were 1,531 Spanish-speaking children participating in this study. Children's oral language skills, such as lexical, syntactic, language fluency, and discourse skill, were examined using the wordless picture book *Frog, Where Are You* (Mayer,1969). During the data collection procedure, the children were asked to retell the story whose prescripted version had been told by the examiner earlier. The children had to tell the story twice: the first time children were tested in Spanish, which was supposedly their stronger language; approximately 1 week later, the same procedure was repeated in English. The results revealed that Spanish and English oral language measures contribute to reading within and across languages. On the other hand, children's reading proficiency could be predicted by their oral language skills in both languages.

Numerous studies also demonstrated the correlation among children's narrative language skills, their literary acquisition and academic performance (Leadholm & Miller, 1995; Paul & Smith, 1993; Torrance & Olson, 1984). For example, the study by Huang and Shen (2003) pointed out that children with higher linguistic ability could perform better in narrating than children with weaker linguistic ability at the same or older ages. The studies reviewed are in line with the findings of Chang's study (2006) that there are relationship between children's narrative ability and their academic performances.

According to Chang (2006), assessing children's narrative production may have clinical utility as a criterion-reference measure. Children's narratives could manifest possible and critical problems in their language development. Several studies have noted that linguistic developmental problems could be predicted by or examined through analyzing children's narratives (Gutierrez-Clellen, 2002; Norbury & Bishop, 2003; Zou & Cheung, 2007). In other words, narratives have become one of the important tools to identify children with language disorders (Norbury & Bishop, 2003; Qi, 2001; Zou & Cheung, 2007).

As Norbury and Bishop (2003) pointed out, analyzing narratives is a good method to assess linguistic abilities of older children with communication impairments and with autistic spectrum disorders. In this study, they first mentioned the importance of narrative skills in typical development, and they further explored the relationship between structural language ability and pragmatic competence in children's narratives. The wordless picture book *Frog, Where Are You?* (Mayer, 1969) was used to generate children's narratives during procedures. The outcome showed that children with specific language impairment and autistic disorder made more syntactic errors, and autistic children were more likely to produce ambiguous

references in telling stories. Through their study, evidence could be shown to prove that children with language disorders can be identified through analyzing their narratives.

In the third aspect, Chang (2006) suggested that stories children tell not only reveal their language abilities, but also reflect their thoughts. Children tend to express their life experiences or their thoughts and ideas by telling a story, and it is also claimed that personal storytelling provides resources for young children as they express and understand who they are (Bruner, 1986; Engel, 1995; Nelson, 1986; 1989). Moreover, there may be a "special affinity" between narratives and selves, which refers to narratives, such as personal storytelling, play a significant role in the process of self-construction (Miller, Potts, Fung, Hoogstra, & Mintz, 2003). Consequently, by analyzing children's stories, their inner thoughts could be noticed and understood.

The fourth benefit for examining children's narrative development is the interactive function of narratives (Chang, 2006). Narratives are often used to understand the process of socialization and enculturation. They are also considered "an arena for the social construction of autonomous selves" (Wiley, Rose, Burger, & Miller, 1998, p. 833). People from different cultures or societies might perform differently in narrating, and hence children's narrative abilities and styles tend to reflect their cultural or social variations (Blum-Kulka & Snow, 1992; Heath, 1982; McCabe, 1996). An important study determined the functions of personal storytelling and its relationship with socialization, in the context of Taiwanese and European American families (Miller, Wiley, Fung, & Liang, 1997; Minami, 1996). The focal children's average age was 2; 6. More than 200 stories about the past experiences were analyzed for their content, function, and structure. The findings

showed that personal storytelling manifests overlapping but distinct socializing

functions in two cultural cases. The most important and interesting finding of these

studies was that Chinese families tended to convey moral and social standards

because of Confucian tradition in their personal storytelling. European American

families, however, viewed storytelling as a medium of entertainment. As a result,

the study suggested that storytelling functions differently in different cultures as

well as among children from different backgrounds.

As suggested by Gutierrez-Clellen and Quinn (1993), "storytelling is never

context-free, and oral narratives are created in contextualized interactions" (p. 2). In

their study, they examined issues in assessing narratives produced by children from

diverse cultural and ethnic backgrounds, and identified the differences as well as

taught children the context-specific narrative rules valued in American schools. In

their study, they argued that narrative contextualization processes are

culture-specific and must be considered in assessment. In another study, Gee (1991)

further indicated that analyzing children's narratives might be also a significant way

to understand their beliefs, presumptions, norms, and values adopted from the

cultural environments.

The literature reviewed above centered on the importance of children's

narrative development. These studies also provided important implications for

future studies on narrative development of non-mainstream children (e.g., bilingual

children). Therefore, the significance of examining children's narrative

development can not be underestimated.

Children's Narrative Development

Various studies have been done to examine children's narratives skills in different languages. In the following section, literature on children's narrative development will be further discussed with respect to monolingual and bilingual children, and the narrative studies on Taiwanese children will also be provided.

Monolingual Children's Narrative Development

Most of the studies on children's narrative development paid attention to monolingual children's narratives. Several studies have focused on monolingual children's narrative growth and development at different ages (Applebee, 1978; Miller & Sperry, 1988). Miller and Sperry (1988) indicated that children start to tell stories of their personal experiences as early as two years of age (Miller & Sperry, 1988). Applebee's (1978) study further indicated that children are able to tell fantasy narratives before going to school. However, these studies suggested that the narratives produced at this age are relatively shorter, simpler, and more fragmented. Furthermore, Stein and Glenn (1979) indicated that children succeed in telling short and coherent stories with a problem-action-consequence structure by the early primary grades; in other words, children can structure stories around a problem, an attempt to solve the problem, and also a consequence of the story.

In addition to the studies mentioned above, other research has investigated children's narrative development through analyzing their usages of referential cohesion. Referential cohesion, which is necessary for understanding the narrative events, is what narrators used to introduce characters, props, and places in a story (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). Umiker-Sebeok (1979) pointed out that children showed significant growth in the complexity of their narratives at three and four years of

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age. In addition, children at this stage acquired cohesive devices, such as anaphoric reference (e.g., pronouns) and connectives (e.g., and, then). Other similar studies were further conducted to prove that most children at five or six years of age were able to produce a longer and more complete story. Compared to children of three or four years old, five or six-year-old children had better ability in choosing time or referential usages (Bamberg, 1987; Hickman, 1980; Karmiloff-Smith, 1980; 1981). More recently, Gutierrez-Clellen and Heinrichs-Ramos (1993) examined children's development of referential cohesion based on the referential devices. Participants were 46 Spanish-speaking children ages four, six, and eight. A short silent movie "*Frog Goes to Dinner*" (Phoenix Films) was used to collect the narratives. The participants saw the movie in advance and were later asked to tell what happened in the movie. The results manifested that as children got older, they tended to use more elliptical references, which involve the omission of a word or phrase that can be presupposed form the previous text (e.g., Where is his? /pen/), and appropriate phrases to refer to places in stories and their usages of ambiguities and false additions also reduced over time.

Apart from English-speaking children's narrative development reviewed, Minami (1996) examined Japanese children's narrative development through analyzing their oral narratives. Twenty Japanese preschool children with average ages of four and five years participated in the study. Their oral personal narratives were analyzed and the results showed that four-year-old Japanese children had more difficulties than five-year-olds in presenting nonsequential information in their stories, such as evaluation, and children at age of five also tried to use adult-like narratives. In addition, the study clearly indicated that children's narratives ability showed rapid development during the preschool years.

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Although substantial studies have focused on monolingual children's narrative development in many languages, those of bilingual children also get great importance and will be discussed further.

Bilingual Children's Narrative Development

Some studies on narrative development concentrate on monolingual children, while others investigate bilingual children's narrative development. Limited studies on bilingual children have argued that children tend to produce narratives differently in each of their two languages, and several researchers also suggested that linguistic differences might be one of the factors that cause different narrative performance (Barley & Pease-Alvarez, 1997; Dart, 1992; Guiterrez-Clellen, 2002; Minaya Portella, 1980; Silliman, Huntley Bahr, Brea, Hnath-Chisolm, & Mahecha, 2002).

Fiestas and Pena (2004) conducted a study to examine Spanish-English bilingual children's production of narrative samples. The purpose of the study was to investigate the effect of the language on children's production. Twelve children raging in age from 4; 0 to 6; 11 were asked to tell a story under two elicitation conditions: one using Mayer's (1969) wordless picture book, *Frog, Where Are You?* (book task) while another using a static picture (picture task) with visually rich pictures of a traditional Mexican American family birthday party. The children were asked to tell four stories (i.e., two tasks in two languages). Children's stories of both languages were scored for complexity of story grammar and the inclusion of specific narrative elements. The results showed that children produced narratives of equal complexity for the book task in each language. Nonetheless, children tended to produce more attempts and initiating events in Spanish while more consequences

in English. This study indicated that bilingual children had different performance on story grammar production in each of the language.

Berman and Slobin (1994) also used the wordless picture book as a narrative stimulus in their study. The results indicated that, in narratives of English, Turkish, German, Spanish, and Hebrew, there were linguistic and rhetorical differences appearing in tense, aspect, locative movement, connectively, and rhetorical style. The study revealed that various linguistic performance exists among children's narratives in different languages. Other studies (Gutierrez-Clellen, 1998; Guiterrez-Clellen & Heinrichs-Ramos, 1993; Gutierrez-Clellen & Iglesias, 1992) further provided a framework for comparing narrative development of monolingual and bilingual Latino-American children and specifically examined important grammatical markers and measures of narrative skills. For instance, Gutierrez-Clellen's study (2002) used the story recall and story comprehension tasks to examine the narrative performance of typically developing bilingual children. Thirty-three Spanish-English speaking children were randomly selected from second grade bilingual classrooms. The results showed that children' performed differently in either narrative recall or story comprehension task, and the study was able to support the prediction that "typically-developing children who are fluent in two languages may not show equivalent levels of narrative proficiency in L1 and L2" (p.192). In conclusion, the study suggested that developing bilingual children were able to show age-appropriate performance in at least one language. In contrast, bilingual children with language disorders exhibited deficits in both languages.

Several studies compared bilingual children's narrative productions in their two languages. Dart (1992) examined the narrative development of one bilingual

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child speaking both French and English. He found that there were stylistic

divergences on modifiers and contrasting verb tenses. Silliman, Huntley Bahr, Brea,

Hnath-Chisolm, & Mahecha (2002) compared nine-to eleven-year-old bilingual

children speaking both Spanish and English, and they focused on children's

linguistic encoding of mental states in the narrative retellings.

There has been a growing number of studies on narrative development of

bilingual children in many languages; however, little research has been done on

bilingual children whose first language is Chinese. Therefore, research on Chinese

bilingual children's narrative development warrants more research attention.

Narrative Studies in Taiwan

Over the past decades, there have been an increasing number of studies on

children's narrative conducted in Taiwan. Many of them provide promising and

interesting aspects warranting further attention. These studies also provide

important pedagogical implications for language teachers to consider incorporating

storytelling into their language curriculum.

The first line of narrative studies focused on the narrative development from

different aspects. For example, Chang (2004) explored the growth in Chinese

children's narrative development in Chinese over a nine-month period. Sixteen

children living in Taipei, Taiwan were followed in this study. Children were visited

in the home at ages 3; 6, 3; 9, and 4; 3, and were prompted to tell personally

experienced narratives at each time. In this study, Chang assessed the individual

growth of each child through three dimensions—narrative structure, evaluation, and

temporality. The results showed that as children got older, they generally produced

more narrative components, evaluative information, and temporal markers in their

narratives. Another study by Sung (2004) looked at children's narratives at the microlevel. Taiwanese EFL children's referential strategies in their Chinese and English narratives were examined and compaired. There were 30 six-grade elementary children participated. The students were asked to produce a narrative in Chinese and English respectively using a picture book. The results revealed that those children performed well in adopting Chinese and English referential strategies in making references, but tended to make different performance of indefinite nominals, zero anaphors, and bare nominals in Chinese and English.

In addition to narrative development studies, researchers in Taiwan have also found that children's narrative development has a relationship with their later literacy performance and academic achievement. Qi (2001) conducted a study to compare the performance of narrative coherence of 61 low-reading-proficiency with 63 general-reading-proficiency students. She indicated that children with low reading proficiency, comparing to those with general ones, tended to have difficulties in controlling story cohesion, such as lack of order, coherence and organization. According to Qi's (2001) study, examination on Taiwanese children's narrative coherence could also provide pathological consideration on children's future academic performance.

Another study by Zou and Cheung (2007) examined the language performance of Taiwanese autistic children by analyzing the content of their stories. This study assessed 19 autistic children and 19 typically-developing children from a preschool educational organization in Taipei, Taiwan. The two groups of children were about the same age (i.e., 5 years olds). Mayer's frog story (1969) was used to elicit children's story retelling without adult's support. The results showed that children with autism presented significant differences from the control group on the

comprehension and expression of the story content. Children with autism showed

the features such as performing weaker ability to express the character's internal

responses and goals, easily omitting the ending of the story, and mentioning more

irrelevant details. In addition, they also lacked of the ability to express character's

emotion. Thus, it is apparent that children with autism might present different

narrative comprehension and production abilities from typically-developing

children.

Another line of studies looked at the role of storytelling in language teaching and

learning. For example, Shu (2007) conducted a study to investigate the influence of

picture books on Taiwanese fourth-graders' academic performance and their

learning attitude. The stories were read aloud to 61elementary children to examine

the effects. The results showed that reading the picture storybook aloud had a

positive influence on children's performance, including word recognition, reading

comprehension, and children's attitude. More studies also confirmed the effects of

picture books on teaching and believed that it can help enhance children's language

achievement as well as learning attitude (Lin, 2004; Wu, 2005).

Other researchers also paid special attention to the effects of applying story

grammar instruction on language learning (Cheng, 2006; Hung, 2007; Liu, 2007).

Cheng's study (2006), which aimed to examine whether story grammar instruction

could enhance third-graders' reading comprehension. The results revealed that story

grammar instruction improved children's story comprehension and reasoning ability,

especially for children with low or intermediate language proficiency. In another

study, Liu (2007) used story structure teaching to determine whether it would

enhance young children's learning. The study showed that through story structure

teaching, children's reading comprehension and their perception of story structure

were enhanced; in addition, children also had better abilities to utilize story elements in paraphrasing a story. According to the aforementioned studies, it was clear that story grammar teaching could be beneficial to children's reading comprehension and understanding.

Story Grammar Analysis and Pertinent Studies

In the present study, story grammar will be used to analyze children's narratives. The main definitions and categories of story grammar will be described.

There are various definitions for story grammar. It has been indicated that story grammar manifests the natural components of a story, the interrelationships, and also the roles in the global story macrostructure (Hedberg & Westby, 1993). Story tellers develop a schema for a story structure and use the schema to comprehend and produce stories. Mandler (1983) also pointed out that children develop a representation of a story by reading or hearing stories with common underlying structures. In addition, Bamberg (1987) mentioned that story grammar could be referred to as the story structures or a specific set of rules about what makes up a story.

Numerous story grammar models have been developed. First of all, Labov (1972) gave a description of narrative structures. He suggested that a well-formed personal narrative should consist of six components: abstract, orientation, action, evaluation, resolution, and coda. Abstract is used to serve as a short summary of the story, such as what the story is talking about; orientation aims to identify the setting and characters in the story, like the information of whom, when, what, or where about the story; complication is to manifest the details of events or actions in sequence, like what had happened in the story; evaluation reveals speaker's comments or

viewpoints for the story; resolution is to provide the result or ending of the action in the story, and as for coda, which is the signal the overall completion of the story. According to Labov, evaluation is the most important element in a narrative, and it could also reveal narrator's attitude towards the story. In other words, evaluation could show the significance of the story as well as manifest the evaluative functions of a narrative.

Nakamura's study (1999) used Labov's study to analyze Japanese children's narratives, especially focused on the evaluative devices the participants used. The study was conducted with two goals: first, to examine the types of evaluative devices Japanese children and adults used to construct their oral narratives; second, to manifest the performance in using the evaluative devices across different ages. Children in this study were divided into four age groups: four, five, seven, and nine year olds, and the Mayer's (1969) frog story book was used to collect children's language samples. The results showed not much difference in number of evaluative usages across ages; however, nine-year-old groups tended to use the fewest evaluative devices. The result differed from Bamberg and Damrad-Frye's study (1991), which focused on English-speaking children's narratives, pointing that adults used more evaluative devices than 5-year-old and 9-year-old children did.

Labov's framework of narrative structure has been extensively drawn on in narrative studies of Indo-European languages. For example, Ulla (1996) compared monolingual and bilingual children's narrative structures using the narrative structure rules generated by Labov (1972). In this study, 19 monolingual Swedish-speaking children (control group) and 19 Finnish-speaking immersion students with Swedish as their first language participated. The study analyzed the development of the second language of immersion students and also compared their

second language development to the control group. The frog story was also used as the elicitation material. Results showed that the immersion students presented almost as many plot components and subcomponents in an episode as the control group students did. Moreover, adequate linguistic expressions were also used to describe the initiative aspects of the story told by the immersion students. As for the performance of wrapping up the story, the immersion students and the control group showed no differences in indicating anaphoric reference.

In addition to Ulla's research, which used Labov's narrative structure to analyze monolingual and bilingual children's narrative development, another study also adopted this model to examine the narrative production of Chinese-speaking children with reading disability. Lu's study (2003) discovered the relation between oral language performance and literacy, from the perspective of idea packing. She made a comparison between children of learning disability (LD) and normal children (control group). Twenty-one first- and second-graders with ages from 6; 10 to 7; 11 participated in the study. The tasks administered were made up of two narrative tasks: look-and-say task and retelling task. Children's stories were examined using narrative structure analysis and grammatical analysis. The narrative structure analysis showed that LD children did not perform as well as the control children did, especially in orientation, complication actions, resolution, and evaluation categories. As for the grammatical analysis, the LD children showed limited performance on some grammatical usages, including nouns, classifiers, or causal connectives. According to the study, it is concluded that there was a correlation between Chinese-speaking LD children's oral language performance and their literacy proficiency. The study further pointed out that Labov's narrative structure (1972) could be used to analyze the narrative structure of children with or

without reading disabilities.

In line with the narrative structures generated by Labov (1972), the story grammar model proposed by Stein and Glenn (1979) has been used most frequently to analyze children's narratives. Compared to Labov's narrative structure (1972) which has been developed for analyzing the functional components, the story grammar proposed by Stein and Glenn (1979) provides a more complete framework for analyzing the interrelationships between eposodes. This model shows macrostructure components of a story as well as the semantic interrelationships among the elements. According to Stein and Glenn (1979), a story may consist of one or more related episodes; episodes may be linked additively, temporally, causally, or contractively. A model episode contains some or all of the components, which include setting, initiating event, reactions and attempts, consequence, reaction or resolution, and ending.

Numerous studies have used the components defined by Stein and Glenn (1979) to analyze the story structure in their research (Applebee, 1978; Gillam, McFadden, & van Kleeck, 1995; Hughes, McGillivray, & Schmidek, 1997; Stein & Glenn, 1979; Westby, 1984). For example, Merritt and Liles (1979) used Stein and Gleen's (1979) story grammar rule to analyze children narratives. In their study, 20 children with language impairment and normal language (control group) aged raging from 9; 0 to 11; 4 were examined. Both groups of children were asked to generate and retell stories. The results indicated that language-impaired children, compared to the control group, tended to produce stories with fewer complete story episodes, lower mean number of main and subordinate clauses, and also lower frequency of using story grammar components. Moreover, the study further indicated that the two groups did not perform differently in understanding the

factual details but did show different performance in comprehension of the relationships between the episodes that link the stories together.

Analyzing children's narratives using story grammar analysis has been an established method to describe and identify language development and disorders among monolingual children (Gillam, McFadden, & van Kleeck, 1995; Merritt & Liles, 1987; Roth & Spekman, 1986). It is noted that children's narratives can be used as an important tool to examine children with language disorders; therefore, a study was conducted to compare story retellings of learning-disabled (LD) and nondisabled children (ND) and across different age groups (Griffith, Ripich, & Dastoli, 1986). The outcome measures of the study were the story event correctly recalled, story structures, propositions, and cohesive devices produced by both groups of children. Twenty-four LD children and 27 ND children participated and were asked to retell three stories read to them, which were labeled easy, medium, and hard on the basis of number of events. The results indicated that LD children performed as well as ND children did both on the amount of information they recalled and on the story organization according to the story grammar. However, all children were capable of accurately recalling the initialing events and the consequences while LD children had great difficulty in recalling the internal response and the internal plan. With respect to the developmental differences, older children in both LD and ND groups recalled more events than the younger children did. In addition, they tended to produce more inaccurate statements in longer stories. This study suggested that children with different learning abilities and different ages performed variously in story telling and story grammar.

Only scarce information on the development of story structure among non-English-speaking children is available. Hang's study (2006) focused on the

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production of goals and plans in narratives of Cantonese-speaking children. The study firstly provided the introduction to the categories and division to various approaches to narrative analysis. The study indicated that different approaches focused on different aspects of narrative productions (Berman, 1995), including content, structure, and relationship between form and function of narratives respectively. In addition, two streams of methods in studying the content of narratives were introduced in this study: story grammar components (Stein & Glenn, 1979) and goal-plans (Berman, 1995). The goal-plan analysis could be considered as a variation of story grammar. Therefore, in Hang's study (2006), the development of goal-plan components in normally developing children was analyzed. A total of 100 kindergarten and primary school children whose primary language was Cantonese participated in this study. There were from different age groups: 3; 0, 4; 0, and 5; 0. The goal-plan components investigated in this study were setting, initiating events, attempts, and outcomes. The results showed that children acquired different goal-plan components at different ages: setting at the age of seven, attempt at the age of nine, and outcome at age five.

Within the extensive literature on children's narrative development, literature on narrative development of EFL children with Chinese as their native language has emerged in a relatively slow and limited way. Although there were some bilingual or cross-language narrative studies, most of them focused on the microlevel (e.g., cohesion) of children's narrative. Therefore, the present work aims to examine development of the narrative structure of EFL children in Taiwan.

The purpose of this study was to examine the narrative development of Taiwanese EFL children, using the analyses of story grammar proposed by Stein and Glenn (1979). First, in order to see the developmental trajectory of narrative

development, narratives produced by two age groups—school-aged and preschool

children-- were compared. Second, both Chinese and English narratives were also

examined to further understand the differences between the two languages.
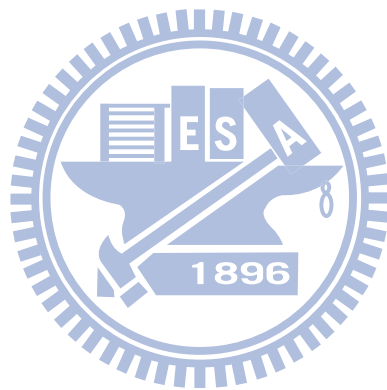
CHAPTER THREE

METHOD

The Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the narrative development of Chinese-English speaking children in Taiwan. Children's stories was obtained from the narrative language samples using the wordless picture book, *Frog, Where Are You?* (Mayer, 1969). All children's stories were analyzed according to Stein and Glenn's (1979) story grammar. Background of participants, materials, data collection procedures, transcription and coding procedures will be presented in the following sections.
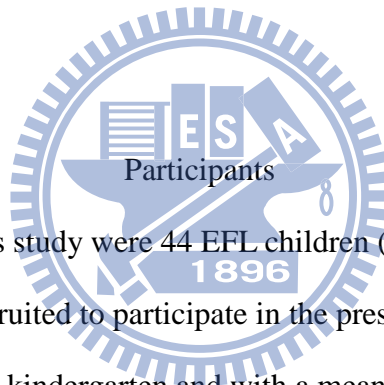
Participants

The participants of this study were 44 EFL children (16 boys and 28 girls). Two groups of children were recruited to participate in the present study: 21 of them were from an English-immersion kindergarten and with a mean age of five years and 11 months (range = 4; 10 - 6; 10), while the other 23 were from an afterschool program with a mean age of nine years and two months (range = 7; 11- 10; 00). A large percentage of their parents received college education or higher degrees (preschool children's paternal education: 82%, maternal education: 82%; school-aged children's paternal education: 83%, maternal education: 79%). A certain percentage of their parents worked as high-level or senior administrators (preschool children's paternal occupation: 59%, maternal occupation: 36%; school-aged children's paternal occupation: 58%; maternal occupation: 43%).

Both of the afterschool program and English-immersion kindergarten were

located in Tainan, Taiwan and belonged to the same educational organization. All children were native speakers of Mandarin Chinese and learning English at preschool ages. Both groups of children exhibited typical language development and had no reported problems with their learning.

English-immersion Kindergarten

Twenty-two children from an English-immersion kindergarten were from K4 and K6 classes (i.e., the fourth and sixth semester in a three-year kindergarten). The kindergarten was an English immersion program where English was the primary medium of instruction. In this immersion program, each class had one classroom teacher who was a native speaker of English from English-speaking country (e.g., the U.S., Canada, Australia, New Zealand, the U.K., or South Africa etc.). The class size was about 10-15 students. Chinese-speaking teachers were the assistants for each of the classroom, but they were not involved in teaching the curriculum. They were responsible for assisting English teachers with classroom management and communicating with students' parents. During lunch hours and naptime, they also provided necessary care of children.

A typical day at the English-immersion kindergarten started with aerobics at 8:30 a.m. with MPM (Multi-Process-Model) math, computer, lunch hours, and nap time followed. The afternoon lessons included music, movement, arts, and English reading and writing. The school day ended at 5 p.m. This English-immersion program was locally renowned and was charged with high fee. Therefore, the children recruited were mostly form middle- or upper-middle-class families.

After School Program
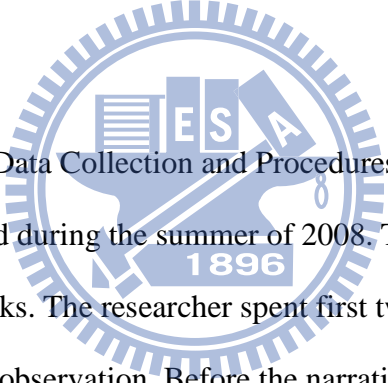
After-school program included six levels corresponding to the six grades in elementary schools. It provided elementary-school students with English training after they finished school lessons. Most students in this program came to this program twice a week and some of them came every week day. Every class lesson was instructed by a native English-speaking teacher and class sessions lasted two hours every day. Three Chinese-speaking teachers were responsible for the primary-level (e.g., first and second grader of elementary school), middle-level (e.g., third and fourth grader) and high-level (e.g., fifth and sixth graders) students respectively.

Materials

The wordless picture book, *Frog, Where Are You?* (Mayer, 1969) was used in this study. It was chosen because it standardizes the content of expressions with extensively analyzed structure (Bamberg, 1987; Merman & Slobin, 1994), which was easy for children to comprehend and to describe. The story includes different goal and plan elements as well as a complete structure for doing the research of story grammar. In addition, the book is not commonly available, and thus the participants would not have prior exposure to this book. The wordless feature of this picture book allows children not to be constrained by the writer's intended storyline. Given these special characteristics of this picture book, it has been adopted as a worldwide research tool to examine children's narratives.

The book included 24 pictures without literate instructions and it has been widely used in narrative research. The story illustrates the adventures of a boy and a dog during their search for a lost frog. The two main characters go through a series of troubles during the process. At the beginning of the story, the picture shows a boy and

a dog looking at a frog inside a jar. In scene two, the boy and the dog fall asleep and the frog leaves the jar. Scene 3 shows that they find the jar empty and realize that their frog is gone. The initiating events shown in scene two and three cause the boy and the dog develop a goal to search for the frog. In the following scenes, the boy starts a series of attempts to find the frog back. Several plots sequentially happened, including looking for the frog inside the room, at the window, and outside in the forest. As they find the frog in the forest, they encounter several troubles as well. All attempts end in failure, and each of the failures leads to another attempt. The boy and the dog finally find the frog in scene 22 behind a log near a lake. Besides the frog, other frogs are also founded. As a result, the boy finishes his attempts and successfully takes the frog back.

Data Collection and Procedures

The data were collected during the summer of 2008. The procedure of data collection lasted for six weeks. The researcher spent first two weeks staying in the classroom and did the class observation. Before the narration task, school and parental permission (See Appendix A) were obtained and parents completed a brief demographic questionnaire (See Appendix B and C). During the data collection process, the participants were invited individually into a quiet classroom. Each participant was first presented with Test of Nonverbal Intelligence (TONI) test (Brown, Sherbenou, & Johnsen, 1990), which is a language-free measure of cognitive ability. The TONI test was conducted to ensure the participants had comparable and typical cognitive functioning according to their age norm. Each participant was presented with the wordless picture book and began with looking through it. After they finished looking through the book, each child was given all time they needed to

plan and tell the story. The participants were asked to tell the story in Chinese and English respectively without the adult's support at two different times in separate occasions. Finally, parental socioeconomic information was collected as well (See Appendix D).

The participants' storytelling was initiated by the researcher's saying, "Can you tell me what is happening in this book?" During the story-telling process, the researcher only gave general, neutral subprompts such as "uh-huh," "Tell me more," "Then what happened?" or to restate the participants' last utterance in response to the child's answers to avoid adult's interference. Children first told the stories in Chinese, their supposedly stronger language, so as to increase familiarity with the tasks. At least 3 days later, the same procedure was repeated in English. The reason for the interval was to control the practice effect, which could also avoid the direct translation from Chinese story to English story. Figure 1 shows the flow chart of the data collection procedures.
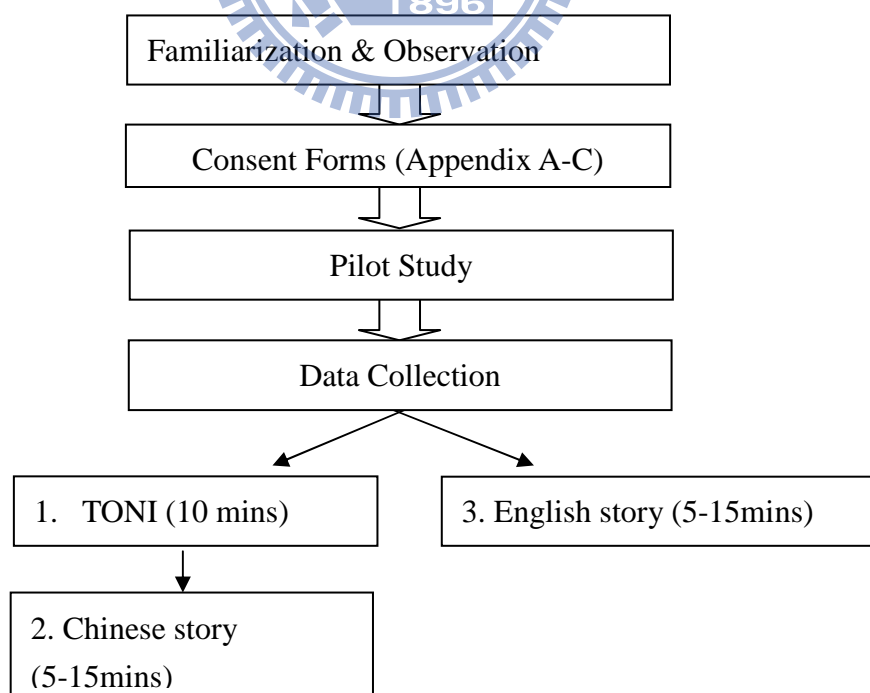
Figure 1. Flow chart of the data collection procedures.

The whole process of performing the task was digitally-recorded, and the transcription of children's stories in Chinese and English followed conventions from the Systematic Analysis of Language Transcripts (See Appendix E) or SALT software (Miller et al., 2006).

Transcription Procedures

All Chinese and English narratives were first transcribed by two trained graduated students. After transcription, modified communication unit (C-unit) was used to segment the narratives. Next, the story grammar model proposed by Stein and Glenn (1979) was adopted to analyze each story.

The digital sound files of children's narrative samples were transcribed and analyzed in verbatim. Two trained Chinese-English speaking graduate students in the Institute of TESOL of National Chiao-Tung University independently transcribed the Chinese and English oral narratives into computer text files, following transcription conventions of the SALT (Miller et al., 2006).

Next, Communication Unit (C-unit) (Loban, 1976) was used to define utterance segmentation. In this study, two sets of language data—Chinese and English were segmented following the same rules. A C-unit is defined as the independent clause with its modifier, which includes no more than one independent clause and any other related dependent clauses. However, there were difficulties using Loban's C-unit definition (1976) to segment children's Chinese stories. Therefore, the "modified C-unit" was further defined. Take English language for example, the main clauses were segmented with the conjoined simple coordinate conjunctions (e.g., and, but). For example, in English sentences:

"The frog came out/ and jump out the window."

The above sentence was segmented into two C-units according to the rules of segmenting with conjoined simple coordinate conjunction "and." While in Chinese samples, sentences like the following were segmented into two C-units as well:

"Ta　ting dao　qing wa　di　sheng yin,　/ran hou　ta jiu　jiao

He　heard　frog　's　sound　then　he　shout

他　聽到　青蛙　的　聲音　，　然後　他 就　叫

gou gou　an jing."

dog　quite

狗狗　安靜

He heard the frog's sound, and then he wanted the dog to be quite.

As shown in the above, the sentence was segmented into two C-units because of the coordinate conjunction "then."

An initial transcription for both Chinese and English samples was completed by the author, which was then reviewed and examined by the other graduate student transcribers. Once transcribed and mutually examined, narratives were coded for story grammar.

Transcription Reliability

In order to ensure the transcription reliability, 20 % of all stories was randomly selected for inter-rater reliability and independently transcribed by another trained graduate student. Both Chinese and English stories achieved reliability above 90% (Chinese: 93%; English: 92%).

Data Analyses

After children's narratives were segmented into C-units, they were further

analyzed using the story grammar components. After that, all of children's stories

were categorized into different story grammar levels suggested by Westby et al. (1984;

1986). In addition, the descriptive analyses of children's stories were also illustrated.

Story Grammar Analyses

To examine children's development of story structure, story grammar (Stein &

Glenn, 1979) was used for the method of analysis. Story grammar specifies the natural

components of a story, the interrelationships as well as the roles of each component in

the global story macrostructure. People develop schemes for story structure and use

the schemes to comprehend and produce stories (Stein & Trabasso, 1982). Different

story grammar models have been developed by other researchers (Colby & Prince,

1973; Halliday & Hasan, 1976). The one proposed by Stein and Glenn (1979) has

been the most frequently used one in analyzing children's narrative productions.

According to Stein and Glenn (1979), a story consists of one or more episodes, and a

model episode contains some or all of the components including (1) setting, (2)

initiating event, (3) reactions and attempts, (4) consequence, (5) reaction or resolution,

and (6) ending. The description and example of each story component are presented in

Table 1.

Table 1
Story Structure Components

Component	Description
1. Setting (S)	Where and when the story takes place; the character(s); and the social, physical, or temporal contexts in which the story occurs. Example: It was a dark night, and a child is called Tom.
2. Initiating Event (IE)	The situation or problem to which a character must respond. Example: When Tom was sleeping, the frog ran away.
2. Reaction (Internal Response = IR):	
Internal State (IS)	The psychological state (feeling, desired goal) of the character after the initiating event. Example: Tom was very nervous.
Internal Plan (IP)	A character's strategy for attaining a goal Example: He searched everywhere in his room.
Behavior/ Action (B)	A non-goal-directed behavior or action in response to the initiating event Example: They looked out through the window (IP),/ but the bottle fell down and broke (B).
4. Attempt (A)	What the character does to reach the goal Example: They went outside and shouted out: frog, where are you?
5. Consequence (C)	The character's success of failure in achieving a goal Example: The boy looked for the tree (IE),/ but a group of bees ran after him (C).
6. Resolution/ Reaction (R)	The character's feelings, thought, or actions in response to the consequence of attaining or not attaining the goal.

Example: The boy was happy to find the frog.

7. Ending (E)	A statement announcing the conclusion of the story, summarizing the story, or stating a moral or general principle.
	Example: The frog and its parents lead a happy life forever.
	A good deed is always repaid.

Note. Adopted from "*Analyzing storytelling skills: Theory to practice,*" by N. L. Hedberg and C. E. Westby, 1993, Arizona: Communication Skill builders.

However, not all of these components are essential to form a story. Stein (1979) suggested that a minimally complete episode must contain at least three components, that is an initiating event, an attempt, and a consequence. Therefore, children's stories in the present study were viewed as containing different episodes, and each episode should include at least those three components. As for the episodes depicted in the picture book, the followings were apparent and should be described by the narrator to tell a clear and complete story: (1) the characters searched for the frog in the room, (2) the characters went out of the house and toward the forest to find the frog, (3) the boy looked in a hole which a skunk came, (4) the dog shook the beehive down the tree and was then chased by the bees, (5) the boy climbed up a tree and an owl came out from a hole, (6) the boy was carried by the deer on its horn and was thrown into the river, (7) the boy and the dog heard the frog's sound and happily found the frog, and (8) finally, they took one frog home.

Coding Reliability

In order to ensure the coding reliability, 20 % of the story grammar coding was randomly selected for inter-rater reliability. Eighty-eight percent of children's stories

achieved reliability.

Children's narratives (e.g., C-units) were coded according to the story structure components listed in Table 1. Next, the Story Grammar Analysis Form (see Appendix F) was used to analyze and calculate the story structure components of each narrative. It was the hope of the study that the form could provide clear and systematic presentation of children's narratives.

Levels of Story Grammar

After children's story grammar was coded, it was further categorized for different levels according to the eight-stage hierarchy modified by Westby et al. (1984; 1986) (See Table 2). According to Hedberg and Westby (1993), "knowledge of the interrelationship between cognitive and language provided insight into the way in which texts are structured and comprehend" (p.7). In other words, the narrative structure emerge out of the cognitive knowledge and thought processes used in the construction of story content.

Table 2

Progression of Narrative Development

Level/Age	Cognitive Bases for Content	Structure
Preschool Isolated Description (ID)	Ability to label objects and actions	Unrelated words and statements; no story grammar elements.
Descriptive Sequence (DS)	Ability to describe objects, characters, and setting.	Content of statements is related to characters, or setting; no temporal order; no story grammar

		elements
Action Sequence (AS)	Ability to focus on less salient aspects of a scene or character and interpret an activity.	Actions are temporally but no casually related; chronological order is based on perception, not necessarily on awareness of the temporal order.
Reactive Sequence (RS)	Awareness of physical cause-effect relationships among events.	Events begin to be chained; no planning is involved; story at least has IE and C; may also have setting and ending.
Early Elementary School Abbreviated Episode (AE)	Awareness of psychological causality for primary emotions.	Centering and chaining present; story describes goals or intentions of characters, but planning must be inferred; story has IE, IR, and C; may also have S, R, to C, and E.
Complete Episodes (CE)	Further development of psychological causality; meta-awareness of planning and need to plan; ability to take perspectives of others.	Centering and chaining present; goals and intentions are clear; evidence of planning story has IE, IR, A, and C.
Late Elementary School Complex Episodes (CXE)	Ability to detect description or trickery and to deceive or trick; awareness of time cycles.	Story includes obstacles and multiple attempts to reach goal.
Embedded Episode (EE)	Understanding of complex time relationship; ability	Story includes at least two episodes; first episode is

| | to coordinate multiple schemas. | interrupted by second episode, then resumes after second episode is completed. |

The purpose of the present study was to examine Taiwanese EFL children's oral narratives in Chinese and English. The developmental changes in children's stories across two age groups and the similarities and differences of children's story structures in the two languages were explored. Children's narratives in Chinese and English were collected using Mayer's frog story (1969). Story grammar model proposed by Stein and Glenn (1979) was used to analyze their stories. It was expected that children demonstrated significant developmental changes in the story structure, and linguistic differences in the EFL children's stories were also examined.
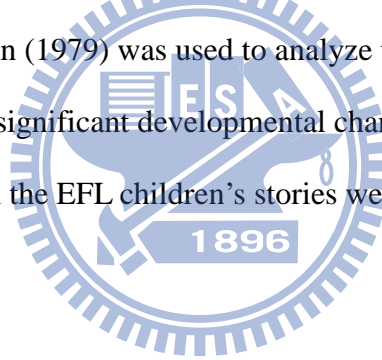
CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to explore the developmental changes in

Taiwanese EFL children's stories as well as to examine Chinese and English

cross-language differences in narrative structure. In this chapter, descriptive analyses

of the narrative structure are presented. The results of the analyses include: (1)

productivity of narratives and (2) analyses of children's overall performance in

Chinese and English stories.

Descriptive Analyses of Children's Stories

After examining children's stories, there were five patterns of the qualitative

analyses to be further explained which included: (1) story sequence, (2) correct

information provided, (3) the awareness of psychological statues, (4) the use of

repetition, and (5) story opening and ending. All children's stories were counted as

one incident as long as there was at least one appearance of these productions

mentioned above. More specifically, for the story sequence, the number of the stories

not following prescribed sequences was divided by the total number of stories and

then converted to the percentage of stories which did not follow the prescribed

sequences. Second, the percentage of correct information provided by the children

was calculated by dividing the number of the stories containing at least one incorrect

information with the total number of stories. Similarly, the number of the stories with

at least one mentioning of psychological states was divided by the total number of

stories and yielded the percentage of children's productions of internal states.

Children's use of repetition was also calculated in the same manner. Finally, the ways

the children in the study start and end their stories were also examined and compared

across the age groups and the two languages.

Productivity of Narratives

The children's narrative productivity in each language was measured by the number of C-units and the number of episodes. Table 3 shows the results of the average number of C-units produced by the participants in each age group.

Table 3

Means and Standard Deviations of Number of C-units Produced by Preschool and School-aged Children Respectively in Chinese and English Narratives

	Chinese Narratives		English Narratives	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Preschool (N=21)	38.71	9.42	34.90	8.50
School-aged (N=23)	39.17	8.84	36.65	12.53
Two Groups Combined	38.95	9.02	35.82	10.71

As Table 3 shows, the preschool children and the schooled-aged children produced an almost equal mean number of C-units in both languages. Results showed that although the preschool children's C-units in Chinese (*M* preschool children = 38.71, *SD* = 9.42) is slightly fewer than the school-aged children's (*M* school-aged children = 39.17, *SD* = 8.85), the difference was not significant, $t(42) = -.17$, $p = .87$. As for the children's English C-units, although the preschool children's average English C-units (*M* = 34.90, *SD* = 8.50) is slightly lower than the school-aged children's (*M* = 36.65, *SD* = 12.53), the difference was also not significant, $t(42) =$

-.54, *p* = .60.

In addition, Table 3 also showed the results of mean number of C-units in

Chinese and English stories produced by both groups of children combined. The

paired sample *t*-test showed that the average number of Chinese C-units produced by

all participants was significantly higher than the English C-units (*M* Chinese C-units =

38.95, *S* = 9.02) shows significant higher than their English C-units (*M* English

C-units = 35.82, *S* = 10.71), *t* (43) = 2.36, *p* =.02.

Table 4 showed the number of episodes produced by the preschool and

school-aged children, which accounts for their abilities in producing a complete and

complex story. In Chinese stories, the preschool children produced an average of 6.86

episodes (*SD* = .91), which is similar to the result for Chinese stories produced by the

school-aged children (*M* school-*aged* = 6.74, *SD* = 1.14). Both the preschool children

and the school-aged children also produced similar episodes in English stories (*M*

preschool children = 6.43, *SD* = 1.17; *M* school-aged children = 6.39, *SD* =1.50). The

results of pair-sample *t*-tests also did not show significant differences between the two

age groups on the number of episodes in both Chinese (*t* (43) = .38, *p* =.71) and

English (*t* (43) = .09, *p* =.93).

Table 4 also shows the number of episodes produced by both groups of children.

There was a moderately significant difference between the participants' average

Chinese (*M* = 6.80, *SD* = 1.03) and English (*M* = 6.41, *SD* = 1.34) story episodes, *t*

(43) =2.06, *p* = .05.

Table 4

Means and Standard Deviations of Number of Episodes Produced by
Preschool and School-aged Children Respectively in Chinese and English
Narratives

	Chinese Narratives		English Narratives	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Preschool (N=21)	6.86	.91	6.43	1.175
School-aged (N=23)	6.74	1.14	6.39	1.50
Two Groups Combined	6.80	1.03	6.41	1.34

Analyses of Children's Chinese and English Stories

Both preschool and school-aged children's narratives were categorized into an eight-stage hierarchy of story grammar which was adopted from Westby et al. (1984; 1986). The eight-stage hierarchy (Westby et al., 1988; 1986) includes eight different levels of story grammar development which are (1) isolated description, (2) descriptive sequence, (3) action sequence, (4) reactive sequence, (5) abbreviated episode, (6) complete episode, (7) complex episode, and (8) embedded episode. Table 5 shows the results of levels of story grammar produced by both groups. Table 5 is the result of categorization of preschool children's performance, which shows that the preschool children's Chinese narratives fall into three levels: action sequence, reactive sequence, and abbreviated episode. According to the table, most preschool children (Chinese narratives: 76.2%; English narratives: 95.2%) produced stories that were categorized as the Reactive Sequence (RS). Based on the eight-stage hierarchy (Westby et al., 1984; 1986), RS is the highest level of preschool children development. According to Table 5, it can also be found that four children's Chinese stories reached

the level of Abbreviated Episode (AE), which is the level described as early elementary school. In addition, there were four children's Chinese stories falling into AE level, which is more than that of English stories (one child only). Table 5 also shows that one preschool child's Chinese story fell into the AS level, which is the lowest level of all.

As shown in Table 5, it indicates the result of categorization of school-aged children's Chinese and English stories. A comparison between the preschool and school-aged children showed that the school-aged children's story levels are more varied. Compared to the preschool children's three story levels, stories produced by the school-aged children were categorized into five levels: Reactive Sequence (RS), Abbreviated Episode (AE), Complete Episode (CPE), Complex Episode (CXE), and Embedded Episode (EE). Except for the RS level, which is the level of preschool-age group, AE and CPE belong to the early-elementary-school level, while CXE and EE are included in the level of late elementary school. According to Table 5, most of the school-aged children's stories (Chinese stories: 47.8%; English narratives: 39.1%) were categorized as CXE, and there were one school-aged child's Chinese stories and two English stories falling into the RS level, one of the developmental levels of preschool children. Moreover, equal number of children (four children respectively) produced Chinese and English stories which are categorized as the level of EE.

According to Table 5, the total percentage of Chinese narratives at early elementary school level (30.4%) is lower than English narratives (34.7%). On the other hand, the total percentage of Chinese narratives at late elementary school (65.2%) is higher than English narratives (56.5%). The results reveal that both groups produced more complete stories with higher story levels in Chinese than in English.

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Table 5

Levels of Story Grammar of Preschool Children's and School-Aged
Children's Chinese and English Stories

Level	Chinese Narratives		English Narratives	
	Preschool	School-aged	Preschool	School-aged
Preschool				
Isolated Description (ID)	-NA-	-NA-	-NA-	-NA-
Descriptive Sequence (DS)	-NA-	-NA-	-NA-	-NA-
Action Sequence (AS)	1 (4.8%)	-NA-	-NA-	-NA-
Reactive Sequence (RS)	16 (76.2%)	1 (4.3%)	20 (95.2%)	2 (8.7%)
Early Elementary School				
Abbreviated Episode (AE)	4 (19.0%)	3 (13.0%)	1 (4.8%)	5 (21.7%)
Complete Episode (CPE)	-NA-	4 (17.4%)	-NA-	3 (13.0%)
Late Elementary School				
Complex Episode (CXE)	-NA-	11 (47.8%)	-NA-	9 (39.1%)
Embedded Episode (EE)	-NA-	4 (17.4%)	-NA-	4 (17.4%)

Comparisons between Preschool Children's and School-aged Children's Stories

The first research question in this study asked how Taiwanese preschool

children's Chinese and English stories differ from school-aged children's. The

qualitative analyses showed that the preschool children's story structure differed from

the school-aged children's in the following aspects: (1) story sequencing, (2) correct

information provided, (3) the awareness of psychological states, (4) the use of

repetition, and (5) story opening and ending. In the following analyses, the frequency

and percentage of children's production was presented in order to specify the

differences between preschool children's and school-aged children's story production.

Table 6

Comparisons between Preschool and School-aged Children's Stories

_____

	Preschool children (N=21)		School-aged children (N=23)	
Percentage	Chinese	English	Chinese	English
Story sequencing	15 (71%)	16 (76%)	11 (48%)	11 (48%)
Incorrect or irrelevant information provided	8 (38%)	10 (49%)	2 (8%)	4 (17%)
Awareness of psychological states	13 (62%)	14 (67%)	19 (83%)	19 (83%)
Repetition sentences	6 (29%)	7 (33%)	2 (9%)	0 (0%)

Several differences between the preschool children's and the school-aged

children's narratives were found. First, it was found that the preschool children tended

to tell the plots not in the exact sequence as prescribed by the picture book. Each plot

belongs to a fixed episode, and the combination of different episodes in the correct

sequence makes the whole story meaningful and reasonable. However, the preschool

children were more likely to produce stories without a well-organized structure. As

Table 6 indicates, 71% of preschool children's Chinese stories and 76% of their

English stories showed obviously higher percentages of disorganization than the

school-aged children did (48% for Chinese and English respectively).

Excerpt 1 shows one preschool child's Chinese story which is not in the exact sequence as prescribed in the picture book. According to the content (IE=initiating event, A=attempt, B=behavior, C=consequence), IE4 stands for the plot described by the child which is the Initiating Event belonging to the fourth episode; A3 stands for the plot described, the Attempt belonging to the third episodes; B4 stands for the plot which is the Behavior fitted into the fourth episode; C5 stands for the Consequence belonged to the fifth episode. Therefore, as shown in the Excerpt 1, the preschool child mixed different plots (the episodes moving from 3 to 4 to 5 and back to 4) which made the whole paragraph unreasonable and incoherent. On the other hand, the school-aged child produced the story with correct order as prescribed in the picture book, which makes the whole story more well-organized.

Following is an excerpt from one preschool child's story in Chinese:

Excerpt 1:

A3: 他在看青蛙在哪邊。

He was looking for the frog.

B3: 然後狗狗也看著。

And the dog was looking for the frog, too.

IE4: 狗狗看到蜜蜂生卵的地方的時候,

When the dog saw the bee's places,

B4: 一直在搖呀搖…一直在跳。

It kept shaking and jumping.

IE5: 這個男孩也在裡面挖,看看有沒有小青蛙。

This boy also dug the hole to see whether the frog was there.

B4: 這個狗狗一直在搖,搖到蜜蜂生卵的地方都掉下來。

The dog kept shaking until the beehives fell.

C5: 這男孩也挖到一個很像老鼠。

This boy also got something looked like a mouse.

B4: 蜜蜂生卵的地方掉下來的時候，

When the beehive fell,

C5: 松鼠看。

The squirrel also looked at it.

Following is an excerpt from one school child's story in Chinese:

Excerpt 2:

A2: 他到很多地方去找它，

He went to many places to look for the frog.

IE3: 他到洞裡面去找它，

He went to the hole to look for it.

C2: 然後有一隻松鼠跑來，

Then there came our a squirrel.

IE3: 然後蜜蜂的窩掉下來了，

Then the beehive fell down.

B3: 然後很多蜜蜂跑出來，

Then there came out many bees.

C3: 然後蜜蜂就追著那一隻小狗，

Then the bees chased after the dog.

IE4: 有一隻貓頭鷹也來了，

There came an owl.

B4: 就啄那個男孩的頭。

And it pecked the boy on his head.

Excerpt 3 shown below was the narratives produced by one preschool child, whose story was not in the exact sequence as prescribed in the picture book, while Excerpt 4 was an example produced by one school-aged child. As indicated by Excerpt 3, compared to the school-aged child, it is apparent that the preschool child mixed different plots as in his/her Chinese story.

Following is an excerpt from one preschool child's story in English:

Excerpt 3

> IE3: And the boy go [EW: went] out of the house
>
> A3: and shouted. "frog, where are you?"
>
> IE4: And the dog is smelling the bees.
>
> IE5: And the boy shouted inside a hole under the ground.
>
> A5: and shouted. "frog, where are you?
>
> B4: And the dog is finding the bee's house.
>
> A5: And the boy shouted.
>
> C5: And the mouse come [EW: came] out.

Following is an excerpt from one school-aged child's story in English:

Excerpt 4:

> IE3: He go [EW:went] to find his frog.
>
> B3: He find [EW: found] the mouse hole,
>
> C3: then the mouse go*/goes outside.
>
> IS3: The boy is angry.
>
> IE4: The he climb*/ed up the tree,
>
> B4: he see [EW: saw] inside the tree.

B4: He see [EW: saw] inside one bird hole,

B4: and that bird fly [EW: flew] outside.

.

The second difference focused in the percentage of correct information provided by the two groups of children. According to Table 6, more incorrect and irrelevant information was provided by the preschool children (Chinese: 38%; English: 49%) than by the older group (Chinese: 8%; English: 17%).

Following is an example from one preschool child's Chinese story:

Excerpt 5:

老鷹就飛走了。

The eagle flew away.

小朋友不敢聽牠的聲音，

The little kid dared not to listen to it.

小朋友一直學牠的聲音叫，

The little kid kept making sound like it.

小朋友就被卡住了，

The little kid was stuck.

結果是卡在鹿那裏，

It turned out that he was stuck by a deer.

鹿跟狗狗是一個好夥伴一起跑，

The deer and the dog were good partners and ran together.

結果他們兩個沒有發現就掉下去了，

As a result, they did not notice and fell down.

他們就在一起玩水。

They played in the water together.

Following are examples from one preschool child's English story:

Excerpt 6:

The frog house is broken.

But this boy is frog*.

Excerpt 7:

This boy come [EW: came] down angry the dog.

This boy are [EW: is] singing.

Excerpt 8:

Morning and he think [EW: thought] have frog don't have in a house.

He let dog fall down.

The little boy jump/*ed out.

And hug/*ged that frog.

He save/*d frog.
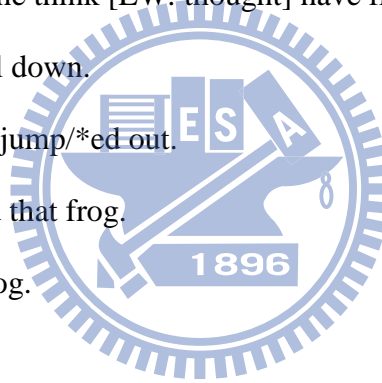
Excerpt 5 is a Chinese example produced by one preschool child, while Excerpt 6 to 8 are examples produced by one preschool child in English. According to the Excerpt 5, much incorrect information is provided. For example, the child mentioned that "他不敢聽它的聲音" is a wrong description, while according to the picture, the child put his hand onto the ear because he tries to listen to the sound. The child made a wrong judgment. In addition, sentences such as "小朋友一直學牠的聲音叫" and "鹿跟狗狗是一個好夥伴一起跑" are not correct information from the picture book. Excerpt 6 told that the frog house is broken, which is not depicted in the storybook. In addition, the sentence "but this boy is frog" is an incorrect description. In Excerpt 7,

the child indicated that this boy came down and was angry at the dog. This statement is not related to the next sentence "this boy are singing." At the same time, the "the boy are singing" is not the correct description shown in the storybook. In Excerpt 8, the little boy did not "save" the dog. The child made a wrong inference from the book that the dog was saved by the child. From the excerpts given above, clear evidence suggested that the preschool children tended to make more incorrect inferences and provide irrelevant information when telling stories.

In the analyses of the children's stories, the two groups differed in their awareness of psychological states (i.e., internal state). Table 6 also shows the percentage of stories containing psychological states. Eighty-three percent of the school-aged children's Chinese and English stories clearly described the character's internal state, which is higher than those of preschool children (Chinese: 62%; English: 67%).
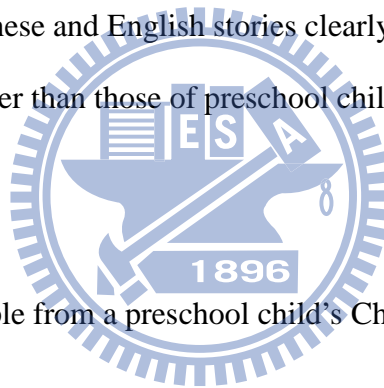
Following is an example from a preschool child's Chinese stories:

Excerpt 9:

他們兩個在找小青蛙，

They were looking for the frog.

小狗爬下去屋子下找，

The dog went down to the house to find it.

那個小狗就舔那個人，

The dog licked the man.

然後那個人在生氣。

Then the man was angry.

Following are examples from the school-aged children's Chinese stories:

Excerpt 10:

那個狗狗也在找那隻青蛙到底在哪裡，

The dog was also finding the frog.

結果因為它那個頭伸出得太出去了，

It turned out that it stretched its head to close the to window,

所以它掉下去把玻璃給用破了，

So it fell down and broke the window.

結果那個主人很生氣，

Then the owner was very angry,

那個小狗就跟他說對不起。

And the dog said sorry to him.

Excerpt 11:

然後那個小孩打開窗戶在外面一直叫喊他的青蛙，

Then the boy opened the window to shout at his frog.

小狗也跟著跑到窗外面去了，

The dog followed him to the window.

一不小心，小狗摔下去了，

Carelessly, the dog fell down,

然後小男孩說糟糕了，

Then the boy said "Oops!"

然後小狗頭上的玻璃瓶碎掉，

And the dog broke the glass over its head.

那個小男孩就一副恨意生氣的看著這隻小狗。

The boy looked at the dog angrily.

Following are examples from the preschool children's English stories:

Excerpt 12:

It just fall [EW: fell] down.

The boy is [EW: was] angry.

The dog is [EW: was] laughing.

Excerpt 13:

The dog climb/*ed down the house to find.

The dog lick/*ed the man.

The man is [EW: was] angry.

Following is the example from one school-aged child's story in English:

Excerpt 14:

Another day, the dog and the boy look/* ed at the bottle,

And he saw the frog is [EW: was] disappeared.

They are [EW: were] very sad.

...

And the dog is [EW: was] very sad

Because the bottle is [EW: was] on his head.

Excerpt 9 was from one preschool child's Chinese story, while Excerpt 10 and 11 were the same plots produced by the school-aged children. As depicted in Excerpt 9, the preschool child simply told the character's angry emotion; however, as shown in Excerpt 10 and 11, the school-aged children not only told the emotion but also clearly mentioned the reaction of another character (i.e., the dog) to the emotion. Excerpts 12

and 13 were produced by two preschool children who provided simple descriptions of the story character's psychological state (i.e., angry). On the other hand, one school-aged child clearly described the character's emotion (i.e., sad) and further expressed the cause of the character's sadness as depicted in Excerpt 14.

In the preschool children's Chinese and English stories, more instances of repetitions were observed than in their school-aged counterparts. As shown in Table 6, the result of children's usages of repetition when telling stories is also presented. Comparing to school-aged children (Chinese: 9%; English: 0%), preschool children used more repetition sentences (Chinese: 29%; English: 33%).

Excerpts 15 to 19 are the examples of repetition sentences produced by two preschool children in Chinese and in English. From the excerpts, it could be found that the preschool children often repeated the same sentence for two or three times:

Excerpt 15:

蜜蜂全部跑出來，

All of the bees came out.

他要看裡面，

He want to see inside.

他剛剛看裡面，

He just saw inside.

然後就看裡面了。

And then he saw inside.

Excerpt 16:

他爬上樹，

He climbed up the tree.
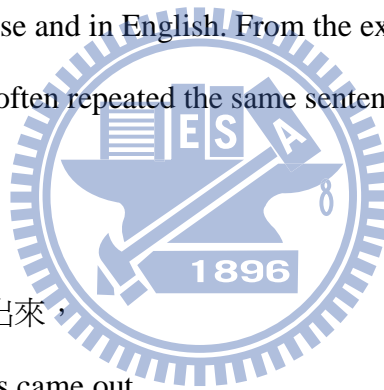
然後他爬到樹木，

Then he climbed to the tree.

然後從樹木掉下來，

Then he fell down from the tree.

因為牠跑出來，

because it came out.

他會嚇一跳，

He was frightened.

他進到一個樹，

He went into a tree.

然後他就嚇一跳。

and he was frightened.

Excerpt 17:

He go [EW: went] to the owl.

Go to owl.

Go to this tree.

Excerpt 18:

Dog just walking [EW: walked].

Dog walk/*ed.

Excerpt 19:

This frog is [EW: was] inside.

And this dog (was) now inside.

And this dog (was) now inside.

And this frog (was) inside.

It is also interesting to note the ways the preschool and school-aged children started telling stories and the way they concluded the stories. Table 7 is the examples of the opening sentences in Chinese and English stories produced by the preschool children, while Table 8 were the opening sentences produced by the school-aged children. From Table 7, it could be found that the patterns preschool children used to start the stories in both languages are similar. Preschool children tended to open the stories using the patterns beginning with a pronoun (e.g., he, they) in both Chinese and English stories. In addition, they also used the patterns with a definite article (e.g., a, the) and the sentences with "there is/was and there are/were. Similarly, as seen in Table 8, the school-aged children used similar sentence patterns to open their stories in both languages (e.g., a pronoun, a definite article, or there is/was sentence).

Table 7

Examples of Ways the Preschool Children Used to Open the Chinese and English Stories:

Chinese	English
A. 他們 (指小男孩和小狗) 抓了一隻青蛙 They (refer to the boy and the dog) caught a forg…	A. There was the little boy and a dog… B. One day /one night… C. I see a frog and a boy…

B. 他 (指小男孩) 抓了一隻青蛙
He (refers to the boy) caught one frog…
	D. The /This boy…
	  The /This frog…
	  The /This dog…

C. 狗、青蛙、還有小男孩 Dog, frog, and little boy…	E. A boy (and a dog)… F. Little boy…
D. 有一個小男孩 There is a little boy…	G. He takes a frog…
E. 有一隻狗狗 There is a little dog…	
F. 有小青蛙 There is a forg…	

| G. 這隻青蛙 | |
| The frog… | |

Table 8

Examples of Ways the School-aged Children Used to Open the Chinese and English Stories:

Chinese	English
A. 從前從前，有一個小男孩…	A. Once upon a time, there was a little
Long long ago, there was a little	boy…
boy…	B. There is one night…
B. 有一個小男孩 (小朋友)	C. The boy and the dog
There is a little boy (little kid)…	D. There was a boy…
C. 有一天(晚上)	E. One day…
One day/ night…	F. One boy…
D. 那個/這個小孩	A boy…
That/ The little boy…	
E. 小男孩	
Little boy…	
F. 他們…	
They…	

However, compared to the preschool children, the school-aged children also used other sentence patterns to start the stories. They often use the sentences starting with "one day/ night" to refer to the time in the stories, giving a clearer introduction to the background of the stories. Moreover, school-aged children also used the formulaic expressions (e.g., 從前從前，有一個小男孩) to start the Chinese stories and used the English formulaic expressions to start English stories (e.g., once upon a time, there was a little boy…). The observations suggested that when the school-aged children produced Chinese and English stories, some of them adopted the formulaic expressions to open the stories.

In addition to the sentence patterns children used to open the stories, observations of the ways children concluded the stories are also provided. Table 9 and 10 are example sentences the preschool and school-aged children used to conclude their Chinese and English stories. According to Table 9, the preschool children produced similar sentences patterns in Chinese and English to conclude their stories. They concluded the stories by directly describing the content of pictures shown in the storybook. On the other hand, as shown in Table 10, the school-aged children used expressions with more varieties to end the stories. They tended to describe the subtle actions of the characters, such as "They waved their hands and said goodbye to the frogs". In addition, most school-aged children also pointed out the character's happy emotions such as "They were very happy" or "They went home happily".

However, compared to the preschool children, the school-aged children provided more complex descriptions of the story ending. They usually incorporated a pleasant psychological state at the end of their stories. For example, "They came home happily" and "Everyone is happy" were used a lot.
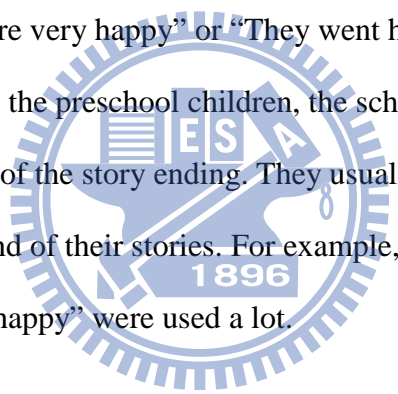
Table 9

Examples of Ways the Preschool Children Used to Conclude the Chinese and English stories:

Chinese	English
A. 他們帶走一隻青蛙 They took away one frog.	A. He took one frog away.
B. 青蛙就很高興 The frog is very happy	B. The boy found the frog…
C. …說再見 …say goodbye	C. He went home.
	D. …say goodbye.

Table 10

Examples of Ways the School-aged Children Used to Conclude the Chinese and English stories:

Chinese	English
A. 他們跟那些青蛙揮手說再見 They waved their hands and said goodbye to the frogs. B. 小男孩就拿走一隻青蛙 The little boy took one frog away. C. 小男孩和小狗便高興的回家了 The little boy and the dog went home happily. D. 他們都很快樂 They were all happy. E. 很高興得走掉了 They went happily.	A. They let the little boy take the frog home. B. They took one frog home/ away. C. They said goodbye. D. Everyone is happy. E. They go home.

Comparisons between Children's Chinese and English Stories

The second research question of this study asked how Taiwanese preschool and school-aged children's Chinese and English stories differ from each other. The focus of this section is to describe different story structures observed in the participants' stories in two languages. The qualitative analyses showed that both groups of children's Chinese and English stories differed in correct information provided and the use of repetition.

One across-language difference was that the children's English stories included more incorrect and irrelevant information than their Chinese stories. According to Table 6, 49% of the preschool children's English stories lacked logic and coherence, which was more than their Chinese stories (38%). The similar results were also found on the school-aged children (Chinese stories: 8%; English stories: 17%).

In addition, the preschool children used more repetition sentences in their English stories than in their Chinese ones. Table 6 also shows that the preschool children produced more repetition in English (33%) than in Chinese (29%). However,

this observation was not applied to the school-aged children. The school-aged

children produced more repetition in Chinese (9%), while there was no repetitive

sentence in English stories. The possible explanation will be provided in the next

chapter.

Excerpt 20 were examples produced by one preschool child in Chinese and

English respectively. They were from the same plots. According to the excerpt, as the

preschool child told the same plots, more repetitions appeared in English than in

Chinese.

Excerpt 20:

Examples of One Preschool Child's Chinese and English Stories

Chinese	English
晚上他們還沒睡覺， 然後他們睡覺的時候 這個青蛙要衝出去。	The frog is inside And…this dog…now in… inside. And…this dog…in… inside.

Summary

In summary, when examining the Taiwanese EFL preschool and school-aged

children's narrative structures in their two languages, several differences were

identified. First, with respect to the narrative productivity, both the preschool children

and the school-aged children produced more C-units in Chinese stories than in

English stories. In addition, both groups produced more episodes in Chinese than in

English. Therefore, the results showed that both groups of children are able to produce

more complex and longer stories in Chinese than in English.

Second, the children's stories were categorized into different story levels. The

results showed that the most preschool children's stories fell into the RS level, while

some were in the AE level. In addition, most school-aged children's stories were categorized into the CXE level, while some were in the lower level (i.e., RS). The overall results also revealed that the levels of the school-aged groups' stories were relatively more scattered than the preschool group.

The analyses of the present study also indicated several developmental changes in the children's stories across the two age groups. First, the preschool children were more likely to produce stories not in the exact sequence prescribed by the picture book than school-aged children. Second, when the preschool children told stories, they produced more incorrect and irrelevant information than the school-aged children. Third, the school-aged children seemed more capable than preschool children in expressing psychological states in the story. Fourth, the preschool children produced more repetitions in telling stories than the school-aged children. Finally, the two groups of children started and concluded the stories in different ways. Unlike the preschool children who started and concluded the stories in simple ways, the school-aged children drew on formulaic expressions and more complex sentences.

Differences were also found in the children's stories across the two languages. English stories included more incorrect or irrelevant information than Chinese stories. In addition, it is interesting to note that more repetitions were found in the preschool children's English stories than in Chinese; the reverse pattern, however, was seen in the school-aged children.

The developmental changes between the two groups of children as well as differences across the two languages were compared as described in this chapter. Discussion and possible explanation of these findings will be presented in chapter 5.

CHPATER FIVE

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The present study examined Taiwanese EFL children's oral narratives in Chinese and English. The study specifically explored the developmental changes and cross-language differences in two age groups of children. The present study first used number of C-units and story episodes to assess the children's narrative productivity. In addition, the current investigation also presented results corresponding to two research questions of this study. The first research question examined children's narrative production across two age groups. Results indicated that the preschool children' stories, compared to the school-aged children's, showed differences in several ways. First, the preschool children, when telling the story, did not follow the exact sequences as prescribed by the picture book. Second, more preschool children's stories contained incorrect or irrelevant information. Third, the preschool children produced fewer expressions about the story characters' psychological states. Fourth, the preschool stories contained more ineffective uses of repetitions. Finally, fewer preschool children drew on formulaic openings or closings to their stories. The second research question compared difference of the children's stories across Chinese and English. The results showed that the children's English stories contained more incorrect information, and the preschool English stories showed extensive but futile instances of repetitions. This chapter discusses possible explanations for these findings.

Narrative Productivity of the Children's Stories

The first analysis of the present study examined the children's narrative productivity. The results showed that both the preschool and school-aged children produced more C-units in Chinese stories than English stories. In other words, the

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preschool and school-aged children told Chinese stories lasting longer on average than their English stories. A possible explanation for this difference is that Chinese is the children's native as well as dominant stronger language. They had more confidence and familiarity in managing and expressing the stories using their native language.

As for number of story episodes, results showed that the preschool and school-aged children produced Chinese stories containing more episodes than their English stories. Results also indicated that children telling stories in their native language had better ability to produce more complete and complex contents than in a second language. They were more able to manage the whole story structures as well as clearly identify the relationship between characters and the cause and effects of plots. This finding suggests Kang's study (2004), which examined the language-specific aspects of the referential system in Korean EFL learners' L1. The results showed that Korean EFL learners' English stories, compared to native English speakers', were less coherent and cohesive.
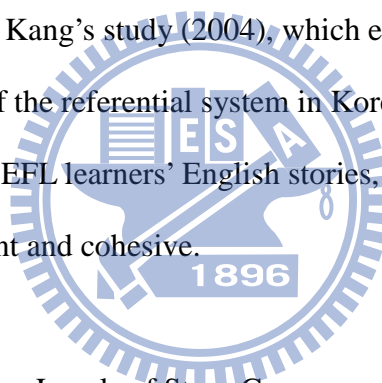
Levels of Story Grammar

The children's narratives in both Chinese and English were categorized into different levels of story grammar based on Westby et al. (1984; 1986). The overall analyses showed that the Taiwanese EFL children of the present study told their Chinese and English stories roughly matched Westby et al.'s eight-stage story grammar. The preschool children's narratives were categorized into three levels: AS, RS, and AE. The former two levels belong to the preschool level, while the last belongs to the early elementary level. Findings showed that most preschool children's stories fitted into the RS level, suggesting that these children were able to chain different events. Children at this level were able to produce stories including initiating

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events and consequence elements, while they presented the setting and ending. The children's stories, however, did not involve any planning. Some of the preschool children were at a higher level (AE). A story of this level is indicative of children's ability to center on a cause-effect sequence of actions. AE-level stories describe goals or intentions of characters and also mention planning. On the other hand, one preschool child's Chinese story was categorized into the preschool AS level, suggests that the child did not specify relationship among characters and had no awareness of temporal order in the story.

Compared to the preschool children's story levels, the levels of the school-aged children's story were more varied, ranging from RS, AE, CPE, CXE, to EE level. Most school-aged children's stories fitted into CXE, the late elementary school level, revealing that their stories included obstacles and multiple attempts to reach the goal. Children at the CXE level also produce more complex stories, including more episodes as well as multiple plans, attempts, and consequences. Some school-aged children's stories were at the early elementary school level (AE & CPE), while one school-aged Chinese story and two English stories were at the preschool level (i.e., RS). Moreover, some of the school-aged children's stories were categorized into the EE level, the highest elementary level, although their average age was only nine years and two months. Children at the EE level could clearly organize the complex relationships of multiple events, and this finding is consistent with Stein and Glenn's study (1982) that fifth graders tell stories which incorporate all the episodic elements into a logical and coherent plot and their stories are more casually connected. Such a wide range of story levels might be explained by the children's years of English learning in the English-immersion school. According to the children's school records, the children who were categorized into the EE level had studied in the immersion

school since they were three years of age, while the children categorized into the RS level began to study in this school at age of seven.

Compared to the preschool children, the school-aged children's abilities in expressing story grammar are more inconsistent. The possible explanation for the difference is that English abilities among school-aged children are more varied. Some children began English learning as early as three, while some started later. This finding is consistent with Montanari's study (2004), which examined the development of narrative competence of children with different English proficiency levels. The result indicated that impoverished linguistic resources might be an important factor to children's poor narrative competence.

Comparison between the Preschool and School-aged Children's Stories

The present study identified some developmental differences in the stories produced by the two age groups. According to Ilgaz and Aksu-Koc (2005), story telling is the combination between the conceptual and linguistic levels. In other words, children should have the ability to produce the components including the characters, goals, actions, or consequences, and also have to organize those components with a narrative schema as well as to express the narratives verbally. In addition, the content of the narratives affects narrative structure (Stein, 1986). Therefore, narrative structures produced by children at the present study could reveal their cognitive recognition at various levels.

First, the results revealed that compared to school-aged children, preschool children were more likely to produce stories not in the exact sequence as prescribed by the picture book. They simply told the stories in their own way, and they also lacked the ability to reorganize plots into correct episodes. The possible explanation

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for this is that younger children might have less ability in organizing stories. They told

stories about whatever they saw, and did not organize the sequence and causality of

different episodes. This result is consistent Minami's study (1996) which examined

Japanese children's narrative development through analyzing their oral narratives. His

study showed that younger children had more difficulty presenting non-sequential

information in their stories, and children's narrative ability showed rapid growth

during the preschool years.

To specifically present the story sequences of the two groups of children's stories,

an example of one preschool child's story grammar analyses in both languages was

shown in Appendix G, while another example of a school-aged child was shown in

Appendix H. According to Appendix G, the preschool child produced Chinese stories

without a clear sequence in expressions among episodes 2 to 5 (IS2-IE3-B3-IE4-B3-

C4-B3-C3-IE5).The preschool child also produced English stories without clear

organization in expressions among episodes 4 to 6 (IS4-IE5-B5-C4-IE6-B6-B6-C5-

B6). On the other hand, Appendix H is the narrative example produced by a

school-aged child, which shows clear sequence and organization in both languages.

The examples suggest that the school-aged child had the ability to tell stories

according to the sequence prescribed by the picture book.

The second finding of the narrative change was that more preschool children's

stories contained incorrect or irrelevant information. The results suggested that the

preschool children had more difficulties in understanding the content of stories and

often made wrong judgments. They easily mistook or misinterpreted the characters,

the characters' behaviors, the characters' intention, the character's emotions, and the

outcome of different events. This finding is consistent with Gutierrez-Clellen and

Heinrichs-Ramos' study (1993), which indicated that younger children tend to use

more ambiguities and false additions.

The third developmental change is children's awareness and expression of psychological states. According to McCabe and Peterson (1991), although even young children produce stories with interpersonal conflicts, explicit references to internal states would differ among different ages. In the present study, the school-aged children referred to the character's emotional states more often than the preschool children. The possible explanation is that the school-aged children better understood the story contents and causality of events; therefore, they were more able to realize the character's emotion due to a specific event. For example, one plot illustrated a dog that broke a bottle, so the boy was angry. When the school-aged children saw this illustration, they easily noticed the boy's emotion by understanding the situation as well as by inferring from the cause. Therefore, the school-aged children could make a correct judgment on the characters' psychological states.

Fourth, the analyses of the results showed that the preschool stories contained more ineffective uses of repetitions. From the transcription, some preschoolers repeated the same sentence over three times. As they retold the sentences, there was sometimes a temporary pause. The possible explanation is that preschool children produced repetition mostly when they felt nervous or when they were hesitating or planning what to talk about next. They needed more time to manage the next step. As a result, they repeated the sentences to compensate for inabilities in keeping the stories constant.

Fifth, this study found interesting differences when comparing the ways the preschool and school-aged children opened and concluded their stories. When the preschool children opened their stories, they tended to use patterns beginning with a pronoun (e.g., he, they) or a definite article (e.g., a, the) to lead the sentence, which

were simpler descriptions compared to the school-aged children. This finding is similar to Roth, Spekman, and Fye's study (1995), which indicated that children's overall correct use of reference cohesion increased with the increasing ages. In addition to the cohesive devices and definite articles, some preschool children also used "there is/was" and "there are/were" sentence patterns to open the story. This could be because preschool children at age five have acquired this sentence pattern. In addition, " (從前)有一個…(there is/ was)" is a common discourse opening in Chinese. As for school-aged children, besides using the discourse devices, such as definite articles and there- sentences, they more often opened the story by first addressing "one day/night" or "in a room". The school-aged children specifically pinpointed the background information, such as location and time. The finding is also consistent with the statement that children had better ability in understanding time as they got older (Bamberg, 1987; Hickman, 1980; Karmiloff-Smith, 1980; 1981).

Moreover, when the school-aged children opened their stories, they used formulaic story openings (e.g., once upon a time, there was a little boy, long long ago), which are the most typical ways to open a story. Formulaic expressions provide children a framework to easily produce narratives. The school-aged children might have acquired the formulaic expressions when reading story books or when others told them stories.

In addition to the ways children open their stories, how they concluded the stories is also worth mentioning. The preschool children concluded their stories with a simpler description. They briefly described the content directly from the last picture of the book with less information. For example, the preschool children used expressions, such as "They took one frog away," "They went home," or "They say goodbye" to conclude their stories. However, the school-aged children produced more complex

sentences, such as "The little boy and the dog went home happily," or "They let the little boy take the frog home." When the school-aged children concluded stories, they incorporated pleasant psychological states, such as "Everyone is happy," or "They went home happily." This might reflect the school-aged children's story- telling had been influenced and shaped by the typical story-closing conventions. Stories told to children in both western and eastern cultures tend to end with a happy ending. They usually contain education functions that reveal moral meanings and positive attitudes. When the school-children tell the story, they might want to close it with a happy ending. This finding is consistent with Miller et al.'s study (1997), which indicated that Chinese families tended to convey moral meanings in storytelling.

Comparison between the Children's Chinese and English Stories

This study also explored differences between children's Chinese and English stories. The first analysis indicated that the children's English stories contained more incorrect information. This might be explained by the fact that Chinese is the children's native and stronger language. When children spoke English, they might make several linguistic mistakes, such as incorrect sentence patterns or wrong vocabulary. For example, one preschool child could correctly say the word "鹿" in Chinese; however, he was not able to say the English word "deer". Therefore, he said "horse" instead. When the children produced stories in English, their weaker language, they lacked the ability to express themselves well. They might also skip some plots in the story to avoid their inability to speak English, resulting in an inconsistent and incoherent story.

The two examples in the Excerpt 21 (See Appendix I) were produced by the same preschool child in Chinese and English respectively, excerpted from the same

plots. In the child's Chinese story, he mistakenly used 烏龜 (turtle) to refer to the frog. While in the English story, more incorrect statements were also made, such as "But this boy is frog," "Frog and he's humhum," "This dog is *wanting," and "He take the little here". Examples in the Excerpt 22 (See Appendix I) were produced by a school-aged girl. Some information was presented in her Chinese story, such as 牠想吃一隻青蛙, which was not indicated in the book, or used the wrong term 鳥 (bird) to refer to bees, and 螞蟻(ants) to refer to the mouse. In her English story, wrong descriptions such as "And the dog inside the boy," "And the eagle want to eat the boy," "And he has one gost," and "And the boy is die" were presented. Because of these inaccurate statements, listeners would have difficulties in understanding the children's stories.

The second difference across two languages was that the preschool children's English stories showed extensive but futile instances of repetitions. For examples from Excerpt 17 to 19, the preschool child produced more repetitions in English possibly because he lacked the ability to express himself clearly in English or because he felt nervous and was hesitating and planning what to talk about next. He needed more time to manage the next step. However, it was quite interesting that the school-aged children produced English stories without any repetitive sentences. This may be because the school-aged children had better English ability and could tell stories more easily without any hesitation. Excerpts 23 and 24 (See Appendix I) were examples produced by two school-aged children in Chinese and English respectively. From the two excerpts, it could be found that when the school-aged children repeated the sentences, instead of being nervous or hesitant, they retold the sentence to keep the story logical and smooth. Therefore, the preschool children and the school-aged children repeated sentences with different purposes and reasons.

Pedagogical Implications of the Study

The findings of the current study have some important implications that might be helpful for second/foreign language learning and for language teachers and parents who are concerned about children's narrative development.

First of all, the findings of the present study provide a framework of narrative skills for children who are in the process of learning a second/foreign language. The framework allows teachers and parents to examine children's narratives as they acquire narrative abilities. For example, teachers and parents could provide formulaic expressions to children when they learn ways to start or end stories. These formulaic expressions might serve as a scaffold for aiding children's narrative development. In addition, if some information is missing in their narratives, with a clear understanding of the narrative structure, parents and teachers could easily notice and identify the missing elements and guide children to supplement the missing elements to tell a better story. Moreover, teachers and parents could then train or develop children's narrative abilities by introducing other elements from the framework, such as providing introductions and guidelines to better express the initiating event, paying more attention to characters' intentions, behaviors and emotional states, and using better referential devices to make the story more logical and coherent. In other words, the framework could be used for the purpose of encouraging children to produce more elaborate and enriched stories.

Moreover, implication of this study is the potential diagnostic function of children's narrative. It has been widely discussed that children's narrative abilities can be predicted by examining their narratives (Gutierrez-Clellen, 2002; Norbuy & Bishop, 2003; Zou & Cheung, 2007). In addition, numerous studies have found that

children's narrative development has a relationship with their later literacy performance and academic achievement (Leadholm & Miller, 1995; Paul & Smith, 1993; Torrance & Olson, 1984). Because the levels of the two groups of children were categorized, it could be used as a reference for teachers and parents to examine children's performance in various aspects. For example, children who performed better in the narratives and who were also categorized into the higher story grammar level tended to perform better in their school work as well as in English proficiency. On the other hand, some children who were too shy to express themselves and who were categorized into lower story grammar level tended to performed worse in telling stories. Therefore, there might be some relationship between children's narrative abilities and their academic performance as well as their personal characteristics, which could be consulted and referred for better understanding. In sum, the findings of the study could also support the former research and might contribute to manifest possible and critical problems in children's language development.

Limitations of the Present Study and Suggestions for Future Research

This study offered some preliminary insights into children's Chinese and English narrative development. Nonetheless, several limitations should be acknowledged.

First, the limited time for data collection also shortened the interval period between Chinese and English data collection. Although there were at least three days in the interval period, it may have been difficult to avoid possible language transfer or translation from Chinese to English as the children told the same story in both languages. This may have influenced the results of the study in one way or another. An effective solution to this limitation would be to extend the interval period in order to reduce any possible interference.

Second, the inconsistent language proficiency among children was also a limitation of the study. In particular, the English proficiency of school-aged children was more varied, which resulted in a wider range of categorizations in relation to story grammar levels. Future research complies with the participants' overall proficiency which is more consistent in the way it addresses children's levels.

Third, the study was not done to examine the most typical EFL children in Taiwan. Most of the participants came from elite families and the socioeconomic statuses were relatively high compared to average Taiwanese families. As a result, the generalizibility of the results are limited. However, the study presents a case of an optimal English learning context where the children were receiving quality English education and were from privileged families. The school and home factors together undoubtedly play an important role in these children's narrative and language development. Future studies are needed to examine narrative development of children from different social levels to provide a clearer and more representative profile of Taiwanese EFL children's narrative development.

Fourth, due to the limited time for data collection, the data corpus in the study is fairly small for it included only 22 preschool children and 24 school-aged children. Therefore, the findings are rather narrow in scope. Future research is recommended to include more participants from different age groups of Chinese speakers, with an aim to make the findings more generalized and representative as larger sample could lead to a systematic comparison and reliable results with narrative structures.

Nonetheless, given these limitations, this study presented a preliminary investigation that examined Taiwanese EFL children's narrative development in Chinese and English and provided a simple guideline for teachers and parents when training children's narrative skills.

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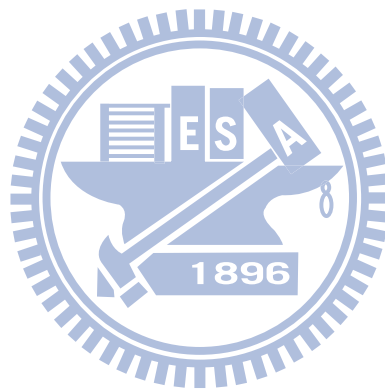
APPENDICES

Appendix A

Consent Form for the Kindergarten Administration: Chinese

學校研究同意書

您好！我是林佳樺，就讀於交通大學英語教學研究所。我的碩士論文研究計畫是要了解台灣學齡前及學齡雙語兒童之敘事能力。在獲得學校同意後，我將在貴校進行此研究約一個月。

此一研究將包括二個階段，首先我會先觀察小朋友在學校的活動與語言使用，並藉此與孩子認識、熟悉我。同時，我會從貴校選出 50 至 60 位小朋友進行此研究，接著將以訪談的方式，提供一本故事書，讓孩子用自己的方式說故事，以了解他的語言敘事能力 (例如：語言使用)。訪談過程將進行兩次 (中、英文各一次，兩次間隔一星期)，每次時間大約二十至三十分鐘，且盡量以不影響孩子的正常學習為原則。

為確保參與研究者及貴校的權益及隱私，所有研究紀錄及研究報告將使用識別號碼或匿名來替代真實姓名與校名。只有我、我的指導教授及研究助理能夠調閱本研究資料，包括錄音、錄影帶、訪問內容、或研究筆記；所有的研究資料將列為機密。日後任何研究錄音帶或錄影帶的播放將侷限於學術或教育目的；所有的錄音帶、錄影帶及所有研究資料將存放於指導教授的實驗室。

參與本研究須徵得學校及家長的同意。貴校及學生能隨時退出本研究，不須負任何形式的責任。

Consent Form for the Kindergarten Administration: Chinese

　　本人及我的指導教授相信此研究能對了解台灣雙語兒童語言發展有極大的助益。身為英語教學所研究生，我希望我的專業能對貴校有所協助。若有需要，請保留此同意書複本一份。如果貴校對本研究有任何疑問，觀迎與我聯絡，聯絡電話：0921-790-883 或電子郵件：linch0805@hotmail.com；貴校也可以與我的指導教授林律君老師聯絡，聯絡電話：03-5712121 #52716 或電子郵件

reginelin@mail.nctu.edu.tw

敬祝
事事順心！

　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　林佳樺敬上

林佳樺　交通大學英語教學研究所碩士生

林律君　交通大學英語教學研究所助理教授

****

我已閱讀並充分了解上述訊息，我身為學校代表，同意林佳樺在

_____ (學校名稱)進行研究。我亦持有此同意書複本。

校方代表簽名：　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　日期：

Appendix B

Informed Consent Letter for Parents: Chinese

家長研究通知書

親愛的家長，您好：

我是林佳樺，就讀於交通大學英語教學研究所碩士班。我的碩士論文研究計畫是要了解台灣學齡前及學齡雙語兒童之敘事能力。在獲得您的同意後，您的孩子將可能參與本研究。

如果您同意讓您的孩子參與本研究，我會先觀察小朋友在學校的活動與語言使用，並藉此讓孩子認識、熟悉我。接著將以訪談的方式，提供一本故事書，讓孩子用自己的方式說故事，以了解他的語言敘事能力 (例如：語言使用)。訪談過程將進行兩次 (中、英文各一次，兩次間隔約一星期)，時間大約二十到三十分鐘，且盡量不以影響孩子的正常學習為原則。

為確保受試者的權益及隱私，所有研究資料、紀錄及報告將使用辨別號碼或匿名來替代真實姓名。只有我、我的指導教授及研究助理能夠調閱本研究資料，包括錄音、錄影帶、訪問內容或結果；所有的研究資料將列為機密。

參與本研究須徵得學校及家長的同意。您的孩子能隨時退出本研究，不須負任何形式的責任。本人及我的指導教授相信此一研究能對了解台灣雙語兒童語言發展有極大的助益。如果您對本研究有任何疑問，歡迎與我聯絡：0921-790-883 或電子郵件 linch0805@hotmail.com；您也可以與我的指導教授 – 交通大學英教所林律君老師聯絡：03-5712121 #52716 或電子郵件 reginelin@mail.nctu.edu.tw

敬祝

闔家平安！

林佳樺敬上

林佳樺　交通大學英語教學研究所碩士生

林律君　交通大學英語教學研究所助理教授

Parental Consent Form: Chinese

家長同意書

我已看過交通大學英語教學研究所碩士生林佳樺之研究通知書,並同意我的孩子參與研究。我明白此研究的目的是為了解台灣學齡前及學齡兒童故事中的語言使用。

我和我的孩子都了解我們可以隨時退出本研究,不須負任何形式的責任。我明白所有的研究報告、文件與研究結果都會使用匿名來替代我孩子的真實姓名。

我同意在研究觀察與資料收集時,林佳樺可以使用錄音及錄影設備,以供語料騰寫及分析。我明白日後任何錄音、錄影帶的播放將只保留予學術或教育目的。我也了解所有的錄音、錄影帶及所有研究資料將存放於指導教授的研究室;只有研究員、研究助理、其指導教授有權調閱相關資料。

☐　同意我的孩子參與此項研究（請填寫以下小朋友基本資料）

　　家長簽名：_____

☐　不同意我的孩子參與此項研究

小朋友的基本資料：

姓名：_____　孩子的生日：_____　性別：☐ 男 ☐ 女

出生地：_____

孩子學習英語學多久？約_____年 _____月

家中使用的語言（請依使用頻率標號，1代表最頻繁）：

____國語　____閩南語 ___客家語　___原住民語 ___英語

___其它：_____（語言）

是否曾居住外國超過三個月以上：☐ 是，_____（國名及時間） ☐ 否

您是否擔心過孩子語言或其它方面的發展？☐ 是，_____（哪方面）☐ 否

＊請在簽名後，讓孩子帶到學校給老師，謝謝您！

Appendix D

Parental Socioeconomic Information

Parental Socioeconomic Information (Preschool Children)

Type	Paternal		Maternal	
	Occupation	*Education*	*Occupation*	*Education*
Code	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5 6
Number	13 7 2 0 0	0 0 0 4 12 6	8 4 2 0 8	0 0 0 4 14 4
Total	22	22	22	22

Parental Socioeconomic Information (School-aged Children)

Type	Paternal		Maternal	
	Occupation	*Education*	*Occupation*	*Education*
Code	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5 6
Number	14 8 2 0 0	0 0 0 4 13 7	10 2 2 3 7	0 0 0 5 16 3
Total	24	24	24	24

Appendix D (Continued)

Parental Socioeconomic Information

Occupation Codes:

1. High-level or senior administrators (e.g., employers, general managers,

school principles, and etc.)

2. Professional, middle-rank administrators or workers (e.g., college

faculties, doctors, engineers, and ets.)

3. Semi-professional workers (e.g., store owners, assistants, painters,

salesmen, and etc.)

4. Non-technical workers (e.g., street venders, sanitary workers, and etc.)

5. Homemaker or the unemployed (e.g., housewives, students, and etc.)

Education Codes:

1. The illiterate

2. The literate, elementary school level

3. Junior high school level

4. Senior or vocational high school level

5. College or university level

6. Graduate school level or above
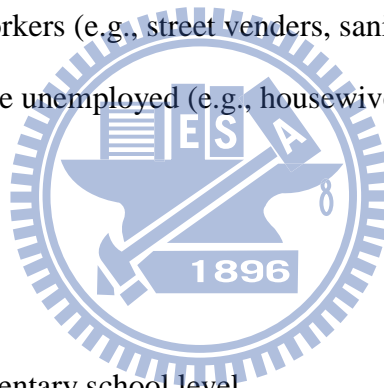
Appendix E

List of Transcription and Coding Conventions Based on SALT

Some SALT conventions (Miller & Chapman, 1993) were used to

transcribed and code children's narrative samples.

[ ]: Codes. Codes are used to mark words or utterances. Codes are placed in

brackets [ ] and cannot contain blank spaces.

(i) [EW:_] is used to mark word-level errors.

Ex: The boy are [EW: is] singing.

(ii) [EU] is used to mark utterance-level errors.

Ex: He play/ed [EU] with the dog.

Appendix F

Story Grammar Analysis Form

Code: _____   Grade:_____   Age:_____

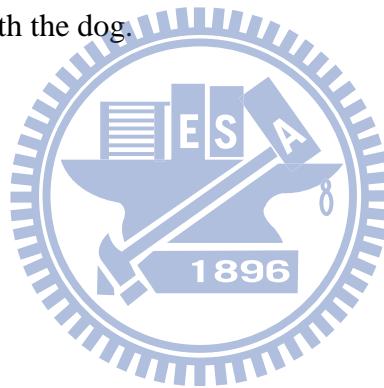|	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35
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Note. Adopted from "*Analyzing storytelling skills: Theory to practice,*" by N. L. Hedberg and C. E. Westby, 1993, Arizona: Communication Skill builders.

Appendix G

An Example of One Preschool-aged Child's Story Grammar Analyses

Story Grammar of Chinese Stories	Story Grammar of English Stories
1. (S1)一隻青蛙、(一個…)一隻狗、一個男生。	1. (S1)He takes a frog in her bottle.
2. (S1) (然後)他抓了一隻青蛙。	2. (S1) (And) a dog looks in the frog.
3. (S1)他…跟狗狗看那隻青蛙。	3. (S1)The frog is smiling.
4. (S1) (然後)他在睡覺，	4. (S1) (And) the dog and the people are sleeping,
5. (S1)跟狗狗在睡覺。	5. (IE1)the frog go out.
6. (IE1)這隻青蛙就跑出來。	6. (B1)The people and the dog see the frog... is not here.
7. (B1)他起床的時候，	7. (B1)The people look in the shirt.
8. (B1)看到青蛙不見了。	8. (B1) (The dogs) the dog looks in the bottle.
9. (A1)(然後)他找…青蛙…要找到衣服裡面，	9. (IE2)The people looks loud out the window.
10. (C1)沒有在衣服裡面。	10. (B2)The dog looks the people.
11. (A1) (然後)狗狗在找青蛙。	11. (C2)The dogs flow out in the garden.
12. (IE2) (然後)他在這裡看青蛙。	12. (C2)The grass (glass) is broken.
13. (A2) (然後)牠也在看青蛙。	13. (C2)The dog and the people come out get the dog.
14. (C2)(然後)狗狗掉下來他看到。	14. (IS2)The dog is happy.
15. (C2)然後玻璃破掉了，	15. (IE3)The flies are go out.
16. (B2)他的狗狗舔他。	16. (*)The dog are not smiling.
17. (IS2)他就不喜歡。	
18. (IE3) (然後)有很多隻蟲蟲。	
19. (B3) (牠就…青蛙，)然後牠就在玩	

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蟲蟲。	17. (B3)The people is shouting.
20. (IE4) (然後)(他在…)他就叫…青蛙在外面。	18. (IE4)The people shout in the hole.
21. (B3)他就在叫蟲蟲。	19. (C4)One mouse come out in the hole.
22. (C4) (然後)裡面一隻地鼠。	20. (IS4) (And) the dog is not happy.
23. (B3) (然後)蜂窩掉下來，	21. (IE5) (He is...) The dog push the tree.
24. (C3)那個蜜蜂就飛出來。	22. (B5)The flies go out the house.
25. (IE5)他在這個洞裡面找。	23. (C4)The little mouse is in there.
26. (C5) (然後，)出來一隻貓頭鷹。	24. (IE6)The (the) boy looks in the tree.
27. (C3) (然後，)蜜蜂一直往狗狗衝~	25. (B6)A owl is in the tree.
28. (B5)(然後)他就不要…貓頭鷹…來逗他。	26. (B6)The (fly... the pe...) the boy falls.
29. (B5) (他就…)他就把手放在前面。	27. (C5)The flies is going back the dog.
30. (B5) (然後)貓頭鷹…在這裡。	28. (B6)The owl don't likes the boy.
31. (IE6) (然後，)他來叫青蛙。	29. (B6)The boy don't likes the owl.
32. (B6)(然後)後面是一隻鹿。	30. (C6)The owl stop.
33. (B6) (然後)他就被鹿(…看…)(那個)挾住了。	31. (C6)The owl stand on the tree.
34. (B6) (然後)鹿把他摔下來跟狗狗一起摔。	32. (A7)The boy shout again ("No, this is in.. This is a...")
35. (C6) (然後)他們就…摔下去了。	33. (B7) (And) this one... go... for the boy
36. (B7) (然後)他起來了跟狗狗…	34. (C7) (and) the dog go in the mud.
37. (B7)他們下去了，	35. (C7)The boy and the dog go in the mud.
38. (B7)然後再起來。	
39. (IE7)他看到一個樹。	

40. (B7)他叫狗狗…不要吵。	36. (B8)The log is (in there...) in the mud.
41. (B7) (然後)他看進去，	37. (IE8)The boy and the dog smell(...smell).
42. (C7)青蛙，是他們的青蛙。	38. (B8)Boy say "Shi! Be quiet!"
43. (C7) (然後)青蛙小弟弟，	39. (B8)The dog be quiet.
44. (R-B7)他就拿走一隻小青蛙，	40. (B8)They see the hole.
45. (R-B7)然後都走掉了。	41. (C8)The frog...s is in there.
	42. (R-B8)The boy takes the little frog
	43. (R-B8)and say goodbye.

Note: (*) stands for wrong information which can not be analyzed.

Appendix H

An Example of One School-aged Child's Story Grammar Analyses

Story Grammar of Chinese Stories	Story Grammar of English Stories
1. (S1)有一個小男孩 ，	1. (S1)One boy he has one frog.
2. (S1)他裝了一隻青蛙，	2. (S1)The boy is sleep
3. (S1)他把那隻青蛙裝在瓶子裡，	3. (IE1)then the frog go outside.
4. (S1)然後他去睡覺的時候，	4. (B1)In morning, the boy look in the glass
5. (IE1)青蛙就跑出來了，	5. (A1)and said my frog is going where.
6. (IE1)早上他看到青蛙不見了就很擔心，	6. (B1)Then he find anywhere,
7. (B1)然後他就到處找找，找不到，	7. (C1)but he didn't find his frog.
8. (B1)然後他的狗狗把頭塞到瓶子裡，	8. (IE2)He opened the window,
9. (IE2)然後他 小男孩打開窗戶的時候	9. (A2)he shout, my frog, where are you?
10. (C2)他的狗狗掉下去，	10. (B2)His dog jump down the window,
11. (C2)就摔破瓶子，	11. (C2)then the glass is broken.
12. (IS2)他就很生氣，	12. (IS2)Then he is angry.
13. (IE3)他跟狗狗就出去找他的青蛙，	13. (IE3)He go to find his frog.
14. (A3)然後他找地洞裡面，	14. (B3)He find the mouse hole,
15. (B3)然後有一隻土撥鼠突然跑出來，	15. (C3)then the mouse go outside.
16. (C3)他嚇了一跳，	16. (IS3)The boy is angry.
17. (IE4)然後他就去找樹洞，	17. (IE4)The he climb up the tree,
	18. (B4)he see inside the tree.

18. (B4)然後樹洞裡一隻貓頭鷹飛出來，	19. (B4)He see inside one bird hole,
19. (C4)他就嚇了一跳，	20. (B4)and that bird fly outide.
20. (C4)就摔下去了，	21. (C4)Then the boy jump down the tree,
21. (B4)然後他的狗狗就被蜜蜂追，	22. (IE5)then he climb a big rock,
22. (C4)然後他就一直躲貓頭鷹，	23. (A5)and he shout, my frog, where are you?
23. (IE5)然後一隻 他爬上石頭找，	24. (B5)Then one animal take him to the water,
24. (B5)然後一隻麋鹿伸出頭把他載到懸崖邊，	25. (C5)the he jump down the water.
25. (B5)然後把他丟下去，	26. (IE6)He hear the frog talk,
26. (C5)他掉進池塘裡，	27. (B6)he see over the tree,
27. (IE6)然後他聽到青蛙的聲音，	28. (C6)he see so many frog is over the tree.
28. (B6)他叫狗狗安靜，	
29. (C6)他看到很多隻青蛙，	29. (R-B6)Then he take one frog.
30. (IS6)然後他很開心，	30. (R-B6) then he say goodbye to the frog.
31. (R-B6)他帶一隻小青蛙回家，	
32. (R-B6)就跟青蛙爸爸媽媽他們說再見。	

Appendix I
Examples of Children's Frog Stories

Excerpt 21.

An Example of One Preschool Child's Chinese and English Story

Excerpt from Chinese Story	Excerpt from English Story
… 他在睡覺， 然後有個*烏龜，那個 frog 都跑出來。 他起來的時候， 不見了。 他就找不到它， 他找不到它。 他揮揮手， 然後他掉下去， 不小心掉下去， 他就 angry 了， 他就一直說*烏龜的聲音， 他就去問說;「你有看到那個*烏龜跑出去嗎?」 他找不到， … 他又去找它，他去另外一個樹上， 竟然有一隻貓頭鷹， 狗都一直跑， 因為蜜蜂一直都在追牠， 那個貓頭鷹接走了，	… He are sleeping And the frog go up. He wake up, And frog go away. But the dog use the frog house, … The frog house is broken. *But this boy is frog. *"Woof ! Woof ! (He is pointing at the dog.) *Frog and he's humhum. … And he fall down. This fall down. And have so many bee. He go to owl house. This dog is *wanting. Because this bee are *cicking. He go to the owl. Go to owl. This tree …owl is stand in there. … He say "Frog! Frog!" *He take the little here. He fall down. And see the frog. Fall down the water. …

他就一直喊，	
鹿已經來了，	
他不小心掉下去。	

Excerpt 22.

An Example of One School-aged Child's Chinese and English Story

Excerpt from Chinese Story	Excerpt from English Story
有一隻小狗，	One day the one dog inside the box,
*牠想吃一隻青蛙，	And see one frog.
…	The boy is sleeping.
然後玻璃掉了，	..
然後牠就從上面跳下來，	The frog want to open the 蓋子，
然後那個小狗狗一直舔他的臉，	And the boy wake up,
可是那個小男孩很生氣，	And not see the frog,
*然後有一群鳥飛過來，	*And the dog inside the boy,
狗狗就一直聞牠，	And not see the frog.
然後有一天，去公園的時候，	…
*那個小男孩發現一個洞裡面全部都是	And the dog see a bee.
螞蟻，	And the dog want to eat the bee.
…	The bee want to catch a dog.
然後鹿就給他推下水了，	*And the eagle want to eat the boy.
然後那個小男孩淹到水裡面，	The boy is so angry.
*然後那個狗狗救了他。	And he jump on the rock.
…	*And he has one gost.
	And the *gost took boy inside the water.
	*And the boy is die.

Excerpt 23

Examples of One School-aged Child's Chinese and English Stories

Chinese	English
…	…
那個小男孩看到一個窩，	Then the boy look at another hole,
他以為那是一個青蛙的窩，	And shout, "the frog, where are you?"
然後呢<u>小狗衣直看著那個蜜蜂巢</u>，	Then the owl come out,
然後那個小男孩發現原來是一隻小老鼠的一個窩，	And the boy jump down.
那個<u>小狗看到著那個蜜蜂巢</u>，(repeat)	And the bee want to catch the dog,
一直想要把它給用下來，	…
…	

Excerpt 24

Examples of a second School-aged Child's Chinese and English Stories

Chinese	English
…	…
所以牠可能搖了樹，	And the dog look and look,
<u>結果蜂窩掉下來，</u>	And know that is bee's house,
那個小男生他也想看那個地上的洞，	So he shake the tree,
看有沒有青蛙，	But the boy was looking in a hole,
結果跑出來是一隻很臭的松鼠，	And come out is the stinky squirrel,
後來那個狗搖了一下，	And because the dog shake the tree,
<u>結果蜂窩掉下來，</u>(repeat)	So the bees home fell down
蜜蜂很生氣	…