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## An examination of sense of story in proficient bilingual, partial bilingual, and monolingual children as evidenced in stories told in English

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AN EXAMINATION OF SENSE OF STORY IN PROFICIENT  
BILINGUAL, PARTIAL BILINGUAL, AND MONOLINGUAL CHILDREN  
AS EVIDENCED IN STORIES TOLD IN ENGLISH

A Dissertation  
Presented to  
the Faculty of the Graduate School  
University of the Pacific

In Partial Fulfillment  
of the Requirements for the Degree  
Doctor of Education

by  
Kathleen Kenfield  
December 1985

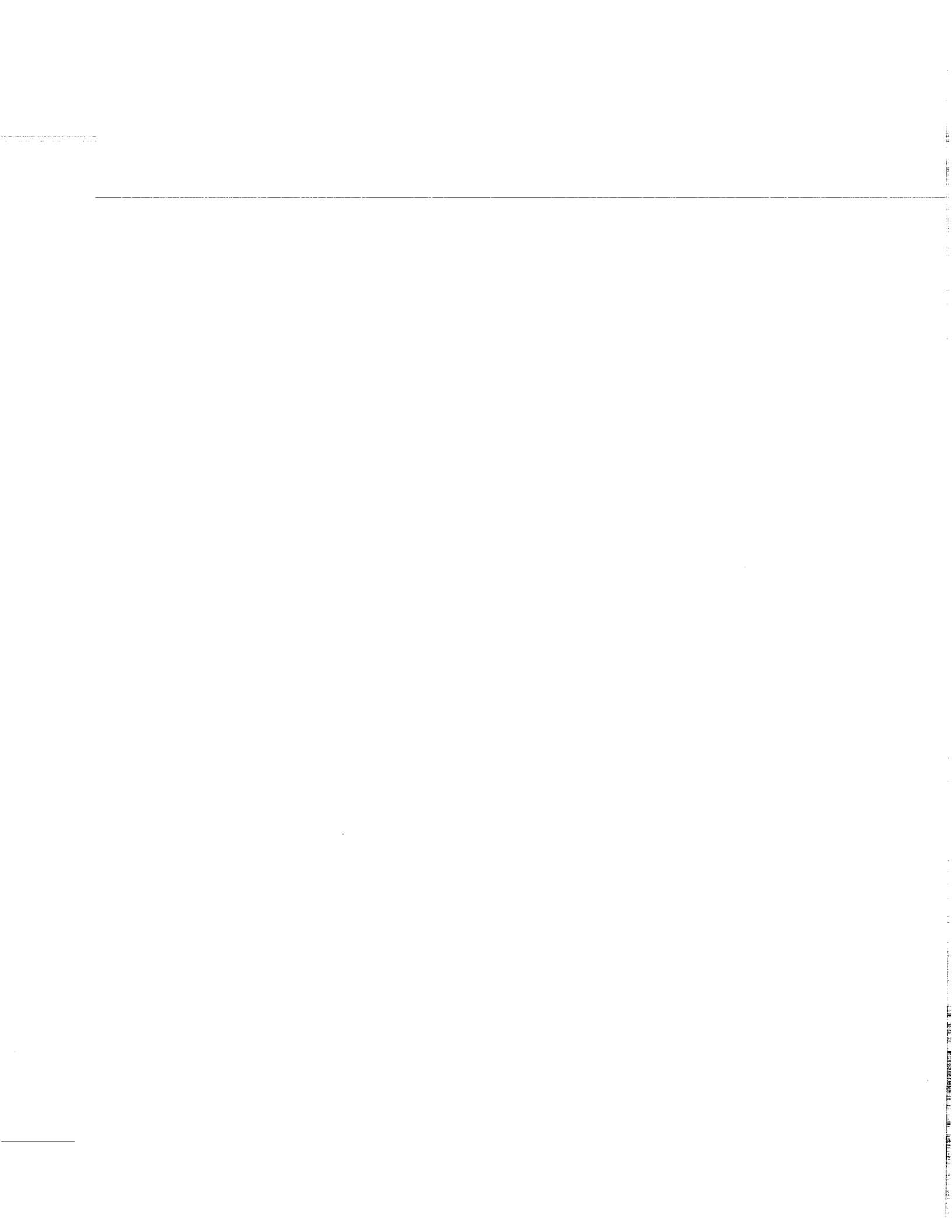
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Dated November 6, 1985

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## ABSTRACT

### AN EXAMINATION OF SENSE OF STORY IN PROFICIENT BILINGUAL, PARTIAL BILINGUAL, AND MONOLINGUAL CHILDREN AS EVIDENCED IN STORIES TOLD IN ENGLISH

Kathleen Kenfield

The purpose of the study was to determine what differences, if any, existed among monolingual (English) children, partial bilingual (English-Spanish) children, and proficient bilingual (English-Spanish) children in the level of sophistication of their sense of story. Sense of story was defined as the degree to which one has internalized the features, conventions, and structures of the story genre. Sense of story was analyzed in three areas: structural complexity (number of words, number of T-units, mean length of T-units, number of characters, number of incidents), story convention usage (use of past tense, formal beginning, formal ending, use of quoted and described dialogue), and story scheme analysis (the degree to which the subjects manifested knowledge of the parts or categories of story and the relationship of said categories).

Ninety subjects from grades four, five, and six participated in the study. They were grouped into three linguistic categories, Monolingual, Partial Bilingual, and

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~~Proficient Bilingual. Subjects were asked to tell a story~~  
in English. It was predicted that the Proficient  
Bilinguals would outperform the other linguistic groups on  
all variables.

Small but significant associations were found on two  
of the criteria. Proficient Bilinguals were found to use  
past tense to a slightly greater degree than the other two  
groups, and Partial Bilinguals were seen to fall behind  
the other two groups in the use of quoted dialogue. No  
significant differences or associations were revealed in  
any other criteria.

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

#### Background of the Study

The research on the effects of bilingualism on cognitive and linguistic development is rife with contradiction. Older studies generally point to negative effects for bilingualism, alleging that it is a cause of linguistic confusion and cognitive retardation (Cummins, 1979). As a counter to these findings, recent research suggests that bilingualism can have a positive effect on children's cognitive and linguistic development. These newer studies suggest that access to two languages in childhood can accelerate such aspects of cognitive growth as verbal processing (Ben-Zeev, 1977b), concept formation (Bain, 1974), and cognitive flexibility (Peal & Lambert, 1962).

Many of these recent "positive" studies share a characteristic which distinguishes them from the earlier studies: the involvement of bilingual subjects who had acquired proficiency in a second language at no expense to the first language (Cummins, 1979). This type of bilingualism has been termed "additive" (Lambert, 1975).

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In contrast, many of the earlier "negative" studies involved subjects whose native language had suffered through the acquisition of the second language, and who may have been deficient in both languages (Cummins, 1979). This type of bilingualism has been termed "subtractive" (Lambert, 1975).

Additive bilingualism and subtractive bilingualism can be viewed as products of different educational and social processes. In an additive situation, from an educational standpoint, the native language is maintained and developed in the school and is not diminished by the acquisition of the second language. In a subtractive situation, on the other hand, the native language is not developed; in fact, it is the second language which is developed at the expense of the native language. From a social standpoint, additive bilingualism may also be due to the equal respect for and social value of both languages in a given setting (e.g. Hebrew and English in Israel or Afrikaans and English in South Africa). In contrast, subtractive bilingualism can be seen in the experience of many ethnic minority groups who are forced to put aside their language in deference to the national language (e.g. Spanish-Americans acquiring English) (Lambert, 1977).



Lambert suggests that additive bilingualism engenders positive cognitive effects that may be evidenced in performance superior to monolingual norms, as suggested by many recent bilingualism-cognition studies. Subtractive bilingualism, however, may produce negative effects shown in abilities which may often be inferior to monolingual norms (Lambert, 1975).

James Cummins has recently put forth a theoretical framework which describes the role of native language development as central to a minority child's educational success in a second language environment. As part of this framework, Cummins posits a "threshold hypothesis," inspired by the apparent contradictory results of the earlier "negative" studies and the recent "positive" studies (Cummins, 1976). The hypothesis states that there are threshold levels of linguistic competence in both first and second languages which "bilingual children must attain in order to avoid cognitive deficits and allow the potentially beneficial aspects of becoming bilingual to influence cognitive growth" (Cummins, 1981, p. 38). In brief, Cummins argues that limited bilingualism (low level of competence in both languages) leads to negative cognitive effects, while partial bilingualism (native-like level in one of the languages) produces neither positive nor negative effects, and that proficient bilingualism

(high levels of competence in both languages) results in positive cognitive effects (Cummins, 1981).

To date, no study has been undertaken to determine whether there are differences among children with differing degrees of bilingualism and monolingual children using their "sense of story" as the measure of cognition. The term "sense of story" refers to the degree to which children have internalized the features and structure of story in its generic sense. Sense of story is an application of what Applebee terms "the spectator role of language" wherein we work on our representation of experience, continually modifying our own theories of the world (Applebee, 1978). When we fantasize and daydream, we use language in its spectator role. The ability to use language in its spectator role is seen as a crucial activity for the ongoing structuring of one's internal construct of the world one has experienced (Brown, 1980). Sense of story, the ability to impose structure on events or to make generalizations about the world, as evidenced in an internalized awareness of the features and structure of story as a genre, is a typical example of the spectator role in language (Applebee, 1978).

Sense of story, as a manifestation of the spectator role, is an aspect of language beyond the basic expressive mode, beyond the basic interpersonal context, and is thus

an aspect of decontextualized language. Cummins terms this "context-reduced communication" (Cummins, 1981, p. 11). The ability to process decontextualized language (e.g. sense of story) is an aspect of what Cummins calls "cognitive-academic learning proficiency," and is strongly related to the development of literacy skills and to academic success (Cummins, 1981).

Sense of story has been shown to be developmental. In examinations of stories created by children, there is evidence of a gradually increasing use, as children grow, of certain conventions typical of stories (formal endings and beginnings and the use of the past tense), and a developing ability to impose a structure on events, to create a language entity incorporating elements typical to stories (Applebee, 1978). This ability to impose a structure on events is seen by many to be a product of previously acquired knowledge about stories, a product of a cognitive map of story structure and content referred to by many researchers as "story schema" (McConaughy, 1980).

A child's sense of story can be viewed as the degree to which he or she has built a mental model of what story is, and the extent to which he or she manifests this model in creating stories. The level of sophistication of a child's sense of story can be measured by his or her use of story conventions, by a measure of complexity (e.g.,

number of characters and incidents), and by analysis of story schema through the use of a text grammar to determine the inclusion of various components typical to stories, such as setting, actions and goals of characters, and final resolution.

#### Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate and ascertain if there is a difference among monolingual (English) children, partial bilingual (English-Spanish) children, and proficient bilingual (English-Spanish) children in the level of sophistication of their sense of story. Sense of story was analyzed by the application of selected measures to spontaneous stories related orally by children. The linguistic category of the children served as the independent variable and their sense of story as the dependent variable.

#### Statement of the Problem

Research suggests that varying degrees of bilingualism have differing effects on certain cognitive processes and that bilingual and monolingual children may manifest different levels of cognitive proficiency in various areas. The effects of bilingualism on children's sense of story have yet to be investigated. The present study will endeavor to answer the following questions:

- (1) Is there a difference among monolingual, partial

bilingual, and proficient bilingual children on measures of structural complexity shown in orally generated stories? (2) Is there a difference among monolingual, partial bilingual, and proficient bilingual children in the use of conventions in orally generated stories? (3) Is there a difference among monolingual, partial bilingual, and proficient bilingual children in story schema (story grammar usage) shown in orally generated stories?

#### Hypotheses

The following hypotheses are written in directional form. This form was preferred due to the body of research that suggests that proficient bilingual children tend to outperform their monolingual peers on certain measures of cognition. Research remains inconclusive as to whether partial bilinguals also surpass monolinguals.

Hypothesis 1: It is predicted that, in a group of children from grades four, five, and six, proficient bilinguals will outperform partial bilinguals and monolinguals in the level of sophistication of their sense of story as shown on a measure of story grammar usage.

Hypothesis 2: It is predicted that, in a group of children from grades four, five, and six, proficient bilinguals will outperform monolinguals and partial

bilinguals in the number of words present in their orally generated stories.

Hypothesis 3: It is predicted that, in a group of children from grades four, five, and six, proficient bilinguals will outperform partial bilinguals and monolinguals in the number of T-units used and in the mean length of T-units present in their orally generated stories.

Hypothesis 4: It is predicted that, in a group of children from grades four, five, and six, proficient bilinguals will outperform partial bilinguals and monolinguals in the number of characters present in their orally generated stories.

Hypothesis 5: It is predicted that, in a group of children from grades four, five, and six, proficient bilinguals will outperform partial bilinguals and monolinguals in the number of incidents present in their orally generated stories.

Hypothesis 6: It is predicted that, in a group of children from grades four, five, and six, proficient bilinguals will outperform partial bilinguals and monolinguals in the consistent use of past tense present in their orally generated stories.

Hypothesis 7: It is predicted that, in a group of children from grades four, five, and six, proficient

bilinguals will outperform partial bilinguals and monolinguals in the use of formal beginning in their orally generated stories.

Hypothesis 8: It is predicted that, in a group of children from grades four, five, and six, proficient bilinguals will outperform partial bilinguals and monolinguals in the use of formal ending in their orally generated stories.

Hypothesis 9: It is predicted that, in a group of children from grades four, five, and six, proficient bilinguals will outperform partial bilinguals and monolinguals in the use of dialogue in their orally generated stories.

#### Limitations

This study has several limitations which should be considered in any interpretive use of the data. These limitations are:

1) The results of this study are valid and reliable only to the extent that the instruments and scoring procedures are valid and reliable.

2) The Stein and Glenn Continuum instrument (Glenn & Stein, 1978) used in this study, though validated by interrater reliability, imposed limitations in that subjectivity of judgment by the researcher may have occurred during the analysis of the stories.

3) The results of this study are generalizable only to the extent that the characteristics of this population are shared by any other group or individual.

4) The results of this study are subject to the limitation that an index of socioeconomic status based on parental occupation is unlikely to control all relevant environmental differences between groups (Cummins, 1980).

#### Assumptions

The following assumptions were made by the researcher:

1) That the instrument used to assign the subjects to the three linguistic groups adequately discriminated between proficient bilinguals and partial bilinguals.

2) That sense of story is established in children in grades four, five, and six to the extent that the criteria used in this study to measure sense of story are valid.

3) That the stories related by the children in this study genuinely reflect the level of sophistication of their sense of story and are not retellings of stories they have heard or read.

#### Definition of Terms

Additive bilingualism: that type of bilingualism in which the second language is acquired at no expense to the first language; a product of an educational program in



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which the first language is maintained and developed and is not diminished by the acquisition of the second language; may also be a product of a social environment in which the first and second languages are of equal status in the society (Lambert, 1975).

Characters: for the purposes of this study, characters include the protagonist of a story and those who interact with the protagonist. Included as characters are anthropomorphized animals. Collective characters such as "parents" who act as one person are considered to be one character (Applebee, 1984).

Episode: For the purposes of this study, an episode is the basic unit of story analysis and describes an entire behavioral sequence beginning with an initiating event and ending with some resolution to the story action.

Formal beginning: a story convention shown when stories are begun in such traditional manner as "Once upon a time" or "There was a ...."

Formal ending: a story convention shown when stories are concluded in such traditional manner as "The end" or "happily ever after."

Incidents: For the purposes of this study, an incident is an event or series of events in a story that join with each other to form an episode (Applebee, 1984).

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L<sub>1</sub>: first language or native language

L<sub>2</sub>: second language

Monolingual: For the purpose of this study, this term refers to a person whose sole language is English.

Partial bilingual: a person who evidences native-like fluency in one language, and a less-than-native-like fluency in the other language (Cummins, 1981). For the purposes of this study, this term refers to one who is proficient in English and less proficient in Spanish.

Proficient bilingual: a person who demonstrates high levels of competence in two languages (Cummins, 1981). For the purposes of this study, a proficient bilingual is one who evidences native-like fluency in both English and Spanish.

Sense of story: the degree to which a person has internalized the features, conventions, and structures of the story genre (Brown, 1980).

Spectator role of language: term coined by Applebee to describe that aspect of language wherein one works on one's representation of experience, continually modifying one's theories of the world (Applebee, 1978).

Story convention: the traditional elements of the story genre such as use of past tense, use of dialogue, formal beginning, and formal ending.

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Story grammar: a schematic representation of stories, used to guide the encoding and retrieval of story information (McConaughy, 1980).

Story schema: an idealized internal representation of the parts of a typical story and the relationship among those parts (Mandler & Johnson, 1977).

Structural complexity of story: For the purposes of this study, this term refers to the quantitative analysis of a story, including number of words, number of different words, number of T-units, mean length of T-units, number of characters, and number of incidents.

Subtractive bilingualism: that type of bilingualism wherein the first language suffers through the acquisition of the second language; a product of an educational program in which the first language is not developed; may also be the product of a social environment in which the second language eclipses the native language in prestige and usage (Lambert, 1977).

T-unit: a unit of communication representing a syntactic unit that can stand alone; a main clause with all subordinate clauses attached to it. The average length of T-units in a child's speech or writing is a common means of rating that child's linguistic maturity (Hunt, 1965).

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### Organization of the Study

Chapter I contains an introduction to the problem and the research questions to be investigated in the study. The limitations and definitions of terms are also presented.

Chapter II is the review of pertinent research and related literature.

Chapter III describes the design of the study. It is a delineation of the specific procedures used in the study. Also discussed are the population and its selection and the instrumentation employed in selecting the sample and in analyzing the stories collected.

Chapter IV contains the presentation and analysis of the data.

Chapter V concludes the study. It includes the summary, conclusions, and recommendations for future study.

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## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The review of the literature has been divided into two major areas which are relevant to the present study. These areas are: 1) Bilingualism and Cognition, and 2) Sense of Story.

#### I: Bilingualism and Cognition

##### "Negative" Studies

Studies of the effects of bilingualism on children's cognitive and linguistic development which were undertaken prior to 1960 often found that bilingual minority language children did poorly in school and fell well behind monolingual majority language children (Cummins, 1979). As Peal and Lambert report in their literature review of the field, these studies seemed to indicate that bilingual children suffered from a language handicap as evidenced by verbal measures of intelligence (Peal & Lambert, 1962). Many of these earlier studies suggested that bilingualism was a cause of mental confusion and a retarding force in the development of either language (Cummins, 1979).

Some of the more recent studies lend support to the earlier findings. Macnamara compared Irish children whose home language was English but who were given instruction in Irish with Irish children who received instruction in English. He reported that the bilingual children were eleven months behind the monolingual children in problem arithmetic (Macnamara, 1966). Cummins challenges Macnamara's findings, pointing out that Macnamara administered an Irish version of the arithmetic test to children instructed through Irish, despite the fact that Irish was the weaker language for the majority of these children. The comparison group was tested in English, their stronger language (Cummins, 1980). As Cummins states, Macnamara's study "confounds bilinguals' competence in arithmetic with their ability to demonstrate this competence when tested through their weaker language" (Cummins, 1980, p. 10).

Tsushima and Hogan compared Japanese/English bilingual students from grades four and five with monolingual English students of the same grade levels. They reported that the bilinguals performed at a significantly lower level on measures of verbal and academic skills than the monolingual group matched on nonverbal IQ. The bilingual group consisted of children whose mothers were Japanese and whose fathers were born

and raised in the United States. All the parents of children in the monolingual group were born and raised in the United States. The researchers reported that the bilingual children had been exposed to both English and Japanese in the home from infancy (Tsushima & Hogan, 1975). Cummins, however, notes that Tsushima and Hogan do not mention the present pattern of bilingual usage in the home and fail to take into account the bilinguals' relative competence in both languages (Cummins, 1980).

In a study involving more than a thousand subjects, Torrance, Gowan, Wu, and Aliotti reported that bilingual children in Singapore performed at a significantly lower level than monolingual children on the fluency and flexibility scales of the Torrance Tests of Creative Thinking (Torrance, et al., 1970). However, it must be noted that Torrance et al. give no details of the relative competence of the bilingual subjects in their languages.

#### "Positive" Studies

Many recent studies suggest that, rather than causing cognitive confusion, bilingualism can have a positive effect on both cognitive and linguistic development. In a study that has served as a model for many researchers, Peal and Lambert compared Canadian French/English bilingual children with a monolingual control group. The bilingual group were termed "balanced"; in other words,

they possessed relatively high levels of proficiency in both languages. Factor analyses of cognitive measures revealed a more differentiated subtest profile among the bilingual group, suggesting to the researchers that bilingualism might lead to a more flexible cognitive structure (Peal & Lambert, 1962).

In another Canadian study, Liedke and Nelson found that bilingual first-grade children significantly outperformed a monolingual group on a Piagetian concept formation task. The groups were matched for age, socioeconomic standing, sex, and IQ. Liedke and Nelson hypothesized that the bilingual child is exposed to a wider range of experiences due to the greater amount of social interaction involved in learning two languages as compared to one (Liedke & Nelson, 1968).

The existence of a positive relationship between bilingualism and cognition is given further support by Cummins and Gulutsan who reported highly significant differences between balanced bilingual and monolingual sixth-grade children on a measure of verbal originality. However, no differences were found on four other measures of divergent thinking (Cummins & Gulutsan, 1974). Cummins later re-examined the data and his analysis suggested that "only those bilinguals who had attained a relatively high level of second language competence performed at a



higher level on the verbal originality task while children who remained very dominant in their home language were at a disadvantage, in relation to unilingual children, on verbal fluency and flexibility skills" (Cummins, 1980, p. 23).

Further evidence of the facilitating effect of bilingualism on cognition is given by Ianco-Worrall in a study of Afrikaans/English bilingual children. Each bilingual child was matched with two monolingual children, one Afrikaans-speaking and one English-speaking. Ianco-Worrall reported that the bilingual group showed greater sensitivity than the monolinguals to semantic relations between words and were better able to conceive of the words as arbitrary symbols. The monolingual children were more likely to interpret similarity between words on an acoustic rather than a semantic basis and felt that the names of objects could not be interchanged (Ianco-Worrall, 1972).

Two recent studies by Ben-Zeev report findings consistent with Ianco-Worrall's suggestion that bilingualism may promote a greater sensitivity to language. Ben-Zeev posits that bilinguals develop special strategies in order to cope with interference between their two languages. She suggests that these strategies of linguistic processing can promote cognitive growth. In

order to test this hypothesis, Ben-Zeev examined middle-class Hebrew/English (Ben-Zeev, 1977a) and lower-class Spanish/English (Ben-Zeev, 1977b) bilingual children, comparing them with monolingual control groups. In spite of evidence of lower vocabulary level, the bilingual groups showed greater ability than the monolinguals in these areas: ability to process verbal material, sensitivity to feedback cues, ability to analyze nonverbal structures, and ability to search for structure in perceptual situations.

#### Additive and Subtractive Bilingualism

Before one can assume that bilingualism in any degree leads to greater powers of cognition, one must realize that many of the recent "positive" studies share the characteristic of involving subjects whose bilingualism is additive. The term additive bilingual, as coined by Lambert, can be defined as a person with high proficiency in both languages, and whose native language ( $L_1$ ) was in no danger of being supplanted by the second language ( $L_2$ ) (Lambert, 1975). An additive bilingual is one who has acquired a second language which did not diminish the competence in the first language.

In contrast, it must be noted that many of the studies that allege negative effects of bilingualism involved subjects from minority language groups whose  $L_1$

had been replaced by a more prestigious L<sub>2</sub>, the language of the majority. These subjects are termed "subtractive bilinguals" (Lambert, 1975). According to Cummins, the bilingual child in an additive situation is likely to have high levels of competence in both languages, whereas in subtractive situations, many bilinguals may be characterized by less than native-like levels in both languages (Cummins, 1979).

#### Threshold Hypothesis

In attempting to resolve the contradiction between the newer and older, "positive" and "negative" studies of bilingualism and cognition, James Cummins has posited a "threshold hypothesis." Cummins theorizes that the bilingual subjects of the "positive" studies carried out in additive environments "are likely to have achieved a high level of L<sub>2</sub> competence at no cost to their L<sub>1</sub>," whereas subjects in the "negative" studies, carried out in subtractive environments, "may have had less than native-like skill in both their languages" (Cummins, 1980, p. 7). According to Cummins, this analysis suggests that the academic success of a bilingual child may be dependent upon the level of competence he or she has achieved in the two languages (Cummins, 1979). Cummins postulates that there are two thresholds of bilingual proficiency that must be attained in order to "avoid cognitive deficits and

allow the potentially beneficial aspects of becoming bilingual to influence cognitive growth" (Cummins, 1981, p. 38). The threshold hypothesis is illustrated in Figure 1. A person who had attained the lower threshold of bilingual proficiency might succeed in avoiding any negative effects, but it would be necessary to reach the higher level in order to achieve accelerated cognitive growth.

Since the formation by Cummins of this threshold hypothesis, other studies have been completed which support the tenability of the hypothesis. Rather than attempting to determine the effects of bilingualism in general on cognitive functioning, these studies were conducted to compare the effects of differing degrees or levels of bilingual proficiency on cognition. For example, Duncan and De Avila compared the performance of five linguistic groups on measures of cognitive functioning. The linguistic comparison groups were termed Proficient Bilingual, Partial Bilingual, Monolingual, Limited Bilingual, and Late Language Learners. The bilingual groups were Spanish/English bilinguals. A positive and significant relationship was found between degree of relative language proficiency and cognitive-perceptual performance. The Proficient Bilingual children consistently and significantly

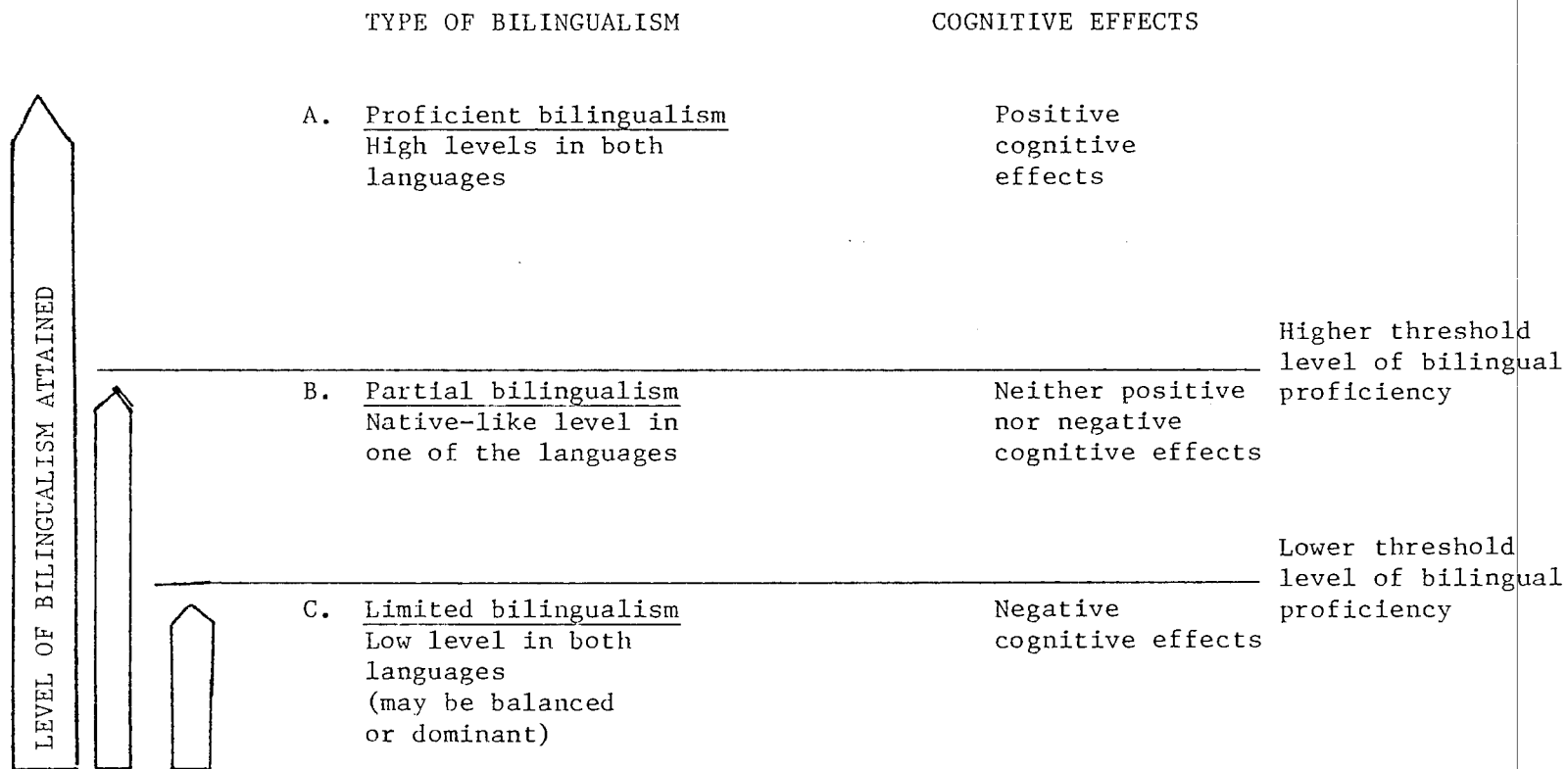


Figure 1. Cognitive Effects of Different Types of Bilingualism.

(Adapted by Cummins from Toukoma & Skutnabb-Kangas, 1977, p. 29.)

~~outperformed the four other groups on two of the three~~  
measures. There were no consistent differences found  
between the Limited Bilinguals and the Monolinguals  
(Duncan & De Avila, 1979).

Kessler and Quinn also examined the possible effects  
of differing degrees of bilingualism on cognition. Their  
study was designed to compare Spanish/English "additive"  
bilinguals, "subtractive" bilinguals, and English  
monolinguals in their ability to generate hypotheses or  
solutions for science problems. The results of the study  
indicate that the additive group significantly  
outperformed the subtractive group and that both groups  
scored significantly higher than the monolingual group  
(Kessler & Quinn, 1980).

## II: Sense of Story

### Sense of Story and Story Schema

Much work is now being undertaken in analyzing and  
theorizing upon children's sense of story: their  
expectations about story content, their internalized  
knowledge of the formal characteristics of a story, and  
their understanding of story structure. According to  
Applebee, sense of story begins as early as 2-1/2 years of  
age and continues to develop as children grow (Applebee,  
1978). Applebee, in studying original stories written or  
dictated by children 2 to 5 years old and older children's

retelling of stories, found a strong developmental progression. The use of past tense was found to be the first story convention to develop followed by formal beginnings such as "Once upon a time ..." and "There was ...." By five, most children are using these particular formal conventions of story. The use of formal ending comes considerably later. At five years of age there is significantly greater use of dialogue, and the beginnings of complex plot forms with clear causal links are being established. The thematic center, including a climax tied to a theme, is relatively undeveloped until after nine years of age (Applebee, 1978).

Sense of story can be seen as a personal construct which develops and progresses toward a mature internalized representation. This internalized representation also aids comprehension in listening and reading and allows the child to make predictions based on previously accrued experience about possible meaning. Just as sense of story affects comprehension and facility in reading and listening to stories, it also affects the ability to retell and create stories (Brown, 1980).

The internalized representation of story structure to which Applebee refers is termed "story schema" by many other researchers. The word "schema" is taken from the psychological literature, where it has had a long history,

most commonly associated with the works on memory by Bartlett (1932) and Piaget (1960). A schema represents generic knowledge, that which is believed to be true of a class of things, events, or situations. According to Mandler and Johnson, people construct story schemata from two sources: 1) from listening to stories, from which they gain knowledge about the sequencing of events in stories, including how they typically begin and end, and 2) from experience, from which they gain knowledge about causal relationships and various kinds of action sequences. Mandler and Johnson contend that people use schemata to guide comprehension during encoding and as a retrieval mechanism during recall (Mandler & Johnson, 1977).

#### Sense of Story and the Spectator Role of Language

Sense of story is an application of what Applebee terms the spectator role of language. According to Applebee, one's spectator role develops as one moves beyond the basic "expressive mode." The central feature of the expressive mode of language is that participants are able to rely on a shared representation of experience (Applebee, 1978). When one seeks to move beyond the "commonsense, taken-for-granted world of the expressive," other forms of language use become necessary (Applebee, 1978, p. 7). The spectator role emerges as one attempts



to structure and modify experience. Use of language in the spectator role may include gossip, poetry, drama, story, and fantasizing, in fact, any mental activity which provides a symbolization of subjective feeling through the careful structuring of experience (Applebee, 1978).

Thus, sense of story can be seen as an aspect of decontextualized language, that is, language as used beyond the basic interpersonal context or expressive mode. Sense of story is an example of what Cummins terms "context-reduced communication" wherein one can no longer assume the shared reality of the immediate interpersonal context (Cummins, 1981). It is this ability to process decontextualized language as seen in sense of story that is an aspect of what Cummins calls cognitive-academic learning proficiency, that aspects of language proficiency which is strongly related to the development of literacy skills and general academic success (Cummins, 1981).

#### Story Schema and Story Grammars

Much of the research on story schema deals with the ability of subjects to recall stories. Story schema has been shown to be developmental in studies of story recall conducted by Mandler and Johnson (1977) and by McConaughy (1980).

Mandler and Johnson examined the story recalling ability of a group of first-graders, a group of fourth-

graders, and a group of university students. The recalled stories were scored on the basis of the inclusion of six basic categories: settings, beginnings, reactions, attempts, outcomes, and endings. In general, the adults recalled more than the fourth-grade subjects, who, in turn, recalled more than the first-grade subjects. The first-graders tended to omit reactions, attempts, and endings when recalling the stories. The fourth-grade subjects showed a similar pattern of recall, but without evidence of a significant differentiation between outcomes and attempts. The adults recalled attempts almost as well as settings, beginnings, and outcomes, although their recall of endings and reactions fell behind (Mandler & Johnson, 1977).

McConaughy asked college students and fifth-grade students to read and summarize stories. She found that children recalled principally the setting, initiating event, and resolution, while adults showed good recall of all components of the stories (McConaughy, 1980).

In order to analyze story schema, text grammars have been developed by such researchers as Rumelhart (1975) and Mandler and Johnson (1977) to describe how a story schema is organized into categories of information. One of the most usable and well-defined story grammars developed to date is the Stein and Glenn story grammar analysis (Stein

& Glenn, 1979). This grammar defines categories of information that are present in most stories and delineates the relationships among said categories. Stein and Glenn have used this grammar to analyze stories produced by children (Stein & Glenn, 1977).

There are six basic categories in the Stein and Glenn story grammar:

SETTING: The setting introduces the main character(s) and describes the social, physical, or temporal context in which the remainder of the story takes place. The Setting allows the Episode, the basic unit of story analysis in this grammar.

The Episode describes an entire behavioral sequence: a causal change of events beginning with an Initiating Event and ending with a resolution. An Episode consists of:

INITIATING EVENT: The Initiating Event causes a response in the main character. It may consist of a natural occurrence, an action, or an event that causes some change either within or external to the character.

MOTIVATING STATE (INTERNAL RESPONSE): The Motivating State indicates that a state of disequilibrium has occurred in the character (affective response), that a desire or intention is

stated (goal), or that the character has specific thoughts about the event (cognition). The Motivating State motivates or directs later behavior.

ATTEMPT: The Attempt refers to the character's overt actions to attain a goal.

CONSEQUENCE: The Consequence expresses the attainment or non-attainment of the character's goal. It includes the character's final actions and their results.

REACTION: The Reaction consists of the character's response to the consequence and includes his or her feelings or thoughts about the attainment or non-attainment of the goal (Stein & Glenn, 1977).

Appendix B contains an example of a simple episode and its division into the six aforementioned categories.

In a major study, Stein and Glenn examined the logical organization of stories generated by children, analyzing the stories by means of the Stein and Glenn grammar mentioned above. The study showed that the stories generated conformed to their grammar but that they ranged in complexity. They found that not all stories produced by children were what the researchers termed Complete Episodes. This finding led to the development of a continuum of story complexity designed to account for all of the types of stories elicited from the children in

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the study. The graded set of structures included in the continuum was defined according to informational categories, and intercategory relationships found in each individual structure were also found in the subsequent more complex structure (Stein & Glenn, 1978).

The simplest structure in the Stein and Glenn continuum is the Descriptive Sequence which consists of statements that describe typical feelings, traits, behavior, or environment, or that describe natural changes in the environment. There are no causal relationships between statements, and the statements appear in a simple list-like form.

The second structural type is the Action Sequence which contains a series of related actions. The events are listed without explicit motive or goal.

Higher on the continuum is the Reactive Sequence which consists of changes in the story environment which cause the protagonist to respond. Planning and goal-directed behavior do not form a part of this sequence.

The fourth structure is the Abbreviated Episode which describes causally related changes in the environment. In this structure, the character's behavior is goal-directed and results in either goal-attainment or non-attainment.

The fifth structure, the Complete Episode, forms the basic organizational unit of the grammar. It contains all

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the aforementioned elements with the addition of a Consequence and/or a Reaction to the attainment or non-attainment of the goal.

The Complex and/or Interactive Episode comprise the sixth step on the continuum. These structures are variations and extensions of the Complete Episode. The Complex Episode involves some complication of the basic Complete Episode, while the Interactive Episode consists of a story with two or more characters who each participate in a separate episodic structure.

The seventh and last structure is termed the Multiple Structure Story. It describes a story that contains two or more of the preceding structures (Stein & Glenn, 1979).

The present study employed the Stein and Glenn story continuum in the analysis of stories created by children. The intent was to examine spontaneously generated stories as reflections of the extent to which individuals have acquired a mental map or schema of the story genre.

#### Summary of Chapter II

A review of the literature relating to bilingualism and cognition revealed that, while many researchers assert that bilingual children perform below monolingual children on a variety of cognitive tasks, more recent findings refute this assertion. Many studies have suggested that bilingualism produces positive cognitive effects. In an

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attempt to resolve the conflicting results of the studies, James Cummins has put forth his threshold hypothesis which contends that a certain degree of proficiency in both languages must be attained for positive cognitive effects to result for the individual.

In this chapter, sense of story was defined as one's internalized knowledge of the formal characteristics of a story and one's understanding of story structure. It was seen that a child's sense of story can be examined through story recall procedures or through stories told by the child.

The development of story grammars for the purpose of analyzing stories was discussed. Story grammars are a means to parse a story into categories of information or complexity. The Stein and Glenn story grammar, used in the present study, was described.

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## CHAPTER III

### DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study was to determine if differences exist among monolingual, partial bilingual, and proficient bilingual children in the level of sophistication of their sense of story. Sense of story was analyzed by the application of selected measures to stories told by the children. The following steps were taken to accomplish this purpose: 1) selection of the subjects, 2) selection of the instruments, 3) collection of stories, 4) content analysis of stories, and 5) treatment of the data. The aforementioned steps are discussed in this chapter.

#### Selection of the Subjects

The subjects for this study were chosen in April 1983 from grades four, five, and six at two schools in the Stockton Unified School District, San Joaquin County, California. The total population of the city of Stockton as of the 1980 Census is 150,999. The breakdown of this population by ethnic origin is as follows: 57.3% non-hispanic white, 10.4% black, 21.7% hispanic, and 10.6% other (includes Pacific Asians and American Indians).



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According to the 1980 Census Tracts for San Joaquin County, 22.1% of the work force of the city of Stockton is in managerial and professional specialty occupations, 32.4% in technical, sales, and administrative support occupations, 14.9% in service occupations, 4.1% in farming-related occupations, 10.7% in precision production, craft, and repair occupations, and 5.8% employed as operators, fabricators, and laborers. It was reported that 10.1% of the work force was unemployed (Census Tracts, 1983).

The subjects were chosen from El Dorado Elementary School and from Richard Valenzuela Elementary School. The El Dorado School curriculum encompasses kindergarten through grade six and draws from a lower to middle class population. Richard Valenzuela School is a multilingual magnet school serving lower to middle class children, grades K through six. Valenzuela School provides instruction in English-as-a-Second-Language, Spanish, Tagalog, and Mandarin, as well as its regular curriculum in English.

Permission to conduct this study was secured from the district superintendent, the district director of research, and from the principals of both schools. A meeting was held with the teachers of grades four, five, and six at each site to explain the purpose of the study,

to elicit the teachers' cooperation, and to assure them that the research process would not seriously disrupt the students' regular academic activities.

Ninety children were selected as subjects, representing grades four, five, and six, and three categories of linguistic proficiency: Monolingual English, Partial Bilingual English/Spanish, and Proficient Bilingual English/Spanish. The sample included thirty subjects from each grade level. Within each grade level, ten subjects represented each of the three linguistic categories, as represented in Table 1. The selection process for each linguistic group was carried out as follows.

TABLE 1  
Linguistic Categories of Subjects

	Monolingual	Partial Bilingual	Proficient Bilingual
grade 4	10	10	10
grade 5	10	10	10
grade 6	10	10	10

Selection of Monolingual Subjects

A list of students from grades four, five, and six whose sole language was English was obtained from school

records at El Dorado School. The researcher verified that the students were monolingual in English by examining the school's records of student home language. Any student whose records indicated a home language other than English was eliminated from the Monolingual group. Also eliminated was any student identified as possessing a learning disability. From the resulting list, ten students in each grade level were randomly selected as potential Monolingual subjects.

Once the possible subjects were identified, the researcher sent a letter to each subject's parents requesting permission for the subject's participation in the study (see Appendix A). Parent permission was secured for all Monolingual subjects.

The Language Assessment Scales/English (Duncan & De Avila, 1977) was then administered to said subjects to determine their oral linguistic proficiency. All thirty subjects scored at 88 or better on the Language Assessment Scales, placing them at the Proficient level in English. The Language Assessment Scales is discussed in detail later in this chapter.

#### Selection of Bilingual Subjects

Teachers were asked to submit a list of students judged to be bilingual English/Spanish. The researcher

supplemented this list from school records showing Spanish as a home language for students.

Upon identifying 84 possible bilingual subjects, the researcher sent letters in English and Spanish to the subjects' parents requesting that they permit their son or daughter to participate in the study (See Appendix A). Parent permission was secured for all but one of the potential subjects.

The Language Assessment Scales/English was then administered to the remaining 83 subjects. Nine subjects failed to score above 88 in oral English proficiency and were eliminated from the study. The Language Assessment Scales/Spanish was then administered to the remaining 74 subjects.

The research design necessitated ten subjects at the Proficient level and ten at the Partial level at each of the three grade levels. To be placed at the Proficient level in Spanish, the subjects needed to score between 88 and 100. To be placed at the Partial level in Spanish required a score between 70 and 82. Six subjects scored below the Partial level and were eliminated from the study.

Twelve grade four subjects scored between 70 and 82, placing them at the Partial level. Two subjects were dropped from this group by random selection. Fourteen

grade four subjects scored above 88, placing them at the Proficient level. Four subjects were dropped from this group by random selection.

Eleven grade five subjects scored between 70 and 82, placing them at the Partial level. One subject was dropped from this group by random selection. Twelve subjects from grade five scored above 88, placing them at the Proficient level. Two subjects were dropped from this group by random selection.

Fourteen grade six subjects scored between 70 and 82, placing them at the Partial level. Four subjects were dropped from this group by random selection. Eleven grade six subjects scored above 88, placing them at the Proficient level. One subject was dropped from this group by random selection.

#### The Instruments

There were four instruments used to select subjects and gather data to investigate the research questions.

#### Language Assessment Scales

The Language Assessment Scales (LAS), English and Spanish forms (Duncan & De Avila, 1977), was used to determine the oral linguistic proficiency of the subjects and to group them accordingly. Both the Spanish and English versions of the LAS are comprised of five subscales: Minimal Pairs, Lexical, Phonemes, Sentence

Comprehension, and Oral Production. Based on combined subscale scores, a separate total score is obtained for each language. This total score can then be converted to an oral proficiency level as seen in Table 2.

TABLE 2  
Interpretation of LAS Scores

Total Score	Oral Proficiency Level	Interpretation
85-100	5	Fluent
75-84	4	Speaker
65-74	3	Limited Speaker
55-64	2	Non-
0-54	1	Speaker

Source: Duncan & De Avila, 1981b, p. 8.

For the purposes of this study, the scoring divisions of the LAS were modified to better suit the research design. The modified groupings are shown in Table 3.

TABLE 3  
Modified Interpretation of LAS Scores

Total Score	Interpretation
88-100	Proficient
70-82	Partial

In the development of the LAS, De Avila and Duncan (1977) established five levels of proficiency based on the total of combined subscale scores. They collapsed these levels into three types of speakers: Fluent, Limited, and Non-Speaker, as shown in Table 2. In the current study, the researcher was interested in two types of bilingualism. The first type was that of a fluent, communicatively competent speaker of both Spanish and English. This type was identified as "proficient". The second type of bilingualism, "partial" bilingualism, was that of an individual who was somewhat competent in Spanish while possessing a native-like proficiency in English. Since the researcher was concerned that her subjects represent a highly proficient level, i.e., that of a fluent speaker of LAS level 5, the score division of 88-100 was utilized (see Table 3) to identify the group of students as proficient speakers of both Spanish and English

(Proficient) or as proficient speakers of English alone (Partial Bilingual and Monolingual). The score division of 70-82 in Spanish was determined to designate the Partial level. This division would encompass the speakers who would be in the "near fluent" to the upper levels of "limited" as discussed in De Avila and Duncan (1981b). This division would more closely match the level of language competence determined to be appropriate for the Partial Bilingual subjects in this study.

According to the LAS technical manual (Duncan & De Avila, 1981a), reliability coefficients were determined by using three procedures: test-retest, Cronbach's Alpha, and split-half. These reliability coefficients are reported in Table 4.

TABLE 4  
Reliability of LAS: English and Spanish  
(n=64)

Test-retest		Cronbach's Alpha		Split-half	
LAS English	LAS Spanish	English	Spanish	English	Spanish
.88	.96	.94	.95	.85	.60



In examining the manual's discussion of the validity of the LAS, the researcher determined that the LAS was appropriate for the identification of linguistic categories. Empirical data presented in the manual seem to indicate that LAS subtests correlate highly with each other (convergent validity). Results of factor and cluster analyses suggest that in comparison to other types of cognitive tests, the LAS subscales group together to form a clear language cluster (construct validity). Finally, the data regarding discriminate validity indicate that the LAS successfully discriminates between proficient and limited speakers of either English or Spanish (Duncan & De Avila, 1981a).

#### Language Arts Scope and Sequence

Scores for each subject on the Language Arts Scope and Sequence (LASS) instrument were gathered in order to determine that there were no initial differences among the linguistic groups on a measure representing English language skills. The LASS is an instrument developed by the Stockton Unified School District to assess the development of basic language skills (Stockton Unified School District, 1977). A version of this instrument appropriate for each grade level is administered in the Fall and Spring of each academic year. This study is

concerned only with the versions corresponding to grades four, five, and six.

The subscales of the LASS for grade four include vocabulary, word analysis, comprehension, study skills, and written expression. The grade five subscales include vocabulary, comprehension, study skills, and written expression. The grade six subscales include comprehension, vocabulary, study location skills, written language skills, and student writing. The total Spring 1983 LASS score was gathered for each subject and represented a composite of the language skills assessed.

The Kuder-Richardson reliability coefficients for the LASS, as provided by school district personnel, are reported in Table 5. Inasmuch as the LASS is a locally developed instrument, a complete technical manual was not available to the researcher.

TABLE 5

Reliability Coefficients for the LASS

Grade	Total LASS
4	.951
5	.948
6	.949

SOURCE: Conniff, 1983

The researcher determined, through examination of the instrument and discussion with school district personnel, that the LASS was an acceptable measure of general achievement in language-related skills. On the basis of an examination of the instrument, the researcher was satisfied that the content of the instrument did correspond to the domain of skills assessed. Further, district personnel provided the researcher with correlations of the LASS and the corresponding language-related sections of the Metropolitan Achievement Test (Balow et al., 1978). Pearson r coefficients indicating a strong correlation of the two instruments are listed in Table 6. According to these data, it seems apparent that the LASS as a measure of skills is similar to the MAT, a well-known and widely used instrument.

TABLE 6

LASS with MAT Spring 1980	
Grades	Pearson r
4	.85
5	.82
6	.83

SOURCE: Conniff, 1983

### Socioeconomic Status

Socioeconomic data concerning the subjects were collected in order to determine that no initial differences existed among the linguistic groups due to socioeconomic position. This data, based on parental occupation, was collected through the Survey of Basic Skills: Grade 6 - 1982 (California State Department of Education, 1982). Teachers were asked to determine to the best of their ability the occupational categories of the subjects' parents (see Appendix D).

### Stein and Glenn Continuum of Story Complexity

The story schema or story grammar usage evident in the collected stories was analyzed according to the Stein and Glenn Continuum of Story Complexity (Glenn & Stein, 1978). This continuum is based on a story grammar that was developed by Stein and Glenn with the purpose of defining categories of information present in most stories and to delineate the relationships among these categories (Stein & Glenn, 1979). The six basic categories in the Stein and Glenn Grammar, as discussed in Chapter II, are setting, initiating event, motivating state, attempt, consequence, and reaction. These categories comprise the Complete Episode.

Story generation was used by Stein and Glenn to examine the validity of their story grammar (Stein &

Glenn, 1978). Stein and Glenn collected stories, parsed them according to the grammar, and found that not all stories were Complete Episodes. The researchers determined that a graded set of structures was necessary to characterize the stories. Through analysis of the stories, Stein and Glenn identified seven structural types of stories. In ascending order of complexity, these structures are Descriptive Sequences, Action Sequences, Reactive Sequences, Abbreviated Episodes, Complex and/or Interactive Episodes, and Multiple Structure Stories. These structures comprise the Stein and Glenn Continuum of Story Complexity. In the present study, story grammar usage was measured using this continuum as adapted by Summers (Summers, 1980) (see Appendix C).

#### Method of Data Collection

##### Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted in order to determine the appropriateness of the data gathering process and to discern the most effective means of eliciting stories from the subjects. Fifteen subjects were selected at random from monolingual English students not participating in the study. These subjects included five from grade four, five from grade five, and five from grade six. Parent permission was secured for each subject's participation in the pilot study. The LAS/English was administered to

these subjects, and it was determined that all were proficient in English. This was necessary to ensure that all subjects would be able to understand instructions and that any difficulty encountered in eliciting stories would not be attributable to linguistic deficiency.

The researcher met with each subject individually. It was explained to the subject that he or she had been selected to participate in this part of the study. Since the subjects had already been tested for linguistic proficiency, they were already aware that a study was being undertaken. The subjects were asked to tell a story about any subject, and the stories were recorded on tape. Eleven of the pilot study subjects showed no reticence to tell a story. However, four of the subjects were confused about what was required of them. The researcher assured the subjects that they were not being tested and that anything they said would be kept in the strictest confidence. This reassurance seemed to calm the subjects. The researcher then asked the subjects some general questions about the story genre. The four subjects then seemed to better comprehend what was being asked of them and were able to produce stories which were recorded by the researcher.

The fifteen stories were transcribed. Three research assistants were trained by the researcher to rate

the stories according to the Stein and Glenn Continuum Story Guide (see Appendix C). The Directions for Use of Scoring Guide through which the assistants were trained can be found in Appendix C. The assistants and the researcher rated the transcribed stories, resulting in a total of four ratings for each story.

In order to establish the consistency of the researcher as the sole scorer of the stories in the principal study, Pearson Product-Moment correlations were calculated for the ratings of the pilot study stories. These correlations used the researcher as the criterion and each rater as the predictor variable. These three correlation coefficients are reported in Table 7. The results of these calculations indicated that there was strong agreement between the ratings produced by the researcher and those of the raters. An additional correlation was calculated based on the sum of the three ratings, using said sum as the predictor of the researchers' scores. The result of this summed correlation, reported in Table 8, provides further evidence that the researcher was consistent in the scoring of the stories according to the Stein and Glenn Continuum.

TABLE 7  
Correlations for Ratings of Pilot Study Stories

Researcher with Rater X	.98
Researcher with Rater Y	.83
Researcher with Rater Z	.98

TABLE 8  
Summed Correlation for Ratings of Pilot Study Stories

Researcher with Raters X, Y, and Z	.95
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Based on the pilot study, story collection procedures were refined, and an instruction sheet was developed to aid the research assistants in collecting the stories and to promote consistency in the collection procedures (see Appendix E). An interview form was also developed based on the questions asked during the pilot study (see Appendix F). The purpose of the interview was to focus the subjects' attention on story as a genre, and, in the process, to relax the subjects in order to facilitate the eliciting of stories. It was reported by the research assistants that the subject interview was to help in establishing a rapport with the subjects. It was also reported that the interview questions seemed to clarify



the purpose of the study and aided the subjects in the production of stories.

#### Story Collection Procedures

Three research assistants were trained to collect and transcribe the ninety stories. The researcher held three training sessions. The first session dealt with collection procedures. During the second session, each assistant was observed individually while collecting a story from a volunteer subject. These volunteers were not included in the pilot study nor in the principal study. The researcher then discussed the observed collection of stories with the assistants with the goal of improving the procedure. The third training session concerned the transcription of the stories and the care that was essential in said activity.

Each research assistant was given an instruction sheet designed to serve as a reminder of the training session and to promote consistency among the assistants in the collection of stories (see Appendix E). The assistants met with their assigned subjects on an individual basis. The subjects were interviewed and their responses recorded by hand on the interview sheets (see Appendix F). The stories generated by the subjects were recorded on tape. No subject refused to tell a story. A few subjects proved reticent, at which point the

assistants shut off the tape recorder and talked with the children, after which the subjects produced stories. The taped stories were then transcribed by the research assistants. Transcribed stories are to be found in Appendix G.

### Analysis of Stories

The stories generated by the subjects were analyzed in three areas: structural complexity, story convention use, and story schema or story grammar usage.

#### Structural Complexity

Structural complexity was measured by the following criteria:

- Number of words
- Number of T-units
- Mean length of T-units
- Number of characters
- Number of incidents

All of the above criteria were used by Applebee as indices of linguistic development in his study of children's concept of story (Applebee, 1978).

To determine the number of words in each story, a tally was made of all words, including those in the formal beginning and ending if applicable.

T-units, each main clause with its accompanying subordinate clauses, were counted in each story. The mean

length of T-units was then determined.

The number of characters in each story was determined. A character was defined as the story's protagonist and each person who interacted with the protagonist. Animals were counted as characters if they were personified in the story. Collective characters such as "parents" or "police" that acted as one person were counted as one character.

An incident was defined as an event or series of events in a story that join with each other to form an episode. In this study, the incident was conceived of as a unit, a building-block, that advanced the story action. In some stories, one event might comprise an incident, whereas in other stories, several minor actions or events were judged to form a sole incident when combined. The number of incidents in each story was tallied.

#### Story Convention Use

Use of story conventions was measured by the use or omission of the following criteria:

Consistent use of past tense

Formal beginning

Formal ending

Use of dialogue: quoted or described

All of the above criteria were used by Applebee as indices

of development of the sense of story in children (Applebee, 1978).

If the majority of verbs in a story was formed in the past tense, it was determined that there was consistent use of the past tense.

If a story began with "Once upon a time" or "there was (were)...," it was determined that a formal beginning was used.

If a story ended with "The end," "They lived happily," or "happily ever after," it was determined that a formal ending was used.

The stories were also analyzed for the use of dialogue, whether it was described ("John said that he was going.") or, in more advance stories, quoted ("John said, 'I'm going.'").

#### Story Schema Analysis

The transcribed stories were analyzed by the researcher according to the scoring guide (see Appendix C) based on the Stein and Glenn Continuum of Story Complexity. In this scoring guide, each category of each story structure was assigned five points. High order structures were assigned all the point values of the inferior structures, since the categories and relationships in each structure can be found in the next higher structure. Because a structure may or may not

contain all the categories and relationships available to it, a range of scores within each structure is possible. Consequently, a minimum and maximum score is provided for each story structure. Directions for use of the scoring guide can be found in Appendix C.

The raw scores for stories on the Stein and Glenn Continuum range from five points for the lowest possible Descriptive Sequence to 140 points for the highest possible Multiple Structure Story. A score of zero would be possible if the subject were to generate no more than a sentence. The Complex Episode structure and the Interactive Episode structure are assigned the same point value because Stein and Glenn state that some narratives can be both Complex and Interactive, although the two structures possess distinguishing characteristics (Stein & Glenn, 1978).

#### Treatment of the Data

After the data were collected (see Appendix H), several statistical analyses were conducted using the Statiscal Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) (Nie, Hull, Jenkins, Steinbrenner, & Dale, 1975). All of the analyses were done at the University of the Pacific Academic Computing Center on a Burroughs 6700.

Descriptive data on all the variables utilized in this study were calculated using the "Frequencies"

subprogram of SPSS. Descriptive data reported in Chapter IV include ranges, means, and standard deviations for those variables utilized in the Analyses of Variance and Analyses of Covariance. Descriptive data for those variables used in the Chi Square analyses include frequencies and percentages.

Analysis of Variance was used to determine if there were any differences among the language groups on socioeconomic status and on the LASS, a measure of English language skills. Socioeconomic status (SES) was considered a variable that could be potentially confounding to the results if significant differences existed among the three groups. It was desirable to have groups that would not be significantly different in levels of achievement in English language related tasks. The results of the Analysis of Variance for socioeconomic status by linguistic group is reported in Table 9. Table 10 contains descriptive data for each group on the socioeconomic status measure. The results of the Analysis of Variance for the LASS by linguistic group is reported in Table 11. Table 12 contains descriptive data for each of the groups on the LASS measure. Duncan's New Multiple Range Test, set at a significance level of .01 was used to determine which group might differ significantly from the others on both SES and LASS. No significant differences

significance level of .01 was used to determine which group might differ significantly from the others on both SES and LASS. No significant differences were found when each mean was examined in relation to another in its group. Although differences were found through the Analysis of Variance among the family of means in each group, when the more stringent aftertest (.01) was applied, the means did not differ significantly when compared one to the other.

TABLE 9  
 Analysis of Variance of Socioeconomic Status  
 by Linguistic Groups

Source	d.f.	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio
Between Groups	2	5.07	2.53	4.094*
Within Groups	87	53.83	0.62	
Total	89	58.90		

\*p < .05

TABLE 10  
Descriptive Statistics of SES  
by Linguistic Group

Group	n	X	SD
Proficient Bilingual	30	1.90	.99
Partial Bilingual	30	1.37	.61
Monolingual	30	1.83	

TABLE 11  
Analysis of Variance of the LASS  
by Linguistic Group

Source	d.f.	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio
Between Groups	2	2406.67	1203.33	3.804*
Within Groups	87	27519.73	316.32	
Total	89	29926.40		

\*p < .05



TABLE 12  
 Descriptive Statistics of the LASS  
 by Linguistic Group

Group	n	X	SD
Proficient Bilingual	30	65.53	17.56
Partial Bilingual	30	56.87	17.26
Monolingual	30	69.20	18.51

Since initial differences were found in a global sense among the three groups on both SES and the LASS, the computation of Analyses of Covariance with SES and the LASS as covariates was necessary to control for the possible effects of these variables on other measures used in this study. The Analyses of Covariance were used to allow the researcher to examine differences among the three linguistic groups as described in Hypotheses One through Nine, while holding constant the possible effects of SES and the LASS. Chi Square analyses were used to analyze data related to Hypotheses Six through Nine.

#### Summary of Chapter III

This chapter described the design and methodology of this study which proposed to examine sense of story in

stories told by monolingual, partial bilingual, and proficient bilingual children. The subjects were chosen from grades four, five, and six at two elementary schools and were grouped into the three linguistic categories through the application of selected measures herein described. The subjects' scores on a measure representing English language skills were collected for purposes of eliminating the effects of initial differences among the linguistic groups.

Socioeconomic data were also collected in order to determine that no initial differences existed among the linguistic groups in socioeconomic status.

The Stein and Glenn Continuum of Story Complexity, used in this study to analyze story grammar usage, was described.

The pilot study, conducted to determine the effectiveness of the data gathering process, was described. The pilot study resulted in the refinement of the story collection procedures, and interrater reliability of the story analysis measures was established.

The collected stories were analyzed through criteria of structural complexity, use of story conventions, and through the examination of story schema.

The treatment of the data was discussed. Analyses of

Variance determined that initial differences existed among the linguistic groups in English language skills and socioeconomic status. Analyses of Covariance were used, therefore, to test Hypotheses One through Five. Chi Square analyses were used to test Hypotheses Six through Nine.

## CHAPTER IV

### RESULTS

The intent of this study was to investigate and ascertain if there was a difference among monolingual (English) children, partial bilingual (English-Spanish) children and proficient bilingual (English-Spanish) children in the level of sophistication of their sense of story. Sense of story was analyzed by the application of selected measures to spontaneous stories related orally by children. Data descriptive of each measure are presented first. Specifically, ranges, means, and standard deviations for those variables are reported in Tables 13-17.

Three general research questions were posed. They are as follows:

1. Is there a difference among monolingual, partial bilingual, and proficient bilingual children on measures of structural complexity shown in orally-generated stories?
2. Is there a difference among monolingual, partial bilingual, and proficient bilingual children in

TABLE 13

Descriptive Statistics of Stein and Glenn Continuum  
 Scores and Measures of Structural Complexity for  
 Partial Bilingual Group

n = 30

	Range	Mean	Standard Deviation
S&G	10-135	65.53	37.99
WDS	50-246	114.13	54.22
TU	5-31	14.47	7.31
XTU	.07-.17	.13	.02
CHAR	1-5	2.33	1.16
INCID	0-9	3.37	2.06

TABLE 14

Descriptive Statistics of Stein and Glenn Continuum  
Scores and Measures of Structural Complexity for  
Proficient Bilingual Group  
(n = 30)

	Range	Mean	Standard Deviation
S&G	40-135	105.50	26.73
WDS	37-299	133.73	68.03
TU	5-30	15.30	6.92
XTU	.08-.16	.12	.02
CHAR	1-8	2.83	1.51
INCID	1-9	3.73	2.00

TABLE 15  
 Descriptive Statistics of Stein and Glenn Continuum  
 Scores and Measures of Structural Complexity  
 for Monolingual Group  
 (n = 30)

	Range	Mean	Standard Deviation
S&G	5-140	105.50	32.52
WDS	37-560	152.90	119.79
TU	5-59	18.13	13.61
XTU	.07-.17	.12	.02
CHAR	1-5	2.63	1.07
INCID	0-9	3.33	2.04

TABLE 16

Descriptive Statistics of SES, LASS Scores, Stein  
and Glenn Continuum Scores, and Measures of  
Structural Complexity for Total Sample  
(n = 90)

	Range	Mean	Standard Deviation
SES	1-4	1.70	.81
LASS	10-99	63.87	18.34
S&G	5-140	100.06	33.28
WDS	37-560	133.59	85.99
TU	5-59	15.97	9.79
CHAR	1-8	2.60	1.26
INCID	0-9	3.48	2.02



TABLE 17  
 Descriptive Statistics of Story Conventions  
 for Total Sample  
 (n = 90)

Convention	Frequency		Percent	
	yes	no	yes	no
Past Tense	84	4	93	7
Formal Beginning	82	8	91	9
Formal Ending	35	55	39	61
Dialogue-Quoted	28	62	31	69
Dialogue-Described	13	77	14	86

the use of conventions in orally generated stories?

3. Is there a difference among monolingual, partial bilingual, and proficient bilingual children in story schema (story grammar usage) as shown in orally generated stories?

These questions yielded the following research hypotheses which are presented below with the results of the statistical analyses.

Hypothesis One predicted that, in a group of children from grades four, five, and six, proficient bilinguals would score higher than partial bilinguals and monolinguals on the level of story grammar usage as measured by the Stein and Glenn Continuum (S&G). To test this hypothesis, an Analysis of Covariance was performed. The result is reported in Table 18. There were no significant differences among linguistic groups on the level of story grammar usage as measured by the Stein and Glenn Continuum. Apparently, type of linguistic group has no effect on a student's level of story grammar usage.

Hypothesis Two predicted that in a group of children from grades four, five, and six proficient bilinguals would score higher than partial bilinguals and monolinguals in the number of words (WDS) present in their orally generated stories. To test this hypothesis, an

TABLE 18

Analysis of Covariance of Stein and Glenn Continuum  
 by Linguistic Group with SES and LASS as Covariates  
 (n = 90)

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	D.F.	Mean Square	F
Covariates	792.706	2	396.353	.368
SES	790.949	1	790.949	.735
LASS	33.245	1	33.245	.031
Main effects				
Linguistic category	6322.293	2	3161.146	2.938
Explained	7114.999	4	1778.750	1.653
Residual	91459.723	85	1075.997	
Total	98574.722	89	1107.581	

Analysis of Covariance was performed. The result is reported in Table 19. There were no significant differences among linguistic groups on the number of words produced in an orally generated story. Apparently, type of linguistic group has no effect on the number of words generated in orally produced stories.

Hypothesis Three predicted that, in a group of children from grades four, five, and six, proficient bilinguals would score higher than partial bilinguals and monolinguals in the number of T-units (TU) or mean length of T-units (XTU) present in their orally generated stories. To test this hypothesis, Analyses of Covariance were performed. The results are reported in Tables 20 and 21. There were no significant differences among linguistic groups on the number of T-units or mean length of T-units produced in orally generated stories. Apparently, type of linguistic group has no effect on the number of t-units or the mean length of t-units in orally generated stories.

Hypothesis Four predicted that, in a group of children from grades four, five, and six, proficient bilinguals would score higher than partial bilinguals and monolinguals in the number of characters (CHAR) present in their orally generated stories. To test this hypothesis, an Analysis of Covariance was performed. The result is

TABLE 19

Analysis of Covariance by Number of Words by  
Linguistic Group with SES and LASS as Covariates  
(n = 90)

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	D.F.	Mean Square	F
Covariates	23540.555	2	11770.277	1.641
SES	9446.942	1	9446.942	1.317
LASS	10365.940	1	10365.940	1.445
Main Effects				
Linguistic category	24861.800	2	12430.900	1.733
Explained	48402.355	4	12100.589	1.687
Residual	609761.434	85	7173.664	
Total	658163.789	89	7395.099	

TABLE 20

Analysis of Covariance of Number of T-units by Linguistic  
Group with SES and LASS as Covariates  
(n = 90)

Source Variation	Sum of Squares	D.F.	Mean Square	F
Covariates	306.049	2	153.024	1.620
SES	179.039	1	179.039	1.895
LASS	81.125	1	81.125	.859
Main effects				
Linguistic category	198.966	2	99.483	1.053
Explained	505.015	4	126.254	1.336
Residual	8029.885	85	94.469	
Total	8534.900	89	95.898	

TABLE 21

Analysis of Covariance of Mean Length of T-unit by  
Linguistic Group with SES and LASS as Covariates  
(n = 90)

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	D.F.	Mean Square	F
Covariates	.001	2	.000	.837
SES	.001	1	.001	1.241
LASS	.000	1	.000	.682
Main effects				
Linguistic category	.001	2	.000	.775
Explained	.002	4	.000	.806
Residual	.043	85	.001	
Total	.045	89	.001	

reported in Table 22. There were no significant differences among linguistic groups in the number of characters included in orally generated stories. Apparently, type of linguistic group has no effect on the number of characters included in orally generated stories.

Hypothesis Five predicted that, in a group of children from grades four, five, and six, proficient bilinguals would score higher than partial bilinguals and monolinguals in the number of incidents (INCID) present in their orally generated stories. To test this hypothesis, an Analysis of Covariance was performed. The result is reported in Table 23. There were no significant differences among linguistic groups in the number of incidents present in the stories. Apparently, type of linguistic group has no effect on the number of incidents present in orally generated stories.

Hypothesis Six predicted that, in a group of children from grades four, five, and six, proficient bilinguals would score higher than partial bilinguals and monolinguals in the consistent use of past tense present in their orally generated stories. To test this hypothesis, a Chi Square analysis was performed. The



TABLE 22

Analysis of Covariance of Number of Characters by  
Linguistic Group with SES and LASS as Covariates

(n = 90)

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	D.F.	Mean Square	F
Covariates	.942	2	.471	.291
SES	.422	1	.422	.261
LASS	.371	1	.371	.229
Main effects				
Linguistic category	3.081	2	1.540	.952
Explained	4.023	4	1.006	.621
Residual	137.577	85	1.619	
Total	141.600	89	1.591	

TABLE 23

Analysis of Covariance of Number of Incidents by  
Linguistic Group with SES and LASS as Covariates

(n = 90)

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	D.F.	Mean Square	F
Covariates	3.152	2	1.576	.374
SES	2.585	1	2.585	.614
LASS	.239	1	.239	.057
Main effects				
Linguistic category	1.441	2	.720	.171
Explained	4.593	4	1.148	.273
Residual	357.862	85	4.210	
Total	362.456	89	4.073	

result is reported in Table 24. There was a significant ( $p < .05$ ) but small (Eta .29) association, accounting for approximately eight percent of the variation among the three linguistic groups and the presence of past tense in the stories. Use of past tense is more evident among proficient bilinguals than among the other two groups.

TABLE 24  
 Chi Square Analysis of the Use of Past Tense  
 by Linguistic Group  
 (n = 90)

Linguistic Group	n		D.F.	Chi Square	Eta
	yes	no			
Partial	29	1			
Proficient	30	0	2	7.50*	.29
Monolingual	25	5			

\*  $p < .05$

Hypothesis Seven predicted that, in a group of children from grades four, five, and six, proficient bilinguals would score higher than partial bilinguals and monolinguals in the use of formal beginning in their orally generated stories. To test this hypothesis, a Chi Square analysis was performed. The result is reported in Table 25. There was no significant association among linguistic groups on use of formal beginnings in orally generated stories. Apparently, type of linguistic group has no association with presence or absence of formal beginning in orally generated stories.

TABLE 25  
 Chi Square Analysis of the Use of Formal Beginning  
 by Linguistic Group  
 (n = 90)

Linguistic Group	n		D.F.	Chi Square	Eta
	yes	no			
Partial	26	4			
Proficient	29	1	2	1.92	.146
Monolingual	27	3			

Hypothesis Eight predicted that, in a group of children from grades four, five, and six, proficient bilinguals will score higher than partial bilinguals and monolinguals in the use of formal ending in their orally generated stories. To test this hypothesis, a Chi Square analysis was performed. The result is reported in Table 26. There was no significant association among linguistic groups on use of formal ending in orally generated stories. Apparently, type of linguistic group has no association with presence or absence of formal ending in orally generated stories.

TABLE 26  
 Chi Square Analysis of the Use of Formal Ending  
 by Linguistic Group  
 (n = 90)

Linguistic Group	n		D.F.	Chi Square	Eta
	yes	no			
Partial	12	18			
Proficient	15	15	2	3.46	.20
Monolingual	8	22			

Hypothesis Nine predicted that, in a group of children from grade four, five, and six, proficient bilinguals will score higher than partial bilinguals or monolinguals in the use of dialogue in their orally generated stories. Dialogue was examined by assessing the presence or absence of described dialogue and of quoted dialogue. To test this hypothesis, two Chi Square analyses were performed. The results are reported in Tables 27 and 28.

TABLE 27

Chi Square Analysis of the Use of Described Dialogue  
by Linguistic Group  
(n = 90)

Linguistic Group	n		D.F.	Chi Square	Eta
	yes	no			
Partial	3	27			
Proficient	4	26	2	1.26	.12
Monolingual	6	24			

TABLE 28

Chi Square Analysis of the Use of Quoted Dialogue  
by Linguistic Group  
(n = 90)

Linguistic Group	n		D.F.	Chi Square	Eta
	yes	no			
Partial	4	26			
Proficient	12	18	2	6.64*	.272
Monolingual	12	18			

\*p < .05

There was a significant ( $p < .05$ ) but small (Eta .27) association, accounting for approximately seven percent of the variation among the three linguistic groups and the presence of quoted dialogue in orally generated stories. Apparently, children designated as partial bilinguals tend to use quoted dialogue less than do their proficient bilingual or monolingual peers. There was no significant association among linguistic groups in their use of described dialogue in orally generated stories. Apparently, type of linguistic group has no association with presence or absence of described dialogue in orally generated stories.

### Summary of Chapter IV

Chapter IV contained the results of the analyses of the data.

Hypothesis One predicted that the proficient bilinguals would outperform the other linguistic groups in their level of story grammar usage. An Analysis of Covariance revealed no significant differences.

Hypothesis Two predicted that the proficient bilinguals would surpass the other linguistic groups in the number of words present in their stories. An Analysis of Covariance revealed no significant differences.

Hypothesis Three predicted that the proficient bilingual group would outperform the other linguistic groups in the number of T-units and mean length of T-units present in their stories. An Analysis of Covariance revealed no significant differences.

Hypothesis Four predicted the proficient bilinguals would outperform the other linguistic groups in number of characters present in their stories. An Analysis of Covariance revealed no significant differences.

Hypothesis Five predicted that the proficient bilingual group would surpass the other linguistic groups in number of incidents present in their stories. An Analysis of Covariance revealed no significant differences.



Hypothesis Six predicted that proficient bilinguals would surpass the other linguistic groups in the use of past tense in their stories. A Chi Square analysis revealed that the use of past tense was slightly more evident in the proficient bilingual group.

Hypothesis Seven predicted that proficient bilinguals would outperform the other linguistic groups in the use of formal beginning in their stories. A Chi Square analysis showed no significant association.

Hypothesis Eight predicted that proficient bilinguals would surpass the other linguistic groups in the use of formal ending in their stories. A Chi Square analysis revealed no significant association.

Hypothesis Nine predicted that the proficient group would surpass the other linguistic groups in the use of dialogue in their stories. A Chi Square analysis showed that partial bilinguals use quoted dialogue to a lesser extent than do the other groups. No significant association was found regarding described dialogue.

## CHAPTER V

### SUMMARY, DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter contains a summary of the study, a discussion of the findings, conclusions based on the findings, and recommendations for further research.

#### Summary

This study was an investigation of the effects of differing degrees of bilingualism on children's sense of story. The specific purpose of the study was to determine if differences existed among monolingual (English) children, partial bilingual (English-Spanish) children, and proficient bilingual (English-Spanish) children in the level of sophistication of their sense of story. Sense of story was analyzed by the application of selected measures to stories related by the children.

A review of related research revealed that certain degrees of bilingualism may have varying effects on certain cognitive processes, and that bilingual and monolingual children may manifest different levels of cognitive proficiency in various areas. While some early studies suggest that bilingualism may have a negative

effect on cognitive development, many recent studies suggest that a child's bilingualism can have a positive effect on both cognitive and linguistic development.

This study used sense of story as the aspect of cognition by which monolingual and bilingual children were compared. The term "sense of story" was used to refer to the degree to which children have internalized the features and structures of story as evidenced in stories related by children.

The ninety subjects for this study were drawn from grades four, five, and six at two elementary schools in Stockton, California. The total sample included thirty subjects from each grade level. Within each grade level, ten subjects represented each of the three linguistic categories: Monolingual (English), Partial Bilingual (English-Spanish), and Proficient Bilingual (English-Spanish).

The ninety stories collected from the subjects were analyzed according to the Stein and Glenn Continuum of Story Complexity and according to the following criteria: number of words, number of T-units, mean length of T-units, number of characters, number of incidents, use of past tense, use of formal beginning, use of formal ending, and use of dialogue.

### Summary of the Statistical Treatments Used

Analyses of Covariance were used to test Hypotheses One, Two, Three, Four, and Five. Chi Square Analyses were used to test Hypotheses Six, Seven, Eight, and Nine. The .05 level of confidence was used to determine statistical significance.

Below are the hypotheses of the study and the results of the analysis for each.

Hypothesis 1: It was predicted that, in a group of children from grades four, five, and six, proficient bilinguals would outperform partial bilinguals and monolinguals in the level of sophistication of their sense of story as shown on a measure of story grammar usage. No significant differences were found among the linguistic groups on the Stein and Glenn Continuum of Story Complexity, the measure of story grammar usage employed in this study.

Hypothesis 2: It was predicted that, in a group of children from grades four, five, and six, proficient bilinguals would outperform partial bilinguals and monolinguals in the number of words present in their orally generated stories. No significant differences were found among the linguistic groups in number of words.

Hypothesis 3: It was predicted that, in a group of children from grades four, five, and six, proficient

bilinguals would outperform partial bilinguals and monolinguals in the number of T-units and in the mean length of T-units present in their orally generated stories. No significant differences were found among the linguistic groups in number of T-units or mean length of T-units.

Hypothesis 4: It was predicted that, in a group of children from grades four, five, and six, proficient bilinguals would outperform partial bilinguals and monolinguals in the number of characters present in their orally generated stories. No significant differences were found in number of characters among the three linguistic groups.

Hypothesis 5: It was predicted that, in a group of children from grades four, five, and six, proficient bilinguals would outperform partial bilinguals and monolinguals in the number of incidents present in their orally generated stories. No significant differences were found in number of incidents among the linguistic groups.

Hypothesis 6: It was predicted that, in a group of children from grades four, five, and six, proficient bilinguals would outperform partial bilinguals and monolinguals in the consistent use of past tense present in their orally generated stories. A small but significant association was revealed among the three

linguistic groups in the use of past tense in the stories produced. Use of past tense was found to be slightly more evident among Proficient Bilinguals than the other groups. Since the association is so small, however, one hesitates to conclude that this finding lends support to the body of literature that suggests that proficient bilinguals may surpass their monolingual peers in cognitive functioning.

Hypothesis 7: It was predicted that, in a group of children from grades four, five, and six, proficient bilinguals would outperform partial bilinguals and monolinguals in the use of formal beginning in their orally generated stories. No significant associations were found among the three linguistic groups in the use of formal beginning.

Hypothesis 8: It was predicted that, in a group of children from grades four, five, and six, proficient bilinguals would outperform partial bilinguals and monolinguals in the use of formal ending in their orally generated stories. No significant associations were found among the linguistic groups in the use of formal ending.

Hypothesis 9: It was predicted that, in a group of children from grades four, five, and six, proficient bilinguals would outperform partial bilinguals and monolinguals in the use of dialogue in their orally generated stories. No significant associations were found

among the three linguistic groups in the use of described dialogue. However, in the use of quoted dialogue, Partial Bilinguals were found to fall behind the other two groups. The inclusion of quoted dialogue in a story is an indicator of a high degree of sophistication in the level of sense of story (Applebee, 1978). The poor performance of the Partial Bilinguals in this instance may lend a small degree of support to Cummins's assertion that a reasonable degree of balance between a bilingual's two languages may be essential to ensure a positive cognitive effect (Cummins, 1981).

With the exception of Hypotheses 6 and 9, where small but significant associations were found, no significant differences or associations were encountered between type of linguistic category and any of the criteria used to measure sense of story. While these findings do not support the assertions of the "positive" studies linking bilingualism with cognitive superiority, neither do they support the "negative" studies which contend that bilingualism is a retarding force in cognitive development.

Based on the results of this study, the validity of assuming the superiority of proficient bilinguals in all cognitive capabilities is in question. It is, of course, possible that the proficient bilinguals chosen for this

study had not yet achieved the level of proficiency necessary, according to Cummins's threshold hypothesis, to attain cognitive excellence. Other factors inherent in the nature of the sample may also apply. The proficient bilinguals used in this study may not have been as proficient in English as those who participated in the "positive" research. It is possible, as well, that the LAS (used to group the subjects into the three linguistic groups) or the manner in which the instrument was employed did not adequately distinguish between proficient and partial bilinguals, thus blurring any distinction between the two groups.

Another possible contributory factor to the general lack of significant findings in this study may lie in the relative precision of the instruments used to measure sense of story. Perhaps the Stein and Glenn Continuum, for example, although cognitive-based, was not precise enough or sophisticated enough to tap any differences that might exist among the linguistic groups.

Also of interest are the questionable effects of the covariates on the results of the study. It is possible that the use of scores from the Language Arts Scope and Sequence, a measure of English-language skills, may have effectively eliminated any differences among the subjects in the language-related variable, sense of story. It is



of interest to note, for example, the great difference in the descriptive statistics between the means of the Partial Bilinguals and the Proficient Bilinguals on the Stein and Glenn Continuum (see Tables 13 and 14), a substantial discrepancy which, when tested, yielded no significance. One is led to question whether significance might have resulted in the absence of the covariate. This speculation may be supported by Diaz, who suggests that a dilemma is faced by investigators in the field of bilingualism. He states, "To date, it is not clear how to control for group differences between bilingual and monolingual intellectual abilities and at the same time study meaningful group differences in both cognitive and linguistic abilities" (Diaz, 1983, p. 27). Diaz proposes that a possible solution to this problem may be to "use subjects as their own controls and study cause-effect relationships between degree of bilingualism and cognitive variables using a longitudinal design" (Diaz, 1983, p. 27).

It is, of course, possible that the predictions of the hypotheses of this study may have been inaccurate. While it would be rash to generalize from the results of a sample as small as that constituted by the ninety subjects involved in this study, the lack of significant findings may indeed point to potential weaknesses in the threshold

hypothesis developed by Cummins. Much research remains to be done before the relationship between bilingualism and cognition can be fully understood and applied in an educational system.

#### Recommendations

1. It is recommended that further studies involving the same variables be conducted with larger samples of children from various geographical locations to determine if the results of this study are generalizable to a larger population.

2. It is recommended that any future study concerning sense of story investigate the possibility of employing another instrument or instruments to measure said variable. It might prove of interest to compare the results of the Stein and Glenn Continuum of Story Complexity with another instrument designed to measure story grammar usage.

3. It is recommended that future studies examining the relationship of bilingualism and cognition control for socioeconomic status by employing a measure that is not based solely on parental occupation. It might also prove of interest to choose bilingual subjects from a private school on the assumption that these subjects might come from a higher socioeconomic stratum, one comparable to that of the monolingual subjects.

4. It is recommended that future studies examining the effects of bilingualism on cognition take into account the age at which the subjects were first faced with the task of learning the second language. According to Diaz, "although it is not clear what age is best (or worst) to learn another language, most likely the experience of becoming bilingual will have different cognitive effects, depending on the learner's age" (Diaz, 1983, p. 29).

5. It is recommended that future studies examining the effects of bilingualism on cognition also take into account the method by which the second language was learned: was it acquired without formal instruction or was it learned through a specifically designed program of second language instruction? Also of interest might be the actual method employed in the teaching of the second language.

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APPENDIX A

Consent Forms: English and Spanish

April 20, 1983

Dear Parents,

I am a doctoral candidate in the School of Education at the University of the Pacific. I am also a teacher-on-leave with the Stockton Unified School District. As part of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education, I must conduct a study and report it in a dissertation. \_\_\_\_\_ (principal) and I are requesting your permission for your child to participate in this project.

I will be administering a language proficiency test to those students selected to take part in the project, and I will also be collecting original stories from them. As part of the study, I will also be collecting the students' reading achievement scores. Please be assured that the strictest confidentiality will be observed in the reporting of the findings.

I have talked with the superintendent, the principal, and your child's teacher, and I have their support for this project. It is our hope that you will allow your child to take part in this study. It is also our hope that research such as this can help to improve education for everyone.

If you are unwilling to allow your child to participate in this project, please fill out the form below and return it to your child's teacher by April 27.

If you have any questions relating to this project, feel free to contact me at \_\_\_\_\_.

Thank you very much for your attention.

Sincerely,

Kathleen Kenfield

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I am unwilling to allow \_\_\_\_\_ to take part in this effort.  
(child's name)

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(Parent's signature)

20 abril 1983

Estimados padres:

Les escribo para pedirles su ayuda y cooperación en un proyecto que se llevará a cabo en la escuela \_\_\_\_\_ (name of school). Yo soy estudiante en el programa del doctorado en la Facultad de Pedagogía de la Universidad del Pacífico. Como parte de los requisitos para el doctorado, tengo que hacer unas investigaciones educativas. \_\_\_\_\_ (name of principal) y yo les pedimos su permiso para que su hijo/hija participe en este proyecto.

Pienso darles a los alumnos un examen de lenguaje y pedirles que me cuenten una historia original. También pienso usar los resultados de las pruebas de lectura que están en los archivos del distrito escolar. Les quiero asegurar que el nombre de su hijo/hija no se usará en el estudio. Los alumnos serán identificados por números, no por nombres.

He hablado con el superintendente del distrito, con la directora, y con los maestros de su hijo/hija. Tengo el apoyo y la cooperación de todos ellos para este proyecto. Esperamos que ustedes nos den su permiso para que su hijo/hija participe en el estudio. También esperamos que esta investigación sea de valor en la lucha para mejorar la educación para todos.

Si ustedes no quieren que su hijo/hija participe en este proyecto, favor de rellenar la parte baja de esta hoja y devolverla a la escuela antes del 27 de abril.

Si tienen preguntas acerca del proyecto, les ruego llamarme a este número: \_\_\_\_\_

Agradeciéndoles su atención, quedo de ustedes.

Su segura servidora,

Kathleen Kenfield

---

No quiero que mi hijo/hija participe en este proyecto.

\_\_\_\_\_  
(firma de padre o madre)

\_\_\_\_\_  
(nombre de hija/hijo)

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APPENDIX B

Structure of a Simple Episode

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APPENDIX

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Example of a Simple Episode and Its Division into  
Categories

Brushy and the Bone

Setting	Once there was a fuzzy gray dog named Brushy. She lived in a little red house near a meadow.
Initiating Event	One day, Brushy was playing in the meadow. Suddenly, she spotted a big bone under an oak tree.
Motivating State	Brushy knew how good bones tasted. She wanted that bone. She wanted to chew on it all day long.
Attempt	So she ran over to the bone and picked it up.
Consequence	All of a sudden, a big black dog came running out from behind a bush and grabbed the bone from Brushy.
Reaction	Brushy felt sad. She had wanted the bone for herself.

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APPENDIX C

Stein and Glenn Continuum Scoring Guide

APPENDIX

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Stein and Glenn Continuum of Story Complexity  
Scoring Guide\*

Descriptive Sequence

a list of statements that:

- A. describe typical feelings, states or behaviors (5)
- B. describe environment (5)
- C. describe natural changes (5)
- D. describe protagonist (5)

Minimum Score 5            Maximum Score 20

Action Sequence

a series of statements that focus on actions  
and/or behaviors that:

- A. have a beginning and end (5)
- B. describe what happened but not why (5)
- C. have weak connections (i.e., temporal,  
AND, THEN, AND THEN) (5)

Minimum Score 25            Maximum Score 35

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\* Summers, 1980, pp. 134-138)



## Reactive Sequence

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focuses on change in the story environment rather than just describe the environment or typical behavior

- A. some disequilibrium or difficulty occurs (5)
- B. strong causal connections between statements (5)
- C. protagonist's actions bring unforeseen results (5)
- D. Possible categories: (Setting); Initiating Event; Reaction (5)
- E. Forms: E - E  
E - R (5)

Minimum Score 40

Maximum Score 60

## Abbreviated Episode

a well formed story beginning with a motive and ending with a final action

- A. some motive for action is specified (5)
- B. protagonist acts to change situation (5)
- C. protagonist attains or fails to attain goal (5)
- D. New possible categories: (Setting); (Initiating Event); Motivating State; or Consequence; (Reaction) (5)
- E. Forms: MS - C  
E - C (5)

Minimum Score 65

Maximum Score 85

### Complete Episode

---

a goal directed sequence

- A. protagonist must have a motive (5)
- B. purposive behavior is described (5)
- C. desired goal cannot be achieved without planning (5)
- D. some resolution must be achieved (5)
- E. Possible categories: (Setting); (Initiating Event); (Motivating State); Attempt; (Consequence); (Reaction) (5)
- F. Forms: E - MS - C  
MS T E - At - C  
E - At - C  
MS - At - C (5)

Minimum Score 90

Maximum Score 115

### Complex Episode

a complication in the complete episode

- A. an entire structure functions as a single category within an episode (5)
- B. a variation or complication occurs in pursuit of the goal but the same motive guides behavior (5)
- C. an unforeseen event influences protagonist's goals and/or behavior or influences final outcome (5)

Minimum Score 120

Maximum Score 130

## Interactive Episode

---

a story with two or more characters that:

- A. interact extensively (5)
- B. the behavior of one character influences the other (5)
- C. it is possible to specify an episode for each character separately (5)

Minimum Score 120

Maximum Score 130

## Multiple Structure Story

a story consisting of several structures joined by:

- A. temporal relationships: AND, THEN, EMBEDDED (5)
- B. logical relationships: ALLOW, ENABLE, CAUSE (5)
- C. parallel relationship: the two structures are similar (5)

Minimum Score 135

Maximum Score 145

## Key:

S	=	Setting	R	=	Reaction
E	=	Initiating Event		=	Cause
MS	=	Motivating State	T	=	THEN
At	=	Attempt	( )	=	optional
C	=	Consequence			

DIRECTIONS FOR SCORING GUIDE USE

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1. Make an educated guess as to which story structure the protocol might be.
2. Start to evaluate the protocol at that structure, checking to see if it contains at least one of the characteristics of that particular structure. Check protocol in the order that the characteristics are listed.
3.
  - a. If the protocol does not contain any of the characteristics of that structure, move to the preceding structure and repeat #2.
  - b. If the protocol has all of the characteristics, check the next higher structure to see if any of these characteristics are present. Repeat #2.
4. Once the structure of the protocol is decided, check the number of characteristics present. Remember that at least one characteristic must be present in order to receive the minimum score for that structure.
5. For each additional characteristic, add five points.
6. Categories with the optional sign ( ) may be found in other structures. Add five points if one or more of the non-optional categories are present.
7. If a form is listed in the guide for a story structure and can be derived from the protocol, add five points.
8. The story generation score is the total number of points.

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APPENDIX D

Socioeconomic Information Sheet and Instructions

SOCIOECONOMIC INFORMATION SHEET

TEACHER \_\_\_\_\_

STUDENT NAME	Pr.	S.-Pr.	Sk.	UnSk.

Mark the category which corresponds most closely to the occupation of the family's primary breadwinner. If the primary breadwinner is temporarily unemployed, retired, or a student, try to select the category which best represents his or her lifetime occupational level.

Examples are provided showing occupations which belong in each category. **Do the best you can in estimating the socioeconomic level of the family.** Your best guess is still better than no information at all. Since individual scores will never be reported, you can make an estimate without fearing that an individual student may have been "miscategorized." Use the "Unknown" category only as a last resort.

**Executives, Professionals, and Managers. (Pr.)**

For example:

Accountants	Managers (farm, office, sales)
Architects	
Bank Presidents	Mayors
Chiropractors	Musicians
Clergy (professionally trained)	Nurses
Commissioned Military Officers	Physicians
Correction Officers	Police Chiefs
Dentists	Postmasters
Government Officials	Psychologists
Graduate Engineers	Public Health Officers
Judges	Research Directors
Lawyers	Social Workers
Librarians	Teachers (elementary, secondary)
	University Professors

**Semi-Professionals, Clerical and Sales Workers, and Technicians. (S-Pr.)** For example:

Actors	Morticians
Bank Tellers	Piano Teachers
Bookkeepers	Radio-TV Announcers
Business Machine Operators	Reporters
Clerks (bank, post office, sales)	Sales Representatives
Dental Hygienists	Section Heads
Deputy Sheriffs	Service Managers
Draftspersons	Stenographers
Factory Inspectors	Supervisors (factory, maintenance)
Farm Owners	Technicians (dental, laboratory)
Laboratory Assistants	Travel Agents
Military Warrant Officers	Truck Dispatchers
	Typists

**Skilled and Semi-Skilled Employees. (Sk.)**

For example:

Apprentices (plumbers, electricians, etc.)	Housekeepers
Army Sergeants	Locksmiths
Assemblyline Workers	Lumber Workers
Auto Body Repairers	Masons
Bakers	Mechanics
Barbers	Police Officers
Bartenders	Plumbers
Bus Drivers	Postal Workers
Carpenters	Practical Nurses
Chefs	Printers
Delivery Persons	Roofers
Equipment-owning Farm Tenants	Steam Fitters
Factory Machine Operators	Store Checkers
Firefighters	Tailors
Gas Station Attendants	Taxi and Truck Drivers
Hair Stylists	Trained Maintenance Workers
Hospital Aides	TV Repairers
	Waiters/Waitresses
	Welders

**Unskilled Employees. (UnSk.)** (including those on welfare and those not regularly employed).

For example:

Cafeteria Workers	Parking Lot Attendants
Car Cleaners	Peddlers
Construction Laborers	Street Cleaners
Dock Hands	Those on public assistance
Domestics	Those not seeking employment
Farm Laborers	
Garbage Collectors	
Janitors	

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APPENDIX E

Story Collection Procedures Instructions



STORY COLLECTION PROCEDURES  
INSTRUCTIONS FOR RESEARCH ASSISTANTS

- Before arrival of subject:
- 1) Record each subject's name and assigned number on tape.
  - 2) Write each subject's name and number on the interview form.
  - 3) Be sure that the tape recorder is ready to record.

Verify subject's name prior to beginning.

Explain to the subject that he or she has been specifically selected to participate in this part of the study. (Since these subjects have already been tested for linguistic proficiency, they are aware that a study is being undertaken.)

Remind the subject that this is not a test of any kind, that it is not for a grade. Tell the subject that his or her help in the study is very important to us.

State, "In a little while, I'm going to ask you to tell me a story. But, before we start, let's talk a little about stories." SEE INTERVIEW FORM.

Fill in interview with the subject's exact words.

State, "Now I'm going to ask you to tell me a story.

Remember, a story is something you make up out of your own imagination. I'd like you to make up your very own story, about anything you want, and I'm going to record your story on this tape recorder. You can take a little while to think about it, and then we'll start, OK?"

Allow approximately one minute. Busy yourself with notes or interview forms so as not to make the subject feel that you are waiting impatiently for him or her to begin.

Start, "OK, let's start. \_\_\_\_\_ (subject's name), tell me a story."

BEGIN RECORDING.

If the subject cannot think of a story or is too nervous to speak, turn off the tape recorder and chat with the subject. Remind the subject that this is not for a grade. Tell him or her that you'd really appreciate his or her help. State, "I'm sure that you can do it. Let's start again."

Listen patiently to the subject as he or she tells the story. Refrain from verbally or non-verbally encouraging the subject.

When subject seems to have finished, say "Is the story done?" If not, allow subject ample time to finish.

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APPENDIX F

Interview Form

INTERVIEW FORM

1. Do you like stories? \_\_\_\_\_
2. Do you like to listen to stories? \_\_\_\_\_
3. Does your teacher read stories to you? \_\_\_\_\_
4. Have you had other teachers who read to you? \_\_\_\_\_
5. Have your parents read stories to you? \_\_\_\_\_
6. Do you like to read stories? \_\_\_\_\_
7. What kind of stories do you like to listen to? \_\_\_\_\_
8. (if yes on #6) What kind of stories do you like to read? \_\_\_\_\_
9. Have you ever made up your own stories? \_\_\_\_\_
10. (if yes on #9) Did you write them down? \_\_\_\_\_
11. (if yes on #9) Did you tell them to someone? \_\_\_\_\_  
To whom? \_\_\_\_\_
12. (if yes on #9) What kind of stories do you like to make up? \_\_\_\_\_

Notes on interview: (any extra remarks by subject or your comments)

Notes on story collection, comments, problems, successful methods, etc.:

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APPENDIX G

Transcribed Stories

01

Once upon a time I was all alone. Everybody was asleep. I had nothing to do and so I rode my bike. And a huge dog came in and chased me into the forest. And I didn't know where I was. I got lost, and the dog was behind me. Then I got a flat tire. And I fell into the quicksand. I didn't know what was in the swamp, but there was alligators, and crocodiles in there, and water snakes. They bit me to death. The end.

02

Once upon a time there was a boy named Steven Gomez. He found a rocket about to launch to the moon. He got into the rocket to look around. And all of a sudden it took off to the moon. He met some Martians. And the Martians like him so much, they didn't let him go back to the Earth. And then all of a sudden, when they were sleeping, he went back to Earth. And then they got their revenge by taking him back to the moon.

The monster who liked music, he like music a lot. So he buyed himself a stereo. He had a lot of records. One day his stereo broke. He didn't have the money to buy a new one. He wasted all of his money on records and cassettes. He didn't have nothing to play music with. So he thought of buying a recorder and some tapes. He liked to hear a lot of music. So he bought himself a cassette player. And then that broke too, so he bought him another one. His things kept on breaking. His records even broke, too. He didn't have nothing to play with. So he said, "Maybe I might like some ice cream." Then he said, "Maybe I might like cherry." And then it finished him all in one day because he had the whole box of ice cream. And then he said, "I don't have no money to buy any more. So, what should I do?" And then another monster came. He knocked on the door. And then the other giant answered, "What do you want?" He said, "I came to hear more music." He said, "My record player broke, so did my tapes. Now what am I going to play?" Then the monster said, "I got a tape recorder. You want to use it?" He said, "Yeah, but I might break it. I don't know how to play them any more. I like to eat ice cream with strawberry."

It was the middle of summer. The dinosaurs were roaming the area. The brontosaurus was eating his daily lunch. He was eating these rocks to digest his food until the tyrannosaurus came. So he went in the water to have some safety. And the brontosaurus went in the water and hid until the pterodactyl came. And he scared other animals, too. The brontosaurus was out finally. And then he saw the saber-tooth. And he saw the cerotops suffering in the black tar. And the saber-tooth came and went with it to get it some food. So he went in there and he suffered, too. It was safe for the brontosaurus to come out. Someday he hoped he could rule the area.

Once upon a time there was this boy who went to the park. He found a bag and he didn't know what he should do with it. He looked inside and there was a bag of money. So he walked into the police station, the closest one to the park. And he turned it in. He waited, like the police said, to see who was going to see if that was their money, whoever lost it. And if nobody claimed it, he'd get to keep it. And so he was waiting. And then it was the nighttime, and he just went to sleep. He had to wait a week. And so he was waiting. And finally, one day, nobody claimed the money, so he went down there with his parents and picked it up. And so he got a lot of good things, toys. They had a good house a good yard. They had a dog, a fifty-foot swimming pool. And they lived happily ever after.



Once upon a time I went diving one hundred feet. Suddenly I saw a big white shark. I got scared. And I was swimming to hide behind a rock. I made it to the rock and the big white shark passed by me. It didn't see me, so I kept on swimming. And I found some oysters, big ones. And I took them up to my boat. Then I went back down and I found something else. It was a beautiful rock. I decided to keep it. So I took it up with the oysters. I went back down again. And then I got tired of swimming so I went back up. And after thirty minutes, I went back down. And I saw the white shark again, so I hurried up. And I paddled away. The end.

There was a girl who ran away from home. She ran and ran. Then she got very hungry. But she didn't have no money. So she couldn't buy food to eat. She got scared. It was nighttime and it was very dark. Some bad guys saw her and chased her down the street. She ran and ran and fell down. The guys ran away. Some nice people took her to the hospital. She stayed in the hospital for a long time. Her mom came to pick her up. She was still sick, but she got better. She stayed at home with her mom and she never ran away from home again. She lived happy every after with her mom who loved her very much.

One day we went on a trip to the mountains. We took our car. And we stayed one day. And we wore warm clothes, 'cause if we didn't we would freeze. We took our sleeping bags to sleep in them. And next day we went home. Then we went home.

One day I woke up and then I got dressed and then my mom combed my hair. After that I went to school. I went to my home room. Then the teacher said roll call. After that I went to my reading class. Then I went to Spanish. Then I went to math and I got a lot of homework. Then I went to social studies but there was no social studies because we had to practice the \_\_\_\_\_ song. Then we went to P.E. P.E. was fun, 'cause it was free play. Then, in a little while after that, then we went home. After that I went to school with my mother. When we got home we had to go to a party. At the party we ate hot dogs, chile beans, and potato chips. After that the birthday boy opened his presents. Then we played a little while in the birthday boy's sister's room. Then they called us to eat cake. After that we were playing on the play phone. Then we had to go. Then we went to the gas station because the hose was broken in the car. Then the water wouldn't work. So we went home and we made it. Then I finished my math homework. After that we went to bed.

---

The animals I like in the world. I like the cats and the dogs because they can be white and brown. I like them because they're beautiful. They sing very good. I like the birds, the color of them. They're blue, white and brown. I like the catfish, and I like the goldfish and the penguins because the little penguins are very cute and pretty.

Once there was this little girl named Josie. She liked to eat candy. She liked to eat candy a lot. But she couldn't eat candy. Once she went to the dentist and the dentist told her that every time she would eat candy her nose would grow bigger and bigger. So once she ate candy and her nose got bigger and bigger. And then her mom asked why did her nose get bigger and bigger. And she told her mom because she kept on eating candy. And the dentist told her to don't eat candy. If she would, her nose would grow bigger and bigger. She kept on eating it. And once this lady, she was like a witch, she gave her a poison candy. And she fell on the ground. This man with this little boy with a big nose came up and kissed her. And then they got married. And then they both liked candy. And both their noses got bigger and bigger. And they lived happily every after.

---

Once upon a time there was a little girl who decided to have all the money in the whole world. She went to the garden one day and she found a man there. He said, "Hello." And she said, "Can you make magic? I want all the money in the whole world." And he did. And the little girl gave the money to all the children who lived in the houses. And one day she opened the door and there was a bicycle and a lot of boxes. Her father looked in the boxes and found lots of bicycles for all the kids. And the little girl asked where the man was who made the magic. And her mother said he went back to where he came from. And one day he came back and he asked the little girl, "Did you give all the bicycles and the dollars to the kids?" And she said she did. And the little girl liked the little man. So she went away with him to visit. The end.

---

Once there was an ugly horse and every other horse made fun of him. He was so ugly that he ran away once. When he came back everybody liked him. But though he didn't feel good because he was sickly. So then he took a walk somewhere. He saw a magical man. And the horse asked the magical man, "Could you make me more nice?" And the magical man said, "Yes, but you will have to give me something." And then the horse said, "What will you want?" The magic man thought of it, and he said, "The necklace you have on." So then the horse was thinking about it because it was so special. So the magical man said, "Well, if you don't give me that, I won't make anything to you." So then he said, "OK, you can have it." Then the magical man said, "Go home, and you will have what you want." Then he went home, and he didn't have it. So then he came back to the magical man. But he wasn't there, there where he was last time. So then the horse got a good lesson. And then he told the other horses. And that's how he didn't believe in magical things anymore.

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There was a big lion. He had a big paw. And there was a baby lion and he didn't have no paw. And his mom said, "Do you want something to eat?" He said yes. And then he went out hunting and he couldn't find anything. They just saw a rabbit. And the rabbit ran away. And he looked for it more and more. And the little lion told his dad to look for an animal to eat. And he got that animal. And the baby lion didn't get no animal. He just saw a little rabbit. And the baby lion went on looking. Then he saw a quail. Then he got it and he ate it.

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One day there was a kangaroo. He was a baby and he grew up to be a boxer. He found some friends. They was a rabbit, a squirrel, and a tiger. They became friends. And then they played with each other. And they would go out and play. In the pool. Then one night the kangaroo boxer fought with a lion. So the kangaroo got beat up. But he wanted revenge. So one year later he got revenge on the lion. And then all the fighter's friends were happy with him. So they went back home and ate dinner. And the next morning, they woke up and saw a big elephant laying down. So they became friends. The lion, the tiger, the lion and the rabbit and the squirrel became friends with the elephant. So they went inside the woods and the forest and had fun. They went back to their home and they played. After that, they went to the jungle to meet all their friends. So after looking for a tiger, they saw a tiger. And it was a friend of the kangaroo. So they shot him in the leg. But all the animals in the jungle came and saved him. And the hunters were scared. So they went out of the jungle because the animals were after them. So they went back to civilization. The animals stayed there, happy ever.



16

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Once there was a lady who took a baby mouse to a tree house. It was a dark and stormy day. And some more people got inside the tree house to get dry. Later on the mouse got strong. And he learned how to fly outside and he got worms. And then he grew up. And he saved all the mice from the cats.

17

Once there was a mouse and a cat. They used to fight a lot. The cat would catch the mouse every day. And then after they'd become friends, friends of each other. And they lived happily ever after.

18

Once upon a time there was a cow that liked to eat grass. Then the farmer didn't have a lot of money to buy grass. Then he started to work. And he got the money and he went to buy the grass for the cow. And the cow wasn't hungry no more. And that's why he, he got to eat grass.

~~Once there was this little boy and a little girl.~~

They were walking down the road. And they saw a monster and they ran as fast as they could home. And they told their mother. And his father came out with a gun. And he shot him. And that monster died. And then the other one came back and tried to eat the little girl and the family. And at last the mother and the father got a gun and shot him.

There was Jack the Giant Killer. And there was a giant with two heads. And the giant with two heads started to attack the palace and tried to get the princess. And the king called all the soldiers to fight. And the monster got the girl. And Jack the Giant Killer came and killed the two monsters, the two-headed monster. And the monster never came back alive.

Once there were two little boys playing in the garden. They found a little puppy. They named him Pat. They asked their mother if she would let the puppy stay with them. So they had to let the dog go. So the little boys gave it to their friends. And then a girl found the dog. And she kept the little dog. Then one day the two little boys saw the girl with the dog. They asked her what the name of the dog was. And she said the name was Pat. They said that it was the name they gave the dog. The girl said that the dog was happy.

Once Donald Duck was walking along the road. He saw a little kid with a bag. He was crying. And Donald Duck stopped by. He goes, "What's wrong?" And the kid kept on crying. And he tried to take the bag away and he couldn't. And the little duck said, "Aw, shut up." And Donald Duck kept on trying to take the bag away. But he couldn't. And the kid started crying. And at the end he got the bag away. The end.

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Once I lived in a haunted house. And one day I went to play with my friend Kim. I ran along and played with her and we went up to my room and read a book. Then we heard this scary noise. It was so scary that we told this story together about scary houses and dreams that we fell asleep.

Once there was a yellow elephant. Everybody laughed at him because of his color. When they took him to the zoo, no one would feed him or anything. He had a hard time getting along with the other animals. When he left, the zoo had caught him again. He had wandered into the forest. And there were many other animals in the forest with him. So he really liked it there. And then when the zoo came to get him, he didn't want to go back. So the zoo keeper let him stay.

Once upon a time there was a ghost and his son ghost, Mr. Dugie. He went on a camping trip with his son one day. And they went fishing and his son caught three fish but Mr. Dugie caught none. They went on a hike and his son hiked all the way up the hill. But Mr. Dugie didn't. He only got halfway up the hill. Then they went home and chopped down some trees. And his son chopped down five trees and Mr. Dugie chopped down two.

There was a girl who was very angry. She had this big bag of jelly beans. And she loved jelly beans. but she was so mad that she threw all the jelly beans on the ground. And they splattered all over. And then this really nice boy came along and he saw that the girl was angry. And he said, "Oh, I shall do another good deed just like the one I did. I helped a little boy get off the swings because he was going to fall off. But for this little girl, I think I'll buy her another bag of jelly beans and try to calm her down."

Once upon a time there was this kid. He saw a shadow in the dark. And he thought it was the bogey man. So he ran down to tell his parents and his brother and his sister. His brother and his sister said, "Aw, you're crazy. There's no such thing as the bogey man." He said, "I'm gonna get even." So one day he tried to fool them by dressing up in a sheet. And that didn't work. And he said, "Oh, I give up." They laughed at him in the sheet. Then one day in the night they heard this scream. And everybody came running in. There was this trail of blood leading right to the wall, from the kid's bed to the wall and seeming to go right through it. They said, "Oh, no. What could have happened to him?" Then there was this big "Kuh-thump, kuh-thump." And in came this sheet with claws sticking out covered with sort of a ooey-gooley substance and you could see through a little hole teeth. So the big brother pulled off the sheet and there he was. And everybody said, "Awww." And he said, "I already scared you." And then there was this big "Thump. Thump." And they said, "Stop doing that." And the little boy said, "I didn't do that." Then there was this big scream and everybody turned around and screamed. And somebody had stepped on the cat's tail. The end.

It's about an octopus. He's a nice octopus. And he likes to be friends. He wants to be friends with the sharks. But the sharks won't let him. Then finally, one day he found a friendly shark. And they became friends. Then the shark protected the octopus whenever he needed help. That's all.

Once upon a time there was a boy named Michael. Once he went on a sailboat trip. And there was a rough storm and he fell overboard. He found himself washed up on an island he didn't know anything about. He walked around and found a bottle in the water. So he picks it up and reads the note in it. It's a treasure note. He thinks it might be for this island but he doesn't know. So he does what it tells him to. It says to go to the great oak tree, walk five steps and turn to the right and go six steps and mark an "X". And then you can just dig there for the treasure. He did that, but he had trouble finding the great oak tree. Which great oak tree? So he tried every one. So finally, there was the last one and he walked and he marked his "X". But he didn't have any

shovel. So he starts to dig with his hands. But the ground is too hard for his fingernails. So he starts to climb a tree. He tries to break one of the branches but it's too strong. He tries another one. And finally one gave in and it fell to the ground. He skinned it with his hands and tried digging with that. It worked but it wasn't exactly the best thing. But after about two weeks he hit something hard. He pulled it up. And it was a treasure box. And what he finds, there's no treasure. But there's lots of pieces of wood, nails, hammer. And he thought to himself, "What kind of treasure is this?" And he goes, "I know. I can build a boat with this." So after a long time he builds the boat and sails back to his mom and dad. They were very happy to see him. He was in the newspaper for a long time for his cleverness and his survival tricks on the island.

30

My name is Ken Smith. I like electrical stuff. Electrical stuff excites me. It is my favorite hobby. No other thing like electronics excites me as much as electronics. I like it. I've been working with it since I was two years old.



31

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There was a cave man looking for food. He couldn't find some food. He had to go look for some food. And he met his friend on the way. And he asked him if he found any food. He said no. And then he said, "Let's go look for some together." "I don't want to go look for any. I can't find any." So they starved to death.

32

Once upon a time there was a midget who wanted to be tall. And he tried and tried to grow up. He drank milk and all this other stuff to make him tall. And so he went on to the bars and kept on stretching every day. And by two months he kept on getting taller and taller. By a year he was already really tall. The end.

33

Once there was a man with no arms. He had to use his mouth to pick up things. And he had to use his toes to pick up things. He was really ugly and he had a big nose. And he had a big smile and all his front teeth were missing. And he always dressed nice. He used to wear tuxedos and wear tennis shoes, jogging shoes at the same time. And he used to like to jog.

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Once upon a time there was a little fish and a big fish. The little fish liked to play with the big fish. My mom went to buy the tiniest fish in the world. And the next day, the tiniest fish in the world ate the biggest fish. And then the next night, he ate me.

Once I made a spaceship and then I went to Mars. And there was monsters trying to catch me and I was running and running. Then the monster caught me. They were trying to make me tell them where was the Earth so they could destroy it. They figured it out in my head. Then I got away. Then I went back to the spaceship. And I went back to Earth. And I was telling everybody and they didn't want to believe me. And then the monsters came to Earth and they destroyed it. And I went in my rocket and I went to the moon. The end.

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There was once a little girl who went to the fair with her parents. Her parents went to give her some money and they couldn't find her. She was in the horse races because she loved horses. She got lost because she could not find her parents. She went to the front to see if anyone could find her. But they couldn't. Then the parents went home and they thought the little girl came in the car because she might have wanted to go to sleep or she was tired. When they got out of the car, they didn't find her and they had to go back to the fair. They came back and they couldn't find her. Someone took her. The parents went to the police and they had to go look for her. But they couldn't find her. When they found her, she was in the country with some other people. But she didn't remember her parents. She was just six years old. And her parents were sad. They wanted to have her back. But she didn't remember them and she said they weren't her parents. The parents started crying. Then the man who took her gave her back because he wanted to take her because he had a little girl that looked just like her. The little girl's name was Susan. She had black hair and blue eyes. She was in the second grade.

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Once upon a time there were two mice and they lived in the city. And the biggest mouse got sick. And the little mouse was well for a little while. And the little mouse made him well. And then the big mouse got well and then the little mouse got sick. And the big mouse made him well. And one day they went to the shopping store and they bought all sorts of cheese. And they had cheese for the rest of their lives. The end.

Once there was a little girl who went on a field trip. She went to school and got on the bus. She forgot her lunch. When they got where they were going on the field trip, she didn't have her lunch. And she had some money in her pocket so she bought a lunch. And then they loaded up the bus and went back to school. And then she got off the bus and went home.

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Once there was a little girl named Sally. She liked to play. Her parents were very mean to her. Her mother watched T.V. and made Sally work all day. One day her mother got real mad at Sally and she ran away. Her mom was very worried. She cried because Sally ran away. Sally ran away to her friend's house far away. Her friend lived on a farm. They were very nice to her. She liked it on the farm. She didn't want to go back home. Her mother looked for her. She called the police and they looked for her. They went to the house where Sally was. They knocked on the door and said, "Is Sally there?" So they left. Her friend wanted her to stay there and live on the farm with her. Sally thought about it and decided to stay there forever and ever. So she did and she lived happily ever after. The end.

Once upon a time there was a little girl. Her name was Maria. She didn't know how to fight. And the other kids used to beat her up. And once this girl, her name was Mimi, she taught Maria how to fight. And the other girls, they never fought her again. Then Maria knew how to fight and nobody beat her up ever again.

Once upon a time there lived a little old man with his dog. And the man would take his dog with him everyday. And he would go anywhere. So one day his house was burning. And the dog smelled the fire and saved the little old man's life. The man felt very grateful and gave the dog a special present.

There once was this witch who liked to eat all boys. And once she saw two boys walking down the street. She ate them up. Here comes two girls. She ate them up. Here comes two more girls. She ate them up. Here comes a smart boy. He said "You're not going to eat me up, are you?" And the witch said, "That's my plan." So the boy ran and hid. And the witch saw him again. And here comes a man with a knife. He said, "What are you doing with my son?" "I'm trying to eat him up," she said. And so the man killed the witch. And the father and the boy lived happily ever after.

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Once there was a story about all dinosaurs. One day they broke the shield that was a long time ago and they came to the earth. And they were trying to take over the world. One day the scientists invented a time machine that might turn the dinosaurs back. They put it into a trap for when the dinosaurs got there. They started to kill the people and end them and sometimes stepping on them and blowing down houses and everything. And one day a dinosaur got into a power station. And it blew up. And the other dinosaurs came to try to help him. But they couldn't because he was stuck. And then they all got stuck. And they turned off the power station. And when the dinosaurs were dead, they put them in the time machine and sent them back a long time. And then when they got there, the cave people came and took their skins and everything. And they took it to the cave. But the one that was there started killing the village people. And no one ever saw the village people again. The end.

There was once upon a time a little doggie named Oscar. And he dreamed that he was lost in New York. And he was wondering how he could find his way home. So he started walking in his dream. And he started walking out the door and around the house. And he thought he was lost again. And he started following the street. And he found another little dog. But he couldn't find out his name because the other dog was scared of giving his name. And they both started walking to another doggie's house. The dog said, "Where are you guys going?" And they said, "We don't know. We're lost." And the dog that they went to said, "I think you live over there." And then he said, "And I think you live over here." So then the other doggie got lost. And he said, "Now, do you guys know where I live?" And they started walking again until they found another dog that told him where he lived. And he got lost. And then they found a little cat. And the cat got lost. They found another cat. And they got lost. And then a mouse was the only smartest one of all showed them their way home. And he found his way home. And then the same thing happened with the mouse when he got hit on the head by an apricot. And he couldn't find his way home. And the three little dogs and the cat repaid the



little mouse by showing him his way back. And they took him to the hospital. He got well. And the other dog that was asleep, the one that was called Oscar, he didn't get lost again forever and ever. The end.

45

Thousands of years ago there were these tribes of Indians. And they were going after some hunting. So there was a small boy and he went into a cave. But by mistake. He was chasing after a rabbit. So when the rabbit went into the cave, the little boy went into it, went in with the rabbit. So when he was in the cave, the rabbit went out through another entrance. And the little boy got lost in the cave. And it was dark and he didn't see. He was walking through. He was feeling the ground and touching the walls. So he fell down in a hole. And he was scared. And he heard a lot of animals, insects. And he was thinking about how was he going to get out. He was feeling the ground and he touched some pieces of some rock. So when he looked at it very closely, he saw that it was yellow. And then he saw thousands of them. He got all those pieces of rock and put them like, in a pile. He collected all the rocks that were there so he could climb up. When he climbed up, he ran out of the cave. And

there were a lot of bats and he was scared of them. So he he got down on the ground and was like rolling on the grounds until he got out of the cave. Once he got out of the cave, he ran with his parents and told them about the cave. So when they went back to the cave they saw thousands of yellow pieces. But they didn't know what it was. They knew they were pretty, so they thought they were of value rocks. The end.

46

Once upon a time there was a man who liked to ride motorcycles. And he had a lot of trophies. One day he was about to jump and he said, "After I jump that, I want it more high." And then he jumped it and he didn't make it. So he had to go to the hospital. He crashed and he was pretty bad. The doctor said that he had a broken leg. He had to pay the doctor a lot of money. But he didn't have that much money. So he sold all his trophies. And then he got the money to pay the hospital.

47

It is about an elephant and a small little tiger. The elephant had a big plate of food at the zoo. And then the small tiger saw the food and he smelled it good. And he got out of the cage and went to the elephant's cage. And he took the food. And the elephant didn't see who took it. He was mean and mad and he opened the gates. And he went up to the city and he destroyed all the cars. And then the guards went to get and put him back in. Then he saw the small little tiger with the food. And he got happy. And he went with the tiger. And they were friends.

Once there were three mice in a little mouse hole in the kitchen of a house. The father mouse saw that the cat dropped a piece of cheese. And he said that he had to have some of that cheese. So he went out to get some. And when he was going back the cat saw him. And he started yelling "Help!" The mother and the little mouse were looking at him run around the kitchen. They were running under the tables and everything. And then the little mouse ran outside to help him. And they both started getting chased all over. And then the mother mouse said, "Help us, help us." And then the little mouse and the father mouse ran into the house with a lot of the cheese. And later on the little mouse and the father mouse went out to see what happened to the cat. And the cat got scared because he didn't know how they got away. And he jumped out of the window and ran away. The end.

49

There was three boys named Robert and Juan and Antonio. They were trying to investigate a big house on Main Street. They were scared to go in the house. So they went in the house. And they saw all the rooms, and webs all around, and everything was dirty. When a man came and saw them in a room...and he had black lips and he was really tall. And he said, "What are you boys doing here?" They said, "We are trying to investigate this house." The man said, "I'm going to sell this house to another man." Then the boys went home. And when the other man came, he told to the three boys if they want to go to visit there sometime. The end.

50

Once upon a time there was a man who went swimming. He got into the water. And suddenly he saw a shark. The shark was going to get him. He hurried into the boat and went away. Then he stopped at another place and he saw a big fish. And this fish was trying to eat him. So he got in the boat and he got away.

Once upon a time there was a man named Otis Brown. He likes to build things and work a lot. He has a wife that cooks dinner. And one day he went hunting in the woods and he had followed a rabbit. And when he came back, his son said, "Why you never take me hunting with you?" And he said, "Son, you're not old enough yet." And his mother said, "When you get old enough maybe you can go with your father to hunting." And he said, "Father, tell me about yourself." He said, "What do you mean, son?" And he said, "Like when you were in the army and things like that." And he said, "Well, there's not much to tell you. But I'll tell you some things about my life." And he said, "OK."

52

A rocket ship goes to the moon. And they land in a crater. And they meet some monsters with green on their heads and purple on their bodies and the toes are a kind of yellowish color. They've got six arms and three legs, five fingers on each hand. There are five astronauts. They meet them. They both speak different languages. And they don't get along too good. And they had a fight. And the astronauts came back to the Earth with one captured. The scientists study him. The monsters came to Earth trying to free the other one. A lot of people died in a big war.

53

Once there was a baseball player who used to be good at it. And he hit the ball and he ran to third. Then he ran to home. And when he got to home he retired because he knew he was getting old. Then he went to his coach and told him he was going to retire because he was getting too old.

54

Once a monster came out of the ocean and sank a boat. And then the Coast Guard came and it killed them. And then it went underwater and made a big whirlpool. And then more boats went under. Big waves went over the city and everybody drowned. All the fish were dead. And then someone came in a helicopter and shot it. And it went to the bottom. It was dead. People came and took pictures underwater. And it was in the newspaper. And then they saw another one on the streets. And it knocked down buildings. And it went up on a building and fell off. And he was dead.



There was this large group of people and they were going to Jupiter in a spacecraft. As soon as they got to Jupiter, a large object appeared on the radar. They used their big gun to destroy in case it was enemy base. When they blew it up, the whole planet blew up. But they escaped. So they went back to the planet Earth and told the guy in charge of them what happened. And he sent them back to the explosion. And there wasn't nothing there so they went on to another planet. And on the way to the planet, they were right by the planet and large missiles came at them and struck them. And they almost went down. Then they called Earth and told Earth headquarters to send a fleet of armed ships. And they sent the ships. And they had a battle. And the battle lasted for days. And finally somebody lost and somebody won. We won and they lost. So we went on to the other planet and had another battle. But we won that planet, too. So we went back to Earth and told the President. And the President awarded us. The end.

There was a little girl. The little girl was playing outside one day. She was swinging on a swing set until a man came by and he grabbed her. And he took her to this planet, a planet where nobody else went to. And he said to the little girl, "You got forty-eight hours to live." And she escaped from there. There was four tunnels. She picked one and it led to a trap. She went to the other one. It led to a dead end. And she went to the other one. And it went to a house. It looked like back at Earth. And she saw her mom hanging clothes out to dry. And she yelled for her mom but she couldn't hear her. She ran to it, but it was just plastic. Soemone drew it. And so she ran back and went in the other tunnel. And then she really did find her mom. And then she ran. And then the creature disappeared, vanished into thin air. And that's the end of my story.

57

One day I was walking through the circus and I saw a sign. It said, "A lady that reads minds." I went in there and I asked her how much money it cost. She said she doesn't take money; she takes tickets. I asked her how many tickets. She said two. I went to the ticket stand and I got two tickets. I went back there and I gave her two tickets and I asked her to tell me my fortune. She told me that one day I was going to be driving in a car along a cliff. And then I got a flat tire and I fell off the edge. And that was the end of me. And then I left there, sort of worried, thinking that she was telling the truth. But I said that story tellers weren't true. I went back home. And then when I was older, I was driving a car and it really did happen. Along the cliff, I got a flat tire and I went off the cliff.

58

Once upon a time there was a little old man named Fred. One day Fred took a walk. He came to this little old house. In the little old house lived a little old woman. Her name was Belinda. Belinda was very nice. She offered Fred in for some milk and cookies. They ate the

milk and cookies and Fred decided to go to the movies. And they went to see "King Kong." Belinda liked the movie. So did Fred. They went to Fred's house and had some coffee. And then Belinda said, "Well, I have to go home now." And Fred said, "Go ahead." And then the next day, Belinda went to Fred's house again. And both of them were talking for a while. Belinda wanted to go to the movies again to see "Star Wars." And they went to see "Star Wars" and they thought it was not a good movie. They went to Belinda's house the same day and they had some coffee. And then they were talking for a while. And Fred had took his car and he forgot his keys. And he said to Belinda, "Oh, I forgot my keys. Could I stay here? I'll sleep on the couch." So Belinda said yes. So he slept on the couch. The next morning Belinda drove him to the theatre that "Star Wars" was playing at. He found his keys and he thanked Belinda for taking him over there. Belinda also took him back home to her house. And then he went in his car and drove home. And then he called Belinda, thanking her and telling her that he came home safely. The next day Belinda wanted him to go shopping with her to get some groceries. So he did. And they bought food for her and for him. And as soon as they got home, they were so tired that they went to bed and they fell asleep.

One day when I was older, about thirty years old, I wanted to go on a space ride. So I started going to all the space places and started practicing for how to move and push the buttons right. And so finally the day came. And we were on our way to go. And I had my partner, Jim. And they always used to say, "Jim and Bob, we're ready to go." Then, at the right time, we launched off. But then something happened. One of the wings fell off when we were going. We went so fast, that's what caused it to fall off. And so we were disconnected and we were heading for another planet. Finally we got to the other planet. We looked around and it looked lifeless. But then we saw little holes in the ground. They were deep tunnels. Then we went down into one. There was little green creatures that had long antennas running around. They were all scared. Then Jim said, "We won't hurt you. We just came to see what it is like here." Then this leader came up. He was old and had on a blue shirt and green pants. His long antennas were looking all over the place. They had their eyes on the end of their antennas. You could tell he was scared. Then Jim said, "Where do you guys live?" He said, "We live nowhere. We travel." I felt scared that they might hurt us. But since I felt that they were

scared, that they would not hurt us. Then there came out a whole bunch of them and surrounded us. We tried to tell them that we would be their friends, but they did not believe us. Then came out the great god. They all ran away. We did not know who he was. He just swiftd over the air. He had mental powers that no one could ever see. Then he said to let us go free and that we would be his friends after we had a long talk. Then the mascot came and he showed us all around. And it was so beautiful that we felt like staying there. The end.

60

One day a little girl named Susie was walking home from school. And she tripped and fell into a big puddle of mud. Only it wasn't really mud; it was quicksand. And she sunk and she died.

There was a little girl. She was always getting people in trouble at school. She would always tear up their homework and making them get in trouble with the teacher and stuff. Until one day, she did something nice for a change. She did something nice for the teacher and the classroom and everything. And then she never bothered them again after she did that nice thing. And the nice thing was that she wrote a poem to all her classmates to say sorry for what she has did to them and got them in trouble and everything. The end.

62

The story is about a brother and a sister who were fighting. They fought a lot. And one day the brother and the sister were fighting. And there was a babysitter watching them. And they were fighting so much that the babysitter, she threw them both outside until the mother came home. And when the mother came home, she got them in. And she sent them both to their room without eating their dinner. And the next morning, when they woke up, they were fighting again. So she sent them without eating their breakfast. Until one day when they were at school, they were fighting again. And so the principal this time, they really got in trouble. When they got sent home, the dad hit them because they were fighting so much. And he put them in separate rooms until they quit fighting. The end.

63

One day there was this fly. He went flying around the park. Then he saw these two ladies having a picnic. Then he went down there and landed on a piece of raisin bread. Then one lady ate the raisin bread. Then the next thing you know, she threw up. That's it.



64

There was a little girl. And she liked to make up stories, too. And she wrote a kind of story. And she read it to her mother. And she liked it. And then she got her friends and she acted out the story. And they liked it. And the story was about how she liked to read and write and play games.

65

There was a boy named Matthew and he went to school. He fell in the mud and he had to go to the office and call home. And his mom had to bring him some pants. And then when he got back to class, he got in trouble because he wasn't supposed to be on the little kids' side playing. And then when he sat down, he tripped on his shoes and he fell backwards. And his desk tripped over and he got in trouble again. And he had to sit in the corner. And then he had a spelling test and he missed all the words. And he had to write them ten times each. Then it was recess. He was playing baseball and he fell and his pants ripped. And he had to go to the office again. And this lady sewed them for him. Then he came back to class. And then he had to read a book. And then he had to do tests. And he didn't read the book because he was playing around. And he got all the answers wrong.

66

Once there was a cat. He lived with these people. But he was walking down the street one day. And some kids came by. They grabbed him by the tail and threw him to the side of the road. And they kicked him. He finally got up again. He ran, but he had cuts in his legs, so he fell back down. Some people came by. They got him and took him home. They fed him and they took real good care of him. And they never bothered him again.

67

Once upon a time a little boy named Joe and his family went on a boat to go fishing. And when they went fishing they caught a lot of fish. After that, they came home. And their mom cooked the fish. And they all ate it. And then they went out again to go fishing. And the boat stopped. And they got stranded. And they had to call for help. But there was no telephone on the boat or anything. So after that they saw these crewman ships. And they yelled, "Help." And they came and they pulled them out of the boat. And they said, "Are you all right?" And they said, "We're OK." The end.

68

Once upon a time there was a little girl named Cynthia. She always wanted to play ball with her friends. But her mother didn't let her. One day she was in her room thinking about it. Her mother asked her to come to dinner. And she said no, she wasn't so hungry. So she stayed in her room for a little while. And she thought of her mother and her friends. And then she thought of reading a book about a frog. And she liked it. She told her mother. And then she took it to school, to her friends, to read her book. Next day her friends went to her house to ask her if she could go to play. Her mother told her yes, but she didn't want to. And then all she wants to do is read books. That's all.

69

There was a boy named Danny who had a little brother named Jimmy. Danny and Jimmy used to do everything together. One day Danny broke a window with a baseball and Jimmy took the blame for him. They liked to play baseball a lot and they had a good team, the Tigers. Danny was the pitcher and Jimmy was the catcher. They won almost every game. Once the score was 8 to 8 in the ninth inning. And Jimmy was up. He hit a home run and they won the game. Danny and Jimmy were very happy. They ran home

to tell their parents.

70

Once upon a time there was a girl named Paula. And she always took the blame for everything that anybody ever did good. So one day they had a party, all the girls. Everybody said that Paula got the idea, but she didn't. Another girl, Mary, was the one who thought of having a party. And one day they gave their teacher a present. It was a bunch of flowers. It was Mary's idea to give them to their teacher. But Paula took the blame. She said it was her idea. All the girls got real mad and they told the teacher. The teacher told her parents. And she got in trouble. The end.

Once there was a little cow. He found it hard to give milk to his owner. So the owner tried everything in the book to make it give milk. But the cow still wouldn't give it. So finally, they came up with these machines to get milk. But the cow didn't like it very much. So he ran away. So the owner bought another cow. And this cow didn't want to give milk either. He tried the machine on this cow and he didn't like it and he ran away. So he bought another cow. And this cow didn't want to give milk. And this time, when he tried to put the machine on this cow, the cow squirted milk in his face. And the owner got real mad. And he went off and sold the cow and bought another one. Finally, the owner went to school and learned how to get milk from the cows. And from then on, the farmer was more better.

Once upon a time there was a dog and his mom and his dad. And then when they were running through the woods going to a city, the father and mother, they got killed by some men that were hunting. The little dog, the puppy, had to return back, I mean, had to continue on going to the city. So he found the city and he found some dogs. But he couldn't make friends with them because they didn't know who he was. So he got real fat and he couldn't do anything right because he didn't have any friends, nobody to share things with. He felt sad. But then the dog, the puppy, the girl, she tried to make friends with him. And then the puppy, he understands everything and the dog, the puppy, the girl, she introduced him to the other dogs. So then the dogs knew him better and made friends with him. The end.

Once upon a time there was this dog. He was running around in the streets. And then the people who owned him were looking for him. But they couldn't find him. What happened was that this policeman found him and he took him to the pound. And the kid who was looking for him didn't know anything about it until they saw it in the newspaper. And then they went over to pick him up but they couldn't find him there because he had run away from the pound. And then this other little kid found him and kept him for a whole week. And by the time the other kid, the one who owned the dog, was looking for him, he didn't hear anything about him. He has a friend. He went over to his house. And he saw a dog just like him. He didn't know if it was that dog or not. But when he called the dog--his name was Ginger. He goes, "Ginger, come here." And the dog went to him. And he said, "Are you Ginger?" And the dog barked at him. And he said, "This is my dog. I found my dog." And he went running around the streets going, "I found my dog." And he went home and told his parents. And his parents were happy.

74

Once upon a time there was a man who went into the forest to cut some wood. And inside of a log there was a little kid. He took it to his wife and he said, "Where are you from?" "I don't know. They left me here." And the cutter went to all the town and said, "Anybody lost a child?" And they say no, so they lived happily ever after.

75

Once upon a time there was a bird who didn't have nobody to play with. And he used to cry all the time. One day a wolf came and asked him if he wanted to play with him. The birdie said he didn't want to play with him. The wolf asked him if he wanted to play tag. And he told him to play hide-and-go-seek. And they were fighting about it. And the wolf started to chase the bird. They ran around the tree. Then the wolf got the bird. And then the bird flew to the top of the tree. And so the wolf let him go. And the little bird stayed by himself until someone else came along.



76

Once upon a time there was a little girl. Her name was Maria. She loved to play around. She was eight years old. One time she wandered off in the woods and she got lost. Then she found herself in a big, big house. She said, "Oh, my. I am so scared here." Then she went up inside. And then she walked inside the room. And there was another little girl in there. She thought she was alive, but she was dead. And then one day she went into the woods again and then she found her house. And she lived happily ever after.

77

Once there was a dog and a cat who were real poor. And they were nice friends. And one time they had nothing to eat. So the dog and the cat went around houses to see if the people gave them food to eat. And one family gave the dog food, and the cat was real mad at the dog. And then they started fighting. And then the dog said, "Let's go and see who gets the food first." And if the cat gets the food first, they get to share. And that's how they lived happy.

78

Once upon a time there was a princess. She lived in a big tower. She was unhappy. So one day, her birthday was coming up. They decided to have a big party. So they invited guests. When her birthday came up, everybody said "Happy Birthday." They gave her some presents. Then they started dancing and talking. Later on, they had a big feast. The princess was so happy that she almost started to cry. Suddenly, the music stopped. The dancing stopped, too. It was because the party was over. She lived happily ever after.

79

Once there was a boy named John. He went fishing for a fish, not just an ordinary fish. He went fishing for a sawfish. He had a good bait. And he caught a fish but it wasn't a sawfish. When he picked it up, when he got it, he saw that it wasn't and he got sad. And he threw his reel back in. And then he got another bite. And when he got it out, it was a sawfish.

One time there was a boy named Johnny, Juan. There was going to be a spelling contest at school. So he went to enter it. He went and told the teacher and the teacher wrote his name down. A week later the spelling contest began. And in the morning he got some good news from his teacher. His teacher told him that he was the one who won the spelling contest. The one who won was going to go to a new school to enter another spelling contest. So he was the one that went. So they took him to the school, and he won that one, too. And for winning they gave him a big trophy. And he was very happy with it.

81

There was a girl and a boy. They had a dog. They moved to another house. And in that house they didn't allow dogs. They went to the man and said, "Please let the dog stay in the house." Because the doggie was a good dog and picked up all the papers from the floor. They said, "If you let the dog stay in the house, your porch will always be clean. And the yard will always be clean of garbage." So the man said, "OK, let me see if that's true." So then the dog went on the porch and picked up all the papers and threw them in the garbage. The man dropped his sweater on the ground and went in the house. And the dog, he picked it up and gave it to the children. They said, "The dog found this sweater. Is it yours?" So the man said, "Yes. It's mine." Then he said, "Oh, thank you. Who found it?" And they said, "The dog." And he said, "OK, I'll let it stay with you in the house."

82

There was once a frog that came out of the swamp. And was just trying to find a home. And it found a home where a maid was working and swatting flies and just dusting. And he jumped up on the table and the maid hit him with the fly swatter and killed him. Then they split him in two and used him as bookshelves.

83

There was this guy named Joe. And when he was in the Amazon, he was running through the trees and everything. And there was these headhunters who are trying to kill him. Then they hid behind the trees. And he keeps running and he doesn't know they're there. They try and cut his head off when he runs past. But he runs the other way so they start chasing him again. Then they have bear traps underneath the water. And his foot gets caught in one and he loses the foot and he dies.

84

There was a man and he was married to this lady. And They were going out to an amusement park. And when they got there...the man had a gun on the way over there. He was going to shoot his wife. So they went to the amusement park and went on all the rides. And when they finally got home, she hired someone to shoot her husband because she knew that he was going to shoot her anyway. And finally a man came in and shot him with a laser gun on a shotgun. And the man died. And the same guy that she hired to shoot him shot her. And finally, after they both were dead, they had family come. And they came over to the funeral. And they were buried next together. They hated each other. Their children were the same. The family hated everybody else. That's all.

85

One day there were these boys playing Ms. Pac-Man. And one of them hit the machine and Ms. Pac-Man hopped out. And she started eating everybody. And it ate the whole world. Everybody was gone. And the children were glad because it ate all the books and they didn't have to go to school no more. And then one day the old man came back to play Ms. Pac-Man and he was about to hit the machine. And a lady said, "Stop," because they thought Ms. Pac-Man was going to come out again.

86

There was a guy who came home and got drunk. And his wife kicked him out of his house. He got real mad at his wife. And so he came home. And then he beat up his wife. And then he jumped out of his window and died.

87

Once upon a time there was a flying ship. There was an old man in it. And nobody believed that it could fly. And he used to take people in it to go fly. He made like a trip out of it, like a taxi cab. And he flew around the world with three people. These people paid him. And when he got home, he had to work on it. He took other people to places. Until it broke down. And he won't fly no more.

There was a family of four. The dad's name is Dave, the mom is Carol, and there's a daughter and a son. The son's name is Adam and the daughter's name is Lisa. And this is in the future, 2060. And Becky and Carol stayed down usually and control the 'copter while Adam and Dave go up and search for different kinds of animals. One day when Dave was up exploring the planet, he seed this planet where other humans could live. But then he seed things like dinosaurs with three different horns on their heads and all these scales, twice as big as a Rex. And then he came back and told them about this. And if they could catch one of the eggs and hatch it on Earth and sell it to a zoo where the other people could see it, they could make a fortune. So one day they got all ready and Adam and Dave went to that planet and look around, digging, to find out if there was any eggs, making sure there was no dinosaurs around. So finally they seed this damp, sandy mud. So they started digging and they found around fourteen eggs. And then the dinosaurs were coming. So they got the bags and were running back. And Dave dropped one and kept on running. And Adam tripped. And Dave went to the 'copter and tried to lure them away from Adam. And Adam laid down and covered up with that sandy dirt. The dinosaurs didn't see him doing it and they followed the

'copter. When he saw that they were gone, he picked them up and waited. And it was a long time and the 'copter still didn't come. He wondered if they'd left him there. And so then he seed these wolves, just like on Earth. But they were in packs and packs. They surrounded him. And he seed like a cliff with rocks where he could get up. So he grabbed one of the bags and ran. Half of the pack went after him and the other digged for more eggs to eat up. When he got up there, three would come at a time and try to get him. So he'd get an egg and throw it and they'd all pounce on it. Or he'd get the shovel and hit them in the face. But it seemed impossible because they kept coming back. So finally he heard a whirring sound and it was his dad. His dad came by and picked him up. And the wolves ate the remaining eggs and they got away with ten. So when they got back they said they'd make a fortune out of these ten eggs. Adam and Becky didn't like that because what if they became extinct like our dinosaurs? What if our coming scared them off of their regular laying routes? What if they wouldn't lay anymore? And so they were arguing about that. But their dad kept saying, "But this'll make us a fortune. This'll make us rich." So they compromised and said, "Well, let's just take eight eggs back. And we can keep two. We'd still get a lot of money." And so their dad thought about it and said, "OK,



go get the stuff ready. We'll go put eight eggs back."  
And that's the end.

89

Once there was a little horsie and he used to run around in the field. So one day he saw a little bunny rabbit. The bunny rabbit came up and he started talking. And the rabbit said, "Would you like to come to my house?" Because he lives back in the bushes. And could the little colt fit. And he went back there and there were castles and gardens and stuff. And then the little horsie started running around saying, "Do you have any parents?" He said, "No, they died in the war of the rabbits against the wolves." And then he goes, "Do you have any sisters or brothers?" He goes, "Yeah, but they all ran off when the humans came. And now I'm the only one who stays here and keeps these mansions and stuff running. I'm wondering if you will help me find some more rabbits to help me run it." So they were going across the country. And they were looking through all the woods. Finally they found a little forest that was just about the size of a field for colts. And then the bunny rabbit said, "Stop. I smell rabbits." They stopped. The bunny rabbit jumped off the horse's back and he found a rabbit. The rabbits said, "Yes, we'd love to help you run the mansions." So all the

rabbits made a cart and attached it to the horsie. Then they went and bought another horsie. And the horsies would take turns pulling the cart. Then the little pony said, "Well, I guess I've done what you asked. I must leave now. My parents are probably worried, and my owner, too." Then the bunnies and the horsie took the other horsie to the owner so he could have a home, too. And they lived happily ever after.

90

Once upon a time there was a giant. And he went around chopping down all the trees. So one day there were no more trees except some that were in some woods. So this girl and boy, they put all the trees together with a cord. And they put gas inside of it. The giant came over to chop some of the trees down. They lit a match and it burned him all up. The end.

APPENDIX H  
RAW DATA FOR SAMPLE

I.D.	S	Gr	LC	SES	LASS	S&G	WDS	TU	CH	IN	PA	BEG	END	DQ	DD
01	1	4	1	2	88	125	088	13	1	5	2	2	2	1	1
02	1	4	1	1	71	085	089	08	2	4	2	2	1	1	1
03	1	4	1	2	42	110	246	31	2	4	2	1	1	2	1
04	2	4	1	1	52	105	121	14	1	4	2	1	1	1	1
05	1	4	1	4	83	125	167	20	3	3	2	2	2	1	1
06	1	4	1	1	96	050	137	22	1	5	2	2	2	1	1
07	1	4	1	1	69	125	124	19	3	5	2	2	2	1	1
08	1	4	1	4	85	035	050	07	1	2	2	2	1	1	1
09	1	4	1	1	78	035	217	28	3	3	2	2	1	1	1
10	1	4	1	1	58	010	065	07	1	0	1	1	1	1	1
11	2	4	2	1	45	130	171	20	4	7	2	2	2	1	2
12	1	4	2	1	51	135	175	18	4	5	2	2	2	2	1
13	1	4	2	3	10	120	210	24	2	3	2	2	1	2	1
14	1	4	2	1	65	080	117	18	4	4	2	2	1	2	1
15	1	4	2	1	53	135	233	29	8	9	2	2	2	1	1
16	1	4	2	2	60	050	064	08	2	3	2	2	1	1	1
17	1	4	2	2	33	040	037	05	2	1	2	2	2	1	1
18	1	4	2	1	62	105	061	07	2	2	2	2	1	1	1
19	2	4	2	2	46	130	082	10	3	2	2	2	1	1	1
20	1	4	2	1	63	100	067	07	3	4	2	2	1	1	1
21	2	4	3	1	49	125	121	15	3	4	2	2	1	1	2
22	2	4	3	2	58	110	083	13	2	1	2	2	2	2	1
23	2	4	3	1	73	080	061	06	2	2	2	2	1	1	1
24	2	4	3	2	80	105	093	10	2	2	2	2	1	1	

I.D.	S	Gr	LC	SES	LASS	S&G	WDS	TU	CH	IN	PA	EG	END	DQ	DD
25	2	4	3	2	69	035	089	12	2	3	2	2	1	1	1
26	2	4	3	3	96	130	110	10	2	2	2	2	1	2	1
27	2	4	3	2	99	125	242	29	4	4	2	2	2	2	1
28	2	4	3	1	37	105	053	09	2	1	1	1	1	1	1
29	2	4	3	2	98	130	335	42	2	4	1	2	1	2	1
30	2	4	3	2	62	005	043	07	1	0	1	1	1	1	1
31	1	5	1	3	80	110	068	10	2	3	2	2	1	2	2
32	1	5	1	2	83	115	067	06	1	3	2	2	2	1	1
33	1	5	1	4	80	010	079	09	1	0	2	2	1	1	1
34	2	5	1	1	39	035	056	05	2	2	2	2	1	1	1
35	1	5	1	2	27	125	108	16	2	7	2	2	2	1	2
36	2	5	1	1	45	125	237	29	4	9	2	2	1	1	1
37	1	5	1	2	70	085	086	11	2	3	2	2	2	1	1
38	1	5	1	2	53	055	076	08	1	1	2	2	1	1	1
39	2	5	1	2	47	120	166	23	4	5	2	2	2	2	1
40	1	5	1	1	42	095	064	09	3	1	2	2	1	1	1
41	1	5	2	1	64	100	060	06	2	2	2	2	1	1	1
42	1	5	2	1	63	120	119	17	3	4	2	2	2	2	1
43	2	5	2	2	46	135	191	13	3	5	2	2	2	1	1
44	2	5	2	1	69	135	299	30	6	9	2	2	2	2	1
45	1	5	2	1	69	135	291	29	2	4	2	2	2	1	1
46	1	5	2	1	30	120	106	14	2	3	2	2	1	2	1
47	1	5	2	1	45	120	119	16	3	4	2	1	1	1	1

I.D.	S	Gr	LC	SES	LASS	S&G	WDS	TU	CH	IN	PA	BEG	END	DQ	PA
48	1	5	2	2	89	125	175	14	4	5	2	2	2	2	2
49	1	5	2	1	52	075	127	13	3	5	2	2	2	2	1
50	2	5	2	1	47	055	067	10	1	2	2	2	1	1	1
51	2	5	3	1	81	055	137	14	3	3	2	2	1	2	1
52	2	5	3	1	57	100	108	14	3	3	1	1	1	1	1
53	2	5	3	1	20	080	063	06	1	2	2	2	1	1	2
54	2	5	3	2	61	125	111	17	4	3	2	2	1	1	1
55	2	5	3	1	83	125	199	25	4	6	2	2	2	1	2
56	2	5	3	3	47	120	177	26	3	7	2	2	2	2	1
57	2	5	3	2	73	140	176	25	2	3	2	2	1	1	2
58	2	5	3	2	64	125	323	40	2	9	2	2	1	2	1
59	2	5	3	3	75	125	367	44	5	7	2	2	2	2	2
60	2	5	3	1	72	075	037	05	1	1	2	2	1	1	1
61	1	6	1	2	77	110	100	07	1	1	2	2	2	1	1
62	2	6	1	1	66	110	145	13	5	5	2	1	2	1	1
63	2	6	1	1	55	060	052	07	2	2	2	2	1	1	1
64	2	6	1	1	79	060	062	09	3	2	2	2	1	1	1
65	2	6	1	1	73	060	186	24	3	7	2	2	1	1	1
66	2	6	1	2	50	105	090	15	3	2	2	2	1	1	1
67	1	6	1	3	63	135	117	16	4	4	2	2	2	2	1
68	1	6	1	2	52	125	143	18	3	3	2	2	1	1	2
69	2	6	1	3	83	125	104	15	2	3	2	2	1	1	1

I.D.	S	Gr	LC	SES	LASS	S&G	WDS	TU	CH	IN	PA	BEG	END	DQ	DD
70	2	6	1	3	30	105	114	15	4	3	2	2	2	1	1
71	2	6	2	1	83	110	165	20	1	5	2	2	1	1	1
72	2	6	2	1	54	808	120	13	2	4	2	2	1	1	2
73	2	6	2	1	42	125	224	25	4	5	2	2	1	2	1
74	1	6	2	1	44	100	071	09	2	3	2	2	2	2	1
75	1	6	2	2	68	120	159	13	4	2	2	2	2	1	1
76	1	6	2	3	48	105	104	17	1	2	2	2	2	2	1
77	1	6	2	1	75	105	097	10	3	2	2	2	2	2	1
78	1	6	2	2	68	085	094	15	2	2	2	2	2	1	1
79	1	6	2	1	79	080	083	10	1	2	2	2	1	1	1
80	1	6	2	1	83	110	124	14	2	3	2	2	1	1	2
81	2	6	3	2	65	130	182	19	3	3	2	2	1	2	1
82	2	6	3	2	30	105	065	05	3	2	2	2	1	1	1
83	2	6	3	1	65	110	094	11	2	2	1	2	1	1	1
84	2	6	3	3	46	135	151	17	4	5	2	2	1	1	1
85	2	6	3	2	53	125	093	10	5	3	2	2	1	2	1
86	2	6	3	2	83	075	048	06	2	4	2	2	1	1	1
87	2	6	3	2	34	075	086	10	2	2	2	2	1	1	1
88	2	6	3	3	88	140	560	59	3	6	2	2	2	2	2
89	2	6	3	2	80	135	304	31	3	4	2	2	2	2	1
90	2	6	3	1	78	115	076	07	2	2	2	2	2	1	1

Key for Raw Data Tables

S	-	School
Gr	-	Grade
LC	-	Linguistic Category
SES	-	Socioeconomic Status
LASS	-	Language Arts Scope and Sequence
S&G	-	Stein and Glenn Continuum
WDS	-	Number of Words
TU	-	Number of T-Units
CH	-	Number of Characters
IN	-	Number of Incidents
PA	-	Use of Past Tense
BEG	-	Use of Formal Beginning
END	-	Use of Formal Ending
DQ	-	Use of Quoted Dialogue
DD	-	Use of Described Dialogue