EXAMINING HOW EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION RELATE TO
NARRATIVE SKILLS

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ABSTRACT

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The aim of this study is to compare the narrative skills of first grade elementary students who had early childhood education and the narrative skills of first grade elementary students who did not have early childhood education and investigate their parents' reading-related activities with them. In order to achieve this aim, the present study focuses on narratives produced by students who had early childhood education and students who did not have early childhood education using Mercer Mayer's (1969) wordless picture-book "Frog, where are you?". This study compares those narratives with special attention to how emergence of story structure, the narrative length and inclusion of evaluative devices differ depending on their educational background in their orally collected narratives. Participants are 28 children who had early childhood education and 28 children who did not have early childhood education. Moreover, 27 parents whose child had early childhood education and 25 parents whose child did not

have early childhood education participated in the study to get better understanding of their children's narrative skills.

The results of the study indicate that narratives of students who had early childhood education include more structural elements and evaluative devices compared to the narratives of students who did not have early childhood education. Moreover, most of the parents participated in this study do not conduct reading-related activities with their children at home.

Keywords: Story grammar, early childhood education, evaluative device

ÖZ

OKULÖNCESİ EĞİTİMİN HİKAYE ANLATMA BECERİLERİNİ NASIL

ETKİLEDİĞİNİN İNCELENMESİ

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Bu çalışmanın amacı okulöncesi eğitim alan ve almayan ilköğretim birinci sınıf öğrencilerinin hikaye anlatma becerilerini karşılaştırmak ve iki grubun ebeveynlerinin çocuklarıyla olan kitap okuma aktivitelerini incelemektir. Bu çalışma amacını gerçekleştirmek için okulöcesi eğitim alan ve almayan öğrencilerin Mercer Mayer'in (1969) yazısız resimli kitabı "Frog where are you?"' yu kullanarak anlattıkları hikayeler üzerine odaklanmaktadır. Çocukların anlattıkları hikayeler iki grubun eğitimsel durumlarına bağlı olarak hikaye birimleri, değerlendirme yöntemleri ve hikaye uzunluğu açısından nasıl farklılık gösterdiğine göre incelenmiştir. Çalışmaya 28 okulöncesi eğitim alan ve 28 okulöncesi eğitim almayan çocuk katılmıştır. Ayrıca okulöncesi eğitim alan çocuklardan 27'sinin, almayanlardan 25'nin ebeveyni çocuklarının hikaye anlatma becerilerinin daha iyi anlaşılması için bu çalışmaya katılmıştır.

Bu çalışmanın sonucu göstermiştirki okulöncesi eğitim alan öğrencilerin hikayeleri almayanların hikayelerinden daha fazla hikaye birimi ve değerlendirme yöntemi içermektedir. Ayrıca bu çalışmaya katılan ebeveynlerin büyük çoğunluğu çocuklarıyla birlikte kitap okuma aktiviteleri uygulamamaktadır.

Anahtar kelimeler: Hikaye grameri, okulöncesi eğitim, değerlendirme yöntemleri

Biricik Ablam Çiğdem'e

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ECE: Participants who had early childhood education

Non-ECE: Participants who did not have early childhood education

CA: Complicating Action

ARCA: Attempt to Resolve Complicating Action

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

There has been increasingly attention to early childhood education due to the social, economic, and political changes in both developed and developing countries for the last three decades (Al-Otaibi, 1997; Bredekamp & Copple, 1997; Hall, Larson & Marsh, 2003, Morrison, 2003;). Two factors especially have played an important role in bringing early childhood education to the forefront in these countries. First, an increasing number of women have entered the labor force after the Industrial Revolution (Lascarides & Hinitz, 2000). Thus, early childhood education services have become necessary to ensure that men and women have equal work opportunities and to facilitate the reconciliation of work and family life. Second, there has been growing recognition that a positive group experience enhances the cognitive, social, and emotional development of children and can help compensate for the early disadvantages that many children experience (Bredekamp & Copple, 1997; Olmsted & Montie, 2001; Morrison, 2003; Kamerman, 2005). Several other factors also have fuelled this growth such as research on the importance of early brain development in young children, increased need for preschool experiences and newly developed educational standards (Morrison, 2003; Couse & Russo, 2006).

It has been long known that early childhood education positively influences all developmental areas of young children. A substantial body of literature emphasizes that good quality child care can provide support for children. With the help of early childhood education their learning, social-emotional well-being and early school achievement particularly in the transition to school years are improved (Bredekamp & Copple, 1997; Morrison, 2003; Harrison & Ungerer, 2005; AAP, 2005).

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Early childhood education practitioners support children's literacy by providing positive, supportive and respectful literacy learning environments in which young children view themselves as competent in literacy (Hall, Larson & Marsh, 2003). In this sense, the group of children not attending an early childhood education before entering school can be considered under the risk of performing less on measures of early literacy and numeracy (Harrison & Ungerer, 2005). Moreover, Özcan (2004) stated that 3 and 4-year-olds attending kindergarten produce clauses that are composed of a narrative, whereas those not attending kindergarten are not able to produce a narrative, but they just mention the existing components in the picture book. Furthermore, Zevenbergen, Whitehurst and Zevenbergen (2003) found that the shared-reading intervention has a significant effect on the narrative skills of children who enrolled in Head Start. Therefore, there should be more research focusing on the relationship between narrative development and early childhood education.

1.1. Narrative Development and Early Childhood Education

The study of communicative competence has extended its scope to investigate more than internalizing grammar, vocabulary or other linguistic devices since language development has been evaluated with competence on longer discourse units such as narratives in recent years (Kang, 2004). Therefore, there has been a renovated interest in the study of narrative development over the past thirty years. This is due to the level of information it maintains concerning social, discursive and traditional condition of people's life (Bruner, 1991; Quasthoff, 1997). The use of narrative methodology results in unique and rich data that cannot be obtained from experiments, questionnaires or observations, thus, use of narratives in research can be viewed as an addition to the existing inventory of the experiment and it has become a significant part of the repertoire of the social science (Lieblich, Tuval-Mashiach, & Zilber, 1998).

Success in modern industrialized society depends on having good verbal skills and acquiring well-developed verbal skills which are also necessary for school success (Hoff-Ginsberg, 1997a). The world has been changing rapidly; hence, it requires a variety of new skills. In order to get along well in the new world; children must be equipped with those skills (Bredekamp & Copple, 1997). In parallel with this notion,

the Early Childhood Curriculum prepared by the Ministry of National Education focuses on raising children who can express their ideas freely, defend what they believe and respect others' honest opinions (MONE, 2006). So, it can be stated that on account of requirement of a good speaker, importance of narrative development is increasing.

Narrative is one of the most vital skills that human beings have to make sense of their experiences as well as organizing and interpreting them. Narrative emerges as early as the second or third years of life in human development and it provides a good context to study children's language since this genre emerges early (McCabe & Peterson, 1991) and continues to develop throughout childhood (Hudson & Shapiro, 1991). These earliest narratives comprise simple references experienced from the immediate past such as "ball gone". When children enter school, they begin to tell lengthy, coherent, and cohesive stories (Mardell, 1991).

Turkish Ministry of National Education determines the purposes of early childhood education and these are related to advancement of narrating skills:

1. To promote children's physical, emotional and mental development and also help them gain good practice.
2. To prepare them for elementary school
3. To create shared growing environment for the children coming from disadvantaged family and environment
4. To enable children to speak Turkish properly and well (MONE, 2006).

There are some similar points between the purposes of Developmentally Appropriate Practice, which is a well-known philosophy that guides the education of young children from birth through eight years, and Turkish Ministry of National Education in terms of early childhood education goals because they both summarize abilities which children need to acquire:

1. Communicate well, respect others and engage with them to work through differences of opinion, and function well as members of a team;
2. Analyze situations, make reasonable judgments, and solve new problems as they emerge;

3. Access information through various modes, including spoken and written language, and intelligently employ complex tools and technologies as they are developed; and

4. Continue to learn new approaches, skills and knowledge as conditions and needs change (Bredekamp & Copple, 1997).

Narrative language skills are highly related to children's literacy and school achievement. Children who are successful on producing well-developed narratives have also high academic success and well-developed literacy skills (Fang, 2001; Roth, Speece, & Cooper, 2002; Chang, 2004). In this regard, narrative skills are widely used to investigate children's cognitive development (Bloome, Katz & Champion, 2003) and they also plays a significant role in language learning (Kang, 1997). Kang (1997) stated that the ability to tell a good story depends on a high level of language and cognitive skills. Moreover, storytelling helps children develop a positive attitude towards learning by extending their opportunities for literacy. Specifically, in the analysis of a story narrative skill seen as a vehicle for examining discourse has recently received much attention (Kocabaş, 2002).

While acquiring narrative skills, children also acquire the perspective on a variety of issues, including describing and characterizing actors, objects and events, identifying and ordering the sequence of events, comprehending the relations between actors and actions (Heath, 1986 cited in Alexander, Harkins & Michel, 1993).

Narrative becomes the way in which individuals organize and make sense of their daily experiences from an early age since individuals think, perceive, imagine and make moral choices in accordance with narrative knowledge and narrative thought (Mandler, 1984; Bruner, 1991). Moreover, narratives play a leading role in our lives since they are used to communicate, motivate, teach and entertain (Macleod, 2002). Therefore, it is claimed that narrative skills provide information about enculturation process of young children since narrative skills underlie various forms of discourse and communication (Harkins, Koch & Michel, 2001).

1.2. Purpose and Significance of the Study

By focusing on the story grammar (Labov,1972) and evaluative function of narratives (Peterson & MaCabe, 1983 cited in Kang, 2003) the present study investigated how narratives of children who had early childhood education (ECE) deviate from the narratives of children who did not have early childhood education (non-ECE) and how such deviation is compared based on their educational background. Analyses examine 56 oral narratives produced by ECE, compared with those of non-ECE with special attention to the narrative length, story grammar components, and evaluative devices. The independent variable in this study is having early childhood education and the dependent variables are story length, story structure and use of evaluative devices in the story.

The current study used narratives as a tool to find out how early childhood education and parents' reading and narrating activities influence narrative development of young children. Furthermore, story length, narrative structure, children's inclusion types and frequency of evaluative devices in their narratives are outstanding dimensions of narrative. Hence, they are all in the scope of the study. Producing a well-structured and viable narrative is a complex process, and there is much to know about how this process occurs. It is obvious that inherent ability plays a vital role; however, this study does not discuss this ability.

There are no known studies which have been conducted to examine the effect of early childhood education on narrative development of young Turkish children. Thus, present study is aimed to fill this gap in the field of early childhood education. It is generally acknowledged that children's narrative skills emerge in social interaction with adults because children grow up with conversational narratives told around them by adults and older children all the time (McNamee, 1979 as cited in Alexander et al.1993; Quasthoff, 1997; Kyratzis, 2005; Standler & Ward, 2005;). Therefore, parents' reading and narrating activities with their children at home also play a crucial role in children narrative development. Thus, present study also aims to investigate those activities.

In Turkey, all kinds of educational foundation have been affiliated to Ministry of National Education for three years. Although most research proves that preschool education is vital to whole developmental area of young children and school readiness,

compulsory education includes only the age range from 6 to 14 year in primary education and preschool education is not included in the compulsory education.

Due to the innovation of early childhood education practice and increasing expectation from early childhood education, early childhood education curriculum was modified in 2006, it now accommodates plenty of literature activities including nursery rhymes, finger plays, poems, riddles, conversations, book reading, story telling, dramatization, pantomime and story continuation, all of which are also related to narrative development (MONE, 2006). Narrative skills are important because of three reasons; first, narratives are a useful tool for the development of oral language (Standler & Ward, 2005). Second, narrative language skills are closely related with children's academic success and literacy development (Fang, 2001). Third, narratives are accepted as a part of cognitive domain since they require some degree of cognitive development such as memory, language and logical reasoning abilities (Stein & Albro, 1997).

1.3. Research Questions

The research questions investigated in this study are as follows:

1. Do ECE produce longer narratives than the non-ECE?
2. Do narratives of ECE include more structural components of story grammar than narratives of non-ECE?
3. Do narratives of ECE include more evaluative devices than narratives of non-ECE?
4. Is there a difference between the parents of ECE and the parents of non-ECE in terms of their reading related activities with their children at home?

1.4. Definition of Important Terms

Early Childhood Education: Attending at least one year period of education and care before the compulsory primary education in Turkey.

Story: Sequential, action-oriented and diachronic structure passage including characters and plots is defined as a story. Narrative and story are used interchangeably in this study.

Story grammar: Story grammar addresses the elements of a story. These include, but are not limited to: the title, author, setting, main characters, conflict and resolution, events, and conclusion. Some additional elements that may be specified under "events" are: the initiating event, internal response, attempt, consequence, and reaction.

Evaluative Devices: Clauses that describe the narrator's point of view, including references to mental state of characters and narrator's individual stylistic ways of presenting information

Narrative: Any written or spoken presentation involving events, characters, and what the characters say and do. In this study "narrative and story" will be used interchangeably.

Narrative development: Producing and comprehending narratives. It is comprised of the ability to describe and characterize actors, objects, events; identify and order the sequence of events; and comprehend the relations among actors, actions and consequences of actions.

ECE: Refers to participants who had early childhood education.

Non-ECE: Refers to participants who did not have early childhood education in this study here after.

1.5. Limitations

Some limitations of this study should be acknowledged. First of all, this study was conducted with a modest sample size, which prevented the present study from advocating substantial inferential analysis and limited the generalizability of the results. However, narrative research requires intense work to collect and analyze data. Moreover, the scope of the present study is limited to the analysis of story length, story grammar, evaluative devices and parents' reading and narrating activities at home although, young children's narratives can be investigated variety of aspects. Another limitation is that not all the parents of all the children were accessed because parents had a lot of excuses to participate in the study such as being busy. Although the forms including interview questions were sent to all the parents to collect information on parents' reading-related practice with their children at home; however, four forms were

not returned with information. Finally, this study is cross-sectional; however, longitudinal study seems more appropriate to measure children's narrative development as elaborate measurement can be obtained by investigating narrative skills of children throughout early childhood education.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Language and Language Development

Story-telling is one of the key components of narrative communication, which plays a significant role in language learning (Kang, 1997) therefore, a discussion of language development will be beneficial before discussing the narrative development. Language is a system of verbal symbols (Cole, 1982; Spodek & Saracho, 1993; Meece, 1997; Brewer, 2001; Owens, 2005,) and it enables people to comment on any aspect of their experience and to consider the past and the future (Gleason, 2005). Language acquisition occurs rapidly, universally and uniquely in human species (Chapman, 2000). Therefore, young children acquire the basic components of their native language in a few years such as phonology, morphology, semantics, syntax and social rules of language use. Moreover, language development proceeds throughout children's life as they grow older and they gain new skills at every stage of their lives. In addition, a child acquires a particular grammatical structure in a predictable order, which is common among all children learning the same language (Gleason, 2005).

It is important to understand the functions that language serves in the educational process in order to find out why many children with language problems have academic failure. The plan and design of educational curricula assumes the presence of basic language abilities and as a result, a student's learning at school strongly relies on his language knowledge (Bashir & Scavuzzo, 1992). Furthermore, language facilitates social relationships and cultural membership; that is, learning a language enables children to establish membership within different social communities and extended cultural settings (Gee, 1990 as cited in Bashir & Scavuzzo, 1992). In conclusion, language provides the child with the opportunity to express attitudes, beliefs, feelings

and values. In this way, the child is able to develop a sense of personal identity and the capacity for self-advocacy as well as an adaptive way to self-regulate behavior (Bashir & Scavuzzo, 1992).

Learning a language means using linguistic structures which represent desired content and bring intended results (Cole, 1982). Halliday (1975) suggested a set of language functions as follows: By using language, children can facilitate their communication with people in their environment; establish interpersonal relationships; regulate the behaviors of others; satisfy material needs; explore their environment; exchange information with other people; and express his awareness of himself. The child also uses language for creating a universe of his own. After performing in different social and cultural settings, the child is capable of using language to speak about events and participating in various social practices and interactions (Bashir & Scavuzzo, 1992; Gleason, 2005).

Children advance their use of complex grammar and they learn to use language in many different social situations during school years. Another reason why school years support language development is that children learn written language which is the major linguistic system (Gleason, 2005). Storytelling is at the forefront of this culture-specific learning of a language because there is a widely-held belief that narrative discourse takes a role in assembling the bridge between oral language and literacy (Bashir & Scavuzzo, 1992).

Due to the fundamental roles in people's lives, several larger disciplines focus on language development for various reasons. Developmental psychologists work on language development in order to learn about the process of growth and change while linguists interested in language development for the nature of language (Hoff-Ginsberg, 1997a). Furthermore, from the viewpoint of science, the reason for studying language development is two dimensional. First, investigating language development provides a real insight into the nature of human mind. Second, planning education for young children with language disorders is attracting increasing attention (Hoff-Ginsberg, 1997a). Chapman (2000) noted that research on child language acquisition has provided evidence for at least two important generalizations about the nature of children's language learning. First, language acquisition follows a course in which new meanings

and communicative functions are first expressed by mean or forms of behavior such as gesture, vocalization, word, or sentence structure. Second, new forms of communicative behavior typically emerge to express meanings and communicative intents which are included already in a child's repertoire.

2.2. Characteristics of Turkish Language

Turkish is an Altaic language and it represents all features of an object-verb language (Lehmann, 1978 cited in Aksu-Koç & Slobin, 1985). Turkish neutral word order is Subject + Object+ Verb (SOV), accompanied by features of suffixed inflections, postpositions preposed demonstratives, numerals, possessives, adjectives and relative clauses. High degree of variation for pragmatic purposes is exhibited in simple sentences and main clauses (Erguvanlı, 1979).

The entire set of noun inflections and much of the verbal paradigm is mastered by a child of 24 months of age or earlier. There is some evidence for productive use by a child as young as 15 months because both noun and verb inflections are present in the one-word stage and productivity emerges as early as 15 months (Aksu-Koç & Slobin, 1985). According to Aksu-Koç & Slobin (1985) Turkish child speech transcripts differ from "child language", which have been experienced in most other languages due to precocious acquisition of grammatical morphology and lack of overgeneralization. Although children's early utterances are short and simple, they are rarely ungrammatical or incomplete from the point of view of the adult language. Therefore, Turkish acquisition shows that grammatically relevant notions are accessible to young children provided that the means of the expression are sufficiently clear and analyzable. Locative postposition question words and temporal and causal clause relations follow the standard cross linguistic order based on conceptual development. After age 4, a variety of complex constructions requiring the insertion of nominalised verb forms of various sorts into sentences are acquired. Turkish children easily acquire the grammar of simple sentences and main clauses; however, they experience difficulty while acquiring the syntax and morphology of subordinate clauses (Aksu-Koç & Slobin, 1985).

According to Aksu-Koç & Slobin, (1985) combining clauses to convey temporal and causal relations develops in the following sequence:

1) Without clear grammatical markers of connection, simple juxtaposition surpasses until 2 and a half year olds.

2) During the first three years, children begin to use connectives that do not require nominalization.

3) After age 4, children are capable of using nominalizations for various subordinate clauses.

2.3 Ethnographic Studies

Ethnographic research is one of the most complex research methods since it requires a variety of approaches to obtain a holistic picture of a particular society, group, institution, setting, or situation. Ethnographic research focuses on depicting the everyday experiences of people, using observations and interviews (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2003). The main difference between ethnography and other types of qualitative research is that ethnography is concerned with the cultural context and provides a socio-cultural analysis of the unit of study. Culture is commonly defined as values and attitudes which structure the behavior patterns of a specific group of people. An ethnographic study in education should take the community at large into account and its cultural context, such as the history of the neighborhood, socioeconomic factors, and the attitudes of parents (Merriam, 1998). However, communities no longer have clear boundaries due to globalization and the people in the same community represent multiple identities, which turns studying culture into studying snowflake in the middle of an avalanche. In this sense, ethnography is a quite arrogant attempt to move in a group of strangers, to study and describe their beliefs, to document their social life, to write about their subsistence strategies in a short period of time and it is even an impossible task (Agar, 1996 p.91). This task requires, in its nature, taking role in the lives of informants and establishing warm rapport with them since informants need motivation to provide, retain, and transmit information that the ethnographer seeks (Agar, 1996).

As mentioned above, ethnographic data is frequently collected through interviews (Goodwin & Heritage, 1990). Hence, ethnographic research is more appropriate to study on child language as child language cannot be separated from the community and the cultural background (Heath, 1983). Moreover, Agar (1996) claims

that linguistics is an interesting field to implement ethnographic research. Because of this, Heath (1983) searched two communities to gain insight into what happens to children as they learn using language and form their values about its structure and functions. In her well-known ethnographic study, *Ways with Words,* she discovered significant cultural differences between the two communities.

The teachers conducting classroom ethnographies have the opportunity to investigate what is beyond the surface issues of welfare, missed appointments, and overcrowded living conditions. In addition, as teachers begin to view their students as competent participants in household, they had higher expectations of their students' abilities (Gonzalez et al, 1993). Furthermore, the dialogue of the ethnographic interviews can engender a dialogue of change and collaboration among teachers, parents, students, and researchers (Gonzalez et al, 1993), especially when it is taken into consideration that the genres and form of narrative knowledge are highly dependent on the cultural context in which they are used (Brockmeier & Harre, 1997; Van Deusen-Phillips, Goldin-Meadow & Miller, 2001). Acquiring the skills to produce and comprehend narratives enables children to gain perspective which is conveyed through their language on substantial issues. These issues include the motives, purposes, attitudes, values and feelings of characters and how these may be identified and distinguished; the causes, consequences, order and timing of events and how their relationships can be identified. Cultural values can be used within the linguistic structures of narratives because interactions among humans and events can be explained on the light of culture (Harkins et al, 2001). Therefore, in order to investigate the development of narrative skills, it is more appropriate to conduct ethnographic reserach compared to others.

2.4. Theoretical framework

Narrative has been the subject of many divergent disciplines including religion, history, literature, ethnography, cognitive science, anthropology, sociology, psychoanalysis, psychology, linguistics, and theology (Quasthoff, 1997). Research on narratives ranges through hundreds of books and journals in all these disciplines. Although it is a hard prospect even to attempt a survey of research on narrative in social

sciences, it is advisable for all disciplines to be familiar with research on narrative conducted other disciplines (McCabe, 1991).

Narratives have two basic functions: reference and evaluation. The referential function is about narrative's structure namely, whom the narrative is about, when, and where the action takes place. It is aimed as a well-formed structure on an initial orientation, a complication, and a resolution (Labov & Waletzky, 1967). Beginnings, middles, and ends of narratives have been analyzed in many accounts. However, there is a limited discussion about evaluation, which is one of the most important aspects of a narrative. Evaluation is an answer to the question why a narrative is told and what the narrator is getting at. Evaluative devices represent what is terrifying, dangerous, weird, wild, crazy, amusing, hilarious, wonderful, strange, uncommon, unusual, ordinary, plain, humdrum, run-of-the-mill. In other words, evaluation shows whether the narrative is worth reporting (Labov, 1972). The attitude is expressed by the narrator's thoughts and feelings toward the events through various linguistic strategies such as repetition, adjectives or reported speech (Kang, 2003).

With the two features provided above, the present study will follow the Labov's (1972) identification of components in well-developed narratives in order to investigate narrative structure follow Peterson and MaCabe's (1983) classification categories to investigate evaluative devices.

2.4.1 Narrative as a Discourse Type

Narrative is a form of discourse generated in oral or written language (Aksu-Koç, 1996) and narrating seems to be the first discourse ability to be acquired by a child (Miller & Sperry, 1988 cited in Quasthoff, 1997 p. 51). Research into discourse has considered the narration as most prominent type of discourse due to mainly three reasons. First of all, different disciplines are interested in narratives in different perspectives: Stein and Albro (1997) view at narrative as a part of a larger cognitive domain since production of narratives requires some degree of cognitive development. Linguistic analyses focus on structures which creates cohesion in the temporal perspective (Labov, 1972). Constructivist studies investigate the relationship between construction of narratives and construction of personal identity (Bamberg, 1997b).

Psycholinguistic studies are concerned with the relationship between forms and functions in the structure, temporal perspective and coherence in narratives (Aksu-Koç, 1994). That is, philosophical approaches are interested in the narratives to understand development of self (Hermans, 1997). Second, there are various descriptive approaches to narratives (Bamberg, 1997). Third, narratives get more attention from research activities and publications than the other types of discourse such as arguments, explanations, and instruction (Quasthoff, 1997).

It seems that narratives are privileged forms of discourse which play a central role in almost every conversation and it is common practice for all approaches to consider that a narrative discourse is organized in accordance with a universal schema which has a beginning, a middle and an end (Labov, 1997). Narrative was one of the first discourse genres to be analyzed and it has remained as the most intensively studied oral and written language form. Thus, narrative has been one of the major themes in humanistic and social scientific thought (Johnstone, 2001). Moreover, narrative discourse is a noteworthy type of discourse in children's preschool language learning environment since narrative is the linguistic means by which speakers represent both real-life and fictional events. On the other hand, narrative is more than a kind of discourse. It is a family of discourse, in which children make references to series of events and actions. Narrative ranges from ongoing description of everyday activities to lengthy fictional accounts (Hicks, 1991).

Barthes (1966) claims that narratives all around the world have much in common and they deal with a limited number of basic themes. Inspired by Russian formalism, he outlines a structural theory of narrative which is capable of accounting for every conceivable narrative. He proposes that a narrative has a syntagmatic structure, the sequence of meaningful actions of characters in other words, narratives are a hierarchy of instances. Barthes (1966) describes three levels: functions (bottom level), actions (middle level), and narration (top level). Functions are the smallest unit of narratives even they are sometimes shorter than a sentence. An action is the level of characters and characters in the narrative are classified according to their participation in actions, such as, their desire, communication, and struggle. The narrational level includes narrative communication between the narrator and the audience in a narrative situation. On the

other hand, discourse can be seen from two different perspectives: the structural and the functional. The former is "language above sentence" and the latter is "a system of culturally organized speaking" (Schiffrin, (1994).

Bakhtin (1981) discusses construction of narrative discourse from a dialogical perspective. According to him, narrative discourse cannot be isolated from the social context since individuals learn feature of discourse by interacting with the more knowledgeable member of a society and internalizing the socially assembled knowledge. Özcan (2004:9) defines Bakhtinian dialogism "as a unidirectional transmission of past experiences, but rather a dialogic, interactive process, in which the narrator applies various strategies to create the top most influence on the audience, and the audience encourages or discourages the narrator by their appropriate responses".

Although the most commonly used sources of data in discourse analysis are recordings of informal interviews between researchers and respondents, there are other sources of data such as research papers published in formal academic journals, letters between scientists, television programmes, and newspaper reports (Wooffitt, 2005) and a narrative is just one of the sources of data which can be used in discourse analysis. The study of narrative have become more and more interdisciplinary because scholars from diverse disciplines have gotten more and more interested in narrative. Growing research provides different ways in which narrative studies have an opportunity to improve. Discourse analysts continue to refine and fill in the structure of narrative and its functions, ask new questions about the discursive representation and constriction of time and space, and look at how narrative functions in new context (Johnstone, 2001). The most distinctive feature of narratives over other discourse forms is that a narrative must include a recounting events following in time line (Labov, 1972). The current study adopted the definition of Labov (1972) while analyzing narrative discourse.

2.4.2. Definition of Narrative

Narrative is a basic method of rehearsing past experiences by synchronizing a verbal sequence of clauses to the sequence of events (Labov, 1997) and, clauses are ordered in temporal sequence. As such, Labov (1972) defines narrative as "a sequence of

two restricted/independent clauses which are temporally ordered" (p. 360). As for this notion of narrative, an example is provided below:

> a   I know a boy named Harry.
>
> b   Another boy threw a bottle at him right on the head
>
> c   and he had to get seven stitches

In this example, Labov (1972) accepts only (b) and (c) as narrative clauses since (a) has no temporal juncture and it might be located after (b) or after (c) without breaking temporal order. Stein and Glen (1979) provided similar definition, stating that story is a causally organized episode which proceeds sequentially. On the contrary, temporally ordered clauses are not enough for a text to be accepted as a narrative as narratives require more quality. For a text to be called as a narrative, it must be reportable; that is, it must be sufficiently unusual or exciting (Quasthoff, 1997 p.68). Another definition of a narrative is "children's acquisition of the storytelling performance practices of the culture and social institution in which they participate" (Cortazzi, 1992 cited in Bloom et al. 2003 p. 206).

Bruner (1990) posited that components of a narrative are a unique sequence of events, mental states, happenings involving human beings as characters or actors. The necessary conditions for a passage to form a narrative are characters and a plot that evolves over time. Additionally, the structure of a narrative must be "sequential, action-oriented, and diachronic" (Brockmeier & Harre, 1997 p.265). Furthermore, narratives are decontextualized monologues in which the narrator produces language relevant to the overall narrative considering listener's needs. Decontextualization refers to focusing on some shared experience within the immediate context (Owens, 2005).

2.4.3. Narrative Development

Narrative development is defined as "becoming increasingly able and sophisticated in creating and communicating a "good story", a reporting of experience or events" (Bloome et al, 2003 p. 206). Construction of a story in a literary text is simply defined as events, characters and what the characters say and do (Koch, 1998). People are storytellers by nature. They organize their experiences in the form of narratives in

order to give meaning to events, make prediction about how situations will evolve, guide their actions in relationships and make self-experience coherent (Salvatore, Dimaggio & Semerari, 2004). Events are connected to one another in a predictable manner: that is, narratives contain organizational patterns. The narrator must present an explicit, topic-centered discussion that clearly states the relationships between events concerning people, animals, or imaginary characters (Owens, 2005).

Stories have a central role in our communication with others. Narratives enable us to access people's identity and personality because verbal accounts and stories presented by individual narrators about their lives and their experiences are essential parts of learning inner world of people (McAdams, 1996). A story is told, created, revised and retold throughout life and it becomes one's identity. Stories are not only rehearsal of a life and a reflection of an inner reality to the outside world but they shape and construct the narrator's personality and reality as well. Through the stories we tell, we familiarize, explore and express ourselves to others (Lieblich, et al, 1998). Narrative is used in order to interpret a set of phenomena by referring to a set of rules such as structures, scripts, frames, or metaphors. In some way, narratives encapsulate generalized knowledge in that it links the unknown to the known. Viewed this way, narratives are both models of the world and models of the self in other words, we ourselves construct as a part of our world through our stories (Brockmeier & Harre, 1997).

Children progress from conversational discourse to narrative discourse developmentally. They meaningfully bring a basic knowledge of a narrative structure and apply this knowledge to their efforts to learn how to interpret a written text. Therefore, when a narrative structure has not been sufficiently developed or cannot be effectively accessed, children's reading achievement is adversely affected (Roth et al, 2002).

There are some requisite skills to produce a good narrative. First of all, linguistically, children must have enough vocabulary knowledge for codifying information about the characters and the events in order to signify the sequence of events and their temporal relations. Cognitively, children must convey the motivation behind characters' actions and they must establish reasonable relations between events

and the theme of the story. Socially, children must use some evaluative devices to adjust the relationship with the audience and to sustain their attention (Reilly, Losh, Bellugi & Wulfeck, 2003).

Chomsky (1966), who is a notable linguist scientist, claims that people are born with an innate capacity to comprehend grammar. Therefore, they are able to understand complex sentences in spoken or written language. Accordingly, some narrative researchers advocate that human beings have an inherent "schema" to understand and produce stories from an early age (Bruner, 1990; Mandler, 1984). Bruner (1990) further argues that narrative is the most pervasive and powerful discourse form in human communication and maintains that narrative requires four special linguistic constituents: "agentivity" referring to action directed toward goals controlled by agents; "sequential order" referring to events and states linearized in a standard way; "sensitivity"; and finally "narrators' perspective". There is also some evidence for age-related changes in narrative structure (McCabe & Peterson, 1991; Quasthoff, 1997). Case (1985) explained these changes from a cognitive maturation point of view. In other words, he notes that as the brain matures biologically, its processing capacity increases. Case (1985) proposes four main stages of cognitive development including sensorimotor stage from 1 month to 18 months, interrelational stage from 18 months to 5 years, dimensional stage from 5 years to 11, vectorial stage from 11 years to 19 years.

There are many different kinds or genres of narratives. The scripts are the earliest emerging narrative genre (Hudson & Shapiro, 1991) and they are related to the familiar everyday events which occur in our daily lives such as getting up early, going to work, and routines of our lives (Mandler, 1984). Even 2 year olds possess basic scripts (Karmiloff-Smith, 1981 cited in Owens, 2005). Stories can recount or describe a past event that one personally experienced. For example, seeing the dentist or attending a birthday party is accepted as scripts (Hoff-Ginsberg, 1997a). Scenes represent places such as the office, home and schools in which our daily routines take place. Although stories, scripts and scenes represent a variety of experiences, they have much in common and result in common types of psychological processing (Mandler, 1984). On the other hand, stories seem to be the most demanding narrative genre as research on children's

abilities of telling stories revealed that this skill requires a long time to develop in compared to the other narrative genres.

How can we identify a good story? A substantial body of research suggests that coherence is the forefront indicator of a good story. Coherence refers to the structure of a story in which sequential events must be linked in a meaningful way (Hudson & Shapiro, 1991). Children are capable of telling basic patterns for familiar events and sequences even though they are not able to describe the sequence of events accurately until about age four (Owens, 2005). Similarly, Hudson and Shapiro (1991) found that preschool children were very capable of reporting their knowledge and experiences; however, they could not restructure them into a story format.

Narrative skills develop over the preschool and elementary school years in three ways. First, children's narratives include progressively more story elements (Labov, 1972). Second, children's narratives originate more adherent; that is, children become capable of using connectives such as "but", "because", and "although" to connect one theme to another in their narrative (Peterson & McCabe, 1991). Third, children comprehend incrementally more information concerning their evaluation of events or characters in the story (Meng, 1992, cited in Zevenbergen, 1996).

Bamberg (1997) accepted narrative development as a sub-constituent of language development. Furthermore, narrating is the central activity in a language to express experiences and constructions of experiences which are always on the move (Bamberg, 1997; Van Deusen-Phillips et al, 2001). While telling stories, people live them since they reaffirm, modify, and create new ones in the process of telling them. Stories trigger the imagination, and through our imaginative participation in the created worlds, empathic forms of understanding are advanced (Bartlet, Daniel & Brauner, 1993, cited in Koch, 1998). The listener of the story will be able to travel worlds of well-organized stories' producers.

Narrative skills have recently become an important component of our lives due to the importance of narrative skills. Both clinicians and academicians are interested in its formation, function, and power (Mcadams, Josselson & Lieblich, 2001 cited in Champion, 2005). Narrative is popular among people due to its function in every day life which enables, people to construct meaning by telling stories. Thus, narrative

enables us to make sense of what is going on around us and to construct social reality (Berger and Luckmann, 1966, cited in Reissner, 2002). Narrative helps make the tacit things explicit and put thought, feelings and personal views into a real context. Talking about a problem or writing thoughts down might help find a solution since the situation has been changed by letting the thoughts out of one's mind, which is a reflexive process. In this context, it has to be emphasized that a story told a second time is a different story due to the reflexive character of narrative (Reissner, 2002).

Chang (2004) emphasized individual variation effects on children's narrative performance; for example, some children already have the ability to produce long, clear and detailed narratives, whereas other children could only produce short, fragmented stories with limited information. This probably results from the input which children received from their parents or primary caregivers.

Narratives function in a more vital role than these skills in people's life as competent narrative skills enable people to feel at ease in the world. Having a well-constructed narrative is an indicator of the ability to assimilate new experiences into a sense of self. Gaining the ability to produce a narrative teaches people how to organize and make sense of experiences (Baumeister & Newman, 1994). Moreover, people who have well-constructed narratives are likely to cope with confusion and disorientation in the face of new experiences. This ability provides children with the capability to create a coherent and flexible narrative grounds and capability to behave proactively in the world. If children are equipped with a well-constructed narrative, they will be able to think about and understand the past. Furthermore, they will develop skills in order to deal with the future (Champion, 2005). We continuously develop our own life story and we need narrative as a communication tool to share our experiences and ideas with other people. A person establishes firmer notion of self by being successful at organizing information and internalizing new experiences into an understanding of oneself (Champion, 2005).

Well structured narrative means sophisticated narrative both on a microstructural and macrostructural level (Mardell, 1991). Microstructure refers to the constituent part of a narrative and the components children use to provide information on how they tell their stories. Children's strategy of using microstructural elements changes over time in

preschool years and they master orientative information. As children mature, they use a complete version of the orientation elements such as who, what, where, and why in their stories and their sensitivity to their listeners' need for orientative information increases. As before, they indicate the beginning and the ending of their stories according to listeners' need. On the other hand, macrostructure refers to the general organization of a narrative. Macrostructural organization provides the framework to make stories meaningful for listeners. Characteristics of a coherent story and a definition of increased complexity in a story macrostructure have been controversial issue among linguists. However, there has been a consensus: As children grow older, they comprehend what is important in a story and their ability improves as to produce well-structured narratives (Mardel, 1991).

Ozcan (2004) defined factors shaping narrative development as brain internal factors, the play settings, where most of the peer interaction takes place, the institutionalized setting such as kindergartens and schools, and lastly, the cultural environment which shapes and is shaped by all previously mentioned external factors. Hicks (1991) investigated the narrative skills of children from low-income families and skills of children from middle-class families and found that children from low-income families are more likely to demonstrate less well developed narrative skills in the early elementary school years than children from middle-class families.

Care givers and teachers should know the developmental sequence of narrative and they should be aware of its importance. Knowledge of developmental sequence will guide while they plan language games to facilitate oral language and provide system for listening to children's stories.

2.4.4. Early Childhood Education and Narrative Development

Telling stories is one of the most common activities in preschools and early elementary classrooms since there are formal story telling times in curriculum. Therefore, teachers read storybooks to children and there are informal story telling times such as stories that a child tells to adults to explain an errant behavior or to each other during a play. In spoken or written forms, children are frequently confronted with a broad range of narratives in their everyday lives and in their academic activities (Bloom

et al, 2003; Hicks, 1991). Children's abilities to narrate past and present events and engagement in storytelling and word play are associated with their repertoires of social knowledge. In other words, while children are moving within circles of social interaction, they develop multiple ways of representing their knowledge through language. Therefore, development of narrative skills can be seen as a dimension of children's increasingly improved utilization of language in a variety of social contexts (Hicks, 1991).

Promoting narrative skills during the early years may help children cope with literacy tasks in elementary schools. As such, having knowledge about the language skills that children bring to school is pivotal in order to predict children's academic and literacy performance, and in diagnosing delay in some children's language and narrative development (Chang, 2004). Feagans and Farran (1994) also assert that children with poor narrative skills are probably placed in the lowest ability groups for language instruction in kindergarten, regardless of their intelligence (as cited in Zevenbergen, 1996).

Zevenbergen (1996) claims that children who have been exposed to hearing and telling narratives may be better prepared for school than children who have been exposed to narratives prior to attending school. Children's early narratives consist of short references about immediate past such as "ball gone". When they attend school, many children are capable of telling lengthy, coherent and cohesive stories (Mardell, 1991). One of the most obvious changes in narratives during the preschool years is that especially spontaneous narratives told in classrooms get longer (Umiker-Sebeok, 1979, cited in Mardell, 1991).

Narrative is an effective way for the facilitation of oral language skills since describing an event requires explicit vocabulary, ability to use clear pronouns, and temporal connectives such as "when," "so," and "while". It can be stated that narratives serve opportunities for children to improve higher level of language before they become readers (Standler & Ward, 2005). There are many studies supporting the correlation between children's preschool narrative skills and later academic achievement (Roth et al, 2002). Although math and narrative skills are similar to very divergent disciplines, O'Neill (2004) contends that preschool children's early storytelling abilities can be a

predictor of their mathematical achievement. She measured seven certain aspects of children's storytelling ability which indicated a relation with mathematical achievement: the mean length of their utterances; vocabulary diversity; use of conjunctions; subordinate clause use; the number of events in the story talked about; the ability to shift clearly from one character in the story to another; and the number of evaluative devices. Later, she has compared these with children's mathematic test scores. The results revealed that building strong oral storytelling skills early in the preschool might be helpful to prepare children for learning mathematics when they enter school. These findings confirm the importance of early narrative development because narrative skills are more predictive of particular aspects of later academic achievement than the general language ability in preschool years.

Narratives are indispensable elements of the educational curriculum since children are required to listen, repeat, and interpret throughout their educational life at progressively increasing level of improvement. Bruner (1990) states that individuals organize or deduce meaning from their experiences and relationships with others through narratives. Admittedly saying, narratives have a crucial role in socialization process of young children in the preschool years. Stories are widely used to teach children about the tragic or beneficial consequences of accepting or rejecting specific values and actions (Stein & Albro, 1997).

Zevenbergen et al. (2003) claim that children who enter kindergarten with well-developed narrative skills may have an advantage over children who enter kindergarten with less well-developed narrative skills and they further argue that narrative skills can be improved by educational programs. Considering their findings, it can be hypothesized that preschool literacy interventions have an affirmative effect on the language skills of children coming from low-income families. As such, preschool children's narrative skills over time is worth investigating because narrative competence is important in itself as an aspect of language skill and of personal identity formation. Narrative development is important for academic success since the narratives produced by children are a valuable tool to assess what children know and are able to do. Furthermore, narratives are ways to conceptualize experience and meaning since the ability to create well-structured narratives is an important vehicle for learning (Bloome et al, 2003).

2.4.5. Story Grammar

Stories have a structure and knowing that structure is necessary to tell a coherent story. Story grammar is the sequence of elements included in a story and it has been used to refer to the structure all stories follow (Hoff-Ginsberg, 1997a). Minimal requirements for a story in terms of structural elements are grouped under the six titles: 1) a story must include a beginning or a triggering event, 2) a simple reaction, 3) a goal, 4) an initiative to reach the goal, 5) an outcome and 6) an ending (Mandler, 1984).
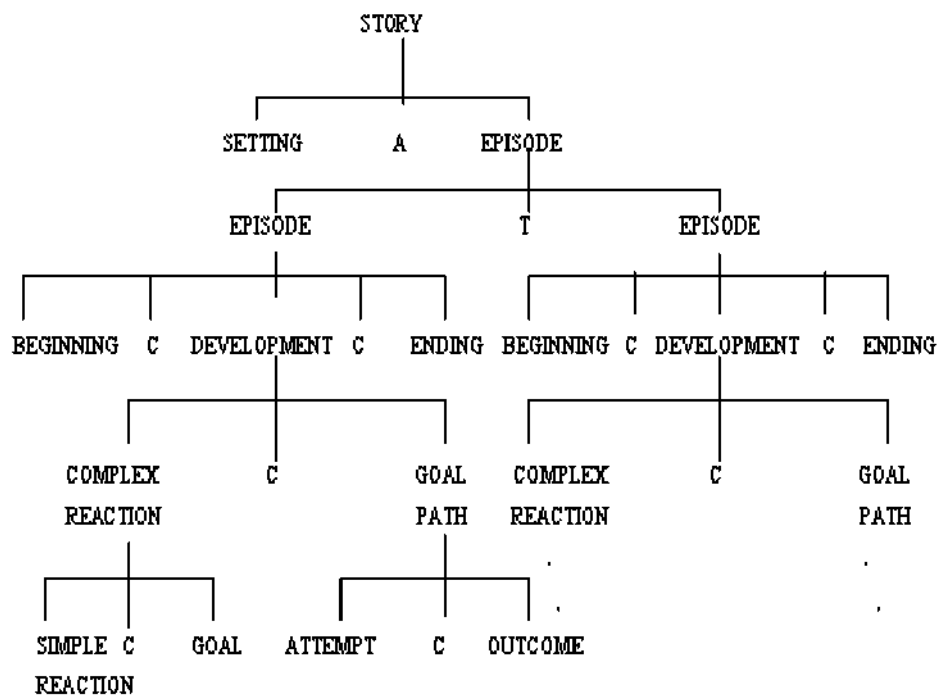
Figure 2.1 Mandler's representation of the underlying structure of a simple two-episode story. The *and, then*, and *cause* relations are represented by A, T, and C, respectively (Mandler 1984, 25).

Correspondingly, Hudson and Shapiro (1991) states that the essential components included in narratives are: 1) a formal beginning and orientation introducing setting and characters, 2) initial goal directed actions, 3) a problem preventing to reach intended goal, 4) the solution to the problem and 5) a formal ending.

One of the most widely used formal story grammar was developed by Labov (1972). He states that well-formed narrative should include following units.

1. Abstract (summary of a narrative)
2. Orientation (setting or context of a narrative)
3. Complicating action
4. Evaluation (the point of a narrative)
5. Result of resolution (termination of complicating events)
6. Coda (end of a narrative)

Labov (1972) also considers narrative as a series of answers to underlying questions:

a. Abstract: what was this about?
b. Orientation: who, when, what, where?
c. Complicating action: then what happened?
d. Evaluation: so what?
e. Result: what finally happened?

Rumelhart (1975) maintains that stories have an internal structure as in simple sentences. Although no one can specify a general structure for stories, the idea of "well-formedness" can be examined in the same way as it is for sentences. He also states that more structured stories are easier to remember than less structured stories as structure makes meaningful wholes and enables stories to be summarized. Rumelhart (1975) is concerned with how narrative is represented and processed in human mind, rather than what narrative is since he suggested that the structure of stories is more than pair-wise relationships among sentences strings of sentences which are combined into psychological wholes.

Rumelhart (1975) further perceives narrative as a "connected discourse", the exact opposite of "unrelated string of sentences". The following example illustrates how higher level of organization occur in stories.

1. Margie was holding tightly to the string of her beautiful new balloon. Suddenly, a gust of wind caught it. The wind carried it into a tree. The balloon hit a branch and burst. Margie cried and cried.

2. Margie cried and cried. The balloon hit a branch and burst. The wind carried it into a tree. Suddenly, a gust of wind caught it. Margie was holding tightly to the string of her beautiful new balloon.

He accepted (1) as a story though (2) does not possess characteristics of story. According to him, the first one is a form of sensible whole, whereas second one seems to be just a string of sentences. Rumelhart (1975) suggests global rules and attempt to describe the global structure of a story. His story grammar can be applied to wide range of simple stories in a reasonable way. He develops his story grammar rules as follows:

1- Story →Setting + Episode
2- Setting → (States)
3- Episode Event +Reaction
4- Event→ {Episode I Change-of-state I Action I Event + Event}
5- Reaction→ Internal Response + Overt Response
6- Internal Response → {Emotion I Desire}
7- Overt Response → {Action I (Attempts)}
8- Attempt → Plan + Application
9- Application → (Preactions) + Action +Consequence
10- Preaction → Subgoal + (Attempts)
11- Consequence → {Reaction I Event}

Rumelhart (1975) defines episode as "special kinds of events which involve the reactions of animate or objects to events in the world" (p. 214). The episode consists of the occurrence of some events and the reaction of the characters of the episode to the event.

According to Stein and Glen's (1979), story grammar is also widely used and it includes the following:

1. Setting (description of context)

2. Initiating event (awake the protagonist to act)

3. Internal response (describing protagonist's or narrator's internal reactions)

4. Plans (strategy to obtain the goal)

5. Attempt (actions to obtain the goal)

6. Consequence (success or failure to obtain the goal)

7. Reaction (emotional response regarding the outcome)

Bruner (1991) is mainly concerned about how a narrative operates as an instrument of mind in the construction of reality rather than how it is constructed. In his mind, he identified ten features of narrative including: 1) narrative diachronicity (i.e. patterns of event occurring over time); 2) particularity (i.e. particular happenings); 3) intentional state entailment (i.e. people acting in setting and the happenings that befall them must be relevant to their intentional states), 4) hermeneutic composability (i.e. there is always difference between what is expressed in the text and what the text might mean at that point. The ability of the text to hold meaning, which is intended to be expressed by the author and understood by reader); 5) canonicity and breach (i.e. involving familiar human plights); 6) referentiality (i.e. achieving verisimilitude rather than verifiability); 7) genericness (i.e. recognizable kinds); 8) normativeness (i.e. cultural legitimacy); 9) context sensitivity and negotiability (i.e. inevitably, taking the teller's intentions into account and do so in terms of our background knowledge); 10) narrative accrual (i.e. narrative accruals eventually create various things as culture, history and tradition).

Producing coherent and cohesive narrative is accepted as a cognitive and linguistic task that draws on many kinds of knowledge. Such as, event knowledge, memory of specific events, social interactional knowledge, structural knowledge of different narrative genres, linguistic knowledge about tense and connectives, and knowledge about listener's need. Narrator is expected to accomplish using this knowledge to produce narrative (Hudson & Shapiro, 1991).

Namely, in order to produce a narrative, children must have knowledge about the event concerning the topic of narrative as narrative is an account of event, rather than piece of connected discourse. By the age of 3, most children can verbally express what

happens in everyday events such as going to birthday party and eating at a fast-food restaurant. Structural knowledge enables a narrator to tell coherent narratives since an orderly flow of information that makes sense to the listener can be achieved by structural characteristics. 2 years-old children's narratives which are constructed in joint conversation with adults include basic elements of a narrative structure. 3 and 4-years-old children can independently apply skills to retelling past experiences. Microlinguistic knowledge is necessary for producing well-formed narratives as it requires the mastery of tenses, which contributes to the narrative coherence. Narrative's content and organization will be affected by its function and purpose. For example, a story which is told to a 2-year old would be different from the story told a 6-year old. Narrativizing requires that the narrator adjust content knowledge into a particular narrative structure and greater coherence occur when there is less translation demanded from how to tell a story. Creating a narrative is more than just telling what you know or what you remember. The construction of a narrative requires developing a plot (Hudson & Shapiro, 1991).

2.4.6. Evaluative Devices in Narrative

Narratives involve both information about the characters and events of the story. They also include evaluative aspect through reflecting the narrator's perspective and its significance to the story (Reilly et. al, 2003). Evaluative devices provide explanations of why events occurred, especially the actions of characters in the story since evaluations are references to the mental states of characters, such as what they are thinking or feeling (Eaton, Collis & Lewis, 1999). Evaluative devices are necessary in order to express how one character's actions may lead to a reaction from the other, and how these actions affect what the characters may know, think, say, or feel. Narrator must capture the actions and perspectives of characters as they interact with each other (O'Neill, 2004).

Narrating experiences allows children not only to report what happened to them but also express their thoughts and feeling about the experiences. Narrators emphasize importance of narrated event through evaluations. Evaluative devices inform the listeners about point of the narrative, narrator's purpose, feelings, social-cultural values

and what the narrator is getting at (Labov, 1972). Evaluation directs the listener to adopt an attitude toward story events in accordance wtih the desires of the teller (Alexander et al, 1993). Evaluation reflects the narrator's emotional reaction to the events he is relating, and in general the speaker's attitude towards the narrated events (Labov and Waletzky, 1967). There is a variety of evaluative devices at phonological, syntactical and discourse level. For example, children declarate their inner world by using pronounciation, comparator or qualifiers and repetition (Labov, 1972; Kang, 1997).

Evaluation provides the emotional tone and texture of experiences to both the listener and the narrator in the form of the personal meaning of a particular event (Fivush, 1993 as cited in Peterson & Biggs, 2002). These evaluative information makes clear why the narrated event is interesting or significant. They also suspend or emphasize the story action leading the listener's attention to what the narrator thinks, which is important in the narrative for the listener to understand (Harkin et al, 2001). Moreover, there is a significant relationship between the number of plot elements included in preschool children's narratives based on a wordless picture book and the density of evaluative devices (Hoff-Ginsberg,1997b cited in Zevenbergen et al. 2003)

Harkins et al. (2001) investigate the children from middle-income families and their research has revealed that when mothers narrated two similar wordless picture books, their 5-year-olds increased their use of evaluative devices in story telling. They also found that children were able to transfer these linguistic devices to unfamiliar picture book. In addition, their findings revealed that 5-year-olds increased the number of clauses in their story telling as a consequence of hearing the narrative twice from their mothers. In parallel with their findings, Alexander et al. (1993) found that children's inclusion of evaluative information increased after having heard the parents' story telling. They also found gender differences in children's story; that is, mothers' telling of the story has a more positive effect on the inclusion of evaluative devices of sons than daughters. On the contrary, fathers' story telling positively affected daughters' inclusion of evaluative devices more than sons. On the other hand, Peterson and Biggs (2002) investigated the use of evaluative devices in a narrative on emotional events and they found that there is no age and gender difference which provides evaluation on feelings of being happy or surprised. However, children used more evaluative devices while

talking about anger-arousing events. Especially five-year-old boys were likely to explicitly state anger.

Zevenbergen et al (2003) examined the impact of a shared-reading intervention program on Head Start children's inclusion of evaluative devices in their narratives. They found that shared-reading experiences have a significant effect on children's ability to include evaluative information in their narratives as Head Start children who participated in a shared-reading intervention were more likely to include references in internal states of characters and dialogue of their narratives than those children who did not participate in the intervention.

Chang (2004) explored the development in Chinese children's narrative skills over a 9-month period. After his short-term longitudinal study, he found that children produced longer narratives and included more narrative components, evaluative devices, and temporal elements in their stories of personal experiences over time. As such, their narratives became more informative, evaluative, and clear. In addition, as children get older, they use evaluative devices proficiently and their narratives became more tightly connected (Hudson & Shapiro, 1991; Peterson & Biggs, 2002).

2.4.7. Parents' Narrative Practice at Home

Young children develop language skills from birth within the context of social activities with more mature language users (Hoff-Ginsberg, 1997a). Despite the fact that the ability to produce narrative expression of events occurs in both real and fictional contexts, narrative skills emerge as early as 2 years of age (McCabe & Peterson, 1991). At this age narratives are short, simple, and fragmented. In addition, children ground their narratives mainly on their caregivers to produce content and structure of narratives (Chang, 2004)**.** The narrative skills are refined through social activities with the mature language users who teach children about the meaning, structure and use of language, which is generally expressed orally. Children aged 3 to 4 years old begin to use storytelling, a valuable language format (Standler & Ward, 2005).

The development of young children's narratives is facilitated in many ways especially through guided participation with companions who are experienced in storytelling and other related language activities. Without no doubt, narrative skills do

not improve in insulation since children need guidance, support, direction, challenge and impetus to adopt language. The socio-cultural perspective provides a framework for understanding the social context of children's narrative development by representing how children's development occurs in an active participation in their culture (Rogoff, 1991). Therefore, maternal story telling affects the child's acquisition of narrative skills because listening to a maternal story can have a significant effect on the number of clauses in the story and the use of evaluative devices (Chang, 2004). McCabe and Peterson (1991) have also advocated that maternal scaffolding strategies enhance children's narrative skills.

Children learn from observing and participating in an adult activity. Moreover, their adult partners challenge, constrain, and support children's learning by establishing routines, breaking task into subgoals, and gradually giving responsibilities (Rogoff, 1991).

It is obvious that children should receive plenty of opportunities to hear narratives told by parents so that they assemble well developed narrative skills. Heath (1983) have found that rich narrative environment in which children are raised provide them with models of how to narrate and the sense that the telling of stories is a valuable activity. Joint problem solving activities can be used to facilitate children's narrative development by asking leading questions such as "what happened next". Even discussing every day events is beneficial on narrative development. McCabe and Peterson (1991) revealed that children who are exposed extensively and repeatedly storytelling activity by their parents will be better story tellers. They further emphasize the crucial role of joint problem solving in narrative development, in which parents' story maintaining style is made appropriate for their children narrative capabilities.

It is not surprising that parents' storytelling styles that children listen to and the type of the joint problem solving that children are involved in vary from culture to culture. Heath (1983) discusses the cultural differences in the type of stories that children hear and proposes that storytelling in some cultures involve exaggeration, whereas storytelling in other cultures is restricted to the telling of factual events.

Narrative has been a powerful vehicle by which individuals develop their culture and become a member of the collective culture. Our narratives are a way of meaning-

making, which enable us to understand our culture (Bruner, 1990). Children's ways of thinking and deepest feelings are embedded in their stories as our story-telling arise from their cultures (Kang, 1997).

Supporting children's reading habits at an early age is a vital element so as to enable children to become successful students. Repeated story book reading enhanced children's language and literacy development. Moreover, interactions with books facilitate children's knowledge of grammar (Fang, 2001). Reading activities conducted at home makes a considerable contribution to children's ultimate literacy such as listening to stories, reading and developing language skills including vocabulary through opportunities which enable children to engage in specific literacy-related activities. Reading activities at home also show immediate and longer-term relations with literacy (Raban & Nolan, 2006).

Story reading will remain an important facet of activities for both classroom and young children's home life. Story reading is important not just in terms of listening to the story, but also the opportunities it provides for extended conversations and for enhancing language development (Karweit, 1989). Reading process is more than reading each word on a page from the beginning to the end, rather, it includes adult questions, comments, and responding to children's initiation about the words, event, and pictures in the books (Mautte, 1990). The shared book reading activity is not just beneficial on language development but it may also strengthen the socio-emotional bond between the parents and the child by sitting on a parents' lap, listening to the intonation, and rhythm. As such, establishing everyday reading habit as early as possible in a child's life is suggested (Raban & Nolan, 2006). On the whole, Stable environment and responsive parent interaction are vital elements to develop successful narrative skills. Parents raised in healthy attachment and with stable pattern of interaction also provide their children with this warm environment in order to navigate process of narrative development (Mooney, 2000).

2.4.8. Summary

In this chapter the literature on narrative development has been reviewed. As narrative is a form of discourse and it develops in the social contexts and it is highly affected by culture, the present chapter started with providing information on discourse and ethnographic study. This study indicated a relationship between the narrative skills and early childhood education. As such, it was important to inform reader about early childhood education and narrative skills. Although there are many types of narrative skills, this study only considered the narrative structure, narrative length and integration of evaluative devices in the narrative. Narrative structure is assessed by story grammar and main story grammar models are explained with an example and some research conducted on narrative structure and evaluative devices are presented. This study also discussed parents' effect on their children's narrative skills, and with this aim in mind, previous studies investigating parent's effect were summarized.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

3.1. Introduction

The purpose of this study is to compare the narrative development of first grade elementary students who had early childhood education at least for a year without regard to what type of school they came from, and first grade elementary students who did not have early childhood education even for a short period of time. This chapter is about (1) how this study is designed, (2) who the participants are, (3) how the data are collected, (4) how the collected data are transcribed and coded and (5) how the coded data are analyzed. This study aims to find out the differences and similarities in the narrative development of two groups of participants, as described above, by focusing on how emergence of a story structure differs relative to their educational background, how the narrative length differs relative to their educational background and how emergence of evaluative devices differs relative to their educational background. These will be explained in the framework section in this chapter.

Ethnographic research can be done through a variety of data collection methods and narrative skills are not investigated by quantitative analysis thoroughly. Therefore, interview, audio taping, and questionnaires were used in this study in order to obtain consistent and trustworthy results. This is why; both quantitative and qualitative techniques in data analysis are applied to accomplish this ethnographic description in the current study, that is, both the frequency and the function of story elements are within the interest of this study. Quantitative research is suited to theory testing and developing universal statements. It provides a general picture of a situation. Quantitative studies, thus, produce results that can be generalized across contexts. Qualitative inquiry, on the other hand, provides in-depth knowledge, though usually cannot be generalized.

Qualitative research is more useful for exploring phenomena in specific contexts. Combining quantitative and qualitative research methods enables any researcher to make use of the most valuable features of each because by using both quantitative and qualitative approaches, research can reach the breadth, depth and richness of human life (Schulze, 2003). As a result, the narratives in the current study are investigated through different paradigms to develop a comprehensive understanding.

Independent Sample T-test was conducted to compare the story length produced by these two groups. Descriptive and qualitative analyses were carried out to display story grammar components. Mann Whitney U Test was used to examine if there were any differences between the story grammar components used by the students who received early childhood education, and those used by the students who did not receive early childhood education in terms of types of evaluative devices that they integrated into their oral narratives. Moreover, interviews were conducted by six parents whose child received early childhood education and six parents whose child did not receive early childhood education in order to compare their reading related activities with their children at home. Although the questionnaire inquiring about the parents' reading-related activities with their children were sent to all the parents (Appendix G) four questionnaires did not returned with the information.

3.2. Participants

The sample of this study consists of 28 children who had early childhood education and 28 children who did not have early childhood education. All of the students have no known or suspected sensory, intellectual, speech, language, hearing or learning disorders and all of them study at the same school in Çankaya-Ankara. 24 boys and 32 girls participate in this study and both groups include 16 girls and 12 boys. Moreover, 6 parents whose child had early childhood education and 6 parents whose child did not have early childhood education participated in the interview and 21 parents whose child had early childhood education and 19 parents whose child did not have early childhood education participate in this study by filling the questionnaires about their reading-related activities with their children. All parents' SES levels are nearly

similar; however, most of the parents whose child had early childhood education graduated from a university.

Socio-economic status is determined according to educational level and income as seen on table 3.1. Both groups disperse similarly considering educational and income level; however, the parents whose child had early childhood education differ from the others in that they graduated of a 4-year university. Demographic information of the participants is presented on table 3.1.

Table 3.1 Participants' General Demographic Characteristics

Research Participant	ECE		Non-ECE	
Mother Age	n	%	n	%
25-35	7	25	6	21,4
31-35	11	39,3	12	42,9
36-40	8	28,6	7	25
41-45	2	7,1	3	10,7
Father age				
25-35	3	10,7	1	3,6
31-35	10	35,7	6	21,4
36-40	7	25	11	39,3
41-45	6	21,4	10	35,7
46-50	2	7,1	0	0
Mother's Occupation				
housewife	16	57,1	21	75
teacher	4	14,3	2	7,1
self-employed	1	3,6	0	0
doctor	0	0	0	0
engineer	1	3,6	0	0
worker/laborer	2	7,1	3	10,7
Government employee	4	14,3	2	7,1
Father's Occupation				
self-employed/trader	5	17,9	8	28,6
Government employee	4	14,3	6	21,4
worker/laborer	12	42,9	11	39,3
teacher	2	7,1	0	0
Doctor	1	3,6	0	0
Engineer	4	14,3	1	3,6
Land agent	0	0	2	7,1
Mother's Education				
Literate	2	7,1	1	3,6
Elementary School Graduate	6	21,4	8	28,6
Middle School Graduate	4	14,3	4	14,3
High School Graduate	6	21,4	11	39,3
2 Year University	1	3,6	1	3,6
4 Year University	9	32,1	3	10,7
Master's Degree	0	0	0	0

Table 3.1 Continued

	ECE		Non-ECE	
Father's Education				
Literate	1	3,6	1	3,6
Elementary School Graduate	3	10,7	3	10,7
Middle School Graduate	3	10,7	4	14,3
High School Graduate	8	28,6	14	50
2 Year University	1	3,6	2	7,1
4 Year University	10	35,7	4	14,3
Master's Degree	2	7,1	0	0
Household Monthly Income				
0-499 YTL	2	7,1	5	17,9
500-999 YTL	7	25	4	14,3
1000-1499 YTL	11	39,3	6	21,4
1500-1999 YTL	4	14,3	4	14,3
2000 YTL +	4	14,3	9	32,1
Number of Siblings				
0	0	0	0	0
1	7	25	7	25
2	13	46,4	14	50
3	6	21,4	6	21,6
4	2	7,1	0	0
5	0	0	1	3,6

3.3. Data Collection Material

In order to investigate the development of story structure, a variety of different methods have been applied to elicit stories from children. The most prevalent one is simply to ask children to make up a story, so that young children generally will produce fragmented description of past events (McCabe & Peterson, 1991). Another method for eliciting stories from children is to provide them with a sequence of pictures and ask them to tell the story as depicted in the pictures (Hoff-Ginsberg, 1997a). Therefore, in this study Mercer Mayer's (1969) wordless book, *Frog Where Are You?,* was used in the data collection process owing to its popularity. Almost 150 different researchers studying 50 different languages referred this book in their studies (Berman & Slobin, 1994 cited in Hoff-Ginsberg, 1997a); there is also a term "frog-story" in literature (Serratrice, 2006).

To provide a comparable story-telling experience for all children, Mercer Mayer's picture book was used as a stimulus. The book is a wordless picture book which

contains no words and consists of 26 separate panel scenes presented in an order and provides referential elements for the narrative, such as sequential and temporal order of events, the structural elements of setting, goal, complications and resolution episodes. The narrator is quite free to describe the events because each separate panel is rich in detail. The book leaves the narrator free to use their own linguistic evaluative devices due to its structural features. Moreover, Kang (2003) claimed that the use of picture book was especially important because it allowed reliable comparison of the ways in which the participants performed the same task. Such instruments can also highlight the relationship between the narrative development and the other literacy skills such as reading.

The main protagonists of the story are a boy, a dog, and a frog. While the boy and the dog are sleeping, the frog escapes and story begins. The boy and the dog are searching everywhere to find the frog. However, they confront with several difficulties, but they keep on searching. Finally, the boy and the dog find the frog living with his family and return home with the frog.

3.4. Data Collection Procedures

Before carrying out the research, official permission was obtained from the school which is under the responsibility of the Ministry of National Education of Turkish Republic (MONE). After obtaining official permission from MONE, the parent consent forms (Appendix A) were delivered in cooperation with the teachers of 3 first grade classes in the school. The forms that were returned with approval determined the children who would participate in the study.

3.4.1. Data Collection Context

Participation in the study was voluntary and the participants were asked whether they would like to participate even if their parents' consent is obtained. The participants who did not want to tell a story were omitted from the study. Similarly, some participants wished to participate in the study without their parents' consent, but the researcher gently refused their will. The data were collected in the library of the school

since children needed silence and comfort to narrate the story and the library fulfilled this need. Teachers allowed children to participate in the study during class hours. During the production of stories, there were no other people in the library. Even though the researcher explained that this task was not an achievement-based task, a few children were excited and anxious about narrating the story and they requested that they did not participate in the study. Therefore, they were removed from the log.

3.4.2. Data Collection

3.4.2.1. With Children

At the beginning of the study, researcher introduced herself to the children and attended 2 or 3 lessons per classrooms to establish rapport with the children. Before narrating the story, each children was allowed to investigate the whole book "Frog where are you?" to create a positive and relaxing atmosphere between the child and the researcher. With the need to strengthen cooperation, the researcher introduced herself as a student and told the child that these stories were essential for her homework. Prior to the process, children were told that he/she had the right to stop if he/she did not want to continue; however, all of the participants completed the story. Children did not receive any probing questions during the story telling task. The researcher avoided directing the children's narrative, but when children asked questions about pictures, the researcher answered them simply. Moreover, the researcher encouraged children to continue telling their narrative when they ceased, hesitated or had difficulties in telling the story by saying "please tell loudly" or "you can tell by looking at pictures". All the narratives were recorded and then transcribed for data analysis.

The following instruction was given to the child:
"I am here to listen to you. I will never get bored with your story. I can wait until you finish your story even if it is too long. It is your own story, so you can tell whatever you want. Now, would you please tell me about it by looking at the pictures?".

"Burada seni dinlemek için bulunuyorum ve seni dinlemekten asla sıkılmam. Anlatacağın hikaye çok uzun olsa bile seni bekleyebilirim. Bu senin hikayen ve nasıl istersen o şekilde anlatabilirsin. Şimdi resimlere bakarak, hikayeni bana anlatabilir misin?"

3.4.2.2. With Parents

With the need for full cooperation, the researcher introduced herself to parents as a student and informed the parents that they were doing this for a thesis. Data for this study is gathered through in-depth interviews. The purpose of the interview was to get specific and in-depth information from 6 parents whose child had early childhood education and the 6 parents whose child did not about their reading related activities with their children including their personal reading habits, their criteria to choose books for their children and their strategies to encourage children to read. Each parent was interviewed from 7 to 45 minutes using predetermined set of questions and procedures. These questions were developed with the help of expert opinion and by investigating related literature so that interview protocol is designated according to the aim of the study and Turkish culture such as "*How often do you read story book with your child*" and "*How many story books does your child have?*" The interview protocol is provided in Appendix F. Moreover, 27 parents whose child received early childhood education and 25 parents whose child did not filled a questionnaire about their reading related activities with their children (see Appendix G).

3.5. Data Analysis

3.5.1. Framework for Data Analysis

In this chapter, first of all, the framework that was used to analyze the data (narratives of 56 first grade elementary students) is represented in detail. This framework consists of Labov's (1972) story grammar, Labov's (1972) description of clause and Peterson and McCabe's (1983) evaluative devices adapted by Kang (2003). This framework is necessary to grasp the logic behind data analysis. Focusing on this

framework, the independent variable is receiving early childhood education or not, and the dependent variables are narrative length, narrative structure and evaluative devices that students integrate into their narratives.

3.5.2. Story Grammar, Length and Evaluative Devices Analyses

Evaluations of the story grammar analysis generate a classification which is accepted as inference based models and structure based models. The former suggest that all of the information required for story comprehension may not be explicitly stated in the text and they rely on the notion of prototype characters, salience, and problem solving strategies of the listener. The latter are concerned with the observable text of the story and they have received the most attention from researchers for story grammar analysis. In structure based models, story grammar analysis is more direct than in inference based models because data are observable; hence, a structure based model was used in this study (Kocabaş, 2002). After each narrative was coded at the clause level, all of the narratives were analyzed considering the following narrative aspect.

Narrative length: Stories told by children were separated into clauses and narrative length was measured by counting the number of clauses included in the stories. Because the study was based on Labov's (1972) story grammar, his definition of clause was used while dividing each narrative into clauses. Labov (1972) defined clause as an expression combining at least one stated subject and a verb. This definition of clause is also applicable to Turkish. For example, the sentence "When the boy woke up, he could not see the frog in the jar" is divided as (Özcan, 2004 p.30):

When the boy woke up
He could not see the frog in the jar

As the next step, independent-sample t-test was conducted to measure if there was a difference between students who received early childhood education and students who did not receive early childhood education in terms of their use of clause.

Narrative structure: After separated into main and subordinate clauses, the stories were exposed to a story grammar analysis using Labov's (1972) story grammar

models as explained in Appendix C. Every utterance was considered if it met the criteria of the six story grammar elements described by Labov (1972). Story grammar elements and their components were represented both qualitatively and quantitatively.

Labov (1972) identified story grammar elements which are identified as characteristics of well-developed narrative by previous studies:

Abstract: Labov (1972) stated that summarizing the whole story with one or two clauses is common for narrators. When listener hears the abstract, he is able to recapitulate the point of the story. In actual fact, it gives information about what is to come for listeners. A speech act seeking permission to narrate can be taken by the occurrence of an abstract within an ongoing dialogue (Romaine, 1985 cited in McCabe & Peterson, 1991).

Example:
(An answer to one of the researcher's questions)
I talked a man out of-Old Doc Simon I talked him out of pulling the trigger.

Orientation: Orientation is essential to identify the time, place, persons or their activity or the situation (Labov, 1972). That is, it provides contextual embedding for the listener. In this part, the narrator wanders from the events of the narrative in order to describe character and motivation and inform the listeners about who the participants were, where and when the events occurred to describe character and motivation (McCabe & Peterson, 1991). Moreover, the narrator constructs the setting to introduce characters and some initial events which will take place before the acts begin (Özcan, 2004).

Complicating action: Complicating action is an indispensable component of a narrative. It is comprised of the chronologically described events which occurred prior to the highpoint of the narrative. As Labov (1972) maintained, minimal requirements of narrative incorporate at least two temporally ordered events, which are complicating actions and they must be included if any written or spoken presentation is to be defined as a narrative (McCabe & Peterson, 1991). In other words, a complicating action consists of series of some episodes conducted to solve the main problem.

Evaluation: Evaluation indicates the point of narrative, why it is told and what the narrator is getting at. In other words, clauses describe the narrator's point of view.

Resolution: Solution of the complicating action.

Coda: Free clauses to be found at the ends of narratives, which signals that the narrative is finished.

Evaluative devices: 9 subtypes of evaluative devices were classified by Peterson & McCabe (1983) and adapted by Kang (2003). Evaluation coding was designed to capture types of evaluative devices that occurred in the narratives. Mann Whitney U test was conducted to investigate the differences in two groups with regard to the types of evaluative devices the students integrated into their narratives. The children revealed their feelings and attitudes toward the stories they told through the following evaluative devices:

-Expressions of emotions ("The boy is angry ")

- Mental state of the characters (i.e., expressions of cognitions or character intentions, such as "The child thought that . . . ", "They decided to . . .", etc.)

- Intensifiers ("He was very angry")

- Expressions of defeat of expectation/Negatives ("but there was no answer ")

- Repetitions ("He looked again and again ")

- Hedges ("He was kind of curious ")

- Direct and indirect reported speech ("Where are you, frog?", "He asked the ground hog if he saw the frog")

- Character delineation ("the little boy")

- Adverbs (". . . searching frantically for his frog . . . ")

Some clauses included more than one evaluation. For example, "He was very angry" was coded as an expression of emotion "sadness" and it was also coded as the use of intensifier "very". In addition, nonverbal signals involving facial expression, intonation pattern, gesture and postural adjustment are one aspect of the evaluative devices; however, these kinds of evaluative devices are not under the scope of present study.

3.5.3. Transcription

The stories told by children are transcribed verbatim. Analysis of the narrative grammar in this study is based on Labov's (1972) description of a story and orally

collected data was transcribed according to his transcription technique which divides each narrative into clauses. Parents' interview was also recorded and later transcribed. Verbatim transcribe was not necessary for parents' interview because parents sometimes strayed from the point of the study thus, researchers did not transcribe that part of the interview. Parents' interview was analyzed according to description of Yıldırım and Şimşek (2005). After transcribed, interviews were read carefully, the important points of the parents' interviews were determined and the data codes were developed. Thereafter, all of the interviews were coded and based on the coded data, the themes were designated.

3.5.4. Inter-Transcriber Reliability

To ensure that the transcription is accurate and reliable, the researcher transcribed all of the 56 stories and asked another transcriber, a PhD candidate at the Department of Computer Education and Instructional Technology, and trained by the researcher, transcribe 20% of the data once more. The inter-transcriber reliability was calculated as Özcan (2004) defined. After transcribing narratives independently, the transcriber read what she had transcribed and the researcher followed the reading from her transcription. While going over the transcription, the researcher noted the disagreements on their transcriptions. Afterwards, while listening to the recorded narratives the transcriber and the researcher discussed the disagreements and then they calculated the proportional value of disagreement following these procedures:

- Irrelevant words such as the questions about story telling performance were removed from the transcription log.
- All of the words were counted through "word count tool" of Microsoft Word to find out the Total Number of Words (TNW),
- The Number of Disagreements (ND) was calculated.
- The following formula was used to calculate the proportion of agreements.

Proportion of disagreements = 100 x ND / TNW

The agreement level between the transcribers was 99% and the disagreement of 1%. There were some words which transcribers could not reach an agreement on what the word is and these were omitted.

3.5.5. Coding

In this study, coding refers to the process of dividing stories into clauses, determining story grammar components and determining types of evaluative devices in each story. Coding required intense work since the validity of the results strongly depended on the identification of the stated categories. In this phase of the study, it was aimed to provide insight into the children's story length, use of evaluative devices, and the construction of a story. If the stories had been coded inappropriately, the categories would be scored incorrectly and findings would also be deceptive.

3.5.6. Inter-Coder Reliability

Inter-coder reliability was applied to maintain the reliability of the following: (a) the total number of clauses in each narrative, (b) story grammar analysis, also (c) the total number of evaluative devices and their types. Two coders received short training about Labov (1972) story structure and Peterson and MaCabe's (1983) evaluative devices. Both of the coders are phD students at the Department of Elementary Education and they are familiar with the concept of coding from the course they have taken. Two coders and the researcher studied on sample narrative individually and the researcher compared her own coded story with the other two coding of the story to understand the coding process. Some disagreements emerged and possible reasons of these disagreements were discussed. These disagreements were settled by going over the coding process. The coding process for each dependent variable is explained below:

3.5.6.1 Inter-coder Reliability for Story Length

Eleven randomly selected narratives, which included almost 20% of the total data, were also coded by two research assistants from different disciplines as well as the researcher to measure the reliability of the coding procedure. Because the data was

continuous (not categorical) conducting Cohen's Kappa was not appropriate. Therefore, Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient test was used for story-length reliability measures. The coder agreement for total number of clauses in each narrative was .99 for both transcribers. This value was highly acceptable since Cohen (1988) suggests that r=.50 to 1.0 indicates a large relationship. Although the total number of clauses is almost equal for two coders and researcher, two coders and the researcher significantly differ in dividing narratives into clauses as explained below:

The researcher divided the clauses as the following:

    a. Sonra keçi çocuğu atmış ve köpeğinide

       Then the goat threw the boy and his dog

    b. Suya düşmüşler çocuk ve köpeği

       The boy and his dog fell into water

The coders divided same utterances into clauses like this:

    a. Sonra keçi çocuğu atmış

       Then the goat threw the boy

    b. Ve köpeğinide suya düşmüşler çocuk ve kopek

       Then his dog, they fell into water the boy and the dog

For this reason, another inter-coder reliability value was calculated in the same way with inter transcriber reliability by dividing number of disagreements to the total number of clauses. The agreement level between the coders ranged from 80% to 82%.

3.5.6.2. Inter-coder Reliability for Story Grammar and Evaluative Devices

According to Labov's (1972) description of story units, two coders again coded 20% of the data to calculate inter coder reliability of story grammar analysis. The coders divided each story into story units, and drew story unit boundaries then, the researcher compared her story unit boundaries with the coders' boundaries. The disagreements were counted and divided by the total number of coded parts in the same way done with inter transcriber reliability. The inter coder reliability for story grammar ranged from .72

to .77. In addition, the Pearson value for total number of evaluative devices and their types ranged from.88 to .82.

3.6. Summary

The method chapter is the core element of this study since the whole study's point of origin is explained in this chapter. Data analysis frame work, data collection materials and context, participants' characteristic are crucial to understand the purpose, process, findings and the results of the current study. The method of the study is based on Labov's (1972) story grammar and Peterson and MaCabe's (1983) evaluative devices adopted by Kang (2003). There are plenty of factors that affecting these narrative skills and the most important one is the parents' effect, which led the researcher also to investigate parents' reading related activities with their children to get better assessment of the early childhood education effects on narrative skills.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

4.1. Introduction

This chapter examines the relationship between the participants' educational background and the quality of the narratives are investigated in accordance with Labov's (1997) description of a well-formed story, which is determined by the structure of the story. Therefore, children's production of *Abstract*, *Orientation*, *Complicating Action* (CA), *Resolution*, *Evaluation* and *Coda* were investigated both quantitatively and qualitatively. The frequency values of each story elements regarding educational background are provided as tables and graphs at the beginning of each part. It was necessary to obtain an abstract to encapsulate the main points of the story and to obtain informed consent from the listener to decide whether the story is worth telling or not; however, none of the participants produced an abstract. The context in which the story was narrated and the reason why the story was told refrained the participants from producing an abstract since the researcher had already requested to tell a predetermined story. Similarly, none of the participants produced an evaluation due to the same reason. That is, the participants had already been requested to tell a story so they did not need to satisfy the listener's expectation about the story. As a result, this chapter does not include any analysis about the abstract and the evaluation. The current chapter further investigated the relationship between the participants' educational background and their use of the evaluative devices in their story based on Peterson and McCabe's (1983) categories of evaluative devices. Finally, the parents of ECE and the parents of non-ECE were compared according to their reading related activities with their children at home.

4.2. Narrative Length

The length of participants' narratives is commonly used to measure the language development of young children although it is not always a sensitive indicator of the developmental changes in children's narrative abilities (Muiloz, Gillam, Peña & Gulley-Faehnle, 2003). The independent-sample t-test was conducted to investigate the narrative length produced by ECE and non-ECE. The independent variable was the participants' educational background and the dependent variable was the total number of the clauses produced by the two groups.

Table 4.1 Mean scores and standard deviations of the total number of the clauses, comparing the ECE and non-ECE.

	ECE (N=28)	Non-ECE (N=28)	*t*	*df*	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean difference
	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)				
Clause	55.50 (13.79)	62.93 (22.54)	-1.487	54	.143	-7.43

Before presenting the results of the t-test, the assumptions of t-test are discussed. Although skewness (1.312) and kurtosis (2,139) values for the non-ECE are not in the desired limits, the scores of narrative length seem to be normally distributed. Skewness (0,672) and kurtosis (0,943) values for the ECE are in the desired limits. Moreover, the cases represent a random sample from the population and the scores on the test variables are independent of each other. Finally, the homogeneity of variance is also met since p value is .068 as for Levene's test. Therefore, it can be assumed that the variances are approximately equal.

Table 4.1 lists the means and standard deviations of the number of the clauses used in the narratives of ECE and the narratives of non-ECE. Table 4.1 also provides the t-test results for the narrative length, which indicate that there are no differences

between the narratives of ECE and the narratives of non-ECE at a α=0.05 level, t(54)=-1.487 p=.14. On average, the ECE produced 55.5 clauses in their narratives, whereas the others produced 62.9 clauses in their narratives. Mann-Whitney U test was also conducted to see if there are any in the narrative length differences between the two groups since Skewness (1.312) and kurtosis (2.139) values for non-ECE were not in the desired limits. Mann-Whitney U test's result also indicated that there was no statistically significant difference in the narrative length scores; the z value is -1.23 with a significance level of p=.19.

	ECE	non-ECE
☐ Orientation	97	109
■ CA	960	782
☐ Resolution	228	301
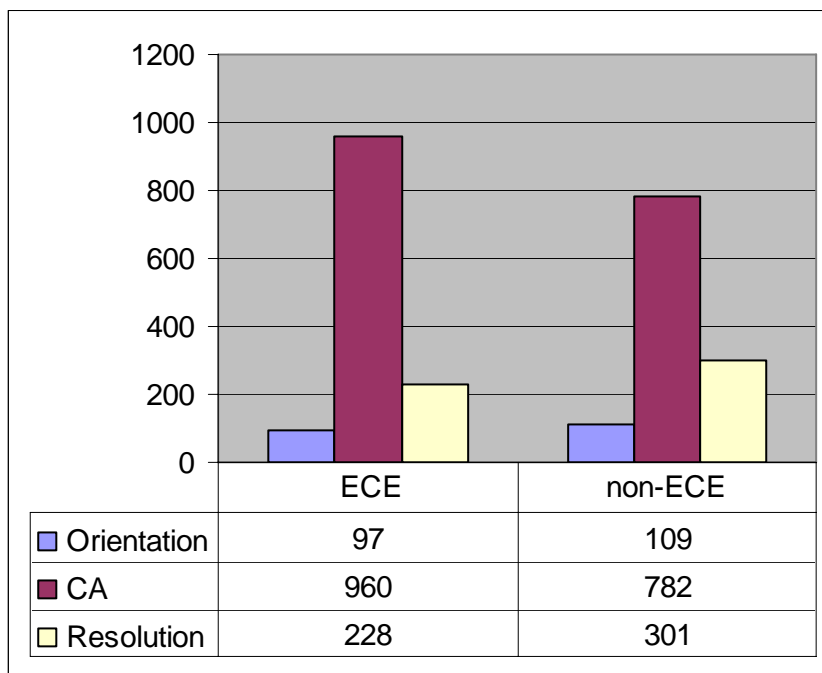
Figure 4.1 The number of the clauses in each story unit for each group.

Figure 4.2 The total number of the clauses produced by each group.

The number of the clauses in each story unit relative to educational background and the total number of the clauses for each group are illustrated in Figure 4.1 and Figure 4.2. The reason for the difference between the total number of the clauses and the total number of the clauses in each story unit was that narrators added many clauses which could not be included in any story units. Especially after producing *Complicating Action,* the participants produced many clauses which were not related to the search for the lost frog but they mentioned the existence of every component of the picture in a single clause without any connection (see protocol 4.1.1).

(P-4.1.1)
  a. Köpek arıları ağzını açıyor
      The dog bees open his mouth
  b. Arıları ağzına koyuyor
      He puts bees in his mouth
  c. Sonra ağaç var
      Then there is a tree
  d. Çocuk bağırıyor
      The boy shouts
  e. Ordan tilki çıkıyor
      Fox appears from there

f. Sonra kopek var
    Then there is a dog
g. Arılar ağaca çıkmaya çalışıyor
    Bees try to climb the tree
h. Ağaç ordayken tilki orda
    While there is a tree, there is a fox
i. Ballar çıkmaya başlıyor
    Honey begins to come out
j. Yere düşmüş
    (it) fell down on the floor
k. Ağacın üzerine çocuk tırmanıyor
    The boy climbs on the tree
l. Delikten bakıyor
    (he) looks through the hole
m. Papağan var orda
    There is a parrot there
n. Düştüğünü görünce arılar
    When the bees see them fall
o. Çoğalmaya başlıyor
    (they) begin to accumulate

4.3. Story Structure

To test whether the production of ECE and non-ECE on the story grammar elements were significantly different for each story unit Chi-square test was conducted. The results of this test were given on Table 4.2.

Table 4. 2 Chi-square test statistics for the Orientation, Complicating Action (CA), and Resolution on educational background

Story Grammar Units	ECE (N=28)	Non-ECE (N=28)	X2 (1)
Orientation	25	21	1.096
CA	28	25	1.409
Resolution	27	24	878

The results of the Chi-square test was not significant, x^2 (1, N=56) = 1.096, p=.295 for the Orientation, x^2 (1, N=56) = 1.409, p=235 for the CA, and x^2 (1, N=56) = 878, p=349 for the Resolution. Therefore, the Chi-square test results suggested that early

childhood education made no statistically significant difference to produced structured narratives.

4.3.1 Orientation

Orientative information substantially influences the whole story especially *CA* (complicating action) because the audience needs orientative information to construct a web of relations between the characters and maintains a coherent plot throughout the act of story telling (Özcan, 2004). It is necessary to specify the time, place, people and their activity or the situation at the outset of a narrative (Labov, 1972). In other words, orientation includes basic and simple questions such as 'where', 'when', 'who' which must be answered and the relation among the time, place, and persons, must be settled to make a story comprehensible for the audience. Without the relations between the characters, spatial information and time, the narrated text seems to be just a depiction of the scenes in the wordless picture book "*Frog Where Are You*?" This can be illustrated below:

> (P-4.2.1.1)
> a   Şimdi çocuk var
>   Now there is a boy
> b   Kurbağa kopek… kopek kurbağaya bakıyor
>   Frog dog…the dog is looking at the frog
> c   Köpekte ona bakıyor
>   and the dog is looking at him
> d   Kurbağa çocuğa bakıyor
>   the frog is looking at the boy
> (P-4.2.1.2)
> a   Birgün Ali evde oturuyormuş
>   One day Ali was sitting at home
> b   Hayvanlarına bakıyormuş
>   (He) was looking at his animals

In the protocol 4.2.1.1, produced by non-ECE the existence of the boy, dog, and the frog was stated but the relationship among the characters were not constructed since all of the characters were introduced individually. Also it does not provide information related to time and the location of characters. On the contrary, the protocol 4.2.1.2,

produced ECE, fulfilled all the requirement of orientation section although it was much shorter than the protocol 4.2.1.1. The participant set the relationships between characters by using genitive markers and built a relationship by attributing the possession of animals to the boy. Özcan (2004) summarized the significant functions of mentioning the relationship among the characters: First, relational information helps the audience construct a mental scheme of the particular story and this scheme helps them process the organization of the events relative to the characters efficiently. Second, mentioning the relationship between the characters indicates narrator's cognitive development and whether the narrator is proficient enough to detail the orientative information, which itself is the indicator of the narrator's ability to take the audience's perspective into consideration. Furthermore, in the protocol 4.2.1.2, the narrator informed the audience about time by saying bir gün 'one day' although it was an unknown day and the narrator explicitly mentioned the location where the story took place.

Table 4.3 Percentages of emergences of orientation as for the ECE and non-ECE.

Variable	Subgroups	F	%
Educational background	ECE	25	89.3
	Non-ECE	21	75.0
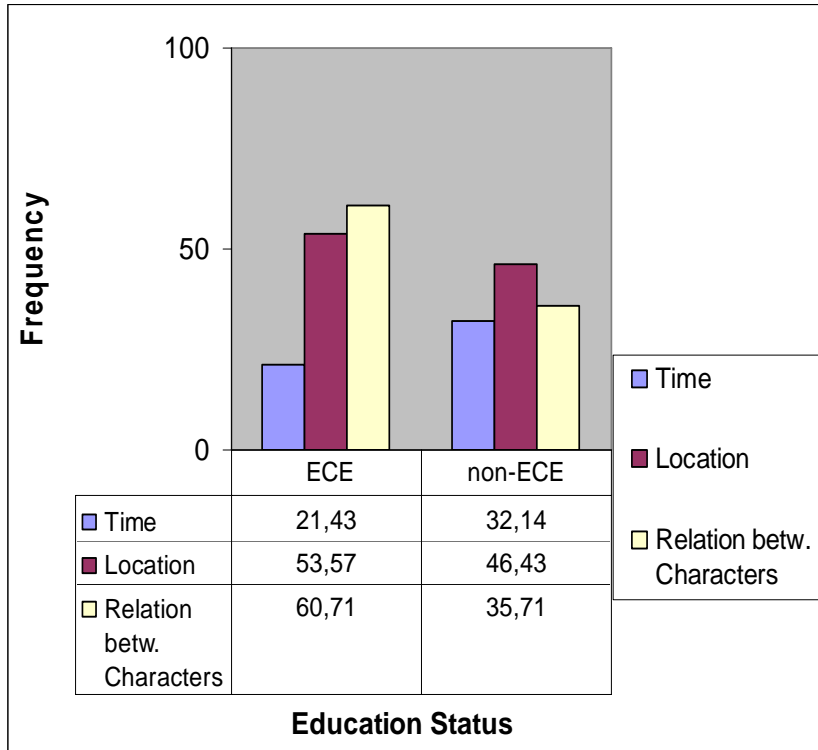
Figure 4.3 The emergence of the orientation components.

89.3% of ECE produced an *Orientation*, while 75% of non-ECE produced an *Orientation*. All of the participants including ECE and non-ECE provided information about the characters of the story. However, 21.4% of ECE mentioned time, 53.5% gave details about place and 60.7% mentioned the relationship between the characters. On the other hand, 32.1% of non-ECE informed the audience about time, 46.4% provided spatial information and 35.7% set a web of relations among the story characters. Maintaining orientative information represented significant variance relative to the participants' educational background. In conclusion, the ECE produced more orientative information than the non-ECE. Not surprisingly, the former integrated more information about the location and the relations between the characters; however, the latter provided more information about when the story begun.

4.3.2 Complicating Action (CA)

The quality of a *CA* is determined by four important parts: First of all, there should be a problem and in the study the escape of the frog is the main problem (see the clause *a* in the protocol 4.2.2.1). Secondly, in order to solve this problem, the protagonists should be aware of the problem of integrating into it (see clause *d*). Thirdly, the protagonists should express their emotional changes toward the frog's disappearance (see clause *e*). Lastly, they should take action to find the lost frog. That is, they attempt to resolve the complicating action (see clause *g*). The protocol 4.2.2.1 includes all the parts.

(P-4.2.2.1)
   a. <u>Kurbağa kavanoz… kendi yuvasından çıkmış</u>
      Frog jar… (it) leaves his home
   b. Sonra çocuk uyanmış
      Then the boy wakes up
   c. Sabah kavanozun içine bakmış
      (he) looks in the jar in the morning
   d. <u>Ve kurbağanın olmadığını görünce</u>
      And when (he) cannot see the frog
   e. <u>Şaşırmış</u>
      (he) is surprised
   f. Sonra kıyafetlerini giyinip
      Then (he) gets dressed
   g. <u>Köpeği ile birlikte kurbağasını aramaya çıkacaklarmış</u>
      (he) is going to look for his frog with his dog

Table 4.4 Percentages of emergences of *CA* as stated by ECE and non-ECE

Variable	Subgroups	F	%
Educational background	ECE	28	100
	Non-ECE	25	89.3
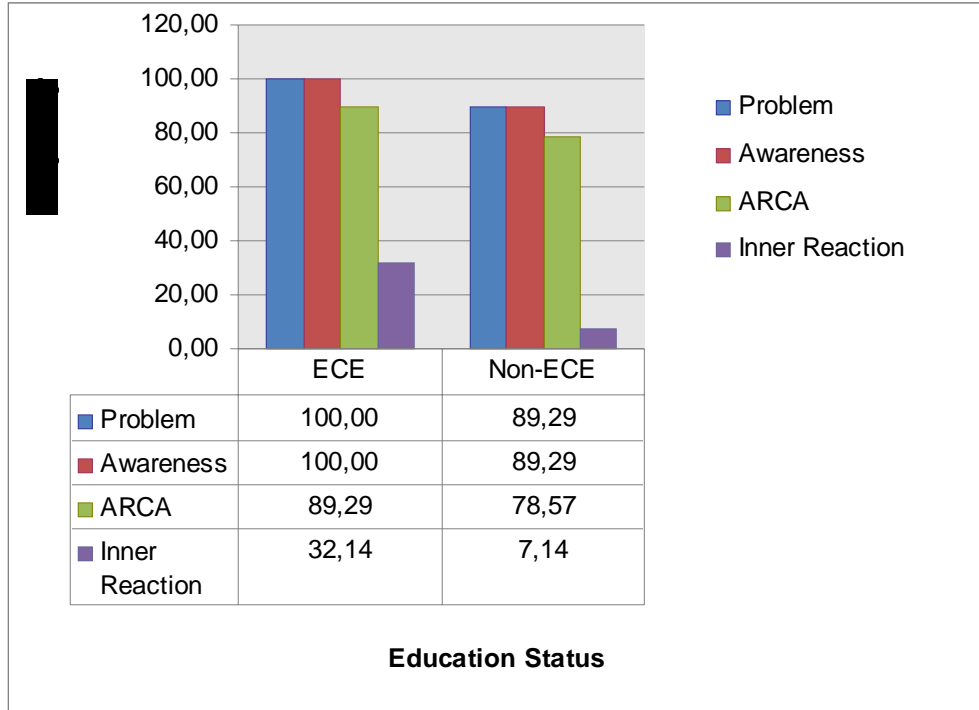
Figure 4.4 The emergence of the *CA* components

All of the ECE were able to indicate *CA* about the frog's getting out of the jar, seen as a problem to be solved; however, three participants who did not receive early childhood education failed to state the problem clearly although they mentioned the frog's escape (see the protocol 4.2.2.2). Moreover, there were varying differences among the information provided about the awareness of the problem, attempts to resolve the *CA* and the protagonists' inner reactions. All of the ECE expressed explicitly that the protagonists were aware of the problem and 89.2% made the attempts to resolve the *CA*. On the other hand, 89.2% of non-ECE mentioned the protagonists' awareness of the problem and 78.5% made the attempts to resolve the *CA*. the two groups highly differed from each other in terms of the protagonists' inner reaction since 32.1% of the ECE informed the listener about the protagonists' inner reaction. However, only 7.1% of non-ECE mentioned the protagonists' inner reaction to the problem.

(P-4.2.2.2)
    a.   Sonra çocuk uyuyor
        Then the boy sleeps

b. <u>Kurbağada kavanozdan çıkıyor</u>
The frog gets out of the jar
c. Çocuk yatağa yatmış köpekte üstünde
The boy is lying on the bed and the dog is on him
d. Çocuk üstüne bakıyor
The boy looks at his clothes
e. Köpekte ipe bağlanmış
The dog is tied up
f. Birtane çocuk bağırıyor
One child shouts
g. Köpekte kavanozu kafasına geçirmiş
And the dog puts his head into the jar
h. Çocuk pencereden bakıyor
The boy looks out of the window

(P-4.2.2.3)
a. Çocuk şu kurbağalara bakıyor
The boy is looking at those frogs
b. Köpekte kurbağalara bakıyor
The dog is looking at the frogs, too
c. Çocuk birşey diyor
Boy is saying something
d. Elinde kurbağa duruyor
The frog is in (his) hand
e. Sonra köpekte kaçıyor
Then the dog escapes
f. Kurbağa kurbağalar kurbağalara bağırıyor çocuk
To frog, the frogs… The boy is shouting to the frogs
(narrated by the same child who produced P-4.2.2.2)

In the protocol 4.2.2.2, produced by the non-ECE, the clause b is not seen as a problem because the narrator expresses neither any internal reaction nor any awareness of the lost frog. Even though he mentions that the boy is looking out of the window and shouting in the clauses *d, f* and *h,* these clauses do not imply that the frog is being searched for. If the narrator had expressed that they found their own frog rather than an ordinary one in the protocol 4.2.2.3 and the protocol 4.2.2.2 would have become a *CA*. This situation is explained in the protocol 4.2.2.4 and 4.2.2.5 clearly.

(P-4.2.2.4 was taken from CA)
a. Sonra kurbağa evden kaçmış
Then the frog runs away from home
b. Sonra bu köpekte ko… o şeyin içine bakıyor

Then this dog j… looks into that thing

(P-4.2.2.5 was taken from Resolution)
    a. Ordan iki tane kurbağa yavrusu çıkmış
       Two baby frogs came out of that place
    b. Sonra burda da birazcık daha birazcık daha kurbağa çıkmış
       Then here a little, bit more a little bit more frog came out
    c. Sonra bu aradan <u>kurbağasını</u> bulmuş
       Then (he) found his frog in this gap
                    (narrated by the same child who produced the protocol 4.2.2.4)

Similar to the protocol 4.2.2.2, the protocol 4.2.2.4 did not include any inner reaction and awareness of the disappearance of the frog. In spite of the lack of awareness and inner reaction, the protocol 4.2.2.4 was accepted as a *CA* since the participant stated in protocol 4.2.2.5 in clause c, that the boy found his own frog, not just any other frog which means that he was aware of the problem although he did not mention it clearly in the *CA* section. The statement regarding the possessiveness of the frog also implies that the boy went in search of his frog, which was lost at the beginning of the story.

4.3.3 Attempts to Resolve Complicating Action

Attempt to Resolve the Complicating Action (ARCA) is not an element of Labov's (1972) story grammar but it is rather considered as a part of *CA*. ARCA is analyzed with story grammar elements to investigate whether there is a difference between the two groups. There is a sequence of events in the picture-book "*Frog Where Are You?*" and generally *ARCA* begins with these events. The first *ARCA* starts with the boy's search with the dog of the frog in the room; the second one starts with the boy's shouting out of the window to the frog; the third starts the with search for the frog outside the house; in the fourth, the boy climbs up the tree to look in the hollow of the tree; and in the last *ARCA*, the boy climbs up the rock to call the frog. There were only five *ARCA* since the book provided only enough pictures for them. Every *ARCA* consisted of a beginning, a development, and a consequence. These events can be considered as ARCA as they start with mentioning the boy's search of the frog together with his dog, which is lost in CA section. Every search for the missing frog was counted as an *ARCA* and the total number of *ARCA* provided a general picture of the situation in

which the two groups produced *ARCA*. The children who did not produce *ARCA* mentioned the existence of every detail in the picture and that they could not construct series of events that were performed by the protagonists in the picture book. A prerequisite of the production of *CA* is to consider the frog's getting out of the jar as a problem to be solved. If children cannot produce *CA*, they cannot produce *ARCA*, which shows that *CA* is required to produce an *ARCA*. The total number of *ARCA* produced by ECE is 62, while total number of *ARCA* produced by non-ECE is 55. It can be stated that ECE better linked the problem emerged in *CA* section to the story by producing more *ARCA,* since a coherent story can be produced if series of event are associated with each other.

Table 4.5 Percentages of emergences of *ARCA* section produced by ECE and non-ECE

| | | 1 | | 2 | | 3 | | 4 | | 5 | |
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Educational background	ECE	6	21.4	5	17.9	7	25.0	5	17.9	1	3.6
	Non-ECE	7	25.0	3	10.7	11	39.3	1	3.6	1	3.6

4.3.4 Resolution

As seen above in the protocol 4.2.2.4 and the protocol 4.2.2.5, *Resolution* and *CA* sections are highly related to each other since the core feature in *Resolution* section which is whether the problem emerged at *CA* has been resolved or not. *Resolution* includes two more features: Whether the protagonists could find the frog after a goal-oriented action and whether the protagonists could take the frog back home or not.

Table 4.6 Percentages of emergence of *Resolution* section as stated by ECE and non-ECE.

Variable	Subgroups	F	%
Educational background	ECE	27	96.4
	Non-ECE	24	85.7

96.4% of ECE produced a *Resolution*; in other words, all of these participants stated explicitly that the lost frog was found by the dog and the boy. On the other hand, the proportion of a *Resolution* as stated by the non-ECE is only 85.7%. However, non-ECE noticed the protagonists' reaction upon *Resolution* more than ECE. The proportion of emergence of reaction is 28.5% for the non-ECE and 21.4% for the ECE. The protagonists' reaction is illustrated in the protocol 4.2.4.1 (see the clause c).

(P-4.2.4.1)
    a. Sonra ağacın arkasına bakıyorlar
       Then (they) look behind the tree
    b. Işte kurbağayı buldular
       Here! (they) found the frog
    c. Ondan sonra <u>çok sevinmişler</u>   (the protagonist's reaction)
       After that (they) were very happy
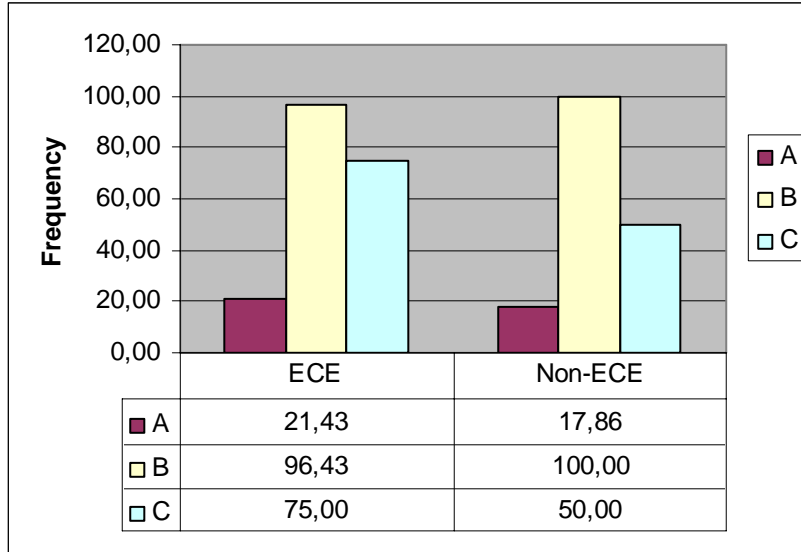
Figure 4.5 Percentages of emergence of the Resolution components

A: Goal oriented search before finding the frog
B: Clear statement of the problem solving
C: The boy's action to take the frog back

21.4% of the ECE and 17.8% of the non-ECE expressed that the protagonists and the frog met upon the goal oriented search of the missing frog, but not by chance. Almost all of the participants explicitly stated that protagonists find the lost frog. On the contrary, the two groups highly differed from each other in terms of expressing if they took the frog back or not as 75% of the ECE mentioned that the boy took the frog back. However, only 50% of the non-ECE mentioned it. The following protocol indicates all the features that constitute a well-formed Resolution section.

(P-4.2.4.2)
    a. Ve <u>yine aramaya başlamışlar</u>
        And (they) started to look again
    b. Bir tane kütük bulmuşlar
        (they) found a log
    c. Kopek ses yaptığı için sahibi de ona seslenmiş "sus" diye
        Because the dog made sound, his owner said to him "hush"
    d. Sonra hemen diğer kütüklerin arkasına bakınca
        When (he) immediately looks behind the other logs

e. Orda kurbağaları görmüş
   (he) saw frogs there
f. Kurbağa da küçük kurbağa da anne ve babasının yanına gitmiş
   The frog, the little frog went to his mother and father
g. Sonra çocuk kurbağayı almış
   Then the boy got the frog
h. Ve eve götürmüş
   And took (the frog) home

In the clause *a,* the participant declared by saying "yine aramaya başlamışlar" "started to look again", that the protagonists had been in search of the missing frog; thus, the statement of the boy's seeing the frog is a result of a predetermined and dynamic search in the clause *e*. Moreover, the boy took the frog home because he believed that he found his own frog. On the contrary, the following protocol is not considered as a *Resolution* since it does not meet the criteria of resolution although it implies that the frog and the protagonists met each other.

(P-4.2.4.3)
   a. Köpeğine de "sus" demiş
      (he) said to his dog "hush"
   b. Ağacın üstünden atlamışlar
      (they) jumped on the tree
   c. Üstüne yatmışlar
      (they) Lied on it
   d. Sonracığıma üstüne oturmuşlar
      And then sat on it
   e. Bir değmişler
      Touched
   f. Bir sürü kurbağa görmüşler
      (they) saw a lot of frogs

The protocol 4.2.4.3 would have been considered as a *Resolution* part of the story if it had met one of the mentioned criteria above. In addition, as mentioned earlier, there is a strong relationship between *CA* and *Resolution* and in order to produce a goal oriented search to find the frog, the participant must comprehend frog's escape from jar as a problem and the consciousness about this problem emerges in the mind of protagonists. However, the narrative in which occurs in the protocol 4.2.4.3 does not

contain *CA* because it does not make a connection between *Resolution* and CA as it was stated that the protagonists found the frog which escaped.

4.3.5 Coda

Coda simply means the signal to inform audience that the story is over. *Coda* emerges in three ways: *Overt coda*: The narrator explicitly states that the story is over such as "bu kadar" "that is all"; *Coda implied through linguistic:* The narrator hints the end of story not explicitly, but just implicitly such as "çocuk kurbağalara el sallamış" "boy waved to frogs"; *Coda implied through gestures:* The narrator declares end of the story by his look or his mimic, which is not within the scope of the study.

Table 4.7 Percentages of emergence of *Coda* section as stated by the ECE and non-ECE.

		Overt Coda		Implied Coda		No Coda	
		F	%	F	%	F	%
Educational background	ECE	18	64.3	7	25	3	10.7
	Non-ECE	13	46.4	6	21.6	9	32.1

It seems that the number of overt coda as stated by the ECE outnumbered that of overt coda as stated by the non-ECE since 64.3% of the ECE informed the audience that the story was over, whereas 46.4% of the non-ECE reported that the story was over through linguistic means. Two groups slightly differed from each other in terms of producing implied *Coda* because their proportions were similar (25% for ECE and 21.4% for non-ECE). On the contrary, 32.1% of the ECE, failed to produce *overt* or *implied Coda,* while only 10.7% of the non-ECE did not report that the story finished. Those participants who did not assert that story was over might use *implied Coda*

through gestures, but this study does not include that *Coda*. The protocol 4.2.5.1 and protocol 4.2.5.2 exemplify *overt* and *implied Coda* through linguistic means.

(P-4.2.5.1)
    a. Sonra kurbağalardan birtanesini almışlar
       Then (they) took one of the frogs
    b. Sonra öbür kurbağalar da bakmış onlara
       Then the others looked at them
    c. Birtane kurbağa altta kalmış
       One of the frog remained at the bottom
    d. <u>Bitti</u>   (*overt Coda*<u>) (20)</u>
       it's over

(P-4.2.5.2)

    a. Sonra bu aradan kurbağasını bulmuş
       Then (he) found his frog in this gap
    b. Sonra giderken
       Then (they) went
    c. <u>Kurbağalara bay bay etmişler</u>   (*implied Coda*)
       (they) waved good bye to the frogs   (6)

The protocol 4.2.5.3 includes both *overt* (the clause d) and *implied Coda* (the clause c) in this situation an implied *Coda* is accepted as a transition indicating that the story is coming close to the end.

(P-4.2.5.3)
    a. Sonra çocuk kurbağayı almış
       Then the boy got the frog
    b. Ve eve götürmüş
       And took home
    c. Kurbağalara da el sallamış
       Waved to frogs
    d. Bu kadar
       That's all   (1)

4.4. Evaluative Devices

As stated earlier, producing a narrative requires complex linguistic and social-emotional knowledge and skills. Generally, a good narrative contains both information about characters and events and subjective information, such as the character's feelings towards the events, which makes the story more attractive to readers. Therefore, the analysis of narratives provides a rich context for exploring the nature of both linguistic and social-emotional abilities in children's language development (Reilly et al, 2003). Narrative element draws upon general event representation and knowledge of story structure, whereas the evaluative devices require the child to formulate an inference about specific events. Evaluation informs the audience about the actions of protagonists in the story why events occurred, and what happens through reference to feelings, thoughts, and intentions (Eaton et al, 1999). This can be explained in the protocol 4.3.1 below:

P-4.3.1
  a) köpekte kavanoza kafasını koymuş
     The dog put his hand on jar
  b) onu koklamaya başlamış
     He started to smell it
  c) kokusundan bulmak için
     To find from its smell
                     (produced by the ECE)

In the protocol 4.3.1, the participant explained the intention of dog. Also, she made use of her previous knowledge about the dog in the narratives. In this sense, examining the inclusion of evaluation deserves importance.

The following tables show the differences in the outcomes of the types of evaluation between the ECE, as opposed to the non-ECE both descriptively and inferentially.

Table 4.8 The Results of the Mann-Whitney U Test Comparing the use of evaluative devices while narrating scores of ECE and non-ECE.

Mann-Whitney U Test							
	Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Rank	U	z	p
Emotion	ECE	28	30.39	851.00	339.000	-.894	.371
	Non-ECE	28	26.61	745.00			
Mental State	ECE	28	32.75	917.00	273.000	-2.038	.042
	Non-ECE	28	24.25	679.00			
Reported Speech	ECE	28	28.66	802.50	387.500	-.076	.940
	Non-ECE	28	28.34	793.50			
Hedges	ECE	28	28.50	798.00	392.000	.000	1.000
	Non-ECE	28	28.50	798.00			
Expectation	ECE	28	34.27	959.50	230.500	-3.019	.003
	Non-ECE	28	22.73	636.50			
Repetition	ECE	28	31.21	874.00	316.000	-1.493	.135
	Non-ECE	28	25.79	722.00			
Character Delineation	ECE	28	34.27	959.50	230.500	-3.021	.003
	Non-ECE	28	22.73	636.50			
Adverbs	ECE	28	34.30	960.50	229.500	-2.804	.005
	Non-ECE	28	22.70	635.50			
Intensifiers	ECE	28	31.04	869.00	321.000	-2.027	.043
	Non-ECE	28	25.96	727.00			

The results of the Mann-Whitney U test revealed no significant difference between the use of evaluative devices while narrating scores of the ECE and non-ECE z= -.894, p=.371; for expressions of emotions; z= -.076, p= .940; for direct and indirect reported speech; z= .000, p= 1.000; for hedges; z= -1.493, p= .135; for repetition on table 4.8. On the other hand, the results of the Mann-Whitney U test revealed a significant difference between the use of the evaluative devices while narrating in the scores of ECE and non-ECE, which is in favor of participants who received ECE (z=-2.038, p=.042 for mental state of the character; z=-3.019, p=.003 for expression of defeat of expectation; z=-3.021, p=.003 for character delineation; z=-2.804, p=.005 for adverbs; z=-2.027, p=.043 for intensifiers).

These results ensured that the ECE were much more likely to use mental state of the character, expression of defeat of expectation, character delineation, adverbs and intensifiers in their narratives than the non-ECE.

4.5. Parents' Reading Related Activities

Finally, this study aimed to investigate whether there is a difference between the parents of ECE and parents of non-ECE regarding their reading related activities with their children at home.

Narrative development is a multidimensional phenomenon; therefore, children from different family and community settings develop various ways of interpreting the same narrative tasks. Accordingly, parents have great influence on children's narrative development (Peterson & McCabe, 1991). The starting point of this study is based on language, literature and story telling activities conducted in early childhood settings as well as social interaction that early childhood education provides for children and their effects on children's narrative skills. Therefore, this section of the current study investigated whether parents conducted such activities at home or not as it is obvious that real effect of early childhood education on narrative skills can be measured if we hold parents' effect constant. It is assumed that if children engage in these activities both at home and in an early childhood setting, they will most probably have well-developed narrative skills. Also, the children who did not attend early childhood education, though engaged in reading related activities at home, develop narrative skills to some extent.

For this reason, the present study also aims to investigate the degree and nature of involvement of parents in their children's reading and literacy related practices.

In interviews, the questions about reading-related practice with their children were directed to the parents of ECE and non-ECE. Data collected from the parents was analyzed according to Yıldırım and Şimşek's (2005) description. Four main themes were observed in the interviews with the parents: the first theme was the parents' reading habits with their children; the second theme was the parents' personal reading habits; the third theme was the criteria the parents use to select books for their children and the last theme was the strategies that the parents use while encouraging their children to read.

4.5.1 Parents' Reading and Narrating Activity with Their Children

When parents were asked to respond to the open-ended questions about their reading practice with their children, two parents stated that they occasionally bought story books for their children and they did not read books with their children. One of the parents explained why she and her husband did not read story books with their children as "*we are too busy with our son because he is not good at studying so we spend a lot of time with him. Thus, we cannot read story books with our daughter*". Three parents emphasized the importance of reading, but confessed that they did not spare time for reading with their children and buying books for them due to low income and being busy with work. A parent claimed that her child resisted reading, so she decided to act free and wait until he would be ready to read. She further indicated that "*there are not sufficient books for boys, so I am having difficulty in finding books for my son. Unfortunately, my son thinks that books with flowers, princes, and animals are for girls, so these books do not attract him*". Only one parent had enough time for reading with his child and his child had more than 100 books. He reported "*we have spent almost two hours to read a story book a day in recent years*".

The other groups of parents were also asked to respond to the same open-ended questions about their reading practice with their children. Two parents expressed that they never read books with their children and never bought books for their children. They linked this situation to the cause of their low socio-economic status, low income, insufficient education and their indifferent parents. One of the parents stated that "*since*

our socio-economic status is not well we cannot read story books to our children; also we did not get such practice from our parents so we cannot provide our children. If I knew that reading story books is beneficial for my child, I would read". On the other hand, three parents reported that they tried to read, but they could not establish regular reading and buying habits and their child had approximately 30-40 books. One of them expressed that "*sometimes I say let's go to bedroom and read together. She reads a little, and then she sleeps*". On the contrary, a parent spent a great amount of time for reading and got into a routine of reading and buying books for her child. Even if she was busy, she speared time for reading activity and reported that her child had approximately 80-100 books.

4.5.2 Parents' Personal Reading Habits

The parents were also asked about their reading habits in terms of book, newspaper and their choice of periodical magazine. A parent stated that "*both I and my husband do not read books and we do not buy books because we have not got such a habit from our parents*"**.** Three parents try to read but they have a lot of excuses. One of the parents claimed that "*I bought a book approximately one month ago though I have not started reading it, yet*". However, there were two parents who had great pleasure from reading, so they spared a great deal of time to read. One of the parents explained why he liked reading as "*reading always improves people's scope, repertoire and word power. Also you can get plenty of information from books*". Most of the parents who participated in this study read newspapers; however, except that one parent whose child received early childhood education followed a periodical magazine.

The same questions were asked to the parents whose children did not have early childhood education and two parents replied that they never read or bought books, newspaper and periodical magazine; even they had no intention to read and they did not like reading at all. One of them expressed that "*I have no reading habits and I do not like reading so I do not buy books*". However, three parents acknowledged importance of reading and they reported that tried to read; however, they could not sustain reading habits for a long period of time. One of these parents maintained that "*I like reading all along; however, my husband does not read because he does not like it at all. I bought 4-*

5 books last year, but of course I could not read them". There was only one parent who had a regular habit of buying and reading books.

4.5.3 The Criteria that the Parents Use to Select Books for Their Child

As mentioned earlier, among the parents whose children had early childhood education, two parents did not read and occasionally bought books for their children; hence, there were no criteria for choosing books for their children. Almost all of the four parents stated that they chose books according to appropriateness of their child's age and developmental level; however, they could not explain it clearly. Moreover, parents had different criteria; for example, a parent said "*my child chooses and then I buy it. I think that the books written for first grade elementary students have no harm to my child. They are all about the fact that Ayse plays with Ali*". With regard to content, they stated various criteria; for example, a father said "*I was not interested in the content until now. I believe that books should improve reading. Content was not important, of course it is not totally unimportant. I choose simple and ordinary stories*". Again only one parent pays attention to the publisher of books.

Two groups are highly similar in that two parents had no criteria to buy story books for their children. Moreover, the other four parents bought books according to their children developmental level. When parents whose children did not have early childhood education were asked to define characteristics of their children developmental level that they took into consideration while choosing books, they could not provide clear answers. One of the parents expressed that "*first of all I have a little girl, so I choose books for her such as books about a princess*". The parents having more awareness about story books examined them with their child and chose books in accordance with the child's interest, quality of picture, font of print, teacher's advice and book's length. Another parent said "*Books should not give advice directly; instead, messages should be given in a story by-channel*". Furthermore, a parent stated that "*I prefer books about love of life, family, school and also they should include happiness, cheerful. So, I avoid pessimist, frightening books. Also books should glorify morale value. My children like animals; thus, I buy books about animals and nature*". Only one parent considered the author while buying story books for her child.

4.5.4 The Parents' Strategies to Encourage Their Children to Read

Partridge (2004) suggested ten research-based strategies which can be used by parents in order to encourage their children to read. They are: establishing a routine, making reading an enjoyable experience, reading often, rereading a favorite book, bridging the language between the book and the child, paying attention to the clues the child is giving, talking about the print, reading various types of books, engaging children in an analytic talk, encouraging book-related play. It is surprising that only one parent used a strategy of reading a favorite book repeatedly. No other parents used those strategies; instead, they applied their own strategies. The most commonly used strategy by parents is asking question about the book and four parents used it; for instance, "*I wonder what will happen in this book, where its hero will go*". Another strategy to encourage children to read is to become a model by reading in front of the children. Unfortunately, a child neither had opportunity to observe their parents reading nor their parents encouraged them to read. Three children only observed their mothers while reading, but their fathers never read book; however, two children experienced that both father and mother reads book at home. Only one parent among the first group of parents took their children to a book fair and let them walk around.

Among the second group, two children had no chance to observe their parents reading and their parents did not encourage them to read. On the other hand, two children could observe their mothers reading but, they cannot observe their fathers reading only two children observed their parents reading books at home. Similar to the other group, four parents asked questions about the book to make their children curious. Moreover, four parents mentioned benefits of reading books and directed their children to read. A parent forced their children with negative reinforcement; for example, they did not let her child go out or watch TV unless their children read a book.

It was not possible to access all the parents to have an interview with them. Therefore, a questionnaire was sent to the parents to obtain information as for the questions in the interview. Unfortunately, four parents did not provide any response. 21 parents whose children received early childhood education and 19 parents whose children did not receive early childhood education provided information in the

questionnaire. Information about the parents' reading related activities are represented in Table 4.9 Detailed expression of a questionnaire is presented in Appendix G.

Table 4.9 Frequency and proportion of parents' reading related practices

Parents	ECE		NO ECE	
Frequency of story book reading with their children	N	%	n	%
every day	3	14	2	10
2-3 times in a week	4	19	3	15
1 time in week	6	28	3	21
1 time in a month	-	-	1	05
never	8	38	10	47
The criteria used to choose a story book				
publisher	2	09	1	05
content	12	57	7	36
pictures	2	09	3	15
font style	5	23	7	36
quality of cover	-	-	1	05
how many books the child has				
less than 10	4	19	5	26
10-20	2	09	1	05
20-40	9	42	7	36
40-60	3	14	4	21
60-100	3	14	2	10
parents' personal reading				
1 book in a week	-	-	-	-
2-3 books in a month	1	04	-	-
1 book in a month	1	04	3	15
2-3 books in a year	6	28	5	26
1 book in a year	2	09	1	05
never read	11	52	10	52
Frequency of buying books				
never	14	66	12	63
1 book in a month	5	23	4	21
more than 3 in a month	2	09	3	15
more than 5 in a month	-	-	-	-

The results of the interview and the information provided in the questionnaires indicated that there was no significant difference between two groups in terms of their reading related activities in which they engaged at home. Moreover, the answers of parents provided in the questionnaires are similar to those of parents who were interviewed. Most of the parents in both groups did not have a regular reading activity with their children at home. Furthermore, their personal reading habits are similar to those of the parents who were interviewed since at least half of the parents who filled in the questionnaires reported that they did not read at all.

4.6. SUMMARY

As a concluding remark to this chapter, the analysis of the data has shown that the participants who received early childhood education produced 1554 clauses and the participants who did not receive early childhood education produced 1762 clauses in total. This does not mean that the former produce better developed narratives than the latter because length of the story does not always ensure that the story is well-formed. For this reason, the narratives of the participants were analyzed in terms of structures, which is more reliable measure of a well-developed narrative. The results of this study proposed that most of the children participated in this study have developed their story telling skills to produce narratives possessing discernable units such as Orientation, CA and Resolution, and they have the ability to integrate narrative clauses to into larger coherent units. On the other hand, when comparing narratives of ECE and narratives of non-ECE the, the study has revealed that ECE produced more structured narrative than the others. A great majority of Orientation sections of non-ECE did not contain orientative information about time, location and a network of relationship among the story characters, which constitute the core of an Orientation section. It is the same for the Complicating Action section since they again did not integrate information about the problem, awareness of problem, attempt to solve complicating action and inner reaction of the characters as much as ECE. Non-ECE slightly outperformed the others only in the Resolution section. They provided a statement of the problem-solving clearer than the ECE; however, they could not outperform them in terms of Goal oriented search before finding the frog and Boy's action to take the frog back.

The quality of narratives also was investigated by evaluative devices and the ECE used more evaluative devices than the others regarding mental state of the character, expression of defeat of expectation, character delineation, adverbs and intensifiers. Furthermore, it is obvious that there are countless factors that may effect narrative development of young children and this study investigated the most important one; that is, parents' effect. Parents' SES levels are highly similar, but the parents' educational level whose children had early childhood education was higher than the parents whose children did not have early childhood education. This did not affect their reading related activities with their children without regard to their educational level since the parents in both groups did not conduct enough reading activities with their children.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

This chapter includes the interpretation and the synthesis of the findings in the light of related literature. The conclusion section is based on those findings and discussions and the implications aimed to shed a light on further research. Focusing on the story grammar (Labov, 1972) and evaluative function of narratives (Peterson & MaCabe, 1983 as cited in Kang, 2003), the present study investigated narratives of ECE and narratives of non-ECE with special emphasis on the narrative length, story grammar components, and evaluative devices. In addition, parents' narrating habits with their children were analyzed. The results of the statistical analyses and the findings of each research question are provided in the previous chapter, including the Chi-square and descriptive analyses of the story structure, Independent Sample T-test analysis of story length, and Mann Whitney U Test analysis of evaluative devices and the interviews with the parents.

5.1. Discussion

The first research question of the study was whether ECE produce longer narratives than the non-ECE. The results indicated that there is no statistically significant difference between these two groups. However, it is worth highlighting that the non-ECE produced longer narratives than the others. Nevertheless, this does not mean that non-ECE narrate better than the ECE. Most of the narratives of non-ECE included clauses, which are the depictions of each component in the picture with no relation among them. In other words, most of the non-ECE narratives are more likely to be a listing of discrete events rather than a structured narrative. On the other hand, short stories told by the ECE are more informative, evaluative, and clear than the longer

stories of non-ECE. This result is consistent with many studies and it reveals the fact that length of the narrative is not always an indicator of story productivity (Muiloz et al, 2003). Although children may be competent enough to produce long stories, there is a possibility that these long stories are qualitatively unusual or poorly organized (Diehl, Benetto & Young, 2006). This finding also confirms that mixed methodologies are more appropriate to analyze young children's narratives since quantitative analysis may mislead the deeper understanding of narratives.

The second research question of the study was whether the narratives of ECE include more structural components of story grammar than those of non-ECE. The main finding related to this research question is that there is no statistically significant difference between the two groups; that is, the stories narrated by both groups show characteristics of basic structural components suggested by Labov's (1972) story grammar except for the Abstract and the Evaluation. This finding was consistent with the idea that story structure is universal (Kocabaş, 2002). The reason for the similarity between these two groups is the developmental level of participants since the construction of narrative requires a great deal of organizational skills. According to the Piagetian perspective, the production of goal oriented stories that are organized around a plotline starts at age 7 and develops during the stage of concrete operations, which covers the ages from 7 to 11. Therefore, age of 7, defined as the age of 'connections' by Piaget, is a turning point in narrative development (Kessen, 1983). Similarly, Ozcan (2004) emphasizes that age 7 is a turning point to produce a well-formed narrative. As predicted, based on previous research, a great majority of children show characteristics of structural components suggested by Labov's story grammar except for Abstract and Evaluation. None of the children produced Abstract and Evaluation section, which is most probably due to the data collection context and procedure. Labov's (1972) story elicitation technique was asking "danger of dead question", which is necessary by its nature to produce Abstract and Evaluation sections. On the contrary, Özcan (2004) has also reported that these two story elements do not emerge in the narratives elicited by using Mercer Mayer's (1969) picture book 'Frog, Where Are You?'. This does not mean that the participants are not capable of producing stories including all of the story elements as defined by Labov (1972). The context in which the story is narrated and the

reason why the story is told is highly related with the production of *Abstract* and *Evaluation* since children have already been requested to tell a particular story. As a result, they do not need to summarize or persuade audience that the story is reportable.

Although the present study does not deal with the differences between the two groups quantitatively, qualitative and descriptive analyses represented that ECE produced more structured narratives and provided more story grammar components in their narratives than the non-ECE. This study asserts that the underlying reason might be the positive effect of early childhood education on narrative skills. The results of the current study were supported by a number of studies that investigate the impact of schooling on narrative skills. Zevenbergen at all. (2003) report that Head Start (the child-focused program, which aims to increase the school readiness of young children coming from low-income families), has a positive effect on narrative skills. Moreover, Aksu-Koç (2005) states that with increasing years of schooling, children show higher levels of performance and display major changes in the cognitive strategies used in narrative organization.

It is observed that ECE produced more informative orientation section than the non-ECE because the former include more components in Orientation section than the latter. ECE defines characters, time, location and web of relations among characters which makes the story structure strong since the answers to "when", "who" and "where" enable audience to construct coherent stories. Furthermore, producing a narrative is not just the producing a text. It is also primarily about the social relationship among people and this social relationship includes the narrator and the audience at the expense of a well-formed narrative (Bloome et al, 2003). ECE produces detailed orientative information and it reflects the narrator's ability to take the audience's perspective into consideration.

Orientation and CA sections are too much integrated with each other because the problem emerged in CA associates sequentially and causally with the information given in Orientation. Owning a frog made the boy and the frog happy in Orientation, and then their happiness was spoiled by frog's disappearance in CA. Precisely, a relaxed atmosphere is created in the listener's mind in Orientation, and then it is destroyed to create CA. Moreover, CA section is indispensable to the Resolution since the core

feature of Resolution is whether the problem emerged at the CA is solved or not. Consequently, there is a strong relationship among Orientation, CA and Resolution; and the quality of one influences the others.

There are also significant differences between the two groups in terms of construction of CA, Resolution and Coda. Specifically ECE are successful in expressing awareness of the problem, internal reaction to the problem and ARCA in CA section. However, both groups produce equal proportion of the problem. Indeed, a major difference occurs in the production of internal reaction to the problem. The reason why non-ECE are far behind from the other group, in terms of producing internal reaction to the problem, is that they may be deficient in producing evaluative devices.

There is another difference between the two groups in the production of Resolution section. Components of Resolution have three dimensions: Goal oriented search before finding the frog; clear statement of the problem-solving; boy's action to get the frog back. Significant difference occurs in favor of ECE in the production of boy's action to get the frog back. However, there is a slight difference in other categories. Not surprisingly, ECE highly outperformed the others in producing Coda. ECE stated that the story was finished more explicitly than the other group. There is possibly relationship between listening story and producing overt Coda as children story books generally end in the overt Coda. On the whole, it can be concluded that ECE produced more structured narratives as compared to non-ECE.

The third research question is whether ECE include more evaluative devices in their stories than the narrative of non-ECE. In line with the predictions based on previous research, listening to the story repeatedly may have an immediate effect on child's narrative skills, especially on the use of evaluative devices (Harkins et al, 2001; Alexander, et al, 1993). There is a statistically significant difference in the use of evaluative devices overall, which shows that ECE employed more evaluation than non-ECE. With respect to the use of mental state of the character, expression of defeat of expectation, character delineation, adverbs and intensifiers, ECE far outperformed non-ECE. The use of mental state categories is much more important than the others because the use of mental state requires causal explanations for the story character's mental state and it reflects more complex cognitive operation. Considering the Early Childhood

Education Curriculum in Turkey, the children in early childhood settings participate in a variety of story-telling activities, which develops their ability of using evaluative devices. This finding corresponds to the assertion of Chang (2004) in his longitudinal study. Chang (2004) claim that narrative skills can be promoted during early childhood education, which enable young children to succeed in a literacy task at school.

This result is interesting since evaluative devices determine the well-formedness of a story in many respects: First, narrators use evaluative devices to establish the main points of the story (Labov & Waletzky, 1967) and to sustain listener's interest and participation by enriching the story through dramatization techniques, which capture and maintain attention (Reilly et al. 2004). Second, narrators reflect on their interpretation of events through evaluative devices, even though those evaluations are not directly evident within the picture book (Bamberg & Reilly, 1996). In short, evaluative devices facilitate narrative production since children take the need of audiences into consideration and tailor their narrative production accordingly through evaluative devices.

Both groups produce relatively more evaluative devices in emotion and reported speech categories, which can be explained by their common usage in everyday life. On the other hand, repetition, intensifier and hedges are rarely used in daily conversation. Moreover, there is evidence that young children cannot use hedges effectively (Eaton et al, 1999). In conclusion, this study makes it clear that receiving ECE has positive effects on the use of evaluative devices in a story.

The fourth research question, whether there is a difference between the parents of ECE and the parents of non-ECE, is explored in terms of their reading related activities with their children at home. Reading related activities at home are investigated because of its contribution to young children's language development, especially for the children coming from low-income family who have language deficiency. Reading story books to young children improves their language development because provides a direct communication between the children and the parents (Brewer, 2001). Moreover, children who are often and early exposed to reading tend to develop sophisticated language structures and a sense of story structure (Morrow, 1987 as cited in Fiore, 2007). There are many factors that affect narrative skills of young children and the most important one is the parents' effect since even if

children did not attend an early childhood education institution, their parents may help compensate for this deficiency by conducting repeated reading related activities with their children at home. Therefore, investigating parents' reading related activities with their children becomes important to understand their children's narrative skills. It is also crucial to have a better assessment of the early childhood education effects on narrative skills.

The results of study prove that there is a slight difference between the parents whose children had early childhood education and the parents whose children did not have early childhood education in terms of conducting reading related activities with their children at home. Unfortunately, most of the parents in two groups did not conduct enough reading related activities with their children. This result confirms the initial findings which show early childhood education positively affects narrative skills since the two groups engaged in similar reading related setting at home. Moreover, both groups are similar in their personal reading habits, criteria to choose story books to their children, and encouraging their children to read story books. These findings are not surprising since research have revealed that Turkish people are far behind the others in the world due to the lack of reading habits. Japanese people read 25 books, Sweden people read 10 and French people read 7 books a year. However, in Turkey, 6 people read one book a year (Milliyet online, 2006). Kang (1997) emphasized the essentiality of the development of successful narrative skills responsiveness between parent and child. This responsiveness can be established through interactive story book reading since interactive story book reading activity involves children by questioning, commenting and responding to children's initiations about the words and pictures in the books (Brewer, 2001; Allor & Mccathren, 2003). For example, parents can direct children to a tell story by asking questions and in this way children's narrative abilities can be improved. Therefore, families should prepare children to read before attending school so that children can acquire necessary habits to become an efficient reader.

5.2. Implications

Although the sample size is small, some suggestions can be made to preschool teachers, parents, schools, and Ministry of National Education based on the findings of this study and previous studies on the same or related issues:

1. This study provides significant information about the narrative skills of ECE and non-ECE, which is not under the scope of any previous research. The result of the study may be used for the justification of increasing accessibility of early childhood education due to the positive effect of early childhood education on children's narrative skills. Emergent literacy development can also be improved by early childhood education since both of them requires same practices to be developed. For instance, choice, engagement, experimentation, risk taking, opportunity to see and use print, and hear and use language.

2. One of the purposes of early childhood education in Turkey is to promote literacy skills and this study reveals the fact that there is a relationship between competence in producing well-formed narratives and literacy skills. This also confirms that accessibility of early childhood education is necessary for later academic success.

3. Early Childhood Education Curriculum includes language and literacy activities. These activities should be integrated with the narrative activities to improve narrative development. Moreover, it requires teachers to learn how to implement such kind of activities.

4. Teachers and parents will begin to work together to encourage child's reading experiences. As such, training program for parents should be planned since reading activities and literacy opportunities can be provided for all types of income and education levels.

5. It has implications for schools by addressing the need to provide books for children coming from low income families.

6. This study aims to help teachers and researchers to learn which characteristics of story determines the well-formedness since this study reveals that story grammar is not always a reliable measure of well-formedness.

7. Researchers who want to study the narrative skills of young children will realize the significance of mix-methodologies. Narratives are delicate data and they require intense work in other words, both quantitative and qualitative analyses are necessary to have a better understanding.

8. Another contribution of this study might be improving parents' own understanding and awareness about importance of reading related activities at home and their impact on children's narrative development as well as their language and literacy development.

9. This study also emphasizes that the study of communicative competence has extended its scope to longer discourse units such as narratives. Through this kind of studies, narrative analysis may become widespread.

5.3. Recommendations for Future Research

1. All children experienced different kinds of ECE practice since it was very difficult to hold constant in the study. In future research, it will be better if similar study is conducted on children, who attend the same ECE institution.

2. Data was collected after participants had learnt reading and writing. These newly-gained skills probably influenced the production of well-formed stories; however, we are not able to measure in what degree writing and reading influence narrative development. Therefore, narrative investigation should be conducted before children attend elementary school in future research.

3. The present study warranted no information about the paralinguistic, which is the nonverbal element of communication, used to modify meaning and convey emotion and contribute to the evaluative component of story telling. Moreover, prompt questions significantly increase the evaluative performance of children (Eaton et al, 1999). In this way, children make sophisticated inferences upon the character's action in the story (Wellman & Bartsch, 1988). However, in this study, prompt questions were not asked to encourage children. Therefore, there is a need for investigating children's use of evaluative devices accompanied with prompt questions in future research.

4. In this study, narratives of students, who had ECE, and the narratives of students, who did not have ECE were compared to investigate narrative length, narrative structure and type of evaluative devices embedded in stories. These investigations should further be examined with the inclusion of different story elicitation procedure, such as fictional stories, story retelling and story comprehension. Owing to this, several dimensions of narrative skills will be emerged due to different kinds of story telling tasks. Additionally, the scope of this study should be enriched to investigate different kinds of narrative skills, rather than the narrative length, structure and type of evaluative devices used in story. Moreover, in this study Abstract and Evaluation did not emerge. For this reason, different story grammar can be used in future research other than the Labov's (1972) story grammar, such as Stein and Glen's (1979) story grammar.

5. This study limited its scope to the children who had no intellectual, speech, language, hearing or learning deficits. Considering the rich sources of data that narrative production provides, future research is necessary in this area to analyze those children's language skills. Gaining information about those children's narrative skills, it becomes easy to prepare an intervention program for them. Furthermore, although the aim of this study is to compare narrative skills of children, who received ECE or did not receive ECE, this study is cross-sectional. However, the understanding of influence of ECE on narrative skills will be better obtained by a longitudinal study. For instance, narrative production of children should be investigated both before entering the early childhood institution and after completing it. On the other hand, conducting longitudinal study is very difficult because it is time-consuming and expensive.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

Parent's Consent Form

Sayın Veli

ODTÜ Eğitim Fakultesi Okulöncesi Öğretmenliği Bölümünde yüksek lisans yapmaktayım. Tez çalışmam "Okulöncesi Eğitim Alan ve Almayan ÇocuklarınHikaye Anlatma Gelişiminin Karşılaştırılması" olduğu için çocukların anlattıkları hikayeler kullanılacaktır. Çocuklara hikaye anlattırmak için Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı onaylı resimli yazısız bir kitap kullanılacaktır. Çocuklar kitabın resimlerine bakıp kendi hikayelerini anlatacaklar bu esnada anlattıkları hikayeler ses kayıt cihazına kaydedilecektir. Bu kayıtlar başka bir amaçla kullanılmayacak ve çocukların isimleri gizli tutulacaktır. Bilime ve araştırmaya katkınızdan dolayı teşekkür ederiz.

Arş. Gör. Zeynep Akdağ

Velisi bulunduğum .... isimli öğrencinin "Okulöncesi Eğitim alan ve Almayan Çocukların Hikaye Anlatma Gelişiminin Karşılaştırılması" isimli çalışmaya katılmasına izin veriyorum.

Tarih:
İsim-Soyisim
İmza:

Parents' Demographic Information Form

Sayın Veli,

Katıldığınız bu çalışma, ailelerin çocuklarına hikaye anlatma alışkanlıklarının çocukların hikaye anlatma gelişimlerini nasıl etkilediği belirlemek amacıyla hazırlanmıştır. Görüşlerinizin doğruluğu veya yanlışlığı ile ilgili bir değerlendirme söz konusu değildir. Bu amaçla, sorulara size en uygun olan cevaba (X) işareti koyarak belirtiniz. Vereceğiniz her bilgi sadece araştırma amaçları için kullanılacaktır. Bu çalışmaya katıldığınız için şimdiden teşekkür ederiz.

Zeynep AKDAĞ

Velisi bulunduğunuz çocuğun ismi:	
Kaç çocuğunuz var: Çocuklarınızın Yaşları:	Çocuklarınızın eğitim durumları: ....
Yaşınız: Cinsiyetiniz:	Eşinizin Yaşı:
Mesleğiniz:	Eşinizin mesleği:
Aylık ortalama geliriniz: **a)** 0-499 **b)** 500-999 **c)** 1000-1499 **d)** 1500-1999 **e)** 2000- ve üzeri	

Eğitim durumunuz:	
Sizin	Eşinizin
a) Okuryazar değil **b)** Okuryazar **c)** İlkokul mezunu **d)** Ortaokul mezunu **e)** Lise mezunu **f)** 2 yillik Önlisans **g)** Lisans **h)** Yüksek lisans/ Master **i)** Doktora	**a)** Okuryazar değil **b)** Okuryazar **c)** İlkokul mezunu **d)** Ortaokul mezunu **e)** Lise mezunu **f)** Önlisans **g)** Lisans **h)** Yüksek lisans/ Master **i)** Doktora

APPENDIX C

A sample narrative, which provides *orientative information*, a *CA*, *Attempts to Resolve the CA*, a *Resolution* and an explicit linguistic *Coda*, from the ECE.

NO ABSTRACT

    1. Şimdi birtane oğlan varmış   (ORIENTATION)
    2. onunda kurbağası ile birtane köpeği varmış

    3. şey çocuk uyurken   (CA)
    4. kurbağasıda kaçmış
    5. gitmiş ormana
    6. çocuk ondan sonra uyanmış
    7. bakmış
    8. kurbağası yok

    9. ondan sonra aramaya başlamışlar   (ARCA 1ST)
    10. oğlan bağırmış
    11. oğlan camdan bağırmış bağırmış
    12. ondan sonra köpeği aşağıya düşmüş
    13. sonra sonra kucağına almış köpeğini

    14. sonra ormana gitmişler   (ARCA 2ND)
    15. yine aramaya başlamışlar
    16. ondan sonrada şey yine oğlan bağırmaya başlamış
    17. ondan sonra köpek... ondan sonra oğlan ağaca çıkmış
    18. oraya da bakmış
    19. orda da yok
    20. sonra ağaçtan düşmüş
    21. ondan sonrada köpeği arılar kovalamış
    22. köpekte kaçmış
    23. sonra oğlan kaçmış

24. birtane kuş yakalamaya çalışmış

25. ondan sonrada oğlan yine aramaya başlamış kurbağayı   (ARCA 3RD)
26. ondan sonra birtane gey.... birtane geyik birtane geyik varmış
27. ondan sonra o da o oğlanda oğlanda...
28. sonra geyik geyik oğlanı oğlanı almış almış
29. ondan sonra koşmuş geyik
30. sonra aşağıya atmış köpeği ile oğlanı
31. sonrada sonra göle düşmüşler köpekle oğlan

32. ondan sonrada ondan sonrada bakmışlar hertarafa   (RESOLUTION)
33. sonra bakmışlar
34. bulmuşlar annesi ile babası
35. kurbağanın annesiyle babasını görmüşler
36. sonra kardeşleri de varmış
37. sonrada onun... sonrada kurbağasını almış
38. eve dönmüş
39. onlarada onlarada onlarada el sallamış

NO EVALUATION

40. bitti   (expilicit overt CODA)

APPENDIX D

A sample narrative, which does not contain discrete story units, from the non-ECE.

NO ABSTRACT

1. Köpeğin sahibi... bir köpek varmış   (orientative info)
2. köpek sahibi bir çocuk çocuk varmış
3. köpek çok yaramazmış
4. birgün kurbağasının yuvasına girmeye çalışmış

5. kurbağa o uyurken kaçmış
6. köpek çocuğu itince
7. yere düşecek gibi olmuş
8. çocuk şapka ayakkabıyı kafasına takmaya çalışmış
9. köpek camdan şişeyi kafasına takmış
10. çocukta bağırmış
11. ondan sonracığımada köpek düşmüş
12. köpeği alıncada çocuk
13. onu yalamış
14. çocuk birde köpek bağırmışlar
15. köpek kovana çıkmaya çalışmış kovana
16. çocuk kazdığı delikten bir fare bulmuş
17. köpek kovanı düşürünce
18. arılar çıkmış
19. çocuk ağacın dalındaki boşluğa girmeye çalışmış
20. kuş çocuğu kurtarınca
21. köpekte hemen kaçmış
22. çocuk kafasını kayaya çarpmış
23. kayaya çıkmış
24. "köpek" diye bağırmış
25. "köpeğim nerede diye" bağırmış
26. ondan sonracığıma bir geyik görmüş
27. onu uçurumdan atmış
28. çocuk suya düşmüş
29. suda köpeğide kafasındaymış
30. köpeğine de "sus" demiş
31. ağacın üstünden atlamışlar
32. üstüne yatmışlar
33. sonracığıma üstüne oturmuşlar
34. bir değmişler

35. bir sürü kurbağa görmüşler

NO EVALUATION

36. bitti.   (expilicit overt CODA)

Examples of evaluative devices in children's stories

Expression of emotions:

"Köpeğin sahibide ona kızmış"

"Hem baykuştan korkup"

"Sonrada canı sıkılmış"

Mental state of the characters:

"Korunmak için kafasını şöyle yapmış"

"Sonra hiç aldırmamış birşey yapmazlar diye"

"Kopek kokuyu alıncada çok kötü bir koku olduğunu anlamış"

Intensifiers:

"Daha çok arı çıkmış"

"Çok iyi arkadaş olmuşlar"

"Birazcık daha birazcık daha kurbağa çıkmış"

Expressions of defeat of expectation:

"Aşağıda bir yere bakınmış ama bulamamış"

"Orda gene aramaya başlamış başlamış ama bulamamış"

"Burda da birşey bulamamışlar birşey yokmuş"

Repetitions:

"Kurbağa diye bağara bağara şey yapmış"

"Ama o koşarken koşa koşa zor yakalamış"

"Sessiz sessiz aramaya başlıyorum"

Hedges: -

Reported speech:

"Kurbağa nerdesin diye bağırmış"

"Sonrada sus demiş"

"Güle güle demiş"

Character delineation:

"Annesiyle küçük küçük yavruları var"

"Anne kurbağa baba kurbağa var"

"Kurbağada bir kız kurbağayı beğendiği için şey yapmış"

Adverbs:

"Aceleyle kazağını giymiş"

"Kurbağa gizlice kafesinden çıkıyor"

"Sakincene bunu burda bunu çekmeye çalışmışlar"

APPENDIX F

Interview Protocol for the Parents

Merhaba,

Öncelikle bu çalışmaya katıldığınız için teşekkur ediyorum. İsmim Zeynep Akdağ ve ODTÜ Eğitim Fakultesi Okulöncesi Öğretmenliği Bölümünde yüksek lisans yapmaktayım. Yüksek lisans çalışmamda okulöncesi eğitimin çocukların hikaye anlatma becerilerini nasıl etkilediğini araştırıyorum. Bu yüzden sizinle çocuğunuzla evde uyguladığınız kitap okuma ve hikaye anlatma aktiviteleriniz hakkında konuşmak istiyorum. Size bu konuda soracağım soruların doğru yada yanlış cevabı yok. Sadece sizin var olan durumdan bahsetmenizi bekliyorum. Vereceğiniz cevaplar sadece bu çalışma için kullanılacak ve isminiz kesinlikle gizli kalacaktır. Görüşmemizin tamamını hatırlamam olanaksız olduğu için görüşmemizi ses kayıt cihazına kaydedeceğim. Başlamadan once sormak istediğiniz bir şey var mı?

Interview Questions

1. Reading related activities with children
- Çocuğunuza ne sıklıkta hikaye okursunuz?
- Kitap okuma dışında bildiğiniz hikayeleri çocuğunuza anlattığınız oluyor mu?
- Bir gün içinde çocuğunuz ile geçirdiğiniz kaliteli zaman ne kadardır yani sadece onunla sohbet etmeye, oynamaya, kitap okumaya ayırdığınız zaman?

2. Personal reading habits
- Evde kütüphaneniz var mı?
- Siz ve eşiniz ne sıklıkta kitap okursunuz?
- Ayşerana sizi kitap okurken gözlemleyebiliyor mu?
- Düzenli takip ettiğiniz gazete dergi varmı?

3. Criteria to choose books for their children
- Kitap alırken nelere dikkat ediyorsunuz nedir kitap alma kriterleriniz?
- Yazarına yayınevine dikkat ediyormusunuz
- Dogum gününde hediye almak istediğinizde aklınıza ilk gelen hediye kitap olur mu?

4. Strategies to encoure children to read

- Çocuğunuz kitap okumayı sevmesini önemsiyor musunuz?
- Kitap okumayı sevdirmek için neler yapıyorsunuz?
- Çocuğunuzun evde kaçtane hikaye kitabı vardır?
- Birlikte kitap fuarlarına gittiğiniz oluyor mu?

- Okulun çocuğunuza kitap okumayı sevdirme etkinlikleri yapmasını kitap okumayla ilgili ödev vermesini desteklermisiniz?

Questionnaire for the Parents

Sayın Veli,

Katıldığınız bu çalışma, ailelerin çocuklarına hikaye anlatma alışkanlıklarının çocukların hikaye anlatma gelişimlerini nasıl etkilediği belirlemek amacıyla hazırlanmıştır. Görüşlerinizin doğruluğu veya yanlışlığı ile ilgili bir değerlendirme söz konusu değildir. Bu amaçla, sorulara size en uygun olan cevaba (X) işareti koyarak belirtiniz. Vereceğiniz her bilgi sadece araştırma amaçları için kullanılacaktır. Bu çalışmaya katıldığınız için şimdiden teşekkür ederiz.

Zeynep AKDAĞ

Velisi bulunduğunuz çocuğun ismi:	
Kaç çocuğunuz var: **Çocuklarınızın Yaşları:**	**Çocuklarınızın eğitim durumları:** ....
Yaşınız: **Cinsiyetiniz:**	**Eşinizin Yaşı:**
Mesleğiniz:	**Eşinizin mesleği:**
Aylık ortalama geliriniz: **f)** 0-499 **g)** 500-999 **h)** 1000-1499 **i)** 1500-1999 **j)** 2000- ve üzeri	

Eğitim durumunuz: Sizin	Eşinizin
j) Okuryazar **k)** İlkokul mezunu **l)** Ortaokul mezunu **m)** Lise mezunu **n)** 2 yillik Önlisans **o)** Lisans **p)** Yüksek lisans/ Master **q)** Doktora	**j)** Okuryazar değil **k)** Okuryazar **l)** İlkokul mezunu **m)** Ortaokul mezunu **n)** Lise mezunu **o)** Önlisans **p)** Lisans **q)** Yüksek lisans/ Master **r)** Doktora
Çocuğunuza ne sıklıkta hikaye anlatırsınız yada hikaye kitabı okursunuz? **a)** Hergun **b)** Haftada 2-3 defa **c)** Haftada 1 defa **d)** Ayda 1 defa **e)** Hiç okumam	**Çocuğunuza hikaye kitabı alırken nelere dikkat ettiğinizi önem sırasına göre 1'den 5'e doğru sıralayın?** ___Yayın evine ___İçeriğine ___Resimlerine ___Yazı boyutuna ve şekline ___Kapak ve kağıt kalitesi
Çocuğunuzun evde kaç tane hikaye kitabı var? **a)** 10 kitaptan az **b)** 10-20 arası **c)** 20-40 arası **d)** 40-60 arası **e)** 60-100 arası	
Siz ne sıklıkta kitap okuyorsunuz? **a)** Haftada 1 kitap bitiririm **b)** Ayda 2-3 kitap bitiririm **c)** Ayda 1 kitap bitirim **d)** Yılda 1 kitap bitiririm **e)** Yılda 2-3 kitap bitiririm **f)** Hiç okumam	**Eşiniz ve siz kendiniz okumak için ne sıklıkta kitap alırsınız?** **a)** Hiç kitap almayız **b)** Ayda 1 kitap alırız **c)** Ayda 3 ve üzeri kitap alırım **d)** Ayda 5 ve üzeri kitap alırım **e)** Ayda 10 ve üzeri kitap alırım

Çocuğunuzla bire bir iletişim içinde olduğunuz (oyun oynamak, sohbet etmek, ödevlerine yardım etmek, kitap okumak vs.) zaman 24 saat içinde kaç saattir?

....

Çocuğunuz boş vakitlerini nasıl değerlendirir?

....

Çocuğunuza doğum gününde ya da bayramda hediye almak isteseniz ilk aklınıza gelecek hediye ne olur?

....

Çocuğunuza ne tür kitaplar alırsınız?

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