

Hacettepe University Graduate School of Social Sciences
English Linguistics

**A SOCIOLINGUISTIC ANALYSIS OF THE PERSONAL
NARRATIVES OF TURKISH CHILDREN**

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ÖZET

OKTAY, Suhan Türk Çocuklarının Kişisel Deneyim Anlatılarının Sosyodilbilimsel Analizi üzerine bir Çalışma. İngiliz Dilbilimi. Doktora Tezi , Ankara,2006.

Anlatı analizi, yirminci yüzyılın ortalarından beri insani ve sosyal bilimlerin en önemli konularından biridir. Bu ilginin en önemli nedenlerinden biri, anlatıların insanlığın yaşam deneyimini yansıtıyor olmasıdır. Aynı yetişkinler gibi, çocuklar da edindikleri deneyimleri çevrelerinde bulunan insanlarla paylaşma isteğindedirler. Bu gereksinim pek çok araştırmacının ilgisini çekmiş ve çocuk anlatıları yoğunlukla çalışılmıştır. Tarih, antropoloji, halkbilim, psikoloji, sosyoloji ve dilbilim gibi çok sayıda disiplin anlatı çözümlemeleri üzerine yoğunlaşmıştır.

Bu çalışmanın amacı, Türk çocuklarının kişisel korku anlatılarının dilbilimsel ve sosyodilbilimsel yapısını çözümlenektir. Diğer bir deyimle, bu çalışma, çocuk anlatıları ve ailelerin eğitim düzeyi arasında bir bağlantı (korelasyon) bulmayı amaçlamaktadır. Çalışmada, öğrencilerin ailelerinin eğitim düzeyi, anlatıların dilbilimsel yapısının çözümlenmesinde değişken olarak kullanılmıştır. Bu amaçla, yaşları 9 – 10 arasında değişen 200 çocuk seçilmiştir. Ankara Beytepe ilköğretim okulundan 100 çocuk ailelerin eğitim seviyesi yüksek grubu temsil etmekte, Şentepe ilköğretim okulundan 100 çocukta ailelerin eğitim seviyesi düşük grubu temsil etmektedir.

Sosyodilbilimsel çözümlenme için, ailelerin eğitim düzeyi ve ailelerinin aile içi ve aile dışı etkileşimleri hakkında bilgi edinmek üzere yazılı anket verilmiştir. Ayrıca, grupların daha ayrıntılı tanımının yapılabilmesi için, aile içi ve dışı etkileşimin faktörlerine göre sosyal sınıf belirlemesi de yapılmıştır.

Dilbilimsel çözümlenme için, Beytepe ve Şentepe ilköğretim okulları öğrencilerinin korku anlatılarında bulunan küçük ölçekli (micro) ve büyük ölçekli (macro) yapıların gözlemlenmesi amaçlanmıştır. Küçük ölçekli bakış açısıyla, çocukların kişisel anlatıları dört düzeyde çözümlenmiştir. Bunlar sözcük düzeyinde çözümlenme, sözdizimsel

özümleme, zamansal özümleme ve anlambilimsel özümlemedir. Büyük ölçekli özümlemede ise, ocukların anlatıları William Labov'un (1972) öne sürdüğü altı gruba göre incelenmiştir: özet, tanıtım, karmaşık olaylar dizisi, özüm ve sonuç. Küçük ölçekli ve büyük ölçekli özümlemelerin sonuçları, yüksek ve düşük aile eğitim düzeylerine göre kıyaslanmış ve karşılaştırılmıştır.

Bu alışmanın bulguları, Beytepe ve Şentepe ilköğretim okulu öğrencilerinin anlatılarının, dilbilimsel özümlemelere göre farklılıklar içerdiğini göstermiştir. Sonuç olarak, ailelerin eğitim düzeyinin ocukların dilbilimsel seçimlerinde büyük bir etkisi olduğu saptanmıştır.

Anahtar Sözcükler: Anlatı analizi, kişisel deneyim anlatıları, ocuk anlatıları, sosyodilbilimsel analiz

ABSTRACT

OKTAY, Suhan A Sociolinguistic Analysis of the Personal Narratives of Turkish Children. English Linguistics P.h.D. Dissertation, Ankara,2006.

Narrative has been one of the major concerns of humanistic and social scientific thought since the mid-twentieth century. One of the most important reasons for this interest is that narratives reflect the life experience of human being. Just like adults, children are also in need of sharing their experiences with the other people around them. This need attracted the attention of many researchers, and child narratives have been studied extensively. Many disciplines such as history, anthropology, folklore, psychology, sociology and linguistics have dealt with narrative analysis.

The aim of this study is to analyze the linguistic and sociolinguistic structure of the personal fright narratives of Turkish children. In other words, the aim of this dissertation is to find a correlation between child narratives and the educational level of the parents. In this study, the educational level of the students' parents is taken as the variable in analysing the linguistic structure of the narratives. For this purpose, a total of 200 children between the ages of 9 and 10 are used. 100 children chosen from Beytepe primary school in Ankara represented the high parental education group while 100 children from Şentepe primary school represented the low parental education group.

For the sociolinguistic analysis, a written questionnaire was delivered to obtain information about the educational level of the parents and parents' interaction inside and outside the family. In addition, in order to make a more detailed definition of the groups, a social class designation analysis according to the factors of interaction inside and outside the family was also carried out.

For the linguistic analysis, we aimed to observe the micro and macro structures found in the fright narratives of children at the Beytepe and Şentepe primary schools. Considering the micro perspective, children's personal narratives are analyzed in terms

of four levels. These are, namely, lexical analysis, syntactic analysis, temporal analysis and semantic analysis. For the macro level of analysis, children's narratives are classified according to the six units described by William Labov (1972) as abstract, orientation, complicating action, evaluation, result and coda. The results of both micro and macro analysis sections are compared and contrasted in terms of high parental and low parental education groups.

The findings of this study indicate that the narratives of children in Beytepe and Şentepe primary schools differ respectively in terms of our linguistic analysis. That is to say, the educational level of the parents have a great impact on the linguistic choices of children.

Key Words: Narrative Analysis, personal experience narratives, child narratives, sociolinguistic analysis.

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CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

1.1. LANGUAGE AS A MEANS OF TELLING NARRATIVES

Language differentiates human beings from other creatures living in the world. As Fromkin and Rodman(1978:3) point out briefly “we are the only animals that do this – that talk”. We talk to our teachers, our friends, our husbands, our bosses and our pets, or we talk to ourselves when nobody is listening to us.

The core properties of language are so unique that it is possible to compare animal communication and human language from certain aspects such as displacement, cultural transmission, discreteness and duality (Yule 1985:17). Among the properties of human language listed, the displacement principle carries great importance in terms of narrative production. Yule (1985:17) states the importance of displacement principle in language by comparing human language and animal communication through an example: ‘When your dog says GRRR, it is likely to mean, GRRR right now, because it does not appear capable of communicating, GRRR, last night, over in the park.’ Other living beings such as dogs, plants or birds, live only in the present, but human beings, who are able to live in the present, past and future, question themselves by directing questions about the origin of themselves, their situation at present, past and future (Leeming 1997:3). Besides, human beings can talk about angels, fairies, mythical creatures or invented characters whom they do not see and also human beings are able to create fiction, and talk about past, present and future events (Yule 1985:18). By using the displacement principle, which is unique to human beings, a person can retell events he confronts in the past and present.

Leeming(1997:4) mentions the capability of human beings’ using the discreteness principle as a basis of producing narratives by saying that all human beings are storytellers, but some people are more gifted storytellers than others. ‘Let me tell you what happened today’ implies that the speaker is on the way to start a narrative. When

people come together, the only activity that does not differ is their talking, using language as a vehicle to communicate. By way of communicating they can transfer their narrative experiences to the other people listening to their speech.

1.2. WHAT IS A NARRATIVE?

Many disciplines and professions have dealt with narrative in the course of time. Narratives have been the concern of history, anthropology, folklore, psychology, sociology, sociolinguistics and psycholinguistics. Not only the disciplines but also professions such as law, medicine, psychiatry, psychoanalysis and education have dealt with narratives (Riessman 1993:1). For example, a psychiatrist can understand the problem of his patient by listening to the narratives of the patient. When a courtroom environment is realized, the judge asks the criminal to tell the court how an event occurred. The accused person starts telling the court a narrative to explain what happened, how it happened, what he was doing at that moment, where he was that night, etc. Then, the accused person designs a narrative and says it in his own way with the aim of reflecting his experience of the event he had confronted. Later, for the narrative to become a written record, the judge retells the narrative told briefly, and in a way, designs a narrative for the court to use as a written record. Here, again the accused person produces a narrative, and then the judge produces another shortened form of the accused person's narrative. Therefore, individuals producing narratives with the aim of talking about their experiences are a universal fact.

McCabe (1991:x) mentions the place of narratives in our lives by the following words:

“Narrative is a vital human activity.....Through narrative we bridge separations from loved ones filling them in on experiences we have had in their absence.....Through narrative we warn others of lessons we have learned from our own experiences or the experience of others.....Through narrative we remember personal experiences, we translate knowing into telling”.

Telling narratives is one of the activities people do while talking. Narrative, which was one of the first discourse genres to be analyzed, has been one of the most important subject in humanistic and social scientific thought since the mid-twentieth century (Johnstone 2001:635). As a result of this interest, narratives have always been the concern of linguists. This interest may depend on two reasons according to Fabb(2001:460):

“The first is that narratives are one of the most common types of verbal behavior, existing not just as literary texts but also in everyday interaction. The second reason is that linguistic form is clearly exploited in narratives, and has some relation to narrative form.”

Berger (1997:174) points out the significance of narratives in our life and mentions that narratives were seen as time killing amusements in the past. But now people recognize that they obtain information through narratives, people know that narratives have an emotional side, and people need narratives to make their lives colourful. He goes on further by saying that some scholars have named humans as *Homo narrans*, which see men and women as narrators rather than naming them as *Homo sapiens*, which sees men and women as knowers.

Bruner (1990:80) emphasizes the act of narrating with the following quotation:

“We have an ‘innate’ and primitive predisposition to narrative organization that allows us quickly and easily to comprehend and use it, the culture soon equips us with new powers of narration through its tool kit and through the tradition of telling and interpreting in which we soon come to participate”.

Schank(1946:54) points out that if you are intelligent, this means you have got narratives to share with people in order to affect listeners. The relation between intelligence and narratives is stated by Schank (1946:54) in the following words: “To get human beings to be intelligent means getting them to have narratives to tell and having them hear and perhaps use the narratives of others”.

Schank (1946:54) goes on further by mentioning that if a person is able to find innovative ideas and invent new narratives with fresh contents that we have never heard before, we get excited. Such tellers seem intelligent, too. However, individuals must keep in mind that they have to tell those narratives in the appropriate place at the appropriate and time.

Toolan(2001:4) tries to define narrative by giving certain properties of it. He points out that narratives have:

“1. A degree of artificial prefabrication or constructedness not usually apparent in spontaneous conversation. Narrative is ‘worked upon’. Sequence, emphasis and pace are usually planned(even in oral narrative, when there has been some rehearsal-previous performance-of it).

2. A degree of prefabrication. In other words, narratives often seem to have bits we have seen or heard, or think we have seen or heard, before. And the kinds of things people do in narratives seem to repeat themselves over and over again - with important variations of course.

3. Narratives typically seem to have a ‘trajectory’. We expect them to have beginnings, middles, and ends. The following ending in a children’s story is seen:

“And they all lived happily ever after;”

“Since then, the dragon has never been seen again.”

4. Narratives have to have a teller. In this respect, despite its special characteristics, narrative is language communication like any other, requiring a speaker and some sort of addressee.

5. Narratives are richly exploitative of that design feature of language called displacement (the ability of human language to be used to refer to things or events that are removed, in space or time, from either speaker or addressee).

6. Narratives involve the recall of happenings that may be not merely spatially, but, more crucially, temporally remote from the teller and his audience.”

Labov defines narrative as “a method of recapitulating past experience by matching a verbal sequence of clauses to the sequence of events which actually occurred” (Labov 1972:359-360). In other words, he tries to find out what kind of linguistic devices are used to observe verbal skills while evaluating an experience through narrative. Thus, he develops a theoretical framework to analyze those experiences. Most of the definitions (Halliday and Hasan 1976, Berger 1997) about narrative centers on Labov’s notion of narrative.

Rather than giving an exact definition of what narrative is, Bruner (1990:77) refers to the four requirements of narrative. As stated by him, narrative requires a method or way for emphasizing human action. The second requirement is that; there must be a sequential order in the narrative. Thirdly, he mentions that narratives are sensitive to conventional forms and unconventional forms in human interaction. Lastly, narratives have a voice that is the narrator’s perspective. That is to say, narratives are not voiceless productions. Thus, the requirements of narratives put forward by Bruner goes further than defining what a narrative is.

As observed through this section, some scholars try to account for what narrative is. Some do not give an exact definition, but try to mention the importance narrative has in our lives, or some scholars define the requirements of narrative while others give the properties of narrative.

1.3. CHILDREN AND NARRATIVES

Like adults, children are in need of mentioning about their past experiences because they are willing to give information to the people listening to them and also they want to prolong the interaction. Thus, they interact by participating in conversations and they narrate by virtue of the things they see in their environment.

Bruner (1990:78) mentions the fact that children are curious about the people and the events that they have experienced. This curiosity causes the child to observe those events and people and then to reflect them with a narrative.

No matter how young they are, children prefer to talk about past events that they have experienced within their family or with their friends (Johnstone 2001:641). Researches carried out about children show that even under the age of two, children can produce narratives and they have a well-developed sense about what a narrative is, what the content and form of the narrative must be (Toolan 2001:197). Consequently, children are accustomed to hearing and telling narratives even when they are very young.

The grounds for telling narratives may vary, but narrative production and sharing it with others is extremely important and universal for human beings.

1.4. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Narrative studies can be considered multifaceted. Therefore, there are several studies that observe several aspects of child narratives. Some studies deal with the effect of age on narrative skills, while very few of them study the effect of social class on the development of narratives. Some studies observe the mastery of cohesive markers in narratives. On the other hand, there are studies that focus on the effect of external reasons such as teacher-child interaction, school setting, culture and parental attitude on narratives.

However, many of the studies carried out on narratives have pointed out that little work has been done on the effect of social differences such as parent's occupation, income level, education, living standards, etc. (Nicolopoulou 1997:179, Johnstone 2001:642, Feagans 1982:105 cited in Shiro 2003:178). Furthermore, from the investigations carried out on narratives, it has been found that most of the studies analyzed age related differences in producing narratives. Thus, they were developmental studies. Depending on these facts, it can be said that the narrative skills of Turkish children belonging to

two groups namely high parental education groups and low parental education groups needs to be analyzed.

1.5. AIM AND SCOPE

The aim of this study is to analyze the linguistic and sociolinguistic structure of the personal fright narratives of Turkish children who are 9 to 10 years old. Therefore, this dissertation not only aims to analyze the structure of child narratives, but also attempts to find a correlation between child narratives and parental educational level by comparing two different groups of children. It is believed that analyzing the language of Turkish children's narratives in terms of the educational level of their parents will contribute to the narrative analysis studies on one hand, and to the cross-cultural studies on narrative which aim to find out the universal aspects of narrative structure on the other.

1.6. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The following research questions will be addressed in this dissertation:

- 1) Do the personal narratives of 9 to 10 year-old children coming from two educationally different parent groups display significant differences as a result of a micro analysis? If so, in what respects are the high parental education group children distinguishable from low parental education group children?
 - a) Do the narratives of two groups of children differ from each other concerning Lexical characteristics?
 - b) Do the narratives of two groups of children differ from each other concerning Syntactic characteristics?
 - c) Do the narratives of two groups of children differ from each other concerning Temporal characteristics?
 - d) Do the narratives of two groups of children differ from each other concerning Semantic characteristics?

- 2) Do the personal narratives of 9 to 10 year-old children coming from two educationally different parent groups display significant differences as a result of a macro analysis? If so, in what respects are the high parental education group children distinguishable from low parental education group children?

1.7. DATA COLLECTION

In this study we are concerned with primary school children. We used Piaget's (cited in Wardaugh 1976:153) classification of children's development according to age. The children were chosen from the concrete operations stage which is between eighteen months and eleven years. This stage is further subdivided into two as: preoperational thought stage lasting until the age of seven and concrete operational thought stage lasting until eleven. From these substages the second stage concerning children belonging to the concrete operational thought stage was selected. A total of 200 children were used for this analysis, 100 from each school. The children were asked to write about the most frightening experience they had ever had in their lives and 200 personal experience fright narratives were collected in written form. The data were elicited from two public schools, namely Şentepe Primary School and Beytepe Primary School in Ankara, Turkey. The children at Şentepe Public School represented the lower end of the scale, whereas Beytepe Public School represented the higher end of the scale because at Beytepe Primary School most of the children's parents are instructors at Hacettepe University and have a high educational level. Thus, children belonging to this group live in an academic environment on the Beytepe Campus at Hacettepe University. Consequently, this school has a different character when compared with Şentepe Primary school. On the contrary, children at Şentepe Primary School have parents whose educational level is very low. Furthermore, they also have poor economical conditions. They mostly live in the suburbs of Ankara near Karşıyaka graveyard.

1.8. METHOD

The data analysis section of the dissertation is composed of two parts: a sociolinguistic analysis and a linguistic analysis.

In order to carry out the sociolinguistic analysis for making group definitions for high parental and low parental education groups, a questionnaire is delivered to the parents of the children at Beytepe and Şentepe primary schools. Our aim was to obtain information about the educational background of the parents at both schools. This questionnaire also intended to inquire about the interactions of these children with family members on one hand; and their interactions with other people outside the family on the other. Thus, the written questionnaire was composed of three parts: 1-) questions obtaining information about parental education 2-) questions designed to measure interaction inside the family 3-) questions designed to measure interaction outside the family

After determining the group definitions through a questionnaire, the children are asked to write about the most frightening experience they have ever had in their lives. Their narratives are collected and this data forms the basis of our linguistic analysis.

Linguistic analysis of the data is divided into two sections: 1-micro analysis, and 2-macro analysis. The Micro analysis section is also divided into 4 sub-sections: a) lexical analysis, b) syntactic analysis, c) temporal analysis and d) semantic analysis.

In the lexical analysis section, M.A.K. Halliday's (1976) word class categories are used as the framework of our analysis. These categories can be listed as follows:

a) Noun: Concrete Nouns, Abstract Nouns, Proper Nouns

b) Adjective

c) Pronoun: Personal Pronouns, Reflexive Pronouns, Reciprocal Pronouns, Possessive Pronouns, Indefinite Pronouns, Interrogative Pronouns and Demonstrative Pronouns

d) Verbs: Material Verbs, Behavioural Verbs, Mental Verbs, Verbal Verbs, Relational Verbs and Existential Verbs

In the Syntactic Analysis section, Brown and Miller's (1991) and Kornfilt's (1997) syntactic analysis is adopted for the analysis of child narratives. These categories are as follows:

- a) Sentence types according to structure: simple sentences, compound sentences, complex sentences and compound-complex sentences
- b) Sentences according to verb types: predicates, copulatives and existentials.
- c) Conjunctions: additives, adversatives, causals and temporals

In the Temporal Analysis section, Kornfilt's (1997) classification of temporal elements were adopted for the analysis of narratives. The categories are given as follows:

- a) Tenses: Narrative Past Tense, Definite Past Tense, Progressive Tense, Future Tense, Present Tense+Narrative Past Tense, Progressive Tense, Narrative Past Tense+Definite Past Tense and Future Tense+Definite Past Tense
- b) Other Temporal Characteristics: passives, causatives, reflexives and mood markers

In the semantic analysis section, Kırın and Kırın's (2003) semantic analysis is adopted for the analysis of narratives: The semantic categories that are used in the analysis are: 1) Family, Kinship Relations, 2) Time Concept, 3) Foreign People, 4) Foreign Space, 5) Open Space, 6) Closed Space, 7) Belongings, 8) Parts of the Body, 9) Animals, 10) Seasons, 11) Geographical Space and 12) Vehicles

In the Macro Analysis section, William Labov's narrative structures are used as the method of analysis. Thus, the narratives of children are analyzed in terms of the following six categories: 1) Abstract, 2) Orientation, 3) Complicating Action, 4) Result or Resolution, 5) Coda 6) Evaluation

In all these sections the, children's narratives are analyzed within a quantitative analysis framework. The frequencies of the linguistic elements of the two groups of narratives, that is the narratives of the children belonging to high parental education and low parental education groups are calculated and presented through tables.

The results of the two groups are also compared and contrasted. These results dependent upon the significant findings of the data analysis. In our study, the values that are found to be insignificant are also analyzed separately by carrying out a variety analysis. The results of this analysis for the two groups are also compared and contrasted and presented through tables.

1.9. METHOD USED FOR EVALUATION

Computerized evaluation of the data was conducted by Yasemin Genç. The program used for this purpose is SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences).

One of our aims in this study was to define Beytepe and Şentepe groups in terms of their interaction inside the family and outside the family. To find out this correlation, Pearson Correlation Coefficient method was used.

Because of the fact that the narrative texts of children were different in terms of the number of words used, standardization was applied. As a result, Non-parametrical test Mann-Whitney was applied when comparing the differences of personal experience narratives of children between the Beytepe and Şentepe groups. However, the variety analysis of insignificant lexical and semantic items were labelled and counted by hand. Later, their percentages were taken. Labovian macro analysis was not standardized because the parameters were valued according to the whole text. Only for the macro analysis of the study the chi-square test was applied.

The computer program was designed in a way to bring answers to the questions we raise in the beginning of the research.

1.10. BOUNDARIES OF THE RESEARCH

Our research concerns only written narratives. Thus, oral narratives are beyond the scope of this dissertation. The study would probably be different if spoken discourse was taken into consideration. Furthermore, the research is concerned only with children who are between the ages of 9 and 10. This means that the study does not aim at finding age

related differences. Therefore, the study is not a developmental one. In this study only personal experience narratives are analyzed. Other types, such as fictional narratives and vicarious experience narratives, are not taken into consideration. Lastly, this study deals with only one variable, which is the educational level of the parents.

1.11. OUTLINE OF THE STUDY

This study is organized into four sections. The first one contains brief introductory information about the subject, the aim, research questions, data collection and the method of the study. The second chapter, Literature Review on narratives, provides information on the basic reasons of children's telling narratives, types of narratives, approaches to the analysis of narratives and previous studies carried out on the development of narratives in children. The third chapter, Analysis of data and discussion, provides a sociolinguistic and linguistic analysis of the data in terms of the two groups of children. In other words, Chapter 3 presents the findings of our micro and macro analysis and compares and contrasts the results in terms of Beytepe and Şentepe Primary Schools. The fourth chapter, Conclusion, provides both an interpretation of the results and future remarks.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW ON NARRATIVES

Chapter II mainly focuses on the following topics that form the theoretical framework of the study: 1) Basic reasons of children's telling narratives, 2) Types of narratives, 3) Approaches to the analysis of narratives, 4) Previous studies carried out on the development of narratives in children.

2.1. BASIC REASONS OF CHILDREN'S TELLING NARRATIVES

2.1.1 Making sense of the world

Narratives are scattered all around; they are everywhere; inside our lives; starting from our family life. Young children's parents sing them lullabies, songs, they teach rhymes to their children. Then the child is brought up with narratives while growing up so that he becomes able to read and tell narratives of himself (Berger 1997:9).

Children categorize the things they perceive around the world according to their age, their personality and their goals in life. According to Nelson (cited in Engel 1995:29) children experience their day as scripts or routines and they use these scripts or routines to understand how the things in the world work. The reason for their doing so depends on their trial to understand the world around them. (Engel 1995:29).

In telling stories or listening to the narratives, children have two purposes in Bruner's (cited in Engel 1995:35) terms: cool and hot functions, By 'cool' function the physical world around us is mentioned. It is related to how things, people, actions are arranged. In other words, the 'cool' function is related to cognition. The 'Hot' function can be interpreted as the emotional side of physical actions. For example, the hot function deals with such concerns as why is my mother angry? etc. So it deals with the psychological side of events and tries to account for the emotional side of them (Engel 1995:29).

According to Berger(1997:9-10) universal issues that a child's mind will try to find a reasonable relation can be answered through the help of narratives to which the child listens. He continues by saying that narratives are a vehicle for human beings to learn about the world around them.

2.1.2. Problem Solving

Engel (1995:84) points out that sometimes children prefer telling narratives to themselves. This is due to their trial to organize events mentally, to place the events experienced in a mental framework and their trial to gain cognitive and/or emotional skill by experience, it is in this way that they are able to work on a cognitive or emotional puzzle.

When children are solving events logically by order and causality around them, narratives carry a puzzle-solving character. As children get older, they attempt to solve more complex puzzles by getting help from narratives. At this puzzle solving stage, the use of logical inference forms such as 'but', 'so', 'because' is striking, or they display their state of knowledge by using 'may be', 'certainly' or 'probably' (Engel 1995:36).

Bruner (1990:86) points out the fact that when the child's desires are in conflict with the desires of the parents, the child recognizes the fact that action is not enough to obtain what he wants. In order to achieve what he wants, it is necessary for him to present and appropriate narrative. He must tell the right story. This is what the child learns to do in the family environment. Therefore, narrative telling is not only recounting events, but also a form of rhetoric. It is surprising to see children using their narratives to deceive, to justify, to get what they want. In order to solve problems around them, children know how to use their narratives effectively.

2.1.3. Making Emotional Sense of the World

Narratives have emotional and cognitive functions. It is possible for us to come close to the people we love by the use of language effectively (Engel 1995:38). In order to obtain what we want, the way we present our ideas, the way we put actions into words is more important than anything else. Children learn that they can do many things with narratives, especially if illocutionary actions are considered (Bruner 1990:86).

2.1.4. Becoming Part Of the Culture

The child must join the social world. For this to happen, he must acquire the funny considered things in that community, such as the things people are fond of hearing, the amount of detail that can be given to the other person and the privacy of certain things (Engel 1995:47).

Narratives are valuable sources for children to obtain information from the social world in which they are living and by getting the needed information they are able to function in the society. As a result, narratives contribute the child in becoming a member of the community he has to join (Engel 1995:47). The child becomes socialized by the help of narratives.

To sum up the issue, Bruner's (1990:84) words about the importance of culture can be given as follows: "All narrative environments are specialized for cultural needs, all stylize the narrator as a form of self, all define kinds of relations between narrator and interlocutor".

2.1.5. Making and Keeping Friends

Children establish rapport with each other by means of telling narratives. Telling narratives is a warming up activity for the child, especially while they are playing with

each other. Subsequently, the narratives they tell to each other about their life experiences enable them to become close friends (Engel 1995:49).

After learning about the world around them; children want to share their world knowledge with others. They want to transfer this knowledge. This is because they are in need of belonging to a social place, they are in need of being loved by their families and their friends (Berger 1997:10).

2.1.6. Constructing a Self

Engel(1995:55) remarks that ‘When children tell stories about who they might be, wish they were, imagine being, they are trying on one of the other selves that are part of the entire self we each ultimately are’.

While telling stories, children put themselves into an appropriate place to reflect the gap between ideal and real, self and society (Riessman 1993:3). Children try to construct a self for themselves. Consequently, they satisfy themselves and their needs.

2.1.7. Inventing and Adapting

Narrative invention ‘is a process of massaging of reality’ (Schank 1946:35). It depends on the teller and on his aims to create the narrative he plans. Schank(1946:35) mentions the fact that ‘invention is not a process that comes from nowhere’. Narratives are not formed immediately from our mind. Children may alter past experiences and form narratives (Schank 1946:33).

Narratives are a medium for mental development to take place (Engel 1995:57). For a child, the narrative is not only recounting of what happened, but rather a form of rhetoric (Bruner 1990:86). At the beginning, the child learns what is right or wrong by observing the family environment. He learns them as actions. It is only later that he puts those actions into words(Bruner 1990:85). Howader he knows that he must put the

actions into words effectively. In order to obtain what he wants, the way he presents his knowledge, the way he puts actions into appropriate words is more important than anything else.

2.2. TYPES OF NARRATIVES

There are basically three types of narratives:

2.2.1 Personal Experience Narratives

Personal Experience Narratives are seen as the most important narratives that children tell (Engel 1995:84). In this type of narrative, informants talk about their real life experiences. That is, what they see, what they observe in real life. Personal experience narratives are termed as everyday experiences. (Riessman 1993:2). Shiro(2003:176) defines personal experience narratives by the following words: “In personal experience narratives, the child makes reference to an autobiographical episode”.

According to Engel(1995:85) personal experience narratives:

“are typically told in advance of the experience as a kind of summary reflection on the day’s events. The organization of experience (what came first, what happened next, and so on) drives the narrative, as does the mental push to set experience in a time and space framework”.

Apart from daily activities children tend to tell each other their novel experiences. Engel (1995:85) gives an example of a child in a nursery school:

“This morning my mom gave me Rice Krispies with lots of sugar. And you know what the snap crackle pop said to me? It said, ‘Soon it’s going to be summer, and I’m the strongest boy in the world’. As can be observed from the child’s words, instead of talking about what he ate and other daily

things, he mentioned something unusual; he created an animate character and he made him tell that he will be the strongest boy in the world.”

Engel(1995:85) points out that even very young children are aware of the fact that there is an audience and they know that if only they create good narratives, they can raise their interest. It is because of audience awareness that children try to create a novel narrative.

Personal experience narratives are told in order to share our thoughts, experiences, feelings with others, to give information about ourselves, reflect our feelings related to an event we have experienced and to find rational reasons for experiences we and others have experienced (Engel 1995:84).

2.2.2. Fictional Narratives

Fictional narratives are told from a third person point of view because the event and the characters are distant and the narrator looks at the events from a third person point of view (Shiro 2003:176). Shiro(2003:176) (cited in Berman & Slobin, 1994) points out the property of fictional narratives by the following words: In fictional narratives ‘The child narrates a film that has been seen by a large audience’. The child may produce the narrative from a film he has seen or from a comic strip or (audio) visual source

2.2.3. Vicarious Experience Narratives

It is quite common for people to tell vicarious experience narratives by reflecting the experiences other have had. Shiro(2003:175) defines this type of narrative as ‘a personal narrative told from third person point of view’. The recalling of events that someone has experienced is more difficult than telling your own personal event. Vicarious Experience Narratives are the narratives of others and we try telling them by remembering them as much as we can though it is not so simple to remember them exactly(Schank 1946:36).

2.3. APPROACHES TO THE ANALYSIS OF NARRATIVES

The place of narratives in children's cognitive, psychological and linguistic development has attracted the attention of many researchers since the 1970's. Due to this interest in the issue, many approaches have been used. In this section it is necessary to mention the significant approaches that have contributed to the field.

2.3.1. Structural Approaches to the Analysis of Narratives

Since the 1970's, studies have tended to focus on the formal structure of narratives rather than showing how children use narratives to reflect symbolic action (Nicolopoulou 1997:179).

The structural analysis of narratives were carried out by Propp's morphological analysis of the folktale (Nicolopoulou 1997:182). Vladimir Propp's book *Morphology of the Folktale* appeared in 1928, but it is only in the year 1958 that the book achieved its success in an English translation. In his book, Propp connected all Russian tales and defined them according to the structural components he developed (Asher 1994:2680). Propp was a leader in forming a complex pattern of structural similarities. According to Propp, the characters might change through time and according to events, but the functions that those characters perform are constant and can easily be predicted. It is only when his work spread to Europe and the United States, he received a success. The common structures he brought to tales are applicable to any narrative (Leeming 1997:372).

Propp (Berger1997:24) introduces 31 functions that each character fullfills in fairy tales. These functions can account for all fairytales. It is because of this feature of the model that his work is marked as universal. Some examples of these functions are struggle, victory, pursuit, deliverance, trickery, lack, departure, etc. The functions introduced have an internal patterning inside the model. For example, struggle and victory, and pursuit and deliverance form pairs inside the model.

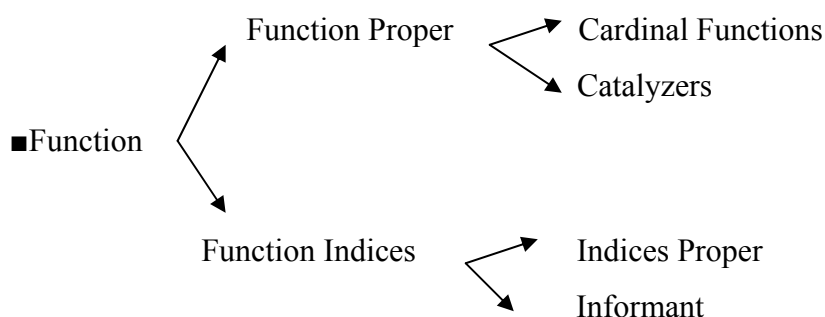
The criticisms directed to Propp cluster at three points. One point is its emphasis on form rather than content (Zeyrek 1990). Another point is its ignoring the cultural context of the tales (Asher 1994:2681).

The third point is its use of limited corpus in his analysis. Wallace (1986:91) mentions this item by the following words:

“Propp tried to describe and classify the surface level of a limited corpus—what actually happens in the stories—and to reduce if not eliminate subjective interpretations that could distort his search for abstract forms. Even more valuable than the results he obtained, from the point of view of French structuralists, were his discussions of theory and method, which served as a starting point for a new type of narrative analysis and at the same time established some of its limitations”.

On the contrary, as well as these criticisms, Berger (1997:24-25) asserts the importance of Propp’s analysis by pointing out that the functions Propp introduces can still be applied to all modern narratives such as novels, plays, comic strips, films, and television programs through adaptation to modern situations. Therefore, the theory can help researchers to understand the structure of all kinds of narratives. However, the theory’s applicability to all narratives creates problems due to the fact that some scholars with nationalistic perspectives would think Russian narratives as different and superior from others (Leeming 1997:372).

Following Propp, Roland Barthes constructs a theory of his own deductive model for the structural analysis of narrative at discourse level. In this theory, he introduces three levels of narrative structure that can be given through the following schema:



■Action

■Narration

(Barthes 1996:45)

According to the model of Barthes there are three levels of analysis. These are: 1) Function 2) Action 3) Narration. Barthes(1988:105) kept the Proppian term function defining it as “a unit of content: it is what a statement means which constitutes it as a functional unit” and stated that every function can help to start a narrative. (Asher 1994:2682) Then, functions are further subdivided into two as:

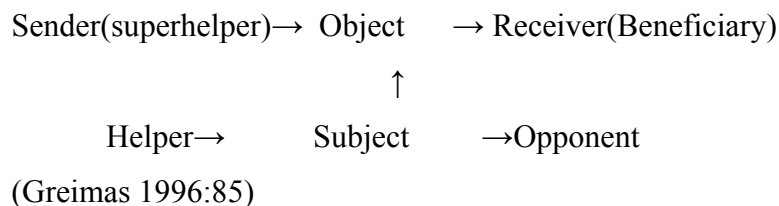
1) Functions Proper 2) Functions Indices

By dividing functions into two, Barthes mentions the fact that some narratives are completely functional as folktales. On the other hand, there are narratives that are indexical as psychological novels (Asher 1994:2682) (Barthes 1988:107-109).

Functions Proper is then divided into two as Cardinal functions and Catalyzers. Barthes states that cardinal functions are risky moments where events can change in two different directions and catalyzers are ‘fill in’ elements that depend on Cardinal functions. Moreover, in addition to these functions, a narrative has indices which are subcategorized as Indices Proper and Informants. Indices proper can be defined as the character portrayal of a narrative agent. Informants identify the space and time of the action (Asher 1994:2682) (Barthes 1988:107-109).

In Barthes's model, it is difficult to identify and interpret which item is a nucleus, a catalyzer, an index proper, or an informant. Therefore, there are serious problems related to the applicability of the model(Asher 1994:2682).

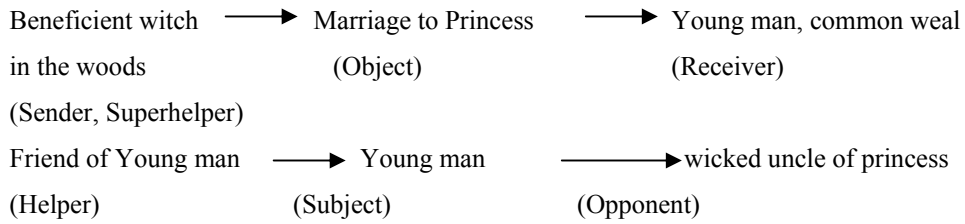
Another contributor to French Structuralism is Greimas with the "Actant Theory". According to this theory there are six character roles, or actants comprising of three interrelated pairs which are giver: receiver, subject:object, helper:opponent. The following schema shows the six roles:



The following example is given to account for the model:

"The subject or hero, perhaps a young man of lowly origin, seeks marriage to a beautiful princess(object), in which case the man will also be beneficiary (possibly the princess and the country will too). In his quest he is helped generously but with limited success by a friend or relative (helper), but their combined efforts count for little, in the struggle against some opponent (a wicked uncle of the princess, some other eligible but ignorable suitor), until a sender (better, a superhelper) such as the king, or God, or some individual with magical powers for good, intervenes (Asher 1994:2686)".

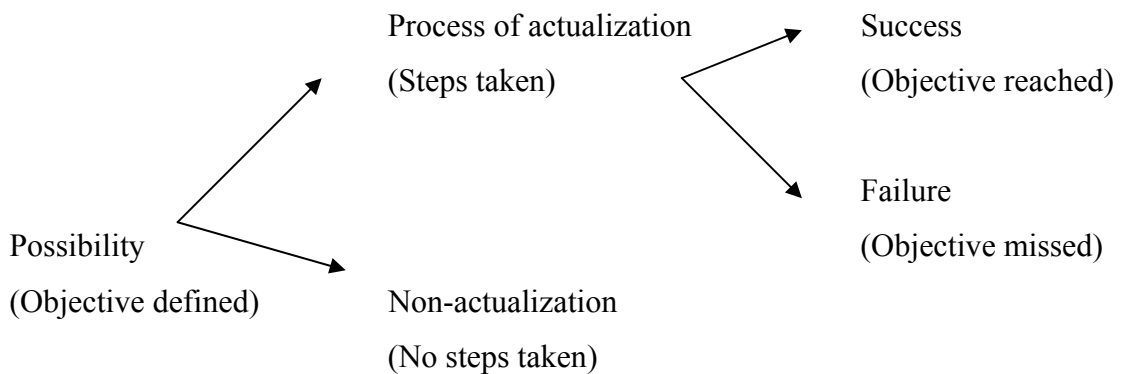
It is possible to show this narrative according to the actant model in the following way:



(Toolan 2001:83)

According to Toolan (2001:184) although the model is very simple in its nature it can be applied to many texts. Nevertheless, he mentions the fact that the two roles, sender and object, are not suitable for application in modern narratives because the values judged as valuable have changed a great deal in modern times. The object of modern narratives may be abstract notions rather than concrete ones such as happiness, self-knowledge, liberation etc. For example, in the film Rocky/Rambo America represents the superpower.

One of the pioneer scholars in the development of structuralism is considered to be Claude Bremond. Like other structuralists, he builds his theory for explaining narratives depending on Proppian term function. In his theory, he introduces three functions which are possibility, process, and result. The functions he introduces have alternative possibilities. It is possible to demonstrate his model through the following table:



(Bremond 1996) (Kenan-Rimmon 1983: 22)

According to Bremond (1996:63)

“a first grouping of three functions creates the elementary sequence. This triad corresponds to the three obligatory phases of any process: a function which opens the process: a function which opens the process in the form of an act to be carried out or of an event which is foreseen; a function which achieves this virtuality in the form of an actual act or event; and a function which closes the process in the form of an attained result.”

As can be observed through the schema, Bremond has given possibilities for the actions in the narrative. The schema shows the movements that can take place in the narrative.

From the model Bremond has introduced, it can be observed that he has brought alternatives into the analysis of narratives by linking two ideas: narrative necessity and narrative liberty (Grosse 1977:164).

Although the methods of structuralist theories differ from each other, all the models assume two items: one is that the abstract levels that are considered to be different superficially are the same underneath; the other one is that it is possible to separate narrative from the events it is about (Johnstone 2001).

2.3.2. Psycholinguistic Approaches To The Analysis Of Narratives

It was Chomsky's structural linguistics which gave rise to this abstract formalist psycholinguistic approach. Basically, the approach tries to specify 'story grammar frameworks that allow the mind to recognize, comprehend, and recall particular narratives'. Inspired by Chomskian transformational grammar, this approach 'attempts to specify the smallest possible set of context-free generative rules that would allow an actual narrative to be produced and comprehended' (Nicolopoulou 1997:183-184).

In essence, in story grammar analysis

“the person in general, and the child in particular, are viewed as basically active and rational _as logical seekers and organizers of information who use cognitive schemata in a goal-oriented way to make decisions in the behavioral domain”

(Bamberg and Moissinac 2003:409).

There are special rules for explaining the structure of narratives. These rules can be considered as regularities that appear repeatedly in every text. Thus, this lack of variation in the narratives provided the formation of schema theory. The underlying structure of narratives is expressed by the following story grammar rules:

Story Grammar Rules

Story → Setting, episode

Episode → Beginning, development, ending

Development → Complex reaction, goal path

(Renkema 1993:122)

According to Story Grammar the narratives begin with a setting that has a protagonist including statements about time and place of the narrative. Setting is followed by episodes. In story grammar model, all the narratives have the same structure that does not change despite there being big differences in the contents of the narratives (Mandler 1984). It is usual for narratives to begin with a setting which gives information about the time and place of the narrative. Setting is then followed by one or more episodes which form the plot of the narrative. An episode has a beginning constituent which consists of events. After the constituent comes the development part. In the development part, the protagonist of the narrative reacts to the events experienced in the beginning part. After this simple reaction, the protagonist tries to do something for the events observed in the beginning part. Then, at the end of the narrative, the protagonist may be successful or he may fail. Consequently, the episode may end by the typical words “They lived happily ever after” (Mandler 1984:22). Moreover, Mandler (1984:23) points out the fact that the constituents have different kinds of connections to the following constituent. For example, setting and the following constituent have atemporal relation with the conjunction ‘and’.

There are certain criticisms of this theory. The first criticism of the theory is its not completely defined categories, such as setting, episode, event, etc. However, the categories like noun, verb, adjective, etc. can easily be defined when compared with the categories of story grammar.

The second criticism about the story grammar model is related to the subjectivity of the model. It is pointed out that the model depends highly on the theorist's interpretations of the narratives. Therefore, it is regarded as arbitrary and not objective in some respects (Brown and Yule 1983:116-121).

Rumelhart (1975) has also introduced another story grammar to explain the structure of narratives. However, because of the similarities of his grammar to that of Mandler's, his model will not be explained within this framework.

2.3.3. The Sociolinguistic Approaches To The Analysis Of Narratives

William Labov and Joshua Waletzky (1967 as cited in Renkema, 1993) started analyzing narratives by approaching the task from a different perspective. They asked the question 'how do people tell each other narratives in everyday life?'. The aim of asking this question was to find out if there was a relation between the social characteristics of narrative tellers and the structure of their narratives. For this purpose, Labov and Waletzky collected narratives from people belonging to different social classes. The investigation provided information on the structure of Personal experience narratives (Renkema 1993:120). According to Labov, (1972:354) in personal experience narratives "the speaker becomes deeply involved in rehearsing or even reliving events of his past."

In this work, Labov and Waletzky wanted people to talk about dangerous or embarrassing experiences. Fourteen of the narratives told formed the basis of 'Narrative Analysis: Oral Versions of Personal Experience' which was published in the proceedings of the 1966 meeting of the American Ethnological Society (Johnstone, 2001).

Labov introduced two types of functions that are essential for a fully formed narrative. The first function is the referential function and the second one is the evaluative function. In Labovian (1972) terminology, referential function refers to ‘event constellation’, while evaluative function refers to the ‘function of personal interest determined by a stimulus in the social context in which the narrative occurs’. Referential clauses refer to the events, characters and setting. Evaluative clauses give information about why the narrative is worth telling and why it is worth listening for the audience (Johnstone, 2001).

Labov’s story structure consists of five components as the following:

- 1- Abstract: This section is a brief summary of the narrative. It gives signals to mark the transition to the narrative. For example a sentence beginning as ‘Did I ever tell you about....’ or another sentence beginning as ‘You’ll never guess what happened....’.
- 2- Orientation: This part gives information about time, place and characters, situations.
- 3- Complicating Action: This section informs the audience about what happened.
- 4- Evaluation: This part explains why the narrative is worth telling.
- 5- Result or Resolution: This section informs the audience about how the complicating action was resolved.
- 6- Coda: It can be a general observation concerning the effects of the events on the narrator. It can be about how he felt after having such an experience such as ‘It was funny’.

(Georgakopoulou and Goutsos 1997:60)

Asher (1994:2696) points out the success of Labov’s theoretical framework by the following words:

“Labov’s scheme really only attracted wider attention when he applied it in the study of a cultural phenomenon of rather more political contention than

Propp's Russian fairytales: he used the model to highlight the logic and structure of oral narratives elicited from lower-class young black males in New York City".

By using this analytical model as a basis of their study, Labov and Waletzky try to find a relation between the narrator's social characteristics and the structure of his narratives. As a result of this analysis, they fail to find a relation between social status and narrative structure (Renkema 1993:122). Moreover, Shiro (2003:172) mentions the fact that Labov's work on Personal Experience Narratives aimed to prove that the underlying deep structure of all narratives were the same but social differences were solely on the surface structure. Labov proved that inner city children displayed no structural differences with their narratives when compared to high socioeconomic status children.

Labov analyzed oral narratives of adults and adolescents composed spontaneously, however, the approach was applied mostly to child narratives (Nicolopoulou 1997:187).

The emergence of Labovian sociolinguistic analysis is a reaction to the story grammar model representing extreme formalism. Nicolopoulou (1997:186) points out that this reaction to formalism was only partial.

Story grammar perceived narrative activity rather formally and the people narrating as 'information processing systems'. However, after story grammar, Labov's sociolinguistic framework focussed on the subjective and emotive side of narrating and carried narrative studies to a different place (Peterson and McCabe 1983:166 cited in Georgakolopou and Goutsos 1997).

Renkema (1993:122) points out the shortcomings of Labov's framework by the following words: "For the rest, Labov and Waletzky's story structure provides a good general framework for the analysis of stories, but for a detailed analysis more precise distinctions are necessary". Therefore, although Renkema accepts that Labovian framework accounts for the analysis of narratives to a great extent, for a more detailed analysis more precise distinctions must be made.

2.3.4. Functional Psycholinguistic Approaches To The Analysis Of Narratives

This approach is mainly based on the application of functional grammar theories by psycholinguists in order to account for children's narratives. Nicolopoulou (1997:185) mentions the concern of this approach by the following words:

“This research paradigm is to map the linguistic structures within which various linguistic devices (e.g., lexical, syntactic, or semantic) are used to achieve certain functions in the process of the communicative use of language. In the case of narrative, these functions include establishing the temporal or causal sequence of events, managing background-foreground relations, and achieving overall coherence”.

These cohesive devices tie discourse together. Therefore, children's mastery of these cohesive devices are subject to analysis of the researchers analyzing child narratives.

In this approach, the grammars of Halliday and Hasan (1976); Hopper (1979), Silverstein (1985, 1987) are used in order to explain the structure of child narratives. Halliday has introduced a detailed word class category and these categories have been applied to a variety of studies as a theoretical framework by many researchers. In Halliday's word class categories, nouns, verbs, pronouns, adverbs, conjunctions and a detailed analysis of the lexical category types are included. Thus, although Halliday and other grammarians did not produce a theory to describe the structure of narratives, the use of their theory contributed much to narrative studies. The followers of this approach are Peterson and McCabe and their associates.

2.3.5. Cognitively Based Linguistic Approaches To The Analysis Of Narrative

Beaugrande (1980:254) emphasized the view that structurally based theories are “specific to a language, a topic, or a cultural domain, whereas cognitively based theories may be UNIVERSAL”. Therefore, in the model he introduces, he stresses the universal validity of his theoretical framework. Beaugrande(1980:256) introduces six STORY-

TELLING STRATEGIES to account for the understanding of narratives. These strategies are:

- “■ Create a STORY-WORLD with at least one CHARACTER.
- Identify an INITIAL STATE, a PROBLEM, and a GOAL STATE for the character.
- Initiate a pathway that attempts to resolve the problem and attain the goal state.
- Block or postpone the attainment of the goal state.
- Mark one event or action as a TURNING POINT.
- Create a FINAL STATE identified as matching the goal state.”

According to Beaugrande (1980:256), “these strategies can be applied recursively generating STORY EPISODES of varying complexity or number”. Beaugrande (1980:256) defines episode as “a space in a story-world with an initial state, a problem, a turning point, and a goal state”.

In Beaugrande’s (1980:256) model there are essential elements which are used in a narrative. These are: characters, perspectives, protagonists, antagonists and turning points.

It can be observed from the strategies put forward by Beaugrande’s model that the strategies have cognitive characteristics.

Stein and Albro (1997) also take a cognitive approach to the analysis of narratives and they analyze child narratives. They thought that in order to organize content and structure into a coherent unit, narration would have to depend on cognitive abilities. Moreover, they pointed out that narrative abilities develop in parallel to other cognitive domains such as memory, language, and reasoning abilities. According to them, in order to obtain good narratives, one has to acquire the knowledge of rules to be understood and appreciated.

2.3.6. Interactionist Approaches To The Analysis Of Narratives

Quasthoff (1997) takes an interactionist perspective to the analysis of narratives. The domain of inquiry of the approach can be mentioned as follows:

“The interactive moves of participants become highly relevant for the investigation of how a narrative comes to existence in an interaction, how it is maintained, and how it is terminated”

(Quasthoff 1997:45).

Quasthoff's approach is similar to conversation analysis. Polanyi (1985:188) explains the method of conversation analysis by the following words:

“As the talk moves out of here and now of the conversation into a storyworld involving another time, often another place, and actors other than those carrying on the conversation, there is a clear expectation that ‘what happened when’ in that other time and place will become clear”.

Bamberg (1997:45) states that

“the activity of narrating is achieved discursively as an interactive process, within which the narrator has been granted the floor to narrate, and the comments and interjections of the listener are in the service of the constitution of the narrative product”.

He does not see the person as an individual existence because for the activity of narrating two participants who are of equal importance are required. For example, in the case of children, there is a child who is less competent than the adult participant.

2.4. Previous Studies Carried Out On Narrative Development In Children

Narrative development is a multi-dimensional phenomena. Therefore, many factors affect the development of narratives in children. Age, social class, educational level and

parental attitude are some of them. Besides mentioned factors, teacher-child interaction, school setting and culture play an important role in the development of narratives. This section will present some representative articles to mention about those factors.

There are studies that focus on the effect of age on narrative development. The studies carried out by Eaton and others (1999), Wigglesworth (1997), Peterson and Dodsworth (as cited in Carroll 1994), Hudson and Shapiro (1991), Peterson and McCabe (1991), Hicks (1991) and Aksu-Koç (1988) are some of those studies that need to be mentioned.

In a study by Eaton and others (1999), 160 children aged five, seven, nine and eleven years were chosen. Silent video recording was used to elicit the narratives. Their study aimed at investigating the use of evaluative devices by young children aged five, seven, nine and eleven by means of showing a silent video recording. The results indicated that as the age increases the use of evaluative expressions in narratives increases.

In Wigglesworth's study(1997), 20 subjects in each age group (four, six, eight, ten years and adult) were asked to form a narrative from a picture book. The references to which children refer in their narratives were coded for form (Nominal/Pronominal) and function (Switch/maintenance). It was found that the use of strategies increased by age.

Children's establishing coherence between successive sentences has been studied extensively. In a study by Peterson and Dodsworth (in Carroll 1994:304), the use of cohesive ties of children who were at the age of 2 years and 3 years 6 months were examined. They found that Halliday's cohesive ties, such as reference pronouns, reference demonstratives, verbal ellipsis, clausal ellipsis, conjunctions and lexical cohesion were used even by 2-year-olds. However, the use of other devices, such as comparative reference, nominal ellipsis, and substitution were related to the increase in the age of the child.

Another age related study is Hudson and Shapiro's (1991) research. They studied 37 first and third grade preschool children from lower-middle-class families. Children produced narrative tasks about birthday parties, doctor's, Halloween and trips. All interviews were tape-recorded and transcribed verbally. As a result, as the age

increased, children included more elements. For example, connective use is related to the increase in age.

Peterson and McCabe(1991) elicited Personal narratives of 96 children in different age groups. The question ‘Have you ever been to the doctor‘ was asked to the children participating in the study. The study aimed at analyzing the connective use of children in clauses according to Labov’s theoretical framework. In conclusion, it was found that the use of certain conjunctions mark the macrostructure of narratives.

Hicks (1991) studied 37 preschool children, 38 first graders, 34 third graders from lower-middle class. Each child produced four narratives that is one for each. The number of propositions were counted in each narrative. The findings were evaluated in terms of cohesion. The children’s use of relative clauses, prepositional phrases and anaphoric reference were analyzed. As a result of the analysis, the use of aforementioned cohesive devices were not found significant with age.

Shiro (2003:165-195) studied the effect of age and social class on the development of narratives. In the study, 113 children’s 444 narratives were collected orally. The study was elicited in 3 private and 3 public schools in Caracas, Venezuela. The chosen schools are in contrast with each other in terms of parent’s occupation, income level, education and living standards. The study aims at understanding how social differences affect narrative development. The sample consists of monolingual Spanish-speaking children in the first and fourth grade. Two tasks elicited fictional narratives and two elicited personal narratives. Each narrative was analyzed according to evaluative devices such as emotion, cognition, perception, physical state, intention, relation and reported speech. In the study, the frequency of evaluative expressions in fictional narratives and personal experience narratives are observed. As a result of the analysis, an age related increase was found in Fictional narratives of middle class children, but in working class children there was no age related increase in fictional narratives. There was no development in either social class in the frequency of evaluative expressions in Personal experience narrative. Furthermore, it was observed that the evaluative categories used in Fictional narrative increased with age in both social groups but it did

not seem so in Personal experience narrative. But Shiro pointed out that the length of narratives increased as children's age and socioeconomic status increased.

There are some studies that focus on the effect of parent child exchanges on narrative development. The studies carried out by Peterson and others (1999) and McCabe and Peterson (1991) are the representative examples of this type. The impact of Parental Attitude on narrative development is studied by Peterson and others. In this study, 20 children from lower class families participated with their mothers . The mothers were assigned to an intervention group and their mothers' styles of eliciting narratives from their children were marked before and after the intervention. Intervention lasted for 12 months. Intervention mothers were encouraged to spend more time in narrative conversation with their children. At the beginning and end of the intervention period, a vocabulary test was given to the children. As a result, it was found that intervention children's use of vocabulary improved after the study and a year later their narrative skills also improved. While narrating intervention children specified when and where the events took place. Moreover, they were able to decontextualize the language they use and give adequate information while narrating.

Another study that focused on parental attitude factor is McCabe and Peterson's (1991) research, which asserts that individual differences between children are related to the parental strategies for eliciting narratives at home. Similarly, another study was also presented by these researchers. They were interested in parental strategies that helped the children to extend their narratives. Thus, parents tape recorded their child's personal experience narratives at home. Moreover, parent's open-ended questions initiating new topics as in the example "What did you do at school today?" and several other questions were analyzed according to Dickinson's analysis. The correlation of the number of narratives produced by the children with the number of questions directed by the parents to the children was taken. As a result, McCabe and Peterson point out that parents eliciting information from their children differ from each other. They found that open-ended questions and clarifying questions lengthened children's narratives while topic switching caused shorter narrative forms. At the end of the study, they pointed out that at the age of two there was not any natural storyteller.

Dickinson (1991) studied the effect of school activities on narrative development. As a result of the analysis, it was found that activity and meal times did not have an effect on the production of narratives.

Michaels (1991) studied oral sharing time narratives and writing activities and he pointed out that teacher factor makes the narratives indifferent and homogeneous in form because teachers seek a certain form of narrative.

The effect of cultural factors on narrative development has also been studied by Gee (1998). In Gee's study, two styles of narrative development are analyzed. Gee presents a linguistic analysis of two narratives. One told by an 11 year old black girl, while the other is told by an 11 year old white middle class girl. The study focuses on cultural differences. Although the black girl's style is found in many cultures of the world and rich in verbal aspect her narrative is misunderstood. This misunderstanding is due to the cultural identity and different presentation of self.

Aksu-Koç (1988) studied the development of temporal elements in Turkish that show simultaneity in 3-5 and 9- year- old children and adults' narratives. A child picture book was used to obtain narratives from the informants. As a result of the analysis in relation to age groups, different results were obtained. 3 –year- olds did not produce a narrative because they narrated the pictures independently without forming a narrative while the majority of the 5 –year- olds formed a narrative following each picture. The 9 –year- olds produced narratives that were temporally well organized and formed a coherent whole. Adults, as expected, formed more complex narratives that had a higher degree of cohesion. Also, 3 –year- olds used forms such as multifunctional particle *dE* and 'o zaman' while the use of 'ama/fakat', 'bu sırada', 'öte yandan' appear at later ages. Moreover, 5 –years- olds had a tendency to use the nominal *-dik* with clauses but the nominal *-me* form was absent in their narratives. In the study it was found that the gerund *-Erek* appeared later than the gerund *-Ip*.

In a dissertation written by Özcan (2005) children's (from 3- to 9- plus 13 –year- olds) and adults' use of temporal elements in order to arrange the macro temporal structure of narratives was investigated. Wordless picture book *Frog, where are you?* was used as a stimulus. The collected data was transcribed and analyzed according to Labov's

theoretical framework. As a result, it was found that 3- and 4 –year- olds did not produce narratives. 5 –year- olds produced narratives, but they failed to produce the internal components of episodes, while 7 –year- olds produced narratives that include necessary internal components. He concludes by pointing out that the temporal elements found in narratives differ according to age groups. As can be observed from our literature review, most of the studies about child narratives deal with age related differences in narrative production. Only a limited number of studies deal with the effect of education on the production of narratives. Furthermore, there is no study in Turkish carried out about on the effect of educational level of the parents on children’s narrative production.

The impact of the level of education on narrative development is studied by Aksu-Koç (1992). This study is not carried out on children, however, it is found significant to mention here as Aksu-Koç analyzed the effect of education on the structure of narratives. 24 adults between the ages 18 to 24 participated in the study. The participants belonged to high and low educational levels. A Turkish film was shown to them, namely ‘Fahriye Abla’. Stein and Glenn’s(1982) abstract schema was applied. This schema had narrative units such as starting event, emotional response, transference to activity and conclusion. Therefore, the narratives participants told were analyzed according to the schema of Stein and Glenn. As a result of the analysis, it was found that adults who had high educational level differ from the ones who had low educational level in certain respects. It was high educational level respondents that were able to tell their narratives in an objective manner without interacting with the interviewer. Moreover, while this group was telling their narratives, they assumed that there was an audience listening to them. However, low educational group were subjective and they were making comments about the events of the narrative more than the other group.

CHAPTER 3: ANALYSIS OF DATA AND DISCUSSION

3.1. SOCIOLINGUISTIC ANALYSIS

The discipline sociolinguistics, which is defined as “the study of language in relation to society”, deals with how people use language differently in different social contexts, and also tries to find out how language operates in society. Furthermore, it studies how language is affected by sociolinguistic factors such as income level, education, age and gender. Consequently, it is the job of a sociologist to find the correlation between language use and sociolinguistic factors (Hudson 1980:4-5).

Sociologists try to assign social class distinctions, group definitions to individuals. In attempting to form a group definition, they make use of two types of classifications. They either undergo socioeconomic ranking or they take into consideration other factors and produce different social scales (Wardhaugh 1990:121).

The first group definition in terms of socioeconomic ranking includes factors such as income level (dealing with how much money people earn), educational level (Graduate or professional education, college or university degree, attendance at college, etc.), occupational scale (major professionals, lesser professionals, unskilled workers, etc.) or other ranking systems such as sex, age, race, residential area, ethnicity.

The second group definition includes a social class designation according to factors such as church membership, leisure-time activities, or community organizations. According to Fasold (1974 as cited in Wardhaugh 1990:141) it is such a classification that is directly related to the measurement of economic factors rather than socioeconomic ranking. Furthermore, Wardhaugh (1990:141) emphasizes the fact that in order to arrive at some conclusions about social classification, ‘life style’, the consumption of goods and appearance are as important as other social ranking systems.

As explained in the method section of the dissertation, in order to make group definitions, a questionnaire is delivered to the parents of the children both at Beytepe and Şentepe Primary Schools. The first section of the questionnaire attempted to ask questions about the educational level of the students' parents. The second and third sections of the questionnaire attempted to measure the children's interaction inside and outside the family. Consequently, in our study, both ranking according to social systems and ranking according to other factors are realized through the parts of the questionnaire.

In this study, considering the socioeconomic ranking, 'educational level' of the students' parents was taken as the variable in analysing the linguistic structure of the narratives both at Beytepe and Şentepe primary schools. In addition, in order to make a more detailed definition of these groups, a social class designation analysis according to the factors of interaction inside and outside the family was also carried out. In this respect section 3.1.1.1 presents a statistical summary of the educational level of the parents at Şentepe and Beytepe Primary schools and section 3.1.1.2 presents a summary of the children's interaction inside and outside the family.

3.1.1. Group Definitions

In order to understand the social structure at Beytepe and Şentepe Primary Schools, a group definition is to be made. For this purpose, a questionnaire is designed and delivered to the parents of the children. The written questionnaire findings present us the group definitions of the Beytepe and Şentepe groups.

3.1.1.1. Educational level of the parents in Beytepe and Şentepe Primary Schools

As stated before in the previous part of the study, there are a number of indicators of social class such as income, profession, and educational level (Coulmas 2001:567). Educational level of the children's families was taken as a variable in this study. The

aim in the first part of the questionnaire was to obtain information about the educational level of the parent participating in the written questionnaire. The results of our analysis regarding the answers of the questions can be observed in the following table:

Table 1: Educational level of the parent* (Parent is used in a specific sense as the person who is responsible for the child's education)

		Education Level						
			I did not get any education	I am a Primary School graduate	I am a High School Educated	I am a University graduate	I have a Ma or Phd degree	Total
School of the student	Beytepe Primary School	Count	0	0	24	58	18	100
		% within school of the student	,0%	,0%	24.0%	58.0%	18.0%	100.0%
	Şentepe Primary School	Count	4	96	0	0	0	100
		% within school of the student	4.0%	96.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%
Total		Count	4	96	24	58	18	200
		% within school of the student	2.0%	48.0%	12.0%	29.0%	9.0%	100.0%

$$X^2 = 200 \quad p=0,000 \quad p<0.001$$

Table 1 indicates that there is a statistical difference between parent's educational level in the two schools ($p=0.000$ $p<0.001$). As it is seen, 4% of the population at Şentepe Primary School did not take any education and 96% of them are primary school graduates. However, 24% of the population at Beytepe Primary school are high school graduates and 58% of them are university graduates. Moreover, 18% of them have an MA or PHD degree.

According to Table 1, it is possible to state that the parents' educational level differs respectively in the two schools. At Şentepe Primary school, parents either do not have an education or mostly they are primary school graduates. This demonstrates the fact that Şentepe Primary school can be considered as having Low Parental Education which will be abbreviated as (LPE) from now on. On the contrary, at Beytepe Primary school, parents are either lycee or university graduates. Additionally, 14% of the population has

an MA or PHD degree. Consequently, it is possible to say that Beytepe Primary School has High Parental Education. We will refer to this group as (HPE) throughout the dissertation.

3.1.1.2. Interaction inside the family and outside the family at Beytepe and Şentepe Primary Schools

The following table demonstrates the interaction rates of children at Beytepe and Şentepe Primary Schools:

Table 2: Interaction rates of children at Beytepe and Şentepe Primary Schools

	School of the student	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Interaction inside the family	Beytepe Primary school	100	45.81	3.113	.311
	Şentepe Primary school	100	40.52	3.135	.313
Interaction outside the family	Beytepe Primary school	100	19.30	2.158	.216
	Şentepe Primary school	100	17.16	2.168	.217

$P < 0.001$

Table 2 presents a statistical summary of the interaction rates of children inside the family and outside the family in Beytepe and Şentepe Primary Schools. According to the written questionnaire, interaction inside the family value is between 20 to 58. In the Beytepe Group, interaction inside the family is 45.8. However, this value is 40.5 in the Şentepe Group ($p=0.000$ $p < 0.001$). Thus, it is possible to say that interaction inside the family is higher in the HPE group than the LPE group. This means that parents in the HPE group spend more time with their children and they interact more with them in this respect. Considering the interaction outside the family value, it can be said that it is between 9 to 26. According to the statistical results of Table 2, in the HPE Group interaction outside the family is 19.3. However, in the LPE group this value is 17.1 ($p=0.000$ $p < 0.001$). This shows that, interaction outside the family is also higher in the HPE group. Thus, a correlation is found between interaction inside the family and

interaction outside the family rates. This means that as the interaction inside the family increases, interaction outside the family also increases. The findings of this study seem to suggest that interaction in the Beytepe group, where there is high parental education, is meaningfully higher than the Şentepe group, where we observe low parental education. We can also observe this proportion between the two mentioned groups through figure 1 and figure 2.

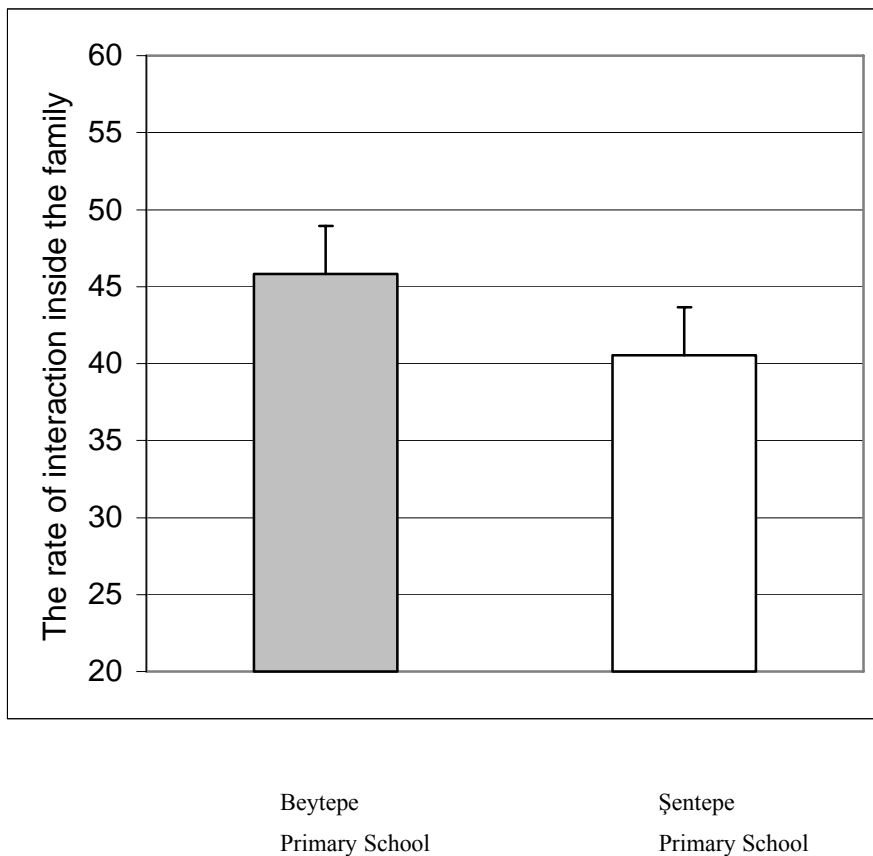


Figure 1: Interaction inside the family rates of the children at Beytepe and Şentepe Primary Schools

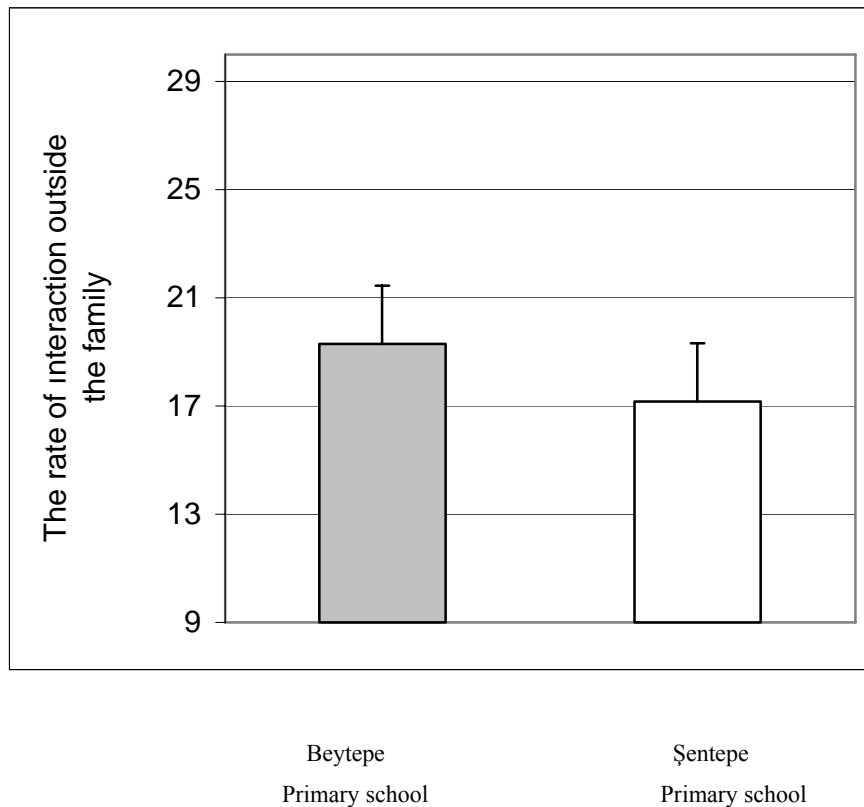


Figure 2: Interaction outside the family rates of the children at Beytepe and Şentepe Primary Schools

Like table 2, both figure 1 and figure 2 present a summary of the interaction rates in the HPE group and LPE group. This characterization of the data shows that there is a sharp distinction between the two groups. Consequently, it is possible to make group definitions. In the HPE group the interaction inside the family rate is higher than the LPE group. Therefore, the HPE group's children go to family meetings more with their parents. The HPE group parents play language games like scrabble, hangman with their children more than the LPE group. It is the HPE group that help their children with their homework more than the other group. The HPE group want their children to tell them about what they have done at school. It is possible to multiply these examples from the questionnaire. Thus, the children whose parents have a high level of education are more active and interact more inside the family. According to the results of this questionnaire, it is also possible to say that interaction inside the family is significantly higher in the HPE group when compared with the LPE group.

When we compare the HPE group and LPE group in terms of their interaction outside the family, it is possible to observe that there is a significantly high degree of interaction in the HPE group. For example, the child belonging to the HPE group joins a social activity more than a child in the LPE group. The child in the HPE group goes to the cinema or theatre more often than the child in the LPE group. The HPE group parent talks about the films or series that his child has watched more often than the LPE group. The child from the HPE group spends his spare time watching TV, reading, playing and attending courses and activities more than the LPE group. This is the reason for the higher rate of interaction outside the family in the HPE group. Therefore, it is the children whose parents have high level of education that interact more outside the family when compared with the other group. As a result, a correlation was found between family's educational level and interaction inside and outside the family. That is, in the Beytepe group, where there is high parental education, interaction inside and outside the family rises immediately. On the contrary, in the Şentepe group, where there is low parental education, interaction inside and outside the family decreases accordingly.

In this dissertation, the level of education of the parents is taken as a variable. In this respect, in order to make social class designation, it is also necessary to mention two sociological theories that differentiate lower class children from higher class children. The first theory is difference theory put forward by Labov. According to this theory, children who are brought up in different environments differ from each other in terms of the use of language. Thus, Labov concentrates on the differences between higher class children and lower class children's use of language in relation to their living conditions. The second theory is Basil Bernstein's (1985:142) theory. He claimed that lower class children were limited to a restricted code. Thus, they were not able to use the elaborated code. Moreover, he mentions that when lower class children who are lacking the skill to use the elaborated code start school and because of the extensive use of elaborated code at school, these children are forced to change their cultural patterns in order to adapt themselves to the medium of instruction at school (Wardhaugh 1990). For example, it was considered that Afro-American teenagers evaluative language use in storytelling was found to be limited to a restricted code. Contrary to this claim, research has shown that these children's use of language can not be considered as linguistically deficient or

'bad language', but rather surprisingly more advanced than white people. Consequently, it is possible to say that all children's use of language is thought to be "linguistically systematic, well-structured and not inadequate or deficient" (Holmes 1992:362).

As stated by Labov, differences were found between the high parental education group and the low parental education group. The differences found between the two social groups is related to the fact that while Beytepe Primary School has the advantage of using standard language, Şentepe Primary School does not have access to use standard language. However, this does not mean that Şentepe Primary School is inferior or deficit. They do not have access to write in standard form which can be seen as a disadvantage.

3.2. Linguistic Analysis

In this section of the dissertation, we aim to observe micro and macro structures found in the fright narratives at Beytepe and Şentepe Primary Schools. Considering the micro perspective, children's personal narratives will be analyzed in terms of four levels. These are namely lexical analysis, syntactic analysis, temporal analysis and semantic analysis. In the macro analysis of personal child narratives, we will adopt Labov's framework to the structure of child narratives.

After grouping the narratives according to linguistic characteristics, it is necessary to understand how parents' education affects narrative production in child narratives. Thus, we will try to relate linguistic characteristics and parents' educational level both at Beytepe and Şentepe Primary Schools.

3.2.1. Micro Analysis

In this section of the dissertation the micro elements found in the fright narratives of the children in Beytepe and Şentepe Primary Schools will be presented qualitatively and quantitatively.

3.2.1.1 Lexical Analysis

This section of the dissertation deals with the total number of words and the use of nouns, adjectives, pronouns and verbs found in the fright narratives of children.

Table 3: The Number of Words used in Beytepe and Şentepe Primary Schools

School of the student		WORD
BEYTEPE PRIMARY SCHOOL	N	Valid Missing
		100 0
	Mean	83.72
	Std. Error of Mean	3.808
	Median	75.00
	Std. Deviation	38.079
	Minimum	28
ŞENTEPE PRIMARY SCHOOL	Maximum	219
	N	Valid Missing
		100 0
	Mean	49.11
	Std. Error of Mean	2.135
	Median	47.00
	Std. Deviation	21.346
Minimum	8	
	Maximum	106

p=0.000

p<0.001

In Beytepe Primary School narratives, the number of words used (83.7) is more than the number of words used (49.1) at Şentepe Primary School. This demonstrates the fact that the children belonging to the HPE Group are able to write more when expressing their fright narratives.

Halliday's (1985:191) word class category is adapted the the lexical component of narratives:

3.2.1.1.1 Nouns

3.2.1.1.1.1 Concrete Nouns

These nouns can be reduced to senses, they can be observed and measured. Nouns such as pig, toy are concrete nouns (Quirk and Greenbaum 1985:247).

In Turkish, the following nouns can be given as examples: ağaç (tree), çilek (strawberry), kuş (bird), ev (house), okul (school)

Some examples of the concrete nouns found in the sample are as follows:

- 1) Sonra cesaretimizi toplayıp kapıdan içeri girdik.
- 2) O parkın etrafında ben her zaman bisiklet sürerim.

3.2.1.1.1.2 Abstract Nouns

These nouns are not observable and they can not be measured. Nouns such as difficulty, remark, love, education, freedom, wealth, sleep are abstract nouns (Quirk and Greenbaum 1985:247; Leech 1989:10).

In Turkish the following nouns are the examples of abstract nouns: duygu (emotion), düşünce (thought), akıl (mind), zeka (intelligence), sevgi (love), dostluk (friendship), mutluluk (happiness).

Some examples of the abstract nouns found in the sample are as follows:

- 3) Sonra cesaretimizi toplayıp kapıdan içeri girdik.
- 4) Bunun da gizemini çözdük ve bir daha oraya hiç gitmedik.

3.2.1.1.1.3 Proper Nouns

Collins Cobuild(1990:xxii) defines a proper noun in the following way: “A noun which refers to a particular person, place, or institution.” In English the following examples are given: Nigel, Edinburgh, Christmas.

As an example of proper nouns in Turkish Ankara, Bursa, Mehmet can be given (Underhill 1976:61).

Some examples of the proper nouns found in the sample are as follows:

- 5) Birgün Ayhan, Mertcan, Ege ve ben spor salonunun arkasında korkunç yazılar olduğunu duyduk.
- 6) O günden sonra Balıkesirden babam geldi.

3.2.1.1.2 Adjectives

Collins Cobuild (1995:62) states the fact that an adjective is used “when you want to give more information about something then you can give by using a noun alone, you can use an adjective to identify it or describe it in more detail”. In English we have examples such as: a new idea, young woman, old town(Collins Cobuild 1995:62; Leech 1989:14).

In Turkish, the following words are adjectives: açık kapı, beyaz el, boş masa, uzun yol, kızıl gök, yassı yüz, yeni ev etc (Lewis 1967:55-56).

Some related examples concerning the use of adjectives in the sample are as follows:

- 7) Çelik tabut açıldı.
- 8) Kocaman kan izleri vardı.
- 9) Bir polis vatandaşa çarpmış ve üstünü beyaz bir örtüyle örtmüşler.
- 10) Birgün bir kızgın kedi evimize girdi.

The distribution and rate of the nouns and adjectives employed in the narratives of Beytepe and Şentepe Primary Schools are as follows:

Table 4: Frequency and rate of Nouns and Adjectives employed in Beytepe and Şentepe Primary Schools

School of the student		Proper Noun	Abstract Noun	Concrete Noun	Adjective
Beytepe Primary School	N Valid	100	100	100	100
	Missing	0	0	0	0
	Mean	1.3571	4.4616	27.1160	2.0587
	Std. Error of Mean	.23511	.48889	2.11331	.18888
	Median	.0000	3.6613	24.7807	1.6261
	Std. Deviation	2.35110	4.88891	21.13314	1.88876
	Minimum	.00	.00	.00	.00
	Maximum	9.62	26.76	198.72	7.77
Şentepe Primary School	N Valid	100	100	100	100
	Missing	0	0	0	0
	Mean	1.2690	4.2384	26.8830	1.4118
	Std. Error of Mean	.23758	.39069	.85072	.18989
	Median	.0000	3.1498	26.3028	.0000
	Std. Deviation	2.37576	3.90686	8.50717	1.89893
	Minimum	.00	.00	.00	.00
	Maximum	12.50	19.30	46.67	8.00
P Value	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.580	.906	.109	.003

As observed from the table, the number of proper nouns($p=0.580$), abstract nouns($p=0.906$) and concrete nouns($p=0.109$) do not have a significant difference in the two schools ($p>0.05$). The proper noun use is 1.3 in Beytepe Primary school and it is 1.2 in Şentepe Primary school. Similarly, the use of abstract nouns in both groups is not statistically significant (4.4 and 4.2, respectively). The occurrence of concrete noun use (27.1) at Beytepe Primary school does not have statistical difference when compared to the occurrence of this type of noun (26.8) at Şentepe Primary School either. The use of adjectives in both schools were found to be statistically different as the rate is 2.05 at Beytepe Primary School and it is 1.41 at Şentepe Primary school ($p=0.003$ $p<0.01$). This finding is significant for the study. It is possible to state that the children at Beytepe Primary School used more adjectives than the Şentepe group in expressing their frightening stories.

3.2.1.1.3 Pronouns

3.2.1.1.3.1 Personal pronouns

According to Quirk and Greenbaum: ‘These pronouns function as replacements for coreferential noun phrases in preceding clauses’. (Quirk and Greenbaum 1973:103). Thus, it is personal pronouns that are used instead of nouns. In English the following personal pronouns are used: I, you, he/she, it, we, you, they (Lewis 1967:67).

The pronouns used in Turkish are as follows: ben, sen, o, biz, siz, onlar.

It is possible to give the following examples of Personal Pronouns from the sample study:

- 11) Birgün bizim parka bir teyze parkımıza köpek getirdi.
- 12) “Siz bana telefon numaranızı verin” dedi.
- 13) Birgün ben okula gelmişim.

3.2.1.1.3.2 Reflexive Pronouns

A reflexive pronoun is defined as ‘a form of a pronoun which is used when the direct or indirect object in a sentence refers to the same person or thing as the subject of the sentence.’

In English these pronouns are formed by adding -self or -selves to the pronoun as in the sentence: I hurt myself (Richards, J. H. Platt and J. Platt 1992:312).

In Turkish the following pronouns can be stated as reflexive pronouns: kendim (myself), kendin (yourself), kendisi (himself, herself), kendimiz (ourselves), kendiniz (yourselves), kendileri (themselves)

(Hengirmen 1995:152)

An example concerning the use of reflexive pronoun in the sample is as follows:

14) Bizim köyde kendi havuzumuz var.

3.2.1.1.3.3 Reciprocal Pronouns

Reciprocal pronoun ‘refers to an exchange or mutual interaction between people or group’. In English, the phrases ‘each other’ and ‘one another’ are given as examples (Richards, J. H. Platt and J. Platt 1992:309).

In Turkish, examples of reciprocal pronouns are: birbirimiz (each of us), birbiriniz (each of you), birbiriniz (each of you), biribiri, birbirleri (each of them)

An example concerning the use of reciprocal pronouns used in the sample is as follows:

15) Birbirimize kar atarken benim ayağım kaydı.

3.2.1.1.3.4 Possessive Pronouns

Alexander (1988:81) states that possessive pronouns indicate possession by answering the question ‘whose?’. In English there are many possessive pronouns, such as my, her, your, mine, hers, yours, etc.

For example:

John has cut his finger; apparently there was a broken glass on his desk.

(Quirk and Greenbaum 1973:105).

In Turkish there are regular possessive pronouns produced by attaching the genitive suffix {-(n)In}. The following can be given as an example of possessive pronouns in Turkish:

Benim, senin, onun, bizim, sizin, onların (Kornfilt 1997:307).

An example concerning the use of a possessive pronoun used in the sample is as follows:

16) Yarın ben okula giderken bir çocuk gördüm ama onun kafası kanyordu.

3.2.1.1.3.5 Indefinite Pronouns

Indefinite Pronouns ‘refer to something which is not thought of as definite or particular’ (Richards, J. H. Platt and J. Platt 1992:176). In English, the following can be given a representative example of such pronouns: all, any, none, some, each, everyone, anyone, nobody, something (Leech 1989:398).

In Turkish, we have the following examples: biri (someone), kimi (some), bazısı (some of them), birçoğu (most of them), herbiri (every one, each one), herkes (everybody) (Hengirmen 1995:152).

Some related examples concerning the use of Indefinite pronouns in the sample are as follows:

17) Sonra köpek çocuğun birini kovaladı.

18) Bizim evde tahta gibi birşey vardı.

19) Kapı zilini çaldığımda hiçkimse açmadı.

20) Arkama döndüğümde hiçbirşey göremedim.

3.2.1.1.3.6 Interrogative Pronouns

Interrogative pronouns are wh-pronouns such as who, which, what, whose that are used to form questions. (Richards, J. H. Platt and J. Platt 1992:189).

In Turkish, Pronouns such as: kim? (who?), ne? (what?), hangi? (which?), kaç? (how many?) can be given as examples of interrogative pronouns (Underhill 1967:72).

In the sample, there was no use of interrogative pronouns.

3.2.1.1.3.7 Demonstrative Pronouns

The parameter used in Demonstrative pronoun is ‘relative distance from the speaker’.
(Kornfilt 1997:311)

In English the following are the examples of Demonstrative Pronouns: this or that, he, she, it, these ones, those ones, this kind, that kind, that other kind, the other one.

In Turkish, the typical examples of demonstrative pronouns can be stated in the following way: bu, şu, o, bunlar, şunlar, onlar, böyle, şöyle, öyle, öteki.

(Lewis 1967:71; Kornfilt:311-313)

In the sample there was no use of demonstrative pronouns.

The distribution and the rate of Pronouns used in the narratives of Beytepe and Şentepe Primary Schools are as follows:

Table 5: Frequency and rate of Pronouns used in the narratives of Beytepe and Şentepe Primary Schools

School of the student		PERSP_1	INDEF_1	REFLEX_1	POSES_1	RESIP_1
Beytepe PRIMARY SCHOOL	N Valid	100	100	100	100	100
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0
	Mean	5.0269	.3791	.0413	.0233	.0264
	Std. Error of Mean	.32254	.07438	.02554	.02326	.01896
	Median	4.3798	.0000	.0000	.0000	.0000
	Std. Deviation	3.22542	.74381	.25544	.23256	.18957
	Minimum	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
	Maximum	15.38	3.00	2.17	2.33	1.59
Şentepe PRIMARY SCHOOL	N Valid	100	100	100	100	100
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0
	Mean	7.0148	.3544	.0357	.0297	.0000
	Std. Error of Mean	.51820	.10711	.02787	.02197	.00000
	Median	5.9115	.0000	.0000	.0000	.0000
	Std. Deviation	5.18204	1.07110	.27866	.21966	.00000
	Minimum	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
	Maximum	27.27	7.14	2.63	1.96	.00
P Value	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.011	.150	.651	.570	.156

In the analysis, as can be observed from the table, Indefinite pronouns($p=0.150$), reflexive pronouns ($p=0.651$), possessive pronouns ($p=0.570$) and reciprocal pronouns ($p=0.158$) do not have statistical significance ($p>0.005$) which denotes to us the fact that neither the children at Beytepe Primary school nor the children at Şentepe Primary school use these pronouns frequently. The use of indefinite pronouns is the same in both schools (0.3). Similarly, the rate of demonstrative pronouns is 1.0 at Beytepe Primary School and 1.1 at Şentepe Primary School. Possessive pronoun and reciprocal pronoun rate in both groups is also similar (0.0). The only meaningful difference is in the use of personal pronouns($p=0.011$ $p<0.005$). Children at Beytepe primary school use 5.0 personal pronouns while children at Şentepe Primary school use 7.0 personal pronouns. Thus, it can be said that in the narratives of Şentepe Primary School, more personal pronouns are used.

3.2.1.1.4 Verb(lexis)

According to Halliday(1985:154) verbs can be grouped into six categories as the following:

3.2.1.1.4.1 Material verbs

Material verbs answer the question ‘What happened?’ or ‘What did someone do?’

John lit the bonfire with paraffin.

The lightening hit the tree.

Emma painted a large watercolour.

(Toolan 2001:109)

Verbs such as change, spread, shake, pour, roll, bend, break, smash, mend, cook, boil, burn, melt, loosen, quicken, plug in, fix in, mix, combine, open, drive, turn, row can be considered as material verbs. These are verbs of ‘doing’, ‘happening’ (Halliday 1976:162). Halliday(1985:103) states that “they express the notion that some entity ‘does’ something –which may be done ‘to’ some other entity”.

In Turkish, the following verbs can be given as examples; oynamak (to play), gelmek (to come), götürmek (to bring), çarpmak (to crash), bakmak (to look), bulmak (finding).

Some related examples concerning the use of material verbs in the sample are as follows:

21) Sonra cesaretimizi toplayıp kapıdan içeri girdik.

22) Beyaz yara bandı yapıştırdı.

3.2.1.1.4.1.2 Behavioural verbs

These are verbs of ‘behaving’. There are processes of physiological or psychological behaviour like breathing, dreaming, smiling, coughing (Halliday 1985:128). According to Toolan(2001:111) “these processes are relatively spontaneous or uncontrolled human activity, internal or external”.

In Turkish, verbs such as dinlenmek (to have a rest), rahatlatmak (to relieve oneself), nefes almak (to breathe air) can be given as examples of behavioural verbs.

Some examples of the behavioural verbs found in the sample are as follows:

23) Ben çok korktuğum için uyuyamadım.

24) Ağlıyacaktım.

25) Ben hemen uyudum.

3.2.1.1.4.3. Mental verbs

These are verbs of ‘sensing’. Mental verbs have one participant who feels, thinks and perceives the events happening. The tense used in mental verbs is simple present tense rather than present continuous. According to Halliday(1985:111) mental verbs have three sub-types of verbs: mental/perception verbs, mental/affection and mental/cognition verbs.

3.2.1.1.4.3.1 Mental/Perception Verbs

These are verbs such as seeing, hearing (Halliday1985:111). An example sentence of a mental/perception verb is:

We would hear it coming (Halliday 1985:111).

Some examples of the mental/perception verbs identified in the sample are as follows:

26) Birgün spor salonunun arkasında bir yazı gördüm.

27) Biz korkudan annemin dediğini bile duymuyorduk.

3.2.1.1.4.3.2 Mental/Affection Verbs

These verbs express our likes and dislikes. These verbs are related to our feelings.

For example:

It worries me how silent everything is.

I don't like it.

You needn't be scared.

It hurts my ears. (Halliday 1985:111).

Other related examples concerning the use of mental/affection verbs in the sample are as follows:

28) O zaman çok korkmuştum.

29) Çok sevindik.

3.2.1.1.4.3.3 Mental/Cognition Verbs

These are verbs such as thinking, knowing and understanding (Halliday 1985:111). For example:

I believe you.

I know.

(Halliday 1985:111).

Some related examples concerning the use of mental/cognitive verbs in the sample are as follows:

30) Sonra ben arabadaki adamın öleceğini sandım.

31) Oysa o tamirciyi bir hırsız sanmıştım.

32) Benim yaşadığım binaya gitmeye karar verdik.

3.2.1.1.4.4 Verbal verbs

These are verbs of ‘saying’. The question ‘What did you say?’ can be asked to find this verb. For example:

The notice tells you to keep quiet.

My watch says it’s half past ten.

John said, ‘I’m hungry.’ (Quoting)

John said he was hungry. (Reporting)

(Halliday 1985:155,129).

Some examples of the verbal verbs found in the sample are as follows:

33) ‘Ben sarsıldığımı falan hatırlamıyorum’dedi.

34) Ablam şöyle dedi.

3.2.1.1.4.5 Relational verbs

They are verbs of ‘being’. According to Toolan (2001:111) relational verbs are ‘ones of characterization or identification, and entail intensive verbs, or verbs expressing circumstantial or possessive relations, the default verb being ‘be’. Halliday(1985:112)

mentions that ‘the central meaning of clauses of this type is that something is’. These verbs are of three types: intensive, circumstantial and possessive.

3.2.1.1.4.5.1 Intensive verbs

In this type of verb ‘x is y’.

Examples for this type of verb are the sentences:

George was victorious.

Sarah is wise.

(Toolan 2001:111) (Halliday 1985:113)

As an example of Intensive verbs in Turkish, the verb ‘açıktı’ in the following sentence is given from the sample study:

Oturduğum yerin camı açıktı.

(The place that I had been sitting was open.)

3.2.1.1.4.5.2 Circumstantial verbs

In this type of verb, ‘x is at/about/like y’.

For this type of verb the following sentences are given as examples:

It took place at 3 o’clock.

The fair is on Tuesday.

(Toolan 2001:111) (Halliday 1985:113)

3.2.1.1.4.5.3 Possessive verbs

In this type of verb, ‘x has y’.

For this type of verb the following sentences can be given as examples:

He has a great job.

Peter has a piano.

(Toolan 2001:111) (Halliday 1985:113)

Some related examples concerning the use of Relational verbs in the sample are as follows:

35) Gerçektende duyduklarımız doğruydu.

36) Çok mutlu oldum.

37) Babam ölmüş.

3.2.1.1.4.6 Existential verbs

These are verbs that describe ‘something happens or exists’. The verb ‘be’ or other verbs expressing existence such as ‘exist’, ‘arise’ are used (Halliday 1985:130). For example:

There was a little guinea-pig.

It is possible to give examples from the study:

38) Kocaman kan izleri vardı.

39) Ama tırnakları vardı.

40) Öbür tenefüs araba yoktu.

The use of verb types at Beytepe and Şentepe Primary Schools are as follows:

Table 6: Frequency and rate of Verbs employed at Beytepe and Şentepe Primary Schools

School of the student		MATVER_1	MAVERB_1	MPVERB_1	
BEYTEPE PRIMARY SCHOOL	N Valid	100	100	100	
	Missing	0	0	0	
	Mean	13.8619	2.0692	.2603	
	Std. Error of Mean	.46730	.17101	.06314	
	Median	13.0286	1.8525	.0000	
	Std. Deviation	4.67300	1.71005	.63140	
	Minimum	5.00	.00	.00	
	Maximum	30.00	8.11	2.94	
	N Valid	100	100	100	
	Missing	0	0	0	
ŞENTEPE PRIMARY SCHOOL	Mean	14.9255	4.6260	1.1522	
	Std. Error of Mean	.68497	.40987	.25452	
	Median	14.0199	3.5401	.0000	
	Std. Deviation	6.84966	4.09867	2.54519	
	Minimum	.00	.00	.00	
	Maximum	36.36	18.18	16.67	
	P Value	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.315	.000	.003

MCVERB_1	BHVERB_1	VERBV_1	EXISV_1	RLTNV_1
100	100	100	100	100
0	0	0	0	0
.7394	.3668	1.1686	.7579	1.2643
.11103	.08533	.17506	.12317	.13277
.0000	.0000	.0000	.0000	1.1250
1.11025	.85330	1.75061	1.23166	1.32769
.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
6.40	4.00	7.25	7.14	5.00
100	100	100	100	100
0	0	0	0	0
.4959	.3683	.4859	.4110	.9972
.11714	.08950	.13526	.10121	.16079
.0000	.0000	.0000	.0000	.0000
1.17141	.89503	1.35256	1.01210	1.60788
.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
6.35	4.35	7.14	5.56	7.14
.004	.709	.000	.003	.027

As seen in Table 6, when the two groups are contrasted, the use of Material verbs($p=0.315$ $P>0.05$), behavioural verbs($p=0.709$ $p>0.05$) and verbal verbs ($p=0.000$ $p<0.001$) do not have statistically significant differences.

On the other hand, mental/affection verbs($p=0,000$ $p<0.001$) mental/perception verbs($p=0.003$ $p<0.01$), mental/cognition verbs($p=0.004$ $p<0.01$), existential verbs($p=0.003$ $p<0.01$) and relational verbs($p=0.027$ $p<0.05$) have statistically significant differences.

When the two groups are compared, it can be observed that the use of mental/affection verbs at Beytepe Primary school is 2.0, while it is 4.6 at Şentepe Primary school. Şentepe narratives include more mental/affection verbs than Beytepe narratives. The children at Şentepe Primary school use more mental/affection verbs when expressing their emotions. Similarly, while the occurrence of mental/perception verbs is 1.1 in the narratives of children at Şentepe Primary School, this rate is only 0.2 in the narratives of children at Beytepe Primary school. It may be argued that the children at Şentepe Primary school mention about how they perceive things more than the children at Beytepe Primary school. In terms of the use of mental/cognitive verbs, Beytepe Primary school children's rate is 0.7, while this is 0.4 for the Şentepe Primary School. Thus, the children at Beytepe Primary school use verbs such as know, think..etc more than the children at Şentepe Primary school. Their cognitive awareness can be considered as being more than the Şentepe Group. Shiro (2003:183) points out that expressions of cognition reflect the inner thoughts of the characters, and as a result, this becomes a contribution to the narrative produced. In his developmental study, Shiro (2003:182) found that it was the high socioeconomic children who use more expressions of cognition than their low socioeconomic peers. This finding can be considered as similar to our finding. Additionally, Beytepe Primary school children use more (0.7) existential verbs than Şentepe Primary school (0.4). Similarly, the relational verb rate is 1.2 in Beytepe narratives, while it is 0.9 in Şentepe narratives. In the light of Toolan's opinion about relational verbs, it can be stated that Beytepe primary school children are aware of factors such as 'characterization', 'identification' and 'possession' more than Şentepe Primary school children.

3.2.1.1.5 The Overall Discussion of the Lexical Analysis

In order to evaluate the linguistic structure of Personal experience Narratives, and to relate these characteristics to the HPE and LPE groups, an overall discussion of the lexical characteristics found in children's narratives will be presented. The frequency of lexical characteristics found in the sample are as follows:

Table 7: Frequency Analysis of the Lexical Items at Beytepe and Şentepe Primary Schools

Lexical Forms	HPE Group	LPE Group
Number of Words	83.7	49.1
Adjectives	2.0	1.4
Relational Verbs	1.2	0.9
Verbal Verbs	1.1	0.4
Existential Verbs	0.7	0.4
Mental/Cognition Verbs	0.7	0.4
Personal Pronouns	5.0	7.0
Mental/Affection Verbs	2.0	4.6
Mental/Perception Verbs	0.2	1.1
Concrete Nouns	27.1	26.8
Material verbs	13.8	14.9
Abstract Nouns	4.4	4.2
Proper Nouns	1.3	1.2
Behavioural verbs	0.3	0.3
Indefinite Pronouns	0.3	0.3
Reciprocal Pronouns	0.0	0.0
Possessive Pronouns	0.0	0.0
Reflexive Pronouns	0.0	0.0

According to Table 7, eight of the lexical characteristics analysed have statistically significant differences in the two groups. These items are: number of words (HPE Group:83.7, LPE Group:49.1), adjectives (HPE Group:2.0, LPE Group:1.4), relational verbs (HPE Group:1.2, LPE Group:0.9) verbal verbs (HPE Group:1.1, LPE Group:0.4) existential verbs (HPE Group:0.7, LPE Group:0.4), mental/cognition verbs (HPE Group:0.7, LPE Group:0.4), personal pronouns (HPE Group:5.0, LPE Group:7.0),

mental/affection verbs (HPE Group:2.0, LPE Group:4.6) and mental/perception verbs (HPE Group:0.2, LPE Group:1.1).

From the table it can be observed that the number of words used at Beytepe Primary School is more than the number of words at Şentepe Primary School. Depending on this finding, the Beytepe Group's narratives are longer than the other group's narratives. Thus, the Beytepe Group has a tendency to write more about their frightening experiences. In contrast to this, it can be said that the Şentepe Primary School children refrain from writing too much. Beytepe Primary School students, which we consider a HPE group, employ adjective forms more frequently than Şentepe Primary School students. It can be stated that the frequent use of adjectives makes the narratives of the children in the Beytepe group richer than the narratives of Şentepe group. Beytepe and Şentepe groups also differ in their use of certain verbs. Relational verbs which are defined as verbs of being are used more in the HPE group than the LPE group. It was the HPE group that used verbal verbs such as 'say, tell' more than the LPE group. An explanation for this may be it is that the HPE group pays attention to reporting events. Also, the use of existential verbs is significantly higher in the HPE group. The HPE group used mental/cognitive verbs more frequently than the LPE group. It may be argued that the children whose parents have high levels of education have more cognitive awareness than the low level parental education group.

In terms of the use of pronouns, there is significance only in the use of personal pronouns. The LPE group employed personal pronouns more frequently than the HPE group. This pattern occurred because their narratives involved a personal perspective and the events they experienced were reflected in the use of pronouns. It is observed from the table that mental/affection verbs and mental/perception verbs are used more frequently by the LPE group than the HPE group. By using mental/affection verbs, the LPE group indicates their likes or dislikes directly. Similarly, this group is direct in expressing how they perceive the events by using mental/perception verbs.

As seen in Table 7, at the lexical level, it is clearly observed that five of the lexical characteristics analysed has statistically insignificant rates in the sample. These lexical items are as follows: Concrete Nouns (HPE Group:27.1, LPE Group:26.8), Material

verb (HPE Group:13.8, LPE Group:14.9), Abstract Nouns (HPE Group:4.4, LPE Group:4.2), Proper nouns (HPE Group:1.3, LPE Group:1.2), Behavioural verb (HPE Group:0.3, LPE Group:0.3), Indefinite pronouns (HPE Group:0.3, LPE Group:0.3), Reflexive pronouns (HPE Group:0.0, LPE Group:0.0), Reciprocal pronouns (HPE Group:0.0, LPE Group:0.0), Possessive pronouns (HPE Group:0.0, LPE Group:0.0).

Though the use of mentioned lexical items are insignificant through frequency analysis it will be useful to analyze these insignificant items through a variety analysis because although these lexical items do not indicate a statistical difference between the Beytepe and Şentepe groups, their variety changes between the two groups. Thus, we would freely like to speculate on the levels of significance that the data displays though further research is required. The following table demonstrates the variety of nouns, verbs and pronouns used:

Table 8: Variety Analysis of Insignificant Lexical items

Variety of forms used	HPE Group(Percentage)	LPE Group(Percentage)	Levels of Significance
Possessive Pronouns	50	0	50
Reflexive Pronouns	50	25	25
Abstract Nouns	36.7	29.9	6.8
Concrete Nouns	21.22	17.42	3.8
Indefinite Pronouns	36.3	33.3	3
Reciprocal Pronouns	0	50	50
Proper Nouns	53.9	88.6	34.7
Behavioural Verbs	26.4	31.5	5.1
Material Verbs	23.91	23.26	0.65

The values were grouped according to levels of significance as follows:

Group I. (Significance value below number 1) ($p < 1$)

The use of material verbs is insignificant in both groups ($p < 1$). This means that in both groups the use of material verbs do not display any variety of forms.

Group II. (Significance value between numbers 3 to 6.8)

In this group the use of Indefinite Pronouns ($p=3$) is greater in the HPE Group (36.3%) than in the LPE Group (33.3%). Findings suggest that the children in the HPE Group know how to use indefinite forms when narrating an event and thus use forms such as 'nobody', 'someone' which arouse curiosity to the reader.

In the HPE Group (21.22%) the use of Concrete Nouns ($p=3.8$) is greater than the LPE Group (17.42%). It can be stated that these children's cognitive capacity is greater and includes more lexemes than LPE Group children and it is due to this that they use more variety of concrete noun forms.

Similarly, in the HPE Group (36.7%) Abstract Noun variety ($p=6.8$) is used more than the LPE Group (29.9%). Chafe (1982,1985 as cited in Sulzby and Zecker 1991:189) mentions the differences between oral and written language. He states that in written language, abstract noun use is observed in a variety of forms. The results of this study supported their findings about the features of written language. It seems to be the case that the children belonging to the HPE Group are aware of these features and they use more variety of abstract nouns.

In the LPE Group (31.5%) Behavioural verbs ($p=5.1$) have more forms of variety than the HPE Group (26.4%). The variational use of Behavioural verbs in the LPE group shows that the children that belong to the LPE Group use 'verbs of behaving' like smiling, breathing, coughing more while narrating about their frightening affairs.

Group III. (Significance value between numbers 13 to 25)

In this group the various forms of reflexive pronouns ($p=25$) are observed in the HPE Group (50%) when compared to the LPE Group (25%). This result provides evidence that the children that belong to the HPE Group give importance to themselves and their self is important for them.

Group IV. (Significance value between numbers 34 to 59.29)

In the HPE Group (50%) Possessive pronouns (p=50) are employed. By contrast, in the LPE Group (0%), this pronoun is not observed. Similarly, for the children belonging to the HPE Group, possession and the ‘myself’ factor carries importance.

According to table 10, more variety of proper nouns (p=34.7) is used in the LPE Group (88.6%) than in the HPE Group (53.9%). As mentioned previously, proper nouns referred to people, places and institutions. It seems to be the case that these children may have more friends than the other group, and this fact is reflected in their fright narratives.

Similarly, in the LPE Group(50%), Reciprocal Pronoun (p=50) variety is used. However, in the HPE Group (0%), this pronoun is not observed. This might mean that for the LPE Group the ‘we’ notion is more important than the ‘I myself’ notion. They pay attention to group factors and consider group identity.

According to Halliday and Hasan(1976 in Peterson and McCabe 1991:30) cohesion is achieved by the use of pronouns which refer back to an entity. Similarly, Peterson and McCabe(1991:30) mention the function of pronouns by the following words: ”the pronoun explicitly links the relevant clauses by referring to the same entity.” The use of various forms of Reflexive, Indefinite and Possessive Pronouns by the HPE Group supports the explanations of Haliday and Hasan. The HPE Group uses a greater variety of pronouns because these children try to link their sentences in order to achieve cohesiveness. Instead of repeating nouns over and over, they substituted pronouns; however the LPE Group used less forms of pronoun variety. This is evidence that these children refrain from using Pronouns. Thus, cohesive ties are weaker in this group.

Furthermore, it can be observed that in the HPE group, there are six lexical items that have variational forms. However, in the LPE Group, there are only three items that show variational differences. Thus, the active lexical entry of the HPE group children includes a greater variety of lexemes than the other group.

3.2.1.2 Syntactic Analysis

This section of the dissertation counts the number of sentences and words used per sentence statistically. Moreover, sentence types according to structures and sentence types according to verb types and conjunctions are analyzed in the fright narratives of children.

3.2.1.2.1 The number of sentences and the number of words used per sentence at Beytepe and Şentepe Primary Schools

In our analysis, it is observed that the fright narratives of children at Beytepe and Şentepe Primary schools differ in terms of the number of sentences and the number of words used per sentence. The following table indicates the number of sentences and the number of words used per sentence at Beytepe and Şentepe Primary Schools:

Table 9: The number of sentences and number of words used per sentence at Beytepe and Şentepe Primary Schools

School of the student			SENTENC	W/S
BEYTEPE PRIMARY SCHOOL	N	Valid	100	100
		Missing	0	0
	Mean	16.38	5.2440	
	Std. Error of Mean	.714	.12665	
	Median	15.00	5.2164	
	Std. Deviation	7.139	1.26653	
	Minimum	4	2.92	
	Maximum	37	11.43	
ŞENTEPE PRIMARY SCHOOL	N	Valid	100	100
		Missing	0	0
	Mean	11.07	4.7291	
	Std. Error of Mean	.585	.13764	
	Median	10.00	4.4881	
	Std. Deviation	5.850	1.37635	
	Minimum	2	2.75	
	Maximum	31	9.86	

p=0.000 p=0.001

p<0.001 p<0.01

According to the Table, the number of sentences ($p=0.000$ $p<0.001$) and the number of words used per sentence ($p=0.001$ $p<0.01$) in the Şentepe and Beytepe Primary School fright narrative texts have a statistically significant difference. Similarly, in the Beytepe Primary School narratives, the number of sentences employed(16.3) is greater than the number of sentences used(11.0) at Şentepe Primary School. If we contrast the number of words used per sentence at Beytepe Primary School and Şentepe Primary School, we can observe that Beytepe Primary School employs 5.2, while this number is 4.7 at Şentepe Primary School. In all these findings, it can be stated that the children whose parents have high levels of education use many more words and sentences in expressing their fright narratives than the other school where there is a lower level of parental education.

3.2.1.2 .2 Sentence Types According to Structure

3.2.1.2 .2 .1 Simple Sentences

A simple sentence “consists of a single independent main clause” (Quirk et al. 1985:719). The following sentence can be given as an example:

The dog frightened the cat.

(Brown and Miller 1991:146)

In Turkish the following sentences can be given as an example for simple sentences:

İçki ve sigarayı artık bırakmalısın.

(You must give up alcohol and cigarette.)

Ben mektubu okudum.

(I read the letter.)

(Hengirmen 1995:353) (Underhill 1976:50)

Some examples of the simple sentences identified in the sample are as follows:

41) Bir yaşlı teyze gördük.

42) Babam geldi.

43) Ben korktum.

44) Zil çaldı.

3.2.1.2 .2 .2. Compound Sentences

A compound sentence can be defined as “consisting of two independent clauses linked by coordination like and, but” (Thornbury1997:62). As an example, the following sentence can be given:

George cheated at Harvard and Jane cheated at Yale.

(Wekker and Haegemen 1985:27)

In Turkish the following sentence is an example of a compound sentence:

Hasanın işine gitti ve Ali evine döndü.

(Hasan went to work and Ali returned home.) (Kornfilt 1997:112)

Some related examples concerning the use of compound sentences in the sample are as follows:

45) Dördümüzde çok korktuk ve hemen salona koştuk.

46) Sonra eve gelirken şarkı söyledik ve eve geldik.

3.2.1.2 .2 .3. Complex Sentences

A complex sentence is a sentence that contains a main clause and one or more subordinate clauses (Thornbury 1997:62). A complex sentence resembles a simple sentence as it has one main clause, but it differs from it in this respect; unlike a simple sentence, it has one or more subordinate clauses functioning as an element of the sentence(Quirk et al. 1985:987). A representative example can be given:

I know that the snake killed the rat (Wekker and Haegemen 1985:27)

In Turkish the following sentences can be given as examples of this type of sentence:

Hasan işine gidip Alinin eve döndüğünü duydum.

(I heard that Hasan went to work and Ali returned home.)

Bildiklerimi anlatmaya çalışıyordum.

(I was trying to explain what I knew.)

(Kornfilt 1997:110; Hengirmen 1995:355)

Some examples of the complex sentences identified in the sample are as follows:

47) Teyzenin yanına gidip teyzeye yardım ettik.

48) Babamlar hemen o fareyi yakalayıp attılar.

49) Ben kapıyı hızla itince elim içine girdi.

3.2.1.2 .2 .4. Compound Complex Sentences

Compound-Complex sentences are mixed types of sentences that involve both coordination and subordination. The following is an example of compound-complex sentence:

The snake which killed the rat and swallowed it belongs to our neighbours.

(Wekker and Haegemen 1985:27)

In Turkish the following sentence can be given as an example:

Son dedikoduları ve Hasan'ın karısını boşadığını duydum.

(I heard the latest rumors and that Hasan divorced his wife.)

(Kornfilt 1997:118)

Some related examples concerning the use of compound-complex sentences in the sample are as follows:

50) Bakınca pastel boya gibi gözüküyor dediler ama inanmadım.

51) Ruh sandık ama kan olduğu için katil idi.

52) Küçükken birgün bir kazın yavrusunu severken çok korktum ve ısıracağ sandım.

The following table indicates the frequency and rate of sentence types employed at Beytepe and Şentepe Primary Schools:

Table 10: Frequency and rate of sentence types employed at Beytepe and Şentepe Primary Schools

School of the student			SiMPL 1	COMPOS 1	COMPL 1	CMCM 1
Beytepe PRIMARY SCHOOL	N	Valid	100	100	100	100
		Missing	0	0	0	0
	Mean	59.0523	7.2495	30.5496	3.0313	
	Std. Error of Mean	1.68890	.81257	1.51335	.69726	
	Median	60.0000	5.7190	30.7692	.0000	
	Std. Deviation	16.88902	812573	15.13345	6.97262	
	Minimum	.00	.00	.00	.00	
	Maximum	91.67	37.50	62.50	33.33	
Şentepe PRIMARY SCHOOL	N	Valid	100	100	100	100
		Missing	0	0	0	0
	Mean	68.3709	5.5635	24.2885	1.4242	
	Std. Error of Mean	2.27337	1.00044	1.95400	.51866	
	Median	71.4286	.0000	22.2527	.0000	
	Std. Deviation	22.73366	10.00441	19.53999	5.18655	
	Minimum	.00	.00	.00	.00	
	Maximum	100.00	50.00	75.00	3333	
P Value	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.006	.004	.007

The sentence section was standardized according to the total number of sentences. As seen in Table 10, the difference in all sentence types (simple sentence $p=0.000$ $p<0.001$, compound sentence $p=0.006$ $p<0.01$, complex sentence $p=0.004$ $p<0.01$, compound-complex sentence $p=0.007$ $p<0.01$) were found to be statistically meaningful. The use of the rate of simple sentences at Beytepe Primary school is 69.06, while it is 68.37 at Şentepe Primary school. The rate of compound sentences is 7.2 and it is 5.5, at Şentepe Primary school. Similarly, the rate of Complex sentences is 30.54 at Beytepe Primary

school, while, this rate is 24.28 in Şentepe Primary school. Thus, it can be stated that the children at Beytepe Primary school prefer using more complex sentences than the children at Şentepe Primary school. The rate of compound-complex sentence employment at Beytepe Primary school is significantly (3.0) higher than the rate of compound-complex sentences at Şentepe Primary school (1.4). These findings demonstrate that the narrative skills of the children at Beytepe primary school differ in terms of their use of different sentence types while explaining an event they have experienced. These children tend to use compound sentences, complex sentences, compound-complex sentences in their narratives more than the Şentepe group, indicating that they have more developed narrative skills.

3.2.1.2.3 Sentences According To Verb Types

3.2.1.2.3.1.Predicative Verbs

This type of verb can be seen as verbal. Richards, J. H. Platt and J. Platt (Richards, J. H. Platt and J. Platt (1991:285) state that predicate verb is ‘the part of sentence which states or asserts something about the subject and usually consists of a verb either with or without an object, complement, or adverb.’ In English the following sentences can be given as an example:

John is tired.

The children saw the play.

In Turkish the following sentences are examples of predicative verbs:

Babam, ben yokken annemle her şeyi görüşmüş.

Salonda bütün konuklara büyük bir ziyafet verildi.

Güzel günler bizi bekliyor.

Some related examples concerning the use of Predicative verbs in the sample are as follows:

- 53) Birgün okulda spor salonunun arkasında Aykan ile Mertcan garip garip yazılar gördüler.
- 54) Ben çok korkmuştum.
- 55) Ankara'da Hacı Sabancı Yüzme Havuzuna gittim.

3.2.1.2.3.2.Copulative Verbs

Richards, Platt J., Platt H.(1991:88) defines a copulative verb as 'a verb that links a subject to a complement'. They give the following sentences as examples:

He is sick.

She looked afraid.

In Turkish, the following sentences can be given as examples:

Ben satıcıyım. (I am a seller)

Ben öğretmenim. (I am a teacher)

Bölüm başkanı aynı zamanda dekanıdır. (The head of the department is, at the same time, the dean)

(Kornfilt 1997:77, 78, 82)

Some examples of the Copulative verbs found in the sample are as follows:

56) Ama yine heyecanlı idi.

57) Ruh sandık ama kan olduğu için katil idi.

58) Güya ölüymüş. (Beytepe Number 10)

59)Arabadaki adamlar siyah çakmaklıydı.

3.2.1.2.3.3. Existential Verbs

According to Brown and Miller (1991:315), existential verbs denote the existence of something. For example:

There is a glass on the mantelpiece.

This sentence denotes the existence of a glass on the mantelpiece.

Lewis(1967:142) states that the words 'var' and 'yok' are adjectives which take the place of English 'there is/there are' and they are used as verbs in Turkish. The following are typical examples of existential structures:

Köşede bir kahve var. (There is a cafe on the corner.)

Evin bahçesi var.(The house has a garden.)

İmparatorun elbisesi yok. (The emperor has no clothes.)

Some examples of the Existential verbs found in the sample are as follows:

60) Yanımda Mertcan vardı.

61) Öbür tenefüs araba yoktu.

62) Ama tırnakları vardı.

63) Orada Merve arkadaşım var.

The frequency and number of verbs employed at Beytepe and Şentepe Primary schools can be observed from the following table:

Table 11: Frequency and number of verbs employed in Beytepe and Şentepe Primary Schools:

School of the student			PRDCV_1	EXSTV_1	COPUV_1
Beytepe PRIMARY SCHOOL	N	Valid	100	100	100
		Missing	0	0	0
	Mean		88.6055	3.9272	6.8609
	Median		90.0000	.0000	5.5556
	Std. Deviation		10.24247	6.21801	7.49651
	Minimum		60.00	.00	.00
	Maximum		110.00	25.00	33.33
Şentepe PRIMARY SCHOOL	N	Valid	100	100	100
		Missing	0	0	0
	Mean		94.5254	1.6443	3.1969
	Median		100.0000	.0000	.0000
	Std. Deviation		7.77114	4.03246	5.71754
	Minimum		63.64	.00	.00
	Maximum		100.00	18.75	25.00
P value	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000

Table 11 shows the significant use of predicative verbs ($p=0.000$ $p<0.001$), existential verbs ($p=0.000$ $p<0.001$) and copulative verbs ($p=0.000$ $p<0.001$) at Beytepe and Şentepe Primary schools according to the Mann Whitney Test. According to the table, predicative verbs are used more frequently at Şentepe Primary School. At Şentepe primary school 94.5 of the sentences are formed by predicative verbs while this rate is 88.6 at Beytepe Primary school. This result shows that predicative verbs that are considered verbal, are employed more by the children whose parents have a low educational level.

On the other hand, the use of existential verbs differs also in the two groups ($p<0.001$). Beytepe Primary School uses 3.9 existential verbs, while this rate is 1.6 at Şentepe Primary School. Similarly, at Beytepe Primary school, copulative verb (6.8) use is significantly more than copulative verb (3.1) use at Şentepe Primary School. The frequent use of existential and copulative verbs by the children whose parents have high educational level indicate that they tend to use various verb types rather than using only one type. Thus, the variety of the verb types at Beytepe Primary School indicates the high level of their cognitive capacity.

3.2.1.2.4 Conjunctions

Halliday and Hasan(1976:238) categorize conjunctions into four groups as additive, adversative, causal and temporal.

3.2.1.2.4.1 Additives

The use of ‘and’ or ‘or’ forms the additive relation between sentences. Halliday and Hasan(1976:233) state that not only children, but also adults use ‘and’ as a linker at the beginning of a sentence. As stated by Halliday and Hasan(1976:234), additive ‘is a generalized semantic relation in the text-forming component of the semantic system, that is based on the logical notion of ‘and’. The ‘and’ relation operates conjunctively, between sentences, to give cohesion to a text-or rather to create text, by cohering one sentence to another’. Kerslake(1992:87) points out that additives have a ‘continuative’ function because the connective signals that ‘the discourse is continuing in the direction already established’.

In English the following conjunctions are typical examples of additives: and; and also, and....too, nor, and.....not, not....either, neither, or, or else.

(Halliday and Hasan 1976:242).

In Turkish, additives can be listed as in the following way: de, ve, hem, hem de, ayrıca, üstelik, kaldı ki, hatta, zaten (Kerslake 1992:84).

The following examples are given:

Danay buna çok kızıyor ve arsanın tahta kapısının kanatlarını tellerle bağlıyordu.

(Danay would get very angry about this and would fasten the double gates of the plot with wire.)

Düşün, bir iş bulduk artık. İlk parayla bir çeki kömür alacağım. Sana da lastik çizme.

(Just think. We've got a job now. With the first money I'll buy a load of coal. And a pair of wellies for you.) (Kerslake 1992:87)

Some examples of the additives found in the sample are as follows:

64) Annem ve babamla ağabeyimi askerden almaya giderken köpek gördüm.

65) Ben yatarken rüyamda köpek gördüm ve yılan gördüm.

66) Bakkala veya başka biryere giderkende korkuyorum.

3.2.1.2.4.2. Adversatives

Halliday and Hasan(1976:250) believe that Adversative conjunctions are phrases that are 'contrary to expectation'. According to Kerslake (1992:94) adversative conjunctions have 'conflictive' and 'contrastive' functions. The conjunction 'yet' in the following sentence is an example for adversative relation:

All the figures were correct; they'd been checked. Yet the total came out wrong.

In English the following conjunctions are typical examples of adversatives: Yet, though, only, but, however, nevertheless, despite this, all the same.

Halliday and Hasan(1976:242)

In Turkish, adversatives can be listed as in the following way: ama, fakat, ancak, yalnız, ne var ki, ise, daha doğrusu, oysa, halbuki, gerçi, aslında (Kerslake 1992:84,85,94). For example:

Japonlar bunu başarmışlar, ama biz bunu başaramamışız!

(The Japanese have succeeded in this, but we have not!)

Some examples of the adversative conjunctions identified in the sample are as follows:

67) Bulamadım ama dışarı çıktım.

68) Ama artık unutuldu.

69) Fakat o da ne bir teyze bize uzaktan şöyle bağırdı.

3.2.1.2.4.3 Causals

Causal relation is given by conjunctions such as ‘so’, ‘thus’, ‘hence’, ‘therefore’, ‘consequently’, ‘accordingly’, ‘in consequence(of that)’ (Halliday and Hasan 1976:256). As an example the following sentence can be given:

She felt that there was no time to be lost, as she was shrinking rapidly; so she got to work at once to eat some of the other bit.

In English the following causals can be given as examples: so, then, hence, therefore, consequently, because of this, for this reason, on account of this, as a result, in consequence, for this purpose, with this in mind.

Halliday and Hasan(1976:242)

Some related examples concerning the use of causals in the sample are as follows:

70) Çünkü o gün çok ama çok korkunçtu.

71) Çünkü piknik alanı Sincandaydı.

72) Balıklar oltaya bağlanacakları için korkmuşlardı.

3.2.1.2.4.4 Temporals

According to Halliday and Hasan(1976:261) the relation between two successive sentences may be the time relation between each other.

(Alice) began by taking the little golden key, and unlocking the door that led into the garden. Then she set to work nibbling at the mushroom (Halliday and Hasan 1976:261).

In the example given, the temporal relation is reflected into the sentences by the use of 'then'.

Through the addition of the temporal elements to the sentences, temporal relations can be made more specific.

In English some examples of temporal conjunctions are as follows: (And) then, next, afterwards, after that, subsequently, (just) then, at the same time, simultaneously, earlier, before then/that, previously, at once, thereupon, on which, just before soon, presently, later, after a time, some time earlier, formerly, next time, on another occasion, this time, on this occasion, the last time, on a previous occasion, next day, five minutes later, five minutes earlier, meanwhile, all this time, by this time, up till that time, until then, next moment, at this point/moment, the previous moment (Halliday and Hasan 1976:242).

In Turkish the following sentence is an example:

Her sabah evi topluyor. Sonra akşama yemek yapıyor.

(Every morning she tidies the house. Then she cooks for the evening.)

(Kerslake 1992:86)

Some examples of the temporal conjunctions identified in the sample are as follows:

73) O an öleceğimi sanmıştım.

74) O zaman korktum.

75) Sonrada eve gittim.

76) O gün okula annemde gelmiş.

77) O akşam evde yalnız kalacaktım.

The frequency and rate of conjunctions employed in Beytepe and Şentepe Primary schools are as the following:

Table12: Frequency and rate of conjunctions employed in Beytepe and Şentepe Primary Schools

School of the Student			TEMP_1	ADVER_1	ADDIT_1	CAUSAL_1
BEYTEPE PRIMARY SCHOOL	N	Valid	100	100	100	100
		Missing	0	0	0	0
	Mean		1.7438	.8476	2.0262	.6516
	Std. Error of Mean		.16944	10698	.19823	.12850
	Median		1.6411	.2283	1.6001	.0000
	Std. Deviation		1.69436	1.06977	1.98234	1.28502
	Minimum		.00	.00	.00	.00
	Maximum		7.14	5.00	8.64	6.52
	ŞENTEPE PRIMARY SCHOOL	N	Valid	100	100	100
Missing			0	0	0	0
Mean			2.8826	.4760	1.9124	.2400
Std. Error of Mean			.36815	.13158	.30683	.07207
Median			1.8188	.0000	.0000	.0000
Std. Deviation			3.68146	1.31575	3.06825	.72073
Minimum			.00	.00	.00	.00
Maximum			17.95	8.70	16.00	3.13
P Value		Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.305	.000	.025

Table 12 indicates that additive use at Beytepe and Şentepe primary schools do not have a statistically significant difference ($p=0.305$ $p>0.05$) (2.0 and 1.9). However, in our analysis, a statistical difference is observed in the other conjunction types. Causals and adversatives are frequently used types of conjunctions in Beytepe narratives. It is temporal conjunction which is used more by the Şentepe group. In the light of this information, it can be stated that the use of causal conjunctions is relatively higher(0.6) at Beytepe Primary school when compared with Şentepe Primary school (0.2) ($p=0.000$ $p<0.001$). This finding shows us that the children at Beytepe Primary school give importance to the reasons of events. As a result, they use forms such as ‘because’ . ‘therefore’ or ‘as a result’ more than the children at Şentepe Primary school. The use of adversative conjunctions is 0.8 at Beytepe Primary school and 0.4 at Şentepe Primary school ($p=0.001$ $p<0.01$). The temporal conjunction use is 1.7 in Beytepe Primary school. It is 2.8 at Şentepe Primary school. The children at Şentepe Primary school use more temporal relations in expressing their fright narratives.

3.2.1.2.5 The Overall Discussion of the Syntactic Analysis

Table 13: Syntactic Analysis

Syntactic Analysis	HPE group	LPE group
Simple	69.0	68.3
Complex	30.5	24.2
Sentence	16.3	11.0
Compound	7.2	5.5
Copulative	6.8	3.1
Word/Sentence	5.2	4.7
Existential	3.9	1.6
Compound-Complex	3.0	1.4
Additive	2.0	1.9
Adversative	0.8	0.4
Causal	0.6	0.2
Predicative	88.6	94.5
Temporal	1.7	2.8

At the syntactic level of the analysis, it can be observed that all syntactic characteristics have statistically significant differences between the two groups. Of the thirteen of the syntactic characteristics analyzed, all thirteen differ significantly. The characteristics that have higher frequencies in HPE Group are as follows: simple sentences (HPE Group:69.0, LPE Group:68.3), complex sentences (HPE Group:30.5, LPE Group:24.2), number of sentences (HPE Group:16.3, LPE Group:11.0), compound sentences (HPE Group:7.2, LPE Group:5.5), copulatives (HPE Group: 6.8, LPE Group:3.1), number of word/sentences (HPE Group: 5.2, LPE Group:4.7), existentials (HPE Group:3.9, LPE Group:1.6), compound-complex sentences (HPE Group: 3.0, LPE Group:1.4), Additive conjunctions (HPE Group: 2.0, LPE Group:1.9), adversatives (HPE Group:0.8, LPE Group:0.4), causals (HPE Group:0.6, LPE Group:0.2). However, the following characteristics have higher frequencies in the LPE group: predicative verb (HPE Group:88.6, LPE Group:94.5) and temporal conjunction (HPE Group:1.7, LPE Group:2.8).

Table 13 indicates that the HPE group uses more syntactic characteristics than the LPE group. The number of sentences and the number of words used in a sentence, simple sentences, compound sentences, complex sentences, compound-complex sentences, additive conjunctions, causal conjunctions, adversative conjunctions, copulatives and existential verbs are used more than the other group. The results indicate that the children in the HPE group use a variety of syntactic characteristics, and because of this their fright narratives are consist of more sophisticated forms, and intersentential links between the sentences are stronger due to the use of different types of conjunctions. Thus, these narratives reflect a variety of more complex forms.

When we consider the few high values observed in the Şentepe group, it can be said that the higher frequency of temporal conjunctions and predicative verbs indicate the importance of time and action in the Şentepe Group. Their narratives are mainly based on these two simple features.

Slobin(1988:51) states the mastery of syntactic development by the following words: ‘It is only later than 9 that children master the full range of narrative organization and its syntactic expression, packaging larger sequences of events as narrative units’. In the light of Slobin’s words it is possible to say that the children in the HPE Group have mastered syntactic development completely. However, it can be said that the children belonging to the LPE Group have not completed their syntactic development yet. They tend to use more simple structures expressing their frightening experiences.

In terms of the overall picture, we can say that syntactic level is the most productive level in the comparison of HPE and LPE groups because we observe a statistically significant difference in all the items of the two groups. This means that the difference between the fright narratives of the two groups lies mostly in the syntactic analysis.

3.2.1.3 Temporal Analysis

In this section, our concern will be the reflection of time through temporal elements. In order to analyze time, Toolan (1988:49) defines order which is essential in the

formation of a temporal sequence of narratives: “Order: This refers to the relations between the assumed sequence of events in the story and their actual order of presentation in the text.” Toolan refers to ‘the concept ‘order’ in narration. Order can also be represented verbally through tenses. Consequently, we will observe tenses that are found in personal experience narratives of children. In our analysis, it is observed that Turkish children who are writing about their frightening experiences use the following tenses mainly:

3.2.1.3.1 Tenses

3.2.1.3.1.1 Narrative Past Tense

The sign of this tense is {-mİş}. Speaker uses {-mİş} if he has heard the event from someone else. He may reflect other people’s experiences. Thus, the reported past is expressed by this tense (Kornfilt 1997:337). The use of this tense in narratives and tales shows that the speaker does not have a firsthand knowledge of the events he is describing. Underhill(1976:170) gives the following example to show that the tense is used when the speaker has not experienced the events told personally. Consequently, he is just the reporter of the scene he describes. For example:

Nasrettin hoca bir gün erken kalkmış, ata binmiş, köye gitmiş.

(Nasrettin hoca (they say) got up early one day, mounted his horse, and went to the village!)

Some examples identified from the sample are as follows:

78) Orada bir adam bulmuşlar.

79) Abim bazı planlar yapmış.

80) Canavar maskesi takmış.

3.2.1.3.1.2 Definite Past Tense

The suffix {-DI} is used. Firstly, the suffix denotes that the event described has occurred in the past. Secondly, different from the narrative past, this tense signals that the speaker observed the event that took place. Consequently, he is reporting the events as a witness (Underhill 1976:48).

Hudson and Shapiro(1991:103) point out that in personal experience narratives, frequently the past tense is employed.

Some related examples concerning the use of the definite past tense in the sample are as follows:

81) Birgün bizim parka bir teyze parkımıza köpek getirdi.

82) Birgün akşam kardeşim benim pantolonuma ayağı takıldı.

83) Biz top oynarken top kaçtı.

84) Zil çaldı.

85) Sınıfa girdik.

3.2.1.3.1.3 Progressive Tense

In order to represent this tense, the suffix {-Iyor} is used. This tense is employed when the subject is in the process of performing some action, or if the action is continuing at the moment of speaking (Underhill 1976:112).

Some examples from the sample are as follows:

86) Altı veya yedi yaşında saniyorum.

87) Dicleye gidiyoruz.

3.2.1.3.1.4 Future Tense

The suffix {-EcEk} is added to stems. This tense is used to express what is going to happen. In Turkish the following verbs can be given as examples for future tense use: geleceğim 'I will come', alacağım 'I will take' (Lewis1967:113).

Some related examples concerning the use of future tense in the sample are as follows:

88) Seni babama söyleyeceğim.

89) 02.11.2004 Salı günü çocuk yanacak.

90) Ceza, nefret, Kerem öleceksin.

3.2.1.3.1.5 Simple Present Tense

It expresses continuing activity. It is used for general events and habitual events. The suffix for this tense is {-(I)r} (Kornfilt1997:336).In Turkish the list of aorist is as follows: gelirim 'I come', gelirsin'you come', gelir'he/she comes', gelimiz' we come', gelirsiniz'you come', gelirler'they come' (Lewis 1967:117-118).

Some examples identified from the sample are as follows:

91) Ben bazı şeylerden korkarım.

92) Ben Elif Yağmur Çiftçi dinlediğiniz veya okuduğunuz için teşekkür ederim.

3.2.1.3.2 Mixed Combinations of Tenses

In our analysis, it was observed that some tenses have mixed usages. The following combinations occurred in our sample:

3.2.1.3.2.1 Present Tense+Definite Past Tense

In this combination, we observe the use of {-Ir+D1}. As an example we can give the following sentence from the sample:

93) O günden sonra uyuyamadım çünkü ölüden çok korkardım.

3.2.1.3.2.2 Progressive Tense +Narrative Past Tense

In this tense use, we observe the combination {-iyor+mış}. As an example for this combination from the sample, we can give the following sentence:

94) Annem o anda yemek pişiriyormuş.

95) Üst kattaki komşularımızda balkonda oturuyorlarmış.

96) Bir polis bir gaspçıyı kovalıyormuş.

3.2.1.3.2 .3 Progressive Tense +Definite Past Tense

In this tense use, we observe the combination {-iyor+d1}. The following examples can be given:

97) Bir timsah beni ve kardeşimi öldürmeye çalışıyordu.

98) Birgün oyun oynuyordum.

99) Bisikletime binip geziyordum.

3.2.1.3.2.4 Narrative Past Tense +Definite Past Tense

This tense is the combination of {-mİş+DI}. The following sentences can be given as examples:

100) O zaman çok korkmuştum.

101) Erken kalkmıştım.

3.2.1.3.2 .5 Future Tense +Definite Past Tense

In this tense combination, we observe the use of {-EceK+DI}. The following examples are identified from the sample:

102) Halbuki manyak yazacaktı.

103) Sonra gidecektik.

Table 14 shows the distribution and rate of Tenses employed at Beytepe and Şentepe Primary Schools:

Table 14: Frequency and rate of Tenses employed at Beytepe and Şentepe Primary Schools

School of the student		PROGDPT	DPT	PRSTDPT	NPTDPT	
Beytepe PRIMARY SCHOOL	N	Valid	100	100	100	100
		Missing	0	0	0	0
	Mean		11.7121	66.5889	.1190	11.8587
	Std. Error of Mean		1.01815	2.24531	.08545	1.40084
	Median		10,0000	68.1818	.0000	7.6923
	Std. Deviation		10.18153	22.45307	.85445	14.00843
	Minimum		.00	16.67	.00	.00
	Maximum		42.86	157.14	7.14	68.42
	N	Valid	100	100	100	100
		Missing	0	0	0	0
Şentepe PRIMARY SCHOOL	Mean		7.4045	78.0761	.1250	11.0655
	Std. Error of Mean		1.03341	2.57344	.12500	1.72378
	Median		.0000	82.0856	.0000	.0000
	Std. Deviation		10.33406	25.73440	1.25000	17.23783
	Minimum		.00	.00	.00	.00
	Maximum		50.00	137.50	12.50	75.00
	P Value	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.570	.076

PRESENT	FUTURE	PROG	NARRP	FTDPT	PROGNPT	FUTRNPT
100	100	100	100	100	100	100
0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2.3348	.6312	1.5093	1.8297	1.1943	.2556	.0909
.61082	.24071	.40107	.47062	.31092	.20703	.09091
.0000	.0000	.0000	.0000	.0000	.0000	.0000
6.10816	2.40706	4.01072	4.70616	3.10923	2.07031	.90909
.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
40.00	16.67	21.74	23.08	20.00	20.00	9.09
100	100	100	100	100	100	100
0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1.0250	.0909	3.0216	2.2203	1.4941	.3214	.0000
.33184	.09091	1.21962	.64955	.49173	.18805	.00000
.0000	.0000	.0000	.0000	.0000	.0000	.0000
3.31844	.90909	12.19616	6.49548	4.91728	1.88046	.00000
.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
23.08	9.09	100,00	37.50	33.33	13.33	.00
.046	.018	.181	.805	.438	.651	.317

Table 14 shows that there is not a significant difference in the employment of Present Tense+Definite Past Tense ($p=0.570$ $p>0.05$), Narrative Past Tense+Definite Past Tense ($p=0.076$ $p>0.05$), Past Tense ($p=0.317$ $p>0.05$), Progressive Tense($p=0.181$ $p>0.05$), Narrative Past Tense ($p=0.805$ $p>0.05$), Future Tense+Definite Past Tense ($p=0.438$ $p>0.05$), Progressive Tense+Narrative Past Tense ($p=0.651$ $p>0.05$), Future Tense+Narrative Past Tense ($p=0.317$ $p>0.05$). This means that children in both groups do not differ significantly in the use of these tenses.

The table displays that Progressive Tense+Definite Past Tense is more frequently used at Beytepe Primary School (11.7) than at Şentepe Primary School (7.4) ($p=0.000$ $p<0.001$). There is also a significant difference between the use of the Definite Past Tense. It is the children at Şentepe Primary School (78) that use the Definite Past Tense more than the children at Beytepe Primary School (66.5) ($p=0.000$ $p<0.001$). This may be related to the fact that in the HPE group, there is a high variety of tense use, while in the LPE group, the only tense that is used frequently is definite past tense. Additionally, according to a study carried out by Hudson and Shapiro(1991:113), it was preschoolers and first graders who used the past tense more often in their personal narratives than third graders. Consequently, it is possible to state that as grade increases the use of the

definite past tense decreases. Consistent with their study, it is expected that the use of the definite past tense should decrease as the grade increases. However, in our LPE group, the use of the definite past tense is retained just like the preschoolers and first graders. The use of the Present tense in the two groups also differs significantly ($p=0.046$ $p<0.05$). The children at Beytepe Primary School (2.3) use more Present Tense than the children at Şentepe Primary School (1.0). Likewise, children in Beytepe Primary School (0.6) use more future tense forms than the children at Şentepe Primary School (0.0) ($p=0.018$ $p<0.05$).

3.2.1.3.3 Other Temporal Features

3.2.1.3.3 .1 Passives

Underhill (1976:331) states that the passive suffix is {-IL}, but if there is a verb ending in a vowel or the consonant /l/, the passive suffix is {-In} in that case. For example:

Çalmak ‘strike’	Çalınmak ‘be struck’
Bilmek ‘know’	Bilinmek ‘be known’

(Underhill 1976:332)

In Turkish the following examples can be given:

Yaşar Kemal, en büyük yeni Türk yazarlarından sayılır.

‘Yaşar Kemal is considered one of the greatest modern Turkish writers.’

Mini elbiselerin yasak edileceği halkça bilinir.

‘It is known by the people that miniskirts will be forbidden’.

(Underhill 1976:333)

Some related examples concerning the use of passive forms in the sample are as follows:

104) Çelik tabut açıldı.

- 105) Dün Kerem cinayetle öldürüldü.
- 106) Elektrikler kesildi.
- 107) Kafama dikiş atıldı.
- 108) Bazı yerleri kırıldı.
- 109) Ama artık unutuldu.
- 110) Sonunda Babaannemin kısmi felç geçirdiği anlaşıldı.

3.2.1.3.3 .2 Causatives

A causative verb is formed by adding either {-DIR } or {-t } to the stem of the verb. The {-DIR } suffix comes after consonants, while the {-t } suffix comes after polysyllabic stems in vowels, /r/ and /l/. In Turkish, the following examples can be given: ‘Yemek/Yedirmek’ ‘Eat/Feed’ ‘Ölmek/Öldürmek’ ‘Die/Kill’ ‘Anlamak/Anlatmak’ ‘Understand/Explain’, ‘ Akmak/Akıtmak’ ‘Flow/Pour’ (Underhill 1976:343).

According to Underhill (1976:345) causatives have two meanings:

- 1) ‘The subject caused the indicated action to take place
- 2) ‘The subject permitted the action to take place’.

The meanings of causatives are demonstrated through an example:

Hasan öldü.

Hasan died.

Mehmet Hasan’ı öldürdü.

Mehmet killed Hasan.

In the first sentence, ‘Hasan öldü’ (Hasan died.) who killed Hasan or how he died is unknown, but in the second example sentence, ‘Mehmet Hasan’ı öldürdü’, information about who caused that action is known. That is, Hasan caused the killing event.

Some related examples concerning the use of causative forms in the sample are as follows:

111) Önce röntgen çektirdik.

112) Fareyi evin her tarafına gezdirdik.

113) Arkadaş gelince arabayı polisin olduğu yerin kapısına yerleştirdiler.

3.2.1.3.3 .3 Reflexives

The reflexive suffix is {-In}. In reflexive verbs the ‘subject acts upon himself rather than upon some other object(or person).

For example:

Ahmet yıkandı.

Çocuk giyindi.

(Underhill 1976:358-359)

In the sample, there was no reflexive examples found.

3.2.1.3.4 Mood Markers

Mood is defined as “a grammatical category, typically expressed by verb inflection, which indicates what the speaker is doing with a proposition in a particular discourse situation” (Crystal 1992:257). Mood is distinguished by certain verb forms. There are four moods identified:

3.2.1.3.4.1 Imperative

Underhill (1976:421) states that one of the ways of making commands and requests in Turkish is by using imperative suffixes. For example:

Geldiği zaman burada olma.

‘Don’t be here when he comes’.

Kediye basma.

‘Don’t step on the cat’.

(Underhill 1976:422)

Kornfilt(1997:369) mentions that, second person has no special suffix, this form consists of the bare stem and the following example can be given:

Oku!

‘Read’

An example of an imperative identified from the sample is as follows:

114) Canını kurtar.

3.2.1.3.4.2 Optative

This mood marker expresses a wish for something to come about (Kornfilt1997:371). The optative suffix is [-(y)E]. Underhill(1976:423-424) gives the following examples:

Evvela denize girelim, sonra yemek yeriz.

‘First let’s go swimming; then we’ll eat’.

Ne istediğini anlat bakalım.

‘Let’s see, explain what you want’.

Some examples of optatives identified from the sample are as follows:

115) Bence buradan gidelim.

116) Neyse konuya dönelim.

117) Annem bana ‘gitme kızım ablan gitsin’.

118) Ölümlüler kaçsın.

3.2.1.3.4.3 Necessitative

The Necessitative suffix is [-mEII]. For example:

Gitmeliyim.

‘I have to go’.

Şu saatte Fatma hanım evde olmalı.

‘At this hour Fatma hanım ought to be at home’.

(Underhill 1976:425)

The Necessitative mood was not found in the sample.

3.2.1.3.4.4 Wish-Conditional

The suffix for this mood marker is [-sE] .

Hengirmen(1988:223) gives the following examples:

Çocuklar tatile gitse mi, gitmese mi?

What if the children go to holiday or not?

Bu kitabı okusanız, iyi olur.

It will be better if you read this book.

Some related examples concerning the use of this mood marker in the sample are as follows:

119) Dediğim gibi ya uçuruma düşseydik.

120) İşte o zaman çok korkmuştum ya o çocuğun yerinde ben olsaydım.

3.2.1.3.4.5 Potential

This mood marker is expressed by the suffix {-(y)Ebil}. The ability to do something is given by this suffix. In Turkish we have examples such as: okuyabilirim, okuyabileceğim (Kornfilt 1997:374).

Some related examples concerning the use of the potential marker are as follows:

121) Bende rahatladım ve rahatça uyuyabildim.

122) Havuza girebiliyorum ama yüzemiyorum.

Table 15 displays the frequency and the rate of passives, causatives and mood markers in the sample:

Table 15: Frequency and rate of Passives, Causatives, Reflexives and Mood Markers employed at Beytepe and Şentepe Primary Schools

School of the student			PASS_1	CAUS_1	MOOD_1
Beytepe PRIMARY SCHOOL	N	Valid	100	100	100
		Missing	0	0	0
	Mean		2.4852	.7566	2.2405
	Std. Error of Mean		.48497	.27297	.62684
	Median		.0000	.0000	.0000
	Std. Deviation		4.84972	2.72969	6.26838
	Minimum		.00	.00	.00
	Maximum		20.00	16.67	40.00
Şentepe PRIMARY SCHOOL	N	Valid	100	100	100
		Missing	0	0	0
	Mean		.6538	.3976	.1576
	Std. Error of Mean		.24405	.21570	.11219
	Median		.0000	.0000	.0000
	Std. Deviation		2.44048	2.15701	1.12189
	Minimum		.00	.00	.00
	Maximum		15.38	16.67	9.09
P Value	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.159	.000

As seen in Table 15, Passive use is common at Beytepe Primary School. There is a statistical difference between both groups with regard to passive use: Beytepe Primary School uses 2.4 passives and Şentepe Primary School uses only 0.6 passives in their fright narratives ($p < 0.001$). We can comment on this meaningful difference by saying that the children whose parents have higher levels of education prefer to use more complex structures as passive forms in expressing their fright narratives. According to Sulzby and Zecker (1991:189), in written language it is observed that the passive is employed more than other structures. This result indicates that the children belonging to the HPE Group pay more attention to the rules of written language than the LPE Group.

The causative use between the two groups does not have any statistically significant difference ($p > 0.05$).

However, the use of mood markers has a significant difference ($p < 0.001$). Table 15 depicts the highest frequency of mood marker use at Beytepe Primary School (2.2). Mood markers are less frequently used at Şentepe Primary School (0.1).

3.2.1.4 The Overall Discussion of Temporal Analysis

Table 16: Frequency Analysis of the Temporal Items at Beytepe and Şentepe Primary Schools

Temporal features	HPE Group	LPE Group
Prog+DPT	11.7	7.4
Passive	2.4	0.6
Present Tense	2.3	1.0
Mood	2.2	0.1
Future Tense	0.6	0.0
Definite Past Tense	66.5	78.0
NPT+DPT	11.8	11.0
Narrative Past Tense	1.8	2.2
Progressive Tense	1.5	3.0
FT+DPT	1.1	1.4
Causative	0.7	0.3
Prog+NPT	0.2	0.3
Present+DPT	0.1	0.1
FT+NPT	0.0	0.0
Reflexive	0.0	0.0

Results of Table 16 showed that the HPE Group and LPE Group employ different temporal elements. In the HPE Group, it is observed that five of the temporal elements are significant. These are: Prog+DPT (HPE Group:11.7, LPE Group:7.4), Passive (HPE Group:2.4, LPE Group:0.6), Present Tense (HPE Group:2.3, LPE Group:1.0), Mood (HPE Group:2.2, LPE Group:0.1), Future Tense (HPE Group:0.6, LPE Group:0.0). Consequently, we observe the employment of a variety of tenses in the HPE Group's fright narratives. The presence of these different temporal elements in the HPE Group's fright narratives renders the narrative very vivid and lively.

However, it is observed that only one of the temporal features is statistically significant in the LPE Group, which is the Definite Past Tense (HPE Group:66.5, LPE Group:78.0). This may mean that the children belonging to the LPE group write their fright narratives mostly by using only one tense, which is the definite past tense. Therefore, different tense usage according to situations is not observed in this group. Their narratives are limited to the definite past tense only.

At the Temporal level of the analysis, seven temporal features were found to be statistically insignificant. These are: Present Tense+Definite Past Tense (HPE Group:

0.1, LPE Group:0.1), Narrative Past Tense+Definite Past Tense (HPE Group: 11.8, LPE Group:11.0), Progressive Tense (HPE Group:1.5, LPE Group:3.0), Narrative Past Tense (HPE Group:1.8, LPE Group:2.2), Future Tense+Definite Past Tense (HPE Group:1.1, LPE Group:1.4), Progressive Tense+Narrative Past Tense (HPE Group:0.2, LPE Group:0.3), Future Tense+Narrative Past Tense (HPE Group:0.0, LPE Group:0.0).

3.2.1.5 Semantic Analysis

This part attempts to group the basic semantic fields of child narratives. A semantic field is defined as ‘the organization of related words and expressions into a system which shows their relationship to one another’ (Richards, J., J. Platt, H. Platt, 1992:211). Platt&Platt give the example of kinship terms such as father, mother, brother, sister, uncle to form the notion semantic field in our minds. Kinship terms give us information about generation, sex or whether the person mentioned belongs to the father’s or mother’s side of the family. In the light of this information, we can analyze the semantic fields of personal experience narratives from the sample under the following headings:

3.2.1.5.1 Family, Kinship Relations

Foley (1997:131-133) mentions the importance of kinship notion by saying that ‘mating and reproduction is a necessary feature of any viable society’. For kinship systems the categories parents, spouses, children and siblings can be given. The basic relation is the link found between mother and child.

Kornfilt(1997:519) states kinship terminology by blood and gives the following examples from Turkish: anne, ana (mother), baba, peder, ata (father), nine, büyükanne (grandmother), dede, büyükbaba (grandfather), anneanne (maternal grandmother), çocuk (child), abla (elder sister), ağabey (elder brother), teyze (maternal aunt).

The following are typical example sentences obtained from the sample study:

123) Bir gün babamla bana defter almaya gidiyorduk.

124) Şimdi annem cep telefonunu aldı ve bana doğru gelmeye başladı.

125) Kardeşim doğup biraz büyüyünce zaten tatile gidecektik.

126) Dayım geldi.

127) Yanımızda halam da vardı.

128) Biz babaannelere giderken bir kaza gördük.

3.2.1.5.2 Time Concept

The time of the events is important for narratives. Consequently, in this semantic field the temporal feature of the events can be given. In Turkish, all temporal elements are examples of this semantic field. For example: üç gün önce, beş yaşındayken, salı günü, 2000 yılında, etc.

The following sentences are representative examples of this type:

129) Bir gün okula geldim.

130) 2.11.2004'de Salı günü bir çocuk yanacak.

3.2.1.5.3 Foreign People

Foreign people can be considered as being outside the family and kinship relations. In personal experience narratives of children, the following foreign people can be given as the typical example sentences of this semantic notion:

131) Murat 131 model arabanın ön şoför koltuğundaki adamın yüzünün yarısı kanlıydı.

132) 2.11.2004'de Salı günü bir çocuk yanacak.

3.2.1.5.4 Foreign Space

Kıran and Kıran (2003:194) mention that foreign spaces are places like cinemas, restaurants, etc. An example sentence from the sample is:

133) Bir gün parkta oynuyordum.

134) Bir gün annemden izin alarak ormana gittim.

3.2.1.5.5 Open Space

This semantic field concerns outdoor spaces. Kıran and Kıran (2003:194) give sea, forest, mountain, park as examples for open space. In the sample, the following example sentences are found:

135) Dediğim gibi ya uçuruma düşseydik.

136) Dışarı çıktım.

137) Sonra başka bir yoldan bahçe dışına çıktık.

3.2.1.5.6 Closed Space

This semantic field is related to indoor spaces. As examples for this type of semantic field; room, hospital, cave, palace, house are given(Kıran and Kıran 2003:194).

From the fright narratives of children, we observed the following closed spaces:

138) Annemle birlikte markette alışveriş yapıyorduk.

139) Hastahaneye gelmiştik.

140) Bir gün okuldan geldim.

3.2.1.5.7 Belongings

It refers to the belongings, things, possessions the children own such as bicycle, watch etc. From the sample the following example sentences are found:

141) Annem güzel güzel kıyafetler almıştı.

142) Topuklu bir ayakkabı giydim.

143) Saatini ve kolyesini çaldı.

3.2.1.5.8 Parts of the Body

This semantic field refers to body parts. In Turkish, the following body parts are given as examples: karın (abdomen), kol (arm), çene (chin), göz (eye), parmak (finger), kulak (ear), yüz (face), kaş (eyebrow), omuz (shoulder), bacak (leg) (Kornfilt 1997:524).

Some selected sentences from the sample are as follows:

144) O kadar ağlıyordum ki gözlerim zeytin gibi şişti.

145) Arabadan çıktığımda çok başım dönüyordu.

146) Elimi yüzümü yıkayıp önlüğümü giydim.

3.2.1.5.9 Animals

This semantic field refers to the animals people may observe while experiencing an event. Some example sentences from the sample are as follows:

147) Kapıda bir tavşan gördüm.

148) Sonra köpek gördüm.

149) Otururken bir yılan gördüm.

3.2.1.5.10 Season

This semantic field expresses the season of the events. Some example sentences from the sample are as follows:

150) Yaz tatilinde parka gitmiştik.

151) Bir kış günü annemden dışarıya çıkmak için izin almıştım.

3.2.1.5.11 Geographical Spaces

This semantic field is related to geographical places. In narratives, people may mention about their trips somewhere. Some related example sentences concerning the employment of Geographical Space in the sample are as follows:

152) Samsun'dan gelirken önümüze bir köpek çıktı.

153) Ben yaz tatilinde Çınarcığa gittiğimizde oraya bir tane kedi gelmişti.

3.2.1.5.12 Vehicles

This semantic field is related to vehicles people use when they are travelling somewhere. Some example sentences from the sample are as the following:

154) Sonra eve çıkıp servisimi evde bekledim.

155) Öbür tenefüs araba yoktu.

156) Bir gün ben bisikletten düşmüştüm.

The frequency and the rate of semantic relations in Beytepe and Şentepe Primary schools can be observed in the following table:

Table 17: Frequency and rate of semantic analysis employed at Beytepe and Şentepe Primary Schools

School of the student			FRSMN_1	TCSMN_1	FPSMN_1	FSSMN_1
Beytepe PRIMARY SCHOOL	N	Valid	100	100	100	100
		Missing	0	0	0	0
	Mean		4.9654	1.9378	2.8431	.7737
	Std. Error of Mean		.48829	.16991	.37070	.15671
	Median		3.8648	1.6954	1.4599	.0000
	Std. Deviation		4.88286	1.69910	3.70697	1.56714
	Minimum		.00	.00	.00	.00
	Maximum		24.18	8.06	16.00	7.04
Şentepe PRIMARY SCHOOL	N	Valid	100	100	100	100
		Missing	0	0	0	0
	Mean		6.1435	2.5986	3.5309	1.3655
	Std. Error of Mean		.54299	.29040	.43947	.20857
	Median		5.2778	1.9049	2.0304	.0000
	Std. Deviation		5.42993	2.90400	4.39467	2.08565
	Minimum		.00	.00	.00	.00
	Maximum		20.34	13.04	17.28	7.55
P Value	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.164	.497	.531	.039

OSSMN_1	BLSMN_1	CSSMN_1	PBSMN_1	ANLSMN_1	SEASMN_1	GSSMN_1	VHCSMN_1
100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1.7470	.9654	2.2948	1.3633	1.8284	.1631	.3795	1.2577
.24773	.16945	.27383	.21762	.33478	.04652	.09685	.23228
.8686	.0000	1.5687	.0000	.0000	.0000	.0000	.0000
2.47726	1.69448	2.73834	2.17620	3.34781	4516	.96853	2.32278
.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
14.58	8.82	14.29	9.47	14.08	2.33	7.04	12.00
100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2.0335	1.1068	3.6392	.8671	4.9285	.2116	.3430	1.4181
.30222	.24271	.36654	.17204	1.41281	.13331	.11527	.23925
.4950	.0000	3.3898	.0000	2.0417	.0000	.0000	.0000
3.02220	2.42708	3.66539	1.72039	14.12808	1.33308	1.15272	2.39253
.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
18.60	12.50	18.18	9.09	136.36	12.50	9.09	14.75
.977	.323	.014	.011	.001	.061	.161	.588

Table 17 indicates the difference between the two groups concerning semantic fields such as; ‘family, kinship relations’, ‘time concept’, ‘foreign people’, ‘open space’, ‘belongings’, ‘season’, ‘geographical space’ and ‘vehicle’, which were not found statistically meaningful.

However, the differences in ‘Foreign Space’, ‘Closed Space’, ‘Public Space’ and ‘Animal’ semantic fields were statistically meaningful. In terms of the semantic field ‘Foreign Space’, the children at Beytepe employed 0.7 while this rate is 1.3 in the Şentepe group ($p < 0.05$). In their fright narratives, the children at Şentepe Primary School use more terms about ‘Foreign Spaces’ than the children at Beytepe Primary School. It may be due to the fact that when children whose parents have low educational level go to foreign spaces, this event plays an important role in their lives, and they mention this place in expressing their narratives since going to different places is not part of their lives like for the HPE group. Similarly, in the fright narratives of the children at Beytepe Primary School, ‘closed spaces’ were 2.2. This rate is 3.6 in the fright narratives of the children at Şentepe Primary school with the rate ($p < 0.05$). The Şentepe narratives mention ‘Closed Spaces’ such as house, hospital, class etc. more so than the Beytepe narratives. This result indicates that the fright narratives of the children at Şentepe Primary School take place indoors. The semantic field ‘animal’ is mentioned at the rate of 1.8 at Beytepe Primary School, while it increases to 4.9 at Şentepe Primary School ($p < 0.05$). This finding shows us that the children at Şentepe Primary school speak more about animals. This may be due to the fact that they live in rural areas where they have more access to nature; they can see lots of animals and their frightening experiences are mostly related to animals they see in nature.

Regarding the rate of mentioning about ‘Parts of the Body’, the children of Beytepe Primary School have a rate of 1.3, while Şentepe Primary School’s rate is 0.8 ($p < 0.05$). Thus, it is possible to say that children at Beytepe primary school pay more attention to their body parts than the other group.

3.2.1.6 The Overall Discussion of Semantic Analysis

Table 18: Semantic Analysis

Semantic Elements	HPE Group	LPE Group
Parts of the body	1.3	0.8
Animals	1.8	4.9
Closed Spaces	2.2	3.6
Foreign Spaces	0.7	1.3
Family,Kinship Relations	4.9	6.1
Foreign People	2.8	3.5
Time Concepts	1.9	2.5
Open Spaces	1.7	2.0
Vehicles	1.2	1.4
Belongings	0.9	1.1
Geographical Space	0.3	0.3
Seasons	0.1	0.2

According to table 18, the difference in the four semantic levels was found to be meaningful when we compare the two groups. In the HPE group, the ‘Parts of the Body’ category (HPE Group:1.3 LPE Group:0.8) is statistically significant. In the LPE group, the following semantic elements were found: Animals (HPE Group:1.8 LPE Group:4.9), Closed spaces (HPE Group:2.2 LPE Group:3.6), Foreign Space(HPE Group:0.7 LPE Group:1.3).

In the fright narratives of the HPE Group children, only ‘Parts of the Body’ semantic level has been found statistically significant. These children are more aware of the parts of their body and are sensitive to little injuries that happen to their bodies and receive medical treatment for every injury.

The children who belong to the LPE group encounter ‘animals’ more often than the children belonging to the HPE group. It seems to be the case that in the LPE group’s fright narratives, there are more references to animals as these children are living in rural areas and they have more opportunities chance to see animals than the other group.

Moreover, it is also observed that in the LPE group, the children mention more about ‘foreign spaces’ and ‘closed spaces’ than the HPE group children. This might mean that when these economically disadvantaged children visit different places, this would be an important event in their lives. Therefore, they mentioned more about the places they visited.

At the Semantic level of the analysis in fright narratives, it was observed that eight levels of analysis were found statistically insignificant. These are: Family, Kinship relations (HPE Group:4.9, LPE Group:6.1), Time Concept (1.9, LPE Group:2.5), Foreign People (HPE Group:2.8, LPE Group:3.5), Open Space (HPE Group:1.7, LPE Group:2.0), Belongings (HPE Group:0.9, LPE Group:1.1), Season (HPE Group:0.1, LPE Group:0.2), Geographical Space (HPE Group:0.3, LPE Group:0.3) and vehicles (HPE Group:1.2, LPE Group:1.4). In order to observe the semantic variety used in both groups’ narratives, insignificant values were analyzed in terms of variety analysis. The following table demonstrates the variety of semantic items and the levels of significance used:

Table 19: Variety Analysis of Insignificant Semantic Fields

Variety of semantic fields used	HPE Group(Percentage)	LPE Group(Percentage)	Levels of Significance
Geographical Spaces	60	0.71	59.29
Time Concepts	43.75	30.5	13.25
Belongings	52.43	47.16	5.27
Vehicles	14.10	10	4.1
Seasons	21.42	66.6	45.18
Open Space	29.45	32.97	3.52
Family and Kinship Relations	7.5	10.49	2.99
Foreign People	20.7	20.1	0.6

The values were grouped according to levels of significance as follows:

Group I. (Significance value below number 1) ($p < 1$)

The use of 'Foreign People' by the HPE Group is not significant. Thus, it does not require any comments.

Group II. (Significance value between numbers 3 to 6.8)

Table 19 shows that the children belonging to the HPE Group (52.43%) use more variety of 'belongings' semantic field ($p=5.27$) than the children in the LPE Group (47.16%). The reason for this finding can be related to the fact that these children are more aware of possession. Furthermore, this group is economically more advantaged and thus, have more belongings.

Similarly, the HPE Group (14.10%) children express their fright narratives using more types of 'vehicles' ($p=4.1$) than the LPE group (10%). This is due to the fact that they encounter vehicles more in their daily lives. Probably most of their families have cars.

The use of different forms of 'Open Space' ($p=3.52$) terms by the LPE Group (29.45%) children more than the other group is due to their spending most of their time outdoors. However, the HPE Group children reside in flats and spend most of their time indoors.

The children that belong to the LPE group use various forms of 'Kinship Terms' in expressing their frightening experiences which shows that family relations play an important role in their lives and the families have contact with all other relatives in respective to their families. However, being members of nuclear families, the children in the HPE group have weak relations with the other members of the family. Thus, they use lesser types of kinship terms.

Group III. (Significance value between numbers 13 to 25)

The children belonging to the HPE Group (43.75%) use 'Time Concept' ($p=13.25$) more than the LPE Group (30.5%). This is thus evidence that in the HPE group the children are more aware of 'Time Concept' and they therefore use various forms of it.

Group IV. (Significance value between numbers 34 to 59.29)

The children belonging to the HPE Group (60%) use more forms of ‘Geographical Space’ ($p=59.29$) than the LPE Group (0.71%). The various use of ‘Geographical space’ forms by these children indicates that this group has seen various places and mentioned about these places in their fright narratives.

According to table 22, the semantic field ‘Season’ ($p=45.18$) is employed with more forms in the LPE Group (66.6) than the HPE Group (21.42). The frequent use of ‘Season’ semantic field more by the LPE Group is related to these children’s living in the rural areas close to nature. Thus, these children are aware of nature around them, they have information about plants, seasons and animals. In contrast, the children belonging to the HPE Group live in the city center mostly. Thus, they are unaware of .

The results of the variety analysis reveals that the children belonging to HPE Group and LPE Group differ in their living standards. As a result of this difference the semantic fields they use differ to a great extent.

3.2.1.7 Macro Analysis

This section aims to find out the macro structure of child narratives according to Labov’s framework. The High Parental Education and Low Parental Education groups of child narratives will be analyzed according to Labov’s suggested elements that are expected to be found in a narrative.

Labov(1972) believes that narratives follow a certain order. By this, he means that they begin, they develop and finally they come to an end. A fully developed narrative must have the following categories roughly in this order:

1-Abstract

2-Orientation

3- Complicating Action

4-Evaluation

5-Result or Resolution

6-Coda

In the following section, children's narratives in both groups will be analyzed in terms of these six categories:

3.2.1.7 .1 Abstract

This part answers the question 'What was the narrative about?' . The section is a brief summary of the whole narrative (Labov 1972:370). Labov gives the following extract as an example for the abstract category:

An interviewer asks 'Were you ever in a situation where you were in serious danger of being killed?'

The answer of the respondent is 'I talked a man out of –Old Doc Simon'.I talked him out of pulling the trigger.

In this example, we understand that the narrative is about a person who was courageous enough to pull a gun to a man and talk to him in that position. Consequently, this section tries to attract the attention of the listener and gives some indication that a story will start (Carter et al. 1997:255).

Some examples identified from the sample are as follows:

157) Ben en çok yüzüklerin Efendisinden korkarım.

158) Benim en çok korktuğum an şu andır.

159) Benim korktuğum birçok olay vardır. En çok korktuğum olay annem olmuştu.

160) Ben küçükken hep canavarlar olduğunu sanırdım.

3.2.1.7 .2 Orientation

This section answers the questions ‘Who was the person or persons involved in the narrative?’, ‘When did the events take place?’, ‘What were the events?’ and ‘Where did the events take place?’. These questions identify the time, place and, people involved in the event and the situation (Labov 1972:364). That is, they deal with the identification of the details of the narrative. They settle the context of the narrative.

Some related examples concerning the use of the orientation part in the sample are as follows:

161) Ben küçükken Ocak ayında kayboldum.

162) Kuzenlerim bizde kalacaktı ve yarın evlerine gideceklerdi.

As can be observed from the examples, by giving information about the place, time and the activities, the narrator forms a context about his narrative in the audiences mind.

3.2.1.7 .3 Complicating Action

This part, which is considered as obligatory for the formation of a narrative, answers the question ‘Then what happened?’. In other words, this part contains the climax or high point of the narrative (Labov 1972:370).

Some examples identified from the sample are as follows:

163) Ben oraya kapaklandım. Sonra bisiklet üstüme düştü. Diz kapağım kanamaya başladı.

164) Teyzem bayıldı. Annemle, babam teyzemin bayıldığını duyunca çok korktular.

In all of these examples, there is an event which gives the reason of the narrative being told. So from then there is no need to ask the direct question ‘Then what happened?’ since the climax of the story is already presented.

3.2.1.7 .4 Evaluation

This section is the most important part of the narration. It is possible to say that this section forms the emotional side of the narrative. This part demonstrates why the narrative was told in a particular way and what the narrator’s aim is in doing so (Labov 1972:366). An evaluation can be observed either by evaluative commentary or by embedded speech through the narrative (Carter et al 1997:261). By evaluative commentary, we refer to a comment made by the speaker about events that he experiences. By embedded speech, the effect of the story may be heightened . Carter et al (1997:261) give a classical example of embedded speech in the following sentence:

I said to myself ‘This is it!’

Some examples from the study are as follows:

165) Çok heyecanlıydım.

166) Ödüm patladı.

167) Elimini öyle kalacağından yada parmaklarımı keseceklerinden çok korktum.

It is observed in our analysis that evaluation gives additional information about how the children felt about events they experience.

3.2.1.7 .5 Result or Resolution

This section responds to the question ‘What finally happened?’. The tension decreases suddenly (Labov 1972:370).

Some related examples concerning the use of the resolution part in the sample are as follows:

168) Ve lağım faresi öldü.

169) Ondan sonra o anda hırsız yakalandı.

170) Annem ve babam beni ve arkadaşımı ararken bizi buldular.

171) Kedi fareyi yakalayıp yedi.

3.2.1.7 .6 Coda

These clauses are located at the end of narratives. As an example Labov(1972:365) gives the following sentence found at the end of a narrative:

‘That was one of the most important. ‘

This narrator ends his narrative by emphasizing that the event was the most important event he experienced in his life.

The narrator must indicate that his narrative is finished in some way and while doing this the narrator may give his expressions, his observations about the event and bring the event from the past to the present. Thus, a connection is established with the present by using this section (Labov 1972:365).

The following table displays the frequency and number of Abstract sections employed at Beytepe and Şentepe Primary schools:

Table 20: Frequency and number of Abstract sections employed at Beytepe and Şentepe Primary Schools

		ABSMACRO		Total	
		Non-existent	Existent		
School of the Student	BEYTEPE PRIMARY SCHOOL	Count	92	8	100
		% within Ogrencinin okulu	92.0%	8.0%	100.0%
	ŞENTEPE PRIMARY SCHOOL	Count	96	4	100
		% within Ogrencinin okulu	96.0%	4.0%	100.0%
Total		Count	188	12	200
		% within Ogrencinin okulu	94.0%	6.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.418(b)	1	.234		

Table 20 shows that the use of the abstract section in both Beytepe and Şentepe narratives do not have a statistically significant difference ($p>0.05$). This means that both groups use this section in the same way.

As observed from the table, 8% of the population use the abstract section in the HPE Group, while 4% of the population use this section in the LPE group. However, both groups do not have a statistically significant difference. This means that 92% of the population do not employ the abstract section in the HPE group while this rate is 96% in the LPE group. As a result the abstract section does exist at the same rate in both groups.

The frequency and the rate of the orientation sections used at Beytepe and Şentepe Primary schools can be observed in the following table:

Table 21: Frequency and number of Orientation sections employed at Beytepe and Şentepe Primary Schools

		ORINMACR		Total	
		Non-existent	Existent		
School of the student	Beytepe Primary School	Count	5	95	100
		% within Ogrencinin okulu	5.0%	95.0%	100.0%
Şentepe Primary School		Count	6	94	100
		% within Ogrencinin okulu	6.0%	94.0%	100.0%
Total		Count	11	189	200
		% within Ogrencinin okulu	5.5%	94.5%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.096(b)	1	.756		

Table 21 indicates that both the Şentepe and Beytepe groups employ a similar rate of the orientation section. In the HPE Group, the orientation section exists in 95% of the population, while in the LPE Group, it exists in 94% of the population. There is no statistical difference between the two numbers ($p > 0.05$). In both of the groups, the orientation section is used while expressing their narratives.

The following table displays the frequency and number of complicating action parts employed at Beytepe and Şentepe Primary schools:

Table 22: Frequency and number of Complicating Action sections employed at Beytepe and Şentepe Primary Schools

				COMMACRO		Total
				Non-existent	Existent	
School of the student	Beytepe PRIMARY SCHOOL	Count		3	97	100
		% within Ogrencinin okulu		3.0%	97.0%	100.0%
	Şentepe PRIMARY SCHOOL	Count		6	94	100
		% within Ogrencinin okulu		6.0%	94.0%	100.0%
Total		Count		9	191	200
		% within Ogrencinin okulu		4.5%	95.5%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.047(b)	1	.306		
Fisher's Exact Test				.498	.249

Table 22 indicates that according to the employment of complicating action, there is no statistical difference between Beytepe and Şentepe Primary Schools ($p > 0.05$). The children at Beytepe Primary School (97%) and Şentepe Primary school (94%) used the complicating action part in expressing their fright narratives. This is thus evidence that a narrative without a complicating action part can not occur.

The frequency and the rate of resolution sections used at Beytepe and Şentepe Primary Schools can be observed in the following table:

Table23: Frequency and number of Resolution sections employed at Beytepe and Şentepe Primary Schools

		RESMACRO		Total	
		Non-Existent	Existent		
School of the student	BYTEPE PRIMARY SCHOOL	Count	19	81	100
		% within Ogrencinin okulu	19.0%	81.0%	100.0%
	ŞENTEPE PRIMARY SCHOOL	Count	40	60	100
		% within Ogrencinin okulu	40.0%	60.0%	100.0%
Total		Count	59	141	200
		% within Ogrencinin okulu	29.5%	70.5%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	10.602(b)	1	.001		

The use of the resolution section differs significantly between Beytepe and Şentepe Primary Schools ($p < 0.01$). At Beytepe Primary School, 81% of the population employs result part, while this rate is 60% at Şentepe Primary School. This finding means that the children at Beytepe Primary School indicate the end of the fright narratives more than the children at Şentepe Primary School. However, the children at Şentepe Primary School do not end their narratives.

The frequency and the rate of coda sections used at Beytepe and Şentepe Primary School can be observed in the following table:

Table 24: Frequency and number of Coda sections employed at Beytepe and Şentepe Primary Schools

				CODMACRO		Total
				Non-existent	Existent	
School of the student	BeyTEPE PRIMARY SCHOOL	Count		60	40	100
		% within Ogrencinin okulu		60.0%	40.0%	100.0%
	ŞENTEPE PRIMARY SCHOOL	Count		74	26	100
		% within Ogrencinin okulu		74.0%	26.0%	100.0%
Total		Count		134	66	200
		% within Ogrencinin okulu		67.0%	33.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	4.432(b)	1	.035		

Table 24 indicates to us the significant difference between coda sections employed at Beytepe and Şentepe Primary Schools ($p < 0.05$). The children at Beytepe Primary School employ 40% of the coda section, while the children at Şentepe Primary school employ 26%. It is possible to say that Beytepe Primary School children end their narratives by establishing a relation with the present. They use this section more significantly than Şentepe Primary School children.

The following table displays the frequency and number of evaluation sections employed at Beytepe and Şentepe Primary schools:

Table 25: Frequency and number of Evaluation sections employed at Beytepe and Şentepe Primary Schools

		EVAMACRO		Total	
		Non-existent	Existent		
School of the student	Beytepe PRIMARY SCHOOL	Count	19	81	100
		% within Ogrencinin okulu	19.0%	81.0%	100.0%
	Şentepe PRIMARY SCHOOL	Count	16	84	100
		% within Ogrencinin okulu	16.0%	84.0%	100.0%
Total		Count	35	165	200
		% within Ogrencinin okulu	17.5%	82.5%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.312(b)	1	.577		

Table 25 shows that both Beytepe (81%) and Şentepe Primary Schools (84%) evaluate their fright narratives at relatively the same rate because the number of evaluation uses does not have a statistically significant difference between both groups ($p > 0.05$).

3.2.1.7 The Overall Discussion of Macro Analysis

Table 26: Macro Analysis

Macro Forms	HPE Group	LPE Group
Result	81 81%	60 60%
Coda	40 40%	26 26%
Abstract	8 8.0%	4 4 %
Orientation	95 95%	94 94%
Complicating Action	97 97%	94 94%
Evaluation	81 81%	84 84%

There is a statistically significant difference in the HPE Group's employment of Macro elements. Two macro elements have a significant difference when the two groups are compared. These are: Result(HPE Group:81%, LPE Group:60%) and Coda (HPE Group:40%, LPE Group:26%) part of the narratives. The infrequent use of the result and coda section in the LPE group supported the findings of Bamberg and Moissinac(2003:406) who stated that some of the children at the age of 9 tell narratives that end at the complicating action section. What they mean is that these children do not end their narratives with result and coda parts. Therefore, the narratives of the HPE Group include more complete and elaborated sentences than the LPE Group narratives. As a result, the HPE group children employ more developed narratives in terms of Labovian categories.

The HPE Group children write their narratives in systematic ways to mark the macro structure of narratives. These children are aware of intersentential links between sentences. It is because of this that they try to establish cohesion and use Labov's macro elements in order to narrate their experiences.

Table 26 depicts that at the Macro level of analysis, out of six Macro elements four have statistically insignificant rates in both the HPE Group and LPE group. These Macro elements are the Abstract part (HPE Group:8% LPE Group:4%), the Orientation part (HPE Group:95% LPE Group:94%) the Complicating action part (HPE Group:97% LPE Group:94% and the Evaluation part(HPE Group:81% LPE

Group:84%). This finding suggests that both groups use these macro elements at the same rate.

CHAPTER 4: CONCLUSION

The aim of this dissertation was not only to analyze the structure of child narratives but also to find a correlation between child narratives and parent's educational level. For this purpose, 200 fright narratives were collected from two different primary schools, namely Beytepe Primary School and Şentepe Primary School. In order to make group definitions, a questionnaire was designed and delivered to the parents of the children. Moreover, this questionnaire also attempted to measure the children's interaction inside and outside the family.

As a result of our sociolinguistic analysis, the parents of the children at Beytepe Primary School was found to have high parental education, whereas parents at Şentepe Primary School had low parental education. Moreover, at Beytepe Primary School, where there is high parental education, the rate of interaction both inside and outside the family was found to be significantly higher. Thus, it is possible to state that there is a direct correlation between the educational level of the parents and children's interaction. As the level of education increases, the children's interaction both inside and outside the family also increases.

In terms of the sociolinguistic analysis, there are differences between the high parental education group and the low parental education group. The children that belong to the high parental education group are exposed to use the standard language and it is because of this that they have more advantages than the low parental education group. However, the children at Şentepe Primary School have difficulty in writing about their frightening experiences because they are not familiar with the elaborated code. In this study, it is thought that the Şentepe Primary School children had access to both restricted code and elaborated code. However, for the Şentepe group writing is not an easy skill to do as it is for the Beytepe group. Consequently, this study demonstrates that the Şentepe group children's language can not be considered inadequate or deficit, however, because of the

formality of the writing activity, this group had difficulty in expressing their fright narratives.

In order to show the differences between the High Parental Education and Low Parental Education group narratives, a linguistic analysis was also carried out. This analysis included two levels: 1) micro analysis 2) macro analysis. The micro level of analysis included lexical, syntactic, temporal and semantic analyses of personal experience narratives of children. According to the macro level of analysis, children's narratives are classified in terms of the six units described by William Labov. The significant values obtained as a result of our linguistic analysis is given in the following table:

Table 27: Frequency Analysis of the Significant Values

Lexical Analysis	Syntactic Analysis	Temporal Analysis	Semantic Analysis	Macro Analysis
Significantly higher values in HPE Group	Significantly higher values in HPE Group	Significantly higher values in HPE Group	Significantly higher values in HPE Group	Significantly higher values in HPE Group
Number of Words	Simple Sentence	Progressive	Part of the Body	Result
Adjective	Complex Sentence	Tense+Definite Past		Coda
Relational verbs	Number of Sentences	Tense		
Verbal verbs	Compound Sentence	Passive		
Existential Verbs	Copulative Sentences	Present Tense		
Mental/Cognition verbs	Word/Sentence	Mood		
	Existential Sentences	Future Tense		
	Compound-Complex Sentences			
	Additives			
	Adversatives			
	Causals			

Significantly higher values in LPE Group	Significantly higher values in LPE Group	Significantly higher values in LPE Group	Significantly higher values in LPE Group	Significantly higher values in LPE Group
Personal Pronoun Mental/Affection Verbs Mental/Perception Verbs	Predicatives Temporals	Definite Past Tense	Animals Closed Spaces Foreign Spaces	None

According to Table 27, it can be observed that six lexical items are statistically significant in the HPE Group, whereas this number is three in the LPE group. The significantly higher values in the HPE group are: number of words, adjectives, relational verbs, verbal verbs, existential verbs and mental/cognition verbs. The Beytepe group uses a variety of verbs such as relational verbs, verbal verbs, existential verbs and mental/cognition verbs. Furthermore, in the Beytepe group it was observed that the number of words used in children's narratives increased significantly as the parent's educational level increases. Also, the use of verbal verbs such as 'say and tell' in the Beytepe group shows that these children have a tendency to report the words of other people participating in the event. In addition, the use of cognitive verbs like 'think', 'know' and 'understand' in this group may demonstrate that Beytepe Primary School children's cognitive capacity is more developed than the other group. On the other hand, in the LPE Group the use of Personal Pronouns, Mental/Affection verbs such as 'worry, like' and Mental/Perception verbs such as 'hear, see' are statistically significant, meaning that these children tend to reflect their likes or dislikes more frequently and concentrate on reporting what they see or hear. However, when the significant lexical values of the two groups are compared, it is possible to state that the LPE group children make limited use of lexical items. This indicates that as the level of parental education decreases, the lexical capacity of the children also decreases. Consequently, the Beytepe group's narratives are found to be richer in lexical content.

As for the syntactic analysis, it can be said that this part is where we observe the most significant values in the HPE group. Of the fourteen of the syntactic features analyzed, twelve differ significantly in the HPE group, whereas this number is only two in the

LPE group. The features that are significant in the HPE group are simple sentences, complex sentences, the number of sentences, compound sentences, copulatives, the number of words used per sentence, existentials, compound-complex sentences, additives, adversatives and causals. The significant features in the LPE group are predicatives and temporals. As a result of our syntactic comparison between the HPE and LPE groups, we can say that the children in the Beytepe group, where there is high parental education use a variety of syntactic items, and their narratives are syntactically more developed. The Şentepe group, on the other hand, is considered to have a poor variety of syntactic items. This indicates that the children of the educationally disadvantaged group have not yet completed their language development in order to use such complex syntactic items such as compound sentences, complex sentences, additives, adversatives, causals, etc.

At the Temporal level of the analysis, five temporal features were found to be statistically significant in the HPE Group. These are: progressive tense+definite past tense, passives, present tense, mood and future tense. However, in the LPE group, only the use of definite past tense is statistically significant. The frequent use of tenses, mood markers and passives in the Beytepe group demonstrates that this group is able to express themselves by using many tenses and complex structures such as passives and mood markers. Thus, their language capacity, considering the temporal features, seems to be well developed. Furthermore, the Şentepe Group is not able to use a variety of tenses. Moreover, their narratives are limited to the use of only one tense, namely past tense. As a result, it can be said that the educational level of the parents also influences the children's choice of temporal elements.

Considering semantic analysis, the only significant value in the Beytepe group is the 'part of the body' section, indicating that these children give importance to their health conditions and receive adequate medical care. However, in the Şentepe group, children are unaware of their physiological properties. In the Şentepe group, three semantic items are statistically significant. These are: 'animals', 'closed space' and 'foreign space'. This difference might be due to the different life styles of the two groups we have compared. The Şentepe group children usually live in the suburbs of Ankara and have more access to nature, whereas the Beytepe group children usually live in apartments in

the city center. As a result, the semantic comparison between the two groups gives us information about their life styles and their world view in general. It is possible to state that the educational level of the parents is directly related with the life styles of the two groups, and this is reflected in the semantic selections of the children through their narratives.

In terms of Macro Analysis, two sections are found to be significant at Beytepe Primary School. These are: the result and coda parts. This finding indicates that the Beytepe group children use 'result' and 'coda' parts more frequently than the other group. Moreover, this result also indicates that, as the parents' level of education increases, children's narratives become more well-developed, logically more well-organized in terms of Labov's categories that are claimed to be found in all fully-developed narratives.

As a result of our micro analysis, some items are found to be statistically insignificant. Nine lexical items are statistically insignificant in both groups. These are: proper nouns, abstract nouns, concrete nouns, material verbs, behavioural verbs, reflexive pronouns, reciprocal pronouns, possessive pronouns and indefinite pronouns. In terms of syntactic analysis, it was observed that there were no statistically insignificant elements in both groups. Considering the Temporal analysis, seven temporal features were found to be statistically insignificant. These are: present tense+definite past tense, narrative past tense+definite past tense, progressive tense, narrative past tense, future tense+definite past tense, progressive tense+narrative past tenses, and future tense+narrative past tense. For the Semantic level of the analysis, 'family and kinship relations', 'time concept', 'foreign people', 'open space', 'belongings', 'season', 'geographical space' and 'vehicles' were found statistically insignificant. For the macro analysis, four parts have insignificant values. These are: abstract part, orientation part, complicating action part and evaluation parts. Thus, it can be stated that both groups employ these sections at the same rate in their fright narratives. However, when a variety analysis is carried out for those insignificant values, we obtain different results. The following table shows us the variety analysis of the insignificant items found in our linguistic analysis:

Table 28: Variety Analysis of Insignificant Lexical and Semantic Items

Lexical Analysis	Semantic Analysis
Significantly higher values in HPE Group	Significantly higher values in HPE Group
Indefinite Pronouns	Geographical Space
Concrete Nouns	Belongings
Abstract Nouns	Time Concept
Reflexive Pronouns	Vehicles
Possessive Pronouns	
Significantly higher values in LPE Group	Significantly higher values in LPE Group
Behavioural Verbs	Season
Proper Nouns	Open Space
Reciprocal Pronouns	Family and Kinship Relations

As observed in table 28, five of the lexical features in the HPE Group are found to be statistically significant at the lexical level of the analysis. These are: indefinite pronouns, concrete nouns, abstract nouns, reflexive pronouns and possessive pronouns. In the LPE Group, however, only three items have more variety of forms. These are: behavioural verbs, proper nouns and reciprocal pronouns.

In terms of the variety analysis of Lexical items, it can be said that the Beytepe group employs certain lexical features with more forms of variety than the Şentepe group. This finding indicates that although there is no significant difference in the use of these lexical items between the two groups, the variety analysis shows us that the Beytepe group uses more variety of items. Thus, it is possible to say that a high level of parental education has an influence on the vocabulary development of children, and thus, they use more variety of lexical items.

As for the variety analysis of the semantic items, four features are found to be significantly higher in the Beytepe group where it is only two in the Şentepe group. The semantic items which have higher variety values in the Beytepe group are 'geographical space', 'belongings', 'time concept' and 'vehicles'. The Şentepe group,

on the other hand, uses more variety of forms only for the 'season' and 'Open Space' categories, which is directly related with the life style of the group. This result is also in parallel to our findings in the lexical variety analysis. A high level of parental education increases variety in the use of children's semantic categories.

In sum, when contrasting the narratives of children from different parental education backgrounds, it was observed that the Beytepe and Şentepe groups differ from each other regarding the micro and macro levels of the study. The findings of this study suggest that the educational level of the families have a great impact on the lexical, syntactic, temporal, semantic and macro choices of children. Furthermore, it was also observed that the length of the narratives increases significantly in proportion to the educational level of the parents. Moreover, in the Beytepe group it was observed that there were longer sentences, more words per sentence, a higher number of words, more adjectives, more complex sentences, passive constructions, mood markers, more variety of tenses and abstract noun varieties. However, in the Şentepe group, there were less significant lexico-grammatical features and less variety in lexical and semantic choices. The same conclusion can be reached for the macro structures of the children's narratives. The narratives of the Beytepe group children, whose parents have high level of education, are more well-developed and exhibit all the macro structures presented by Labov for fully-developed narratives. As a result, it can be said that parental education is an important factor in the linguistic choices of the 9 to 10 year old children's personal experience narrative writing.

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APPENDIX I:Translations of the sample sentences

- 1) Then we took courage and entered the room through the door.
- 2) I always ride my bicycle around that park.
- 3) Then we took courage and entered the room through the door.
- 4) We pierced the mystery of this, too, and never went there again.
- 5) One day, Ayhan, Mertcan, Ege and I heard that there were horrible words written on the walls of the sports hall.
- 6) Following that day, my father came from Balıkesir.
- 7) The steel coffin opened.
- 8) There were huge blood stains/spots.
- 9) A policeman was said to hit a citizen and he was covered by a white cloth.
- 10) One day, an angry cat entered/went into our house.
- 11) One day, an old lady brought a dog to our park.
- 12) He said 'Give me your telephone number'.
- 13) One day, I came/had come to school.
- 14) We have our own pool in our village.
- 15) When we were throwing snowballs to each other I slid.
- 16) Tomorrow, when I was going to school, I saw a boy, but his head was bleeding.
- 17) Then the dog chased one of the boys.
- 18) There was something like wood in our house.
- 19) When I rang the bell, nobody opened the door.
- 20) I could not see anything when I turned my back.
- 21) Then we took courage and entered the room through the door.
- 22) He stuck a white plaster.
- 23) As I was very scared, I could not sleep.
- 24) I was about to cry.
- 25) I immediately fell asleep.
- 26) One day I saw a piece of writing behind the sports hall.
- 27) We even were not able to hear what my mother said as we were very scared.
- 28) At that time I was very scared.
- 29) We felt very happy.

- 30) Then I thought the man in the car would die.
- 31) Yet, I thought that the repairman was a thief.
- 32) We decided to go to the building where I live.
- 33) 'I can not remember that I was frustrated/shaken' he said.
- 34) My sister said as such:
- 35) The things we heard were really true.
- 36) I was very happy.
- 37) My father had died.
- 38) There were huge blood stains/spots.
- 39) But it/he/she had nails.
- 40) The car was not there the following break.
- 41) We saw an old lady.
- 42) My father came.
- 43) I was scared.
- 44) The bell rang.
- 45) Four of us were very scared and ran into the hall right away.
- 46) Then we sang songs on the way to home and then arrived home.
- 47) We went near the old lady and helped the old lady.
- 48) My father and the others caught the mouse and threw it away.
- 49) When I pushed the door with force, my hand stuck inside it.
- 50) They said that it looks like pastel at first look but I did not believe it.
- 51) We thought it was a spirit but as there was blood it was a murderer.
- 52) When I was a child, I was fondling the goose chick, I was scared and I thought it would bite me.
- 53) One day, Ayhan and Mertcan saw weird writings behind the sports hall.
- 54) I was very scared.
- 55) I went to the Hacı Sabancı Swimming Pool in Ankara.
- 56) It was still exciting.
- 57) We thought it was a spirit but as there was blood it was a murderer.
- 58) He was said to be dead.
- 59) The men in the car had black lighters.
- 60) Mertcan was with me.

- 61) The car was not there the following break.
- 62) But it had nails.
- 63) My friend Merve is there.
- 64) I saw a dog when I was going to pick my brother from the army with my mother and father.
- 65) I dreamed a dog and dreamed a snake while I was sleeping.
- 66) I am also scared when I am going to grocery's or to another place.
- 67) I could not find but I went out.
- 68) But now, it was forgotten.
- 69) But how strange! An old lady yelled as such:
- 70) Because that day was very, very scary.
- 71) Because the picnic area was at Sincan.
- 72) The fish were scared of being tied to the fishline.
- 73) I though I was going to die at that moment.
- 74) I was scared at that moment.
- 75) Later I went home.
- 76) That day my mother was also at school.
- 77) That night I was going to stay alone at home.
- 78) They found a man there.
- 79) My brother made some plans.
- 80) He was wearing a monster mask.
- 81) One day, an old lady brought a dog to our park.
- 82) One night my brother/sister stumble upon my trousers.
- 83) When we were playing with the ball, the ball was rolled
- 84) The bell rang.
- 85) We entered to the class.
- 86) I think he is six or seven years old.
- 87) We are going to Dicle.
- 88) I will complain about you to my father.
- 89) The child will burn on Tuesday, 02.11.2004.
- 90) Punishment, hate, Kerem, you will die.
- 91) I am scared of something.

- 92) I, Elif Yağmur Çiftçi, thank you for listening or reading.
- 93) I could not sleep since that day, because I am scared of dead people.
- 94) My mother was cooking at that time.
- 95) Our neighbours living upstairs were also sitting in the balcony.
- 96) A policeman was running after a usurper.
- 97) A crocodile was trying to kill me and my brother.
- 98) One day. I was playing.
- 99) I was biking around.
- 100) I was very scared at that time.
- 101) I had waken up early.
- 102) Yet, he was supposed to write maniac.
- 103) We would have gone later.
- 104) The steel coffin opened.
- 105) Yesterday, Kerem was murdered.
- 106) The power went off.
- 107) They sutured my head.
- 108) Some parts of it were broken.
- 109) But now, it is forgotten.
- 110) At last, it was understood that my grandmother had a partial stroke.
- 111) First, we had taken an x-ray.
- 112) We exercised the mouse in every part of the house.
- 113) When our friend arrived., they parked the car at the door where the police stood.
- 114) Save your life.
- 115) I think, we'd better go.
- 116) Now, let's turn back to the point.
- 117) My mother told me 'you stay here dear, let your sister go'.
- 118) The mortal run away.
- 119) As I said, what if we had fallen down the cliff.
- 120) At that time I was very scared, what if I were that boy.
- 121) I also felt relieved and could sleep comfortably.
- 122) I can go into the pool but I can not swim.
- 123) One day, I and my father were going to the shop to buy me a notebook.

- 124) Now, my mother took her mobile phone and came closer to me.
- 125) We were already planning to go to holiday after my brother was born and grew a bit older.
- 126) My uncle came.
- 127) My aunt was also with us.
- 128) We saw an accident when we were going to my grandmother's house.
- 129) One day I came to school.
- 130) A child will burn on Tuesday, 2.11.2004.
- 131) The half of the face of the man sitting on the front seat of a Murat 131 was covered with blood..
- 132) A child will burn on Tuesday, 2.11.2004.
- 133) One day, I was playing in the park.
- 134) One day, I went to the forest by taking permission from my mother.
- 135) As I said, what if we had fallen down the cliff
- 136) I went out.
- 137) Then we went out of the garden from another way.
- 138) I was shopping in the market with my mother.
- 139) We had come to the hospital.
- 140) One day, I came from school.
- 141) My mother bought very nice clothes.
- 142) I wore a pair of high-heeled shoes.
- 143) He stole her watch and bracelet.
- 144) I was crying my heart out so my eyes got swollen like olives.
- 145) When I got off the car, I felt dizzy.
- 146) I washed my hands and face and wore my uniform.
- 147) I saw a rabbit at the door.
- 148) Then I saw a dog.
- 149) I saw a snake when I was sitting.
- 150) We went to a park in the summer holiday.
- 151) One winter day, I took permission from my mother to go out.
- 152) We came across a dog when we were coming from Samsun.
- 153) I saw a cat during our summer holiday in Çınarcık.

- 154) Then I went home and wait for my bus service there.
- 155) The car was not there the following break.
- 156) One day I fell down my bicycle.
- 157) I am most scared of Lord of the Rings.
- 158) The most scary time for me is now.
- 159) I am scared of many things. I was most scared of my mother.
- 160) In my childhood, I used to believe that there were monsters.
- 161) When I was a child, I was lost in January.
- 162) My cousins were supposed to stay in our house and go back to their house the following day.
- 163) I fell down there. Then the bicycle fell upon me. My knee started to bleed.
- 164) My aunt fainted. When my mother and father heard that my aunt fainted they were very worried.
- 165) I was very excited.
- 166) I was scared out of my wits.
- 167) I was very worried that my hand would remain like that or they might cut my fingers.
- 168) And the rat died.
- 169) Then, at that moment, the burglar was caught.
- 170) My father and mother found us when they were looking for me and my friend.
- 171) The cat caught the mouse and ate it.

APPENDIX II: Written Questionnaire

ANKET

İlişikteki anket Hacettepe Üniversitesi İngiliz Dilbilimi Bölümünde yürütülmekte olan bir doktora tez çalışması ile ilgili bir ankettir. Bu anket ilköğretim 3. sınıf öğrencilerini kapsamaktadır. Söz konusu anketi doldurarak çocukların ‘Kişisel Deneyim Anlatısı’ aktarımları ile ilgili tutumlarını incelememize yardımcı olmaktadır. Yardımlarınız için şimdiden teşekkür ederim.

Arş.Gör. Suhan Akıncı Oktay
Hacettepe Üniversitesi
İngiliz Dilbilimi Bölümü

1. Çocuğunuza yakınlığınız:

- Anne Baba Diğer (belirtiniz)

2. Çocuğunuzun adı ve soyadı:

3. Cinsiyeti: Kız Erkek

4. Doğum Tarihi:

5. Mesleğiniz:

6. Eşinizin Mesleği:

7. Eğitim durumunuz:

- Hiç eğitim almadım.
 İlkokul mezunuyum.
 Lise mezunuyum.
 Yüksekokul/Üniversite mezunuyum
 Yüksek Lisans ve doktora mezunuyum.

8. Eğer üniversite mezunu iseniz eğitimi aldığınız alanı belirtiniz

9. Eşinizin Eğitim durumu:

- Hiç eğitim almadı.
 İlkokul mezunuyum.
 Lise mezunuyum.
 Yüksekokul/Üniversite mezunuyum
 Yüksek Lisans ve doktora mezunuyum.

10. Eğer eşiniz üniversite mezunu ise eğitimi aldığı alanı belirtiniz.

11. Çocuğunuzun kardeşi var mı?

Evet Hayır

12. Kardeş sayısı kaç?

a)1 b)2 c) 3 d) 4 ve üstü

13. Çocuğunuzun algılama ve konsantrasyonu engelleyici bir rahatsızlığı var mı?

Evet Hayır

14. Çocuğunuz boşanmış bir ailenin çocuğu mu?

Evet Hayır

AİLE İÇİ ETKİLEŞİM

1. Ailece Görüştüğünüz kişiler ve görüşme sıklıkları aşağıdaki seçeneklerden hangisine uymaktadır. (Birden çok seçenek işaretleyebilirsiniz.)

	Hiç	Az	Sık
Akraba çevresi	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
İş çevresi	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Diğer çevreler	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

2. Çocuğunuz aile ziyaretlerine sizinle birlikte gelir mi?

Evet Bazen Hayır

3. Çocuğunuzla evinizde ‘scrabble’, adam asmaca veya İsim, bitki, şehir....gibi dil oyunları oynar mısınız?

Evet Bazen Hayır

4. Çocuğunuzun ödevlerine ne sıklıkta yardım edersiniz?

Hiç Az Sık

5. Çocuğunuz okuldan eve geldiğinde okulda ne yaptığını, gününü nasıl geçirdiğini anlatmasını ister misiniz?

Evet Hayır

6. Çocuğunuz size başından geçen herhangi bir olayla ilgili yaşadıklarını anlatırken çocuğunuza nasıl bir tepki verirsiniz?

Çocuğumun anlattıklarını ciddiye alır, onun anlattıklarıyla ilgilendiğimi belirtirim.

Çocuğumun anlattığı hikâyeleri müsaitsem dinlerim .

Genelde işlerim çok yoğun olduğundan onu fazla dinleme fırsatım olmaz.

8. Çocuğunuz okuma yazma bilmediği dönemde çocuğunuza kitap okur muydunuz?

Evet Hayır

7. Düzenli olarak kitap ve gazete okuma fırsatınız oluyor mu?

Hiç Az Sık

8. Çocuğunuz ne sıklıkla kitap okur?

Hiç Az Sık

9. Çocuğunuzun okuduğu herhangi bir kitabı size anlatmasını ister misiniz?

Evet Bazen Hayır

10. Çocuğunuzla birlikte sesli olarak kitap, dergi, gazete okur musunuz?

Hiç Az Sık

11. Günde ortalama ne kadar süre televizyon seyredip, radyo dinliyorsunuz?

Hiç Az Sık

12. Çocuğunuz ortalama ne sıklıkla televizyon seyredip, radyo dinliyor?

Hiç Az Sık

13. Çocuğunuz masal kasetleri dinler mi?

Evet Bazen Hayır

14. Çocuğunuzun bilgisayar veya internete erişim olanağı var mı?

Evet Bazen Hayır

15. Cevabınız evet ise ne sıklıkla bilgisayar veya internete erişim olanağı var?

Hiç Az Sık

16. Çocuğunuz haftalık bir dergi okuyor mu?

Evet Bazen Hayır

17. Çocuğunuzun Türkçesi evdeki büyükler tarafından ne ölçüde düzeltiliyor?

Hiç Az çok

AİLE DIŞI ETKİLEŞİM

1. Çocuğunuz okul dışında bir çocuk kulübüne üye mi veya herhangi bir sosyal faaliyete katılır mı?

Evet Hayır

2. Çocuğunuzun sınıfta en çok sevdiği arkadaşının adını ve soyadını yazar mısınız?

.....

3. Çocuğunuzun sinema, tiyatro gibi ortamlara ne sıklıkta gider?

Hiç Az Sık

4.Çocuğunuzun izlediği dizi veya filmi kendisi ile konuşur musunuz?

Hiç Az Sık

5.Çocuğunuz ev dışındaki mekânlarda arkadaşlarıyla ne sıklıkta vakit geçirir?

Hiç Az Sık

6.Çocuğunuz okul dışındaki zamanını nasıl değerlendiriyor? (Birden çok işaretleyebilirsiniz)

	Hiç	Az	Sık
Kitap okuyarak	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Oyun oynayarak	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Televizyon seyrederek	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Kurslara ve faaliyetlere katılarak	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

7.Anketle ilgili eklemek istediğiniz buraya görüşlerinizi yazabilirsiniz.

INTERACTION INSIDE THE FAMILY

1. Which of the following below is suitable for the meeting periods and the people you meet as a family? (you can fill in more than one item)

	Never	Rarely	Often
Parental environment	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Work environment	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Other environment	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

2. Do you go to family meetings together with your child?

Yes Sometimes No

3. At home do you play language games like scrabble, hangman or name, plant, country.....with your child?

Yes Sometimes No

4. How often do you help with your child's homework?

Never Less Often

5. Do you want your child to tell you about what he has done at school, how he has spent his day when he comes home from school?

Yes No

6. What kind of a reaction do you have when your child is telling you about an event that he has experienced?

I will take the things he tells seriously, I will show him that I am interested in the things he tells me.

If I'm available I will listen to the narratives my child tells.

Generally, because I'm very busy, I will not have the opportunity to listen to him.

7. When your child was illiterate, did you read books to your child in that period?

Yes No

8. Do you have opportunities to read books and newspapers regularly?

Never Rarely Often

9. How often does your child read books?

Never Less Often

10. Do you want your child to tell you about a book that he has read?

Yes Sometimes No

11. Do you read books, magazines with your child out loud?

Never Rarely Often

12. Per day what is the average period that you watch TV and/or listen to the radio?

Never Rarely Often

13. How often does your child watch TV or listen to the radio?

Never Rarely Often

14. Does your child listen to fairytale cassettes?

Yes Sometimes No

15. Do your child have the opportunity to use a computer or the Internet?

Yes Sometimes No

16. If your answer is yes how often can he access a computer or the Internet?

Never Rarely Often

17. Does your child read weekly magazines?

Yes Sometimes No

18. At what rate do the parents at home correct the child's Turkish?

- Never Seldom Often

INTERACTION OUTSIDE THE FAMILY

1. Is your child a member of a club outside the school or does he join social activities?

- Yes No

2. Can you write the name and surname of the child that your child loves most?

.....

3. How often does your child go to places like cinema or theatre?

- Never Seldom Often

4. Do you talk about films or series that your child has watched?

- Never seldom Often

5. How often does your child spend his spare time outdoors with his friends?

- Never Seldom Often

6. How does your child spend his spare time? (you can fill in more than one item)

	Never	Seldom	Frequently
Reading	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Playing	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Watching TV	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Attending the courses and activities	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

7. You can add your opinion about the written questionnaire.

APPENDIX IV: Sample Narratives of Beytepe and Şentepe Primary School students

Adı: Eylül Soyadı: Yeniağvas Beytepe İlköğretim Okulu

sınıfı: 3-C Okulu: Beytepe 100

Neden Korktum?

KORUKU

O gün evde ders çalışıyordum. Babam mutfağı topluyor, annem banyo yapmıştı. Bir an yerimden kalkıp odama gittim. Kalemim bozulmuştu yeni kalem alacaktım. Kalemimi aldım ve salona döndüm. 1-2 saat için dersi bırakıp televizyon izlemeye başladım. Bahçemde saat 3:13'te. Tezker ders çalışmaya başladım. Annem gelmişti. Evden geldim. Oturma odasından sesler gelmeye başladı. Çok korkmuşum. İleriyeye girdim. Karşımda ne görüyordum? Kardeşimin yatağını tamir eden tamirci... Tamirci işini bitirmişti. Parasını verdim. O da evine gitti. Gittikten sonra kendime güldüm. Oysa o tamirciyi bir hırsız sanmıştım!...

Berkay Yılmaz
31C 404

Beştepe İlköğretim Okulu

Bir gün okulda spor salıncının arkasından Aykan ile k Me
san görüp görüp yazılar gördüler anneler çok korktu on bakınca pastel
boya gibi gözüküyor dediler ama inanmadım sonra orada kurtu bir
imke buldular onu da görünce çok korkmaya başladım sonra öğretmenle
birlikte oraya baktık yine bir şey anlayamadım sonra dış duruş araba
kapuz dandé diğer tenaffüs onun yerine başka bir araba geldi ağuşa
bir rüzgâr olmadı ki halde sallanıyordu scarfin yarısından fazlası araya
gitti sonra Aykan'ın annesi bize gösterdi pastel boya çıktı dediler biz
gine inanmayıp araştırdık yemekten sonra 1966'lı yıllarda oranın mezarlık
olduğunu öğrendik araştırdık dermayıp araştırdık ruh sandık ama kan oldu
ju için katil idi orada bir adam adam bulmuşlar geyi slüymüş sonunda
niç bir şey bulamadık ama yine heyecanlı idi araştırmayı devam dedik
sonuçta elde hiçbir şey bulamadık.

Beytepe İlköğretim Okulu

Beycan Okumuş

31C 1499

KAN Beytepe İ.Ö. Okulu

Biz 215. sınıfta Değişim ünitesini işliyorduk. Zil çaldı sınıfa girdik. Öğretmenimiz 3. derste can matematik dersine fax geldiği söyledi. Orada duran abi fax makinesinin nasıl çalıştığını bize anlattı. Sonra biz geldik. Sıra olup çıktık. Ama Ege, Enes ve Ben hastalık ben kapıyı hızlı itince elimi i-ine girdi benim hastaneye kaldırıldı. 5 ay sonra ben iyileştim. Ama o-alay olur ben çok korktum. Elimin öyle kalacağından gıda parmaklarımın keseciklerinden çok korktum.



Beytepe İlköğretim Okulu

Adı: Canberk

Soyadı: Güzelcan

Okulu: Beytepe s.ö.ö.

Spor Salonunun arkasındaki Yazılar

Bir gün Ayhan, Mertcan, Furkanın spor salonunun arkasında korkunç yazılar olduğunu duyduk. Oraya gittiğimizde gitarı çalarak karar verdik. Aslında bir anda korkuyorduk. Sonra cesaretimizi toplayıp kapıdan içeri girdik. Gerçekten duyduk doğruydum. Mertcan şöyle söyledi:

- Bence buradan gideyim arkadaşlar! Ama bir kaçakçı olmadan gitmeye karar verdik. Yazıların başlatıcısıdır. Onları baktık. Korkunç yazılar baktık. Yazılar şöyleydi:

"Kızın nefret!" "Gelik tabut geldi, ölümün kaçınılmazı!" "Ölümler canlandı!" "Dün Kerem cinayete uğradı!" "Kan!" "Cannu seven kaşın" gibi yazılardı. Çok korkunçtü. Aaa... aaaa... aaaa... diye uluk uluk kaktık. Sonra Mertcan bir kere sarıldı. Mertcan'a niye sarıldığını sorduk. Mertcan:

- Ne sarıldım? Ben sarıldığım için hatırlamıyorum dedi. Mertcan'ın etkin gözlemlerini sor konuştuk. Yazıların en korkunçü söyledi.

"02.14.2008'de Salı gününde bir çocuk ve annesi Kerem'in kanı ile geldi. Merit 189 model arabamın ön kaportasında adamın yarısını gördük. Kızıyla Ayşe'ye rapor çıkmadığı taktide salladı. Karıdan kanınca ileride derye arkama baktım. Bir odun parçası havada durdu. Pembe kışa tutmuştu. Aradan iki günün geçti. Çine araya gittik. Gelik tabutu altında kampaçınımızı bir palazın y. İndük. Burada gıcır gıcır sesler ve bir daha araya hiç gitmedik.

Adım: İdil
Soyadım: Sengüç

Okulum: Beytepe İlköğretim Okulu
Sınıfım: 3/A
Numaram: 174

Beytepe İlköğretim Okulu

Korktuğum Birkaç Olay

Birinci sınıftayken çok hastaydım, Annem bana:

-Bu haldeyken kasma demisti. Bu haldeyken, yani hastayken ben annenle dinlemeyip deliler gibi kasmıstım. Bu sefer o kadar halsiz düştüm ki, annem iki gün sonra çok halsiz olduğumuyacağımın üzerine bir kabarcıklık olduğunu söyledi. Hafta sonunda annem beni bir doktora götürdü. Doktor hastayken kasmığın için yürüyemediğimi her yerde bu yüzden kabarcıklar çıkıyormuş.

Eve gittiğimizde en çok annemin morali bozulmuştu. Bana şöyle dedi:

-Eğer böyle giderse yürüyemeyeceksin. Bu yüzden çok korktum. Artık her yere annemin kucağında gidiyordum. Annemin vereceği tepkiden de korkuyordum. Her gün ateşli ateşli yatıyordum. Neredeyse korkudan tırnaklarımı yiyordum. O kadar çok gün geçti ki sayamadım. Annemin hala morali bozuktu. Ona yavaş yavaş iyileşmekte olduğumu söyleyemedim. Ama benim moralimi düzeltiyordu annem. Hala annemin ve doktorumun bana yaptığı iyiliklere şükreliyorum. Bu olayı kalbimde yaşatarak hasta olmamaya çalışıyorum. Ancak bu olay sayesinde, elimde olmasada, hala korkuyorum. Bu olayı tekrar yaşamamı sağlayanlara da teşekkür ediyorum. Şansa yakın iyileştim ve burabira kadar geliyorum!

Zeynep Kılıç
Beytepe İlköğretim Okulu

Beytepe İlköğretim Okulu

Benim 3 yaşında bir kardeşim vardı. Akın. Birgün bir kafeye ben, kardeşim ve babam gittik. Babam le-to oynamak için arkasını döndü. Kasanın yanında bir merdiven vardı ve dönemeçli, uzundu. Onun, yani merdiven girişinin hemen yanında bir akvaryum duruyordu. Akvaryumun bir tarafı merdivenin boşluğuna bakıyordu. Ben akvaryuma bakmaya gittim. Bir dakika sonra Akın yanıma akvaryuma bakmaya geldi. Ne yazık ki merdiven tarafından gelmişti ve ben onu tutamadan aşağıya paldır-kıldır yuvarlandı. Aşağıya popo üstü düşmüş. Ama kafasını da hafifçe çarpmış. Onu aşağıya düşürdüğünde gördüm. Çok ama çok korktum. Hatta o kadar korktum ki, ağlamaya başladım. Oradaki çalışanlardan biri, bana sordu. Ama ağlamam kesilmedi. Sanırım bu en çok korktuğum olay oldu.

zile Aykan
kno3
v/c 178

Beytepe İlköğretim Okulu

Ruh

Bir gün spor salonunun arkasında bir gazı gördüm. Yanımda Mehmet vardı. Yazı Feliktabutun kapağı açıldı ölmüşler kaşın. Yazıyordu. Ter geçen tenefüs gazılar kanlı göz, canını seven kaşın, Capını kurarsın, 02 11 2004 Salı günü çocuk yanacak, ceza nefret, Kerem öçeksinsin, katli kus geç kaldı, mar kapı mamyoğı sardı. Falam gazdığını önce korktuk. Ve duvardan kan gelmeye başladı. Tam o sırada bir uyltu kaşın diyordu. O Zama sığın bir göge itik hızıyla kaştı kapta rüzgar olmadığı halde sallandı. Biz kaçtık ve bir araba-ın içinde yarısı kandan olan olan bir adam gördük. O bir te-eteks araba yoktu. Ve arkadaşların bağışlarına bir şeyler oldu. Ve bir yad izi gördük. Ama tırnakları vardı. Gece kabusumada girmişti. Sanfa biler ve öğretmeninde girmişti ve bağışarak kaştı. Biz fan Berke a-aki oturağa oturunca bir uğultu geldi. Kalktık kesildi böyle bür-2 5 kere yaptık. Ve duvarda kaş yazısı belirdi ve birde bıçak aldık. İşte benim daha doğrusu sınıfın korktuğu daybu. Ve biz gize ni füzmet için Ey bu fan geldiye işaret ver dedik elec-irikler kesildi. Ey nefse geldiyeşen mertcanın saşi saşın de ik ve fadı. Elimiz konlandı sesler geldi işte bu.

Melek
Şahin

Sentepe İlköğretim Okulu

Bir gün tam yatacağım zaman elektrikler kesildi ben çok korktum! Bir gün akşam
 Birim gün akşam abim kardeşim benim pantolonuma ayakkabılık
 takıldık bizim evde tahta gibi birşey vardı. Onun sivri
 yeri vardı kardeşimin kafası sivri yerine geldi. O gün
 kardeşimi doktora götürecektik götürmeden önce
 komşumuza gittik onların iki kızları vardı orda
 orda kızları serbet yapmıştı kızları içmemiş bana
 verdi ben içmedim ellerim titriyordu o zaman
 ondan sonra kardeşimi doktora götürdük kardeşimin
 yara yerini temizledi beyaz yara bandı yapıştırdı. O zaman çok korkmuştum!

Hayran Akıcı

Bir gün bizim parka bir teyze parkımıza köpek getirdi. Sonra köpek sorduğumisini kovaladı. Hacı köpek kovalandı düştü. Sonra Parkın bekçisi köpeği gördü köpeğin sahibine dedi ki köpeği götür çocuklar korkuyor dedi. Teyze götüldü dedi. Sonra Parkın bekçisiyle tartıştı. Sonra kadın gitti. Sonra belalı iki tane adam gönderdi. Adamların ellerinde keskin dağlar bıçağı vardı. Parkın bekçisine saldırdılar. Parkın bekçisi kaçarken düştü. O sırada belalı adamlar üstüne eğildi. O sırada belalı köpeği gördü. Ve adamlara saldırdı. Ve köpeklerini hayvanını kurtardı. Uyarıtlaktım

Gül Emine Yiğit

Biz bir gün ailemle bir yere gitmiştik. Ulusa gezmeye ve oradan babamın iş yerine gidecektik ve babamın işyerine giderken bir trafik kazası gördük ve ben çok korktum çünkü adam ölmüştü.

Ve olayı şeritlerle çevirmişlerdi bir polis vatandaşa çarpmış ve üstünü beyaz bir örtüyle örtmüşler herkes başına toplanmıştı.

O günden sonra uyuyamadım çünkü ölüden çok korkardım. Ölü bir insanda görünce daha fazla korktum. O günden sonra hiç ölü biri görmedim.

Şentepe İlköğretim Okulu

Adımı Büşranur Demir.

Korktuğum şeyler: Annem ile ben birgün birgöre gidiyorduk orada bir tane adam arabasıyla hızla geçti. Sonra arabadan yangınlar çıktı. Annem ile ben çok korktuk. Sonra ben arabadaki adamın öleceğini sandım. Sonra karşıdaki evden bir adam itfaiye ile ambulans çağırdı. İtfaiye yangın arabası söndürdü. Adamı arabanın içinden çıkardılar. Sonra ambulansa adamı hemen koydular götürdüler. O an ben arabadaki adamın öleceğini düşündüm ve çok korktum.