

DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 234 341

CS 007 241

AUTHOR Kemper, Susan
 TITLE Causal Inferences during Text Comprehension and Production.
 PUB DATE May 83
 NOTE 37p.; Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Midwestern Psychological Association (Chicago, IL, May 5-7, 1983).
 PUB TYPE Reports - Research/Technical (143) -- Speeches/Conference Papers (150) -- Information Analyses (070)
 EDRS PRICE MF01/PC02 Plus Postage.
 DESCRIPTORS *Cognitive Development; Cognitive Processes; Elementary Secondary Education; Influences; *Logical Thinking; *Reading Comprehension; *Reading Processes; *Reading Research; Story Telling
 IDENTIFIERS Causal Inferences; *Inference Comprehension; Linguistic Analysis; *Reader Text Relationship; Textual Analysis

ABSTRACT

As comprehension failure results whenever readers are unable to infer missing causal connections, recent comprehension research has focused both on assessing the inferential complexity of texts and on investigating students' developing ability to infer causal relationships. Studies have demonstrated that texts rely on four types of causal connections; one event may cause: a new physical or mental state, a new action, or a new motivation for action. The density of these stated or inferred connections largely determines text difficulty. Children's spontaneous oral stories can also be analyzed as causal event chains. Analysis reveals that these narratives increase in complexity as children grow, changing from the 2-year-old child's simple listing of events to the 10-year-old child's careful organization of motivations and consequences. The inferential complexity of texts is also reflected in the pauses during the oral retelling of films. Analysis demonstrates that pauses at event chain continuities are less frequent than pauses at discontinuities. (MM)

 * Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
 * from the original document. *

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
 NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION
 EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION
 CENTER (ERIC)

X This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.
 Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.

- Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official NIE position or policy.

Causal Inferences

Causal Inferences During Text Comprehension and Production

Susan Kemper

University of Kansas

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS
 MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

Susan Kemper

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES
 INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

Paper presented to the Midwestern Psychological Association, Chicago, May,

1983.

A reader may fail to understand a text because it is unorganized or incoherent or because the reader is unable to recover the text's structural organization. This approach to reading assumes that reading difficulty and comprehension failure arise because readers are unable to process texts as coherent well-structured descriptions of causally connected chains of actions, physical states, and mental states (Graesser, 1981; Kemper, 1982; Omanson, Warren, & Trabasso, 1978; Schank, 1975; Schank & Abelson, 1977). These causal links of the event chain underlying the text may be directly stated. If so, the reader need only inter-connect these stated causal links by means of a taxonomy of possible causal events. The resulting causal event chain will thus explain "who did what to whom and why" and enable the reader to answer questions about the events described in the text. However, some of the actions, physical states, and mental states necessary to construct the underlying event chain may be missing from the text. The reader will need to infer these missing causal links in order to understand the causal event chain. These inferences may be derived from the taxonomy of possible causal events or based on background knowledge or special expertise. The comprehensibility of a text, thus, should reflect the its inferential complexity.

In order to assess the inferential complexity of texts, a procedure was developed to analyze the causal event chains underlying texts. This procedure was then applied to a variety of texts in order to obtain an inference load formula for predicting the grade level difficulty of texts. This approach to analyzing texts was then show to have broad generality by

its application to the analysis of the spontaneous, oral narratives of children and to the analysis of temporal pauses during storytelling.

A. The Event Chain Analysis of Texts

A three-step process for parsing texts was developed. Texts are decomposing into a linear sequence of actions, physical states, and mental states. Using a taxonomy of possible causal events, the event chain underlying the text is recovered and the inferred causal links are identified.

Clause segmentation

A text is initially divided into syntactically-determined clauses. Two general types of clauses are recognized: tensed clauses which contain verbs inflected for tense and untensed clauses which contain imperative or infinitive verbs that are not inflected. Four tense markers can be used to identify tensed verbs: -ed characteristic of past tense verbs, -s that marks third-person, singular present tense verbs, has that signals perfective tense verbs, and -ing of progressive tense verbs. Irregular verbs are those that are not inflected by these markers.

Tensed and untensed verbs may be found in simple, coordinate, or complex sentences. Complex sentences consist of a main or matrix clauses with one or more embedded clauses. Six types of complex sentences are recognized: sentences containing infinitive phrases, gerundive phrases, noun phrase complements, relative clauses, participial adjectives, and subordinate clauses. A text is parsed into clauses by first locating the verbs in each simple or coordinate sentence or in each matrix or embedded clause of a complex sentence.

The Classification of Clauses

In the second step of the analysis of texts as event chains, each clause is classified as either an action, a physical state, or a mental state. As in the first step, syntactic criteria and procedures are used to classify the clauses. Actions are distinguished from states on the basis of three criteria: (1) Actions can be expressed with verbs in the "progressive" aspect. (2) Actions can answer questions such as "What happened?" or "What's happening?" (3) Actions can be used in imperative constructions. Actions include processes involving the change of state or condition of objects and the activities of agents.

States include both observable physical states and unobservable mental states. Physical states include states of possession, attribution, and specification. Mental states include emotions, cognitions, and intentions. Such states represent enduring, although not permanent, properties or characteristics of agents, objects, and locations.

Event-Chain Construction

A taxonomy of possible causal connections is used to construct the event chain underlying a text. The taxonomy assumes that there are four types of causal connections: (1) One event may cause a new physical state--a resulting causal link. (2) One event may cause a new mental state--an initiation link. (3) One event may cause a new action by enabling the action to occur or (4) by providing a psychological motive or reason for the action. These four types of causation are constrained so that an action cannot cause a new action, a physical state cannot lead to a

new physical state, and a mental state cannot cause new mental or physical states.

Not all the causal links in the event chain underlying a text are explicitly stated. Some must be inferred. In general, action-action, physical state-physical state, mental state-mental state, and mental state-physical state sequences in a text require obligatorily inferred actions or states. These inferences are required in order to repair apparent violations of the causal taxonomy.

Thus the analysis of texts as causal event chains uses a causal taxonomy to establish connections between the actions and states described in the text. When necessary, actions and states are inferred to repair violations of this taxonomy.

B. Predicting Comprehensibility

Matching a text to the knowledge and skill of the reader is not a new idea; formulas for determining the readability of texts have been used for at least 40 years. To date, however, readability formulas have been based on the surface characteristics of texts. As a result, they are unable to distinguish a well-structured text from a sequence of randomly ordered sentences (Hirsch, 1977; Kintoch & Vipond, 1978; Klare, 1974/75).

The knowledge-based approach to text comprehension assumes that readers actively use background knowledge in order to interpret what they read (Graesser, 1981; Sanford & Garrod, 1981; Schank & Abelson, 1977).

Comprehension, then, in this approach involves an active process of constructing a coherent chain of causally and temporally related events.

Readers must understand the causes and consequences of physical and

historical events and of characters' actions and motives. The difficulty of a text should reflect how easily a reader can establish the causally connected event chain underlying a text. Hence, a primary source of comprehension difficulty is the inferential processing required to construct the causally connected underlying event chain. By measuring the inferential demands that a text places on readers, it is possible to adjust the difficulty of texts for readers who differ not only in reading skill but also in background knowledge and special expertise.

In order to match text and reader in terms of the inferential complexity of texts, an inference load formula for determining the inferential complexity of texts has been developed. This formula relies on the decomposition of texts into causally connected chains of events. Multiple regression techniques were used to obtain the best fitting regression equation for predicting the inference load of texts that differ in grade level suitability (Kemper, in press).

Materials

The McCall and Crabbs (1979) Standard test lessons in reading consist of a series of short passages designed to evaluate reading and comprehension skills. Grade level norms, based on large scale field testing, are provided for students' performance on eight multiple-choice questions about each passage. The passages span third grade to high school reading levels. Sixty-two passages were selected from this corpus. Two coders independently parsed these passages into clauses identified as actions, physical states, or mental states. Then, using the causal taxonomy described above, the coders constructed the event chain underlying

each text. The event chain analysis of a sample text is presented in Table

1.

 Insert Table 1 About Here

Results

A regression analysis was performed to obtain an inference load formula for assessing the difficulty of texts with different grade levels. The dependent variable was the grade level of each passage. Six independent or predictor variables were used; they were based on the density of stated and inferred causal links of each type. The mean number of actions, physical states, and mental states, both stated and inferred, was obtained from the two coders' parses. This number was divided by the number of words in the passage to give the density of each type of causal link.

The "best subset" approach to regression was used (Daniel & Wood, 1971). The six predictor variables were fitted to the grade level reading score for each of the 62 passages. Grade level is positively correlated with the density of stated actions and inferred physical states. Grade level decreases with the density of stated physical states and mental states. The incidence of stated actions is negatively correlated with the incidence of stated mental states but positively correlated with the inferred physical states and inferred mental states. Thus passages trade off stated actions with stated physical and mental states. The more difficult passages include more actions and fewer physical and mental states than do the easier passages.

The "best subset" of equations with two, three, and four predictors were obtained. Most include stated mental states; that with two predictors adds stated physical states. Most of the equations with three or four predictors include stated or inferred mental states and stated or inferred physical states. Overall, the "best" fitting equation, in terms of C_p and R^2 statistics, has three predictors: stated mental states, inferred mental states, and stated physical states. This equation is more fully described in Table 2.

 Insert Table 2 About Here

Comparison of Inference Load and Dale-Chall Formulas

The "best" fitting regression equation can be used as an Inference Load formula for predicting the comprehension difficulty of texts. Its predictive power was compared to that of the Dale-Chall (1948) readability formula. Two coders computed both the Inference Load score and the Dale-Chall corrected grade levels of 18 new passages. The predicted grade levels obtained from the Dale-Chall formula correlate, $r(16) = +.63$, with the reported McColl-Crabbs grade levels. Nonetheless the inferential complexity of the passage correlated $r(16) = +.63$ with the reported grade levels.

Conclusions

Major readability formulas to date have been based on the surface aspects of texts. They do succeed in predicting performance on comprehension texts but there is no obvious explanation as to why measures

of sentence and word length should predict performance on comprehension tests. By decomposing texts into causal event chains, the inferential complexity of texts can be assessed and their comprehensibility determined. The inference load approach both predicts the relative difficulty of texts and explains the source of comprehension failure: Texts are difficult to understand when they require readers to make many inferences; comprehension failure results whenever the reader is unable to infer missing causal connections due to limitations in background knowledge of experience. Texts may be made easier to understand by adding missing causal links; the difficulty of texts may be increased by deleting some. By lowering the inference load of a text, it may be rendered comprehensible to readers who would otherwise be unable to infer missing causal links.

C. Development of Event Chains

The event chain analysis of texts was shown to have broad generality by applying it to the analysis of children's spontaneous, oral narratives. Storytellers must learn to construct causally ordered sequences of events. In order to tell a story, a child must be able to describe the events in such a way that the listener can follow the chain of causality. Not only must the storyteller describe the protagonist's actions, but the storyteller must also explain the character's motives, the circumstances that make some actions possible and others impossible, and the results of the character's actions. The present research examines chronological changes in the causal structure of children's narratives. Between the ages of two and ten years, children gradually master the ability to tell stories that describe causally connected sequences of events (Kemper, to appear).

Materials

Sutton-Smith (1981) has made available a collection of children's narratives. The children range in age from two to ten years. Initially 54 stories from the Sutton-Smith collection were analyzed.

Analysis

Each story was parsed by two judges into the underlying event chain using the procedure described above. Following the identification of the actions, physical states, and mental states mentioned in the narratives, the judges, using the causal taxonomy, recovered the underlying event chains. These event chains contained those inferred actions, physical states, and mental states necessary to repair violations of the causal rules. Two example stories and their analyses are presented in Table 3.

 Insert Table 3 About Here

Results

The narratives were initially analyzed for chronological changes in causal structure. Figures 1 and 2 summarize the differences, across ages, in the densities of stated and inferred actions, physical states, and mental states. Stated actions are negatively correlated with stated physical states and positively correlated with inferred actions and inferred physical states. Stated physical states are negatively correlated with inferred mental states. Inferred actions increase with inferred physical states and inferred mental states. Inferred physical states and mental states are positively correlated. Thus storytellers trade off

and stated physical states with inferred mental states. Stories with a high density of stated actions also require many inferences, particularly of actions and physical states.

 Insert Figures 1 and 2 About Here

The density of inferences of the storyteller is also negatively correlated with the length of the narrative. Thus older children tell stories with fewer inferences. Significant negative correlations were obtained between the age of the storyteller and the density of inferred actions, inferred physical states, and inferred mental states. Age was positively correlated with the density of stated mental states. Thus older children told stories with fewer inferences than those told by the younger children. The length of stories of two year olds were longer, but contained, proportionally, more inferences than those of two year olds.

The length of the stories increases with the age of the storyteller. The composition of the stories also changed chronologically. The density of stated actions, inferred actions, inferred physical states, and inferred mental states are positively correlated with the inverse of the length of the narrative. Thus, longer stories involved more stated actions, inferred actions, inferred physical states, and inferred mental states per 100 words than shorter narratives.

The density of causal links children include in their narratives changes with age. Initiations and motivations are largely absent in the stories of two and three year olds and gradually appear in those of

four to six year olds. Their reliance on enablement causation, correspondingly, declines as children learn to explain why characters act as they do.

The best fitting regression equation for predicting the age of the storyteller from the event chain analysis is presented in Table 4. It includes the densities of stated actions and mental states, of inferred physical states and inferred links, and of inverse word length as predictors. For this equation, $C_p = .07$ and $R^2 = .75$.

 Insert Table 4 About Here

Conclusions

Between the ages of two and ten years, children gradually master the ability to tell stories that describe causally connected sequences of events. Stories told by two year olds are primarily lists of characters' actions; these actions are without cause or consequence. Gradually, children's stories change to include the motivating mental states and enabling physical states that cause the actions and the physical and mental states that are the consequences of the actions.

D. Pausing and Inferring

The event chain analysis of texts identifies three types of junctures between syntactically-defined clauses: (1) one clause may follow another as a smooth continuation of the event chain, (2) a gap in the event chain may occur between clauses such that one or more causal links may be missing between two temporally and causally successive links (3) a gap in the event

such that there is a back-up or regression to a causally-connected event chain. These junctures, reflecting the linear organization of a causally-connected chain of event, are determined by the decision made during the production of the text. These junctures, in turn, affect the content and organization of a text may also affect the production of it. Consequently, pauses between clauses during the production of a story may occur. To investigate this possibility, pauses at three types of between-clause junctures were examined.

Experiment 2 has asked speakers to view a film and then to orally re-tell the story. The transcriptions of these oral re-tellings, from twenty speakers, include measured pauses. The pause data from 12 speakers were used. That from the remaining 8 speakers was not used as the re-tellings were short and incomplete, as a result, coherent causal event chains could not be constructed from these re-tellings.

The re-telling of the film was parsed into a causal event chain. The vagaries in the oral versions were resolved by reference to the account of the original film. A single judge parsed the 12 re-tellings and a second judge independently parsed four. The judges agreed on the classifications of 93% of the stated actions, physical states, and events and 86% of the inferred causal links. Each pause, as measured in the original transcripts, was classified as either occurring within a clause or between two clauses. The between-clause pauses were further classified as occurring at continuations of the event chain, gaps in

the event chain, or back-ups of the event chain. For the four re-tellings analyzed by the two judges, pauses were reliably classified 96% of the time. Examples of the four types of clauses are given in Table 5.

Insert Table 5 About Here

Results

Two analyses were performed to compare the incidence and duration of within and between-clause pauses. The proportion of within-clause pauses and pauses at continuations, gaps, and back-ups of the event chain was determined for each speaker's re-telling. Then the average length, in seconds, of each type of pause was calculated for each speaker. Finally, the total time each speaker paused was determined and the proportion of this total pause time for each type of pause was calculated. The results, averaged across speakers, are presented in Figures 3 and 4.

Insert Figures 3 and 4 About Here

Pauses were more likely to occur between clauses than within clauses, $\chi^2(1) = 7.84, p < .01$. Of the between-clause pauses, those at continuations of the event chain were less likely than those at the two other types of discontinuities, $\chi^2(1) = 15.25, p < .01$. However, pauses at gaps in the event chains were as likely as pauses at back-ups to prior causal links $\chi^2(1) = 1.71, p > .10$.

There were no significant differences in the average length of the within- and between-clause pauses (all $p > .10$). However, when the total pause time is considered, more time was spent pausing between clauses than within clauses, $t(11) = 3.71$, $p < .05$. The speakers spent proportionally less time pausing at continuations of the event chains than at discontinuities, $t(11) = 4.95$, $p < .05$. However, the proportions of time spent pausing at gaps and back-ups of the event chain were similar, $p > .05$.

Conclusions

These results demonstrate that the oral production of texts reflects active decisions about causal organization. The event chain underlying a text may be abridged or temporally and causally re-ordered as the story is told. One consequence is that speakers pause while telling the story between links in the event chain. The between-clause pauses appear to reflect at least three factors: causal continuities in the event chain, gaps between causally-successive links, and back-ups to causally prior links. The analysis demonstrates that between-clause pauses are more frequent than within-clause pauses and that pauses at event chain continuities are less frequent than pauses at discontinuities.

Summary

Research to date has demonstrated that texts can be reliably decomposed into chains of causally-connected actions, physical states, and mental states. The grade level suitability, in terms of reading level, of texts is a function of the density of stated mental states, stated physical states, and inferred mental states in the texts. From the third to twelfth

grades, the difficulty of texts increases with the complexity of the causal event analysis of the texts. Further, the spontaneous oral stories of children can be analyzed as causal event chains. This analysis reveals that the causal structure of children's narratives changes with their chronological ages. Children learn to include the motives and results of characters' actions in their narratives. Finally, pauses during the oral retelling of a film reflect the inferential complexity of texts. Gaps and retrogressions in the oral retelling's underlying event chain are associated with more and longer pauses than are smooth continuations. The analysis of texts as causally connected chains of events provides insight into factors that affect narrative comprehension and production.

References

- Black, J.B., & Bower, G.H. Episodes as chunks in story memory. Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior, 1979, 18, 309-318.
- Black, J.B., & Bower, G.H. Story understanding as problem-solving. Poetics, 1980, 9, 223-250.
- Botvin, G.J., & Stutton-Smith, B. The development of structural complexity in children's fantasy narratives. Developmental Psychology, 1977, 13, 377-388.
- Bormuth, J.R. Readability: A new approach. Reading Research Quarterly, 1966, 1, 79-132.
- Bower, G.H. Experiments on story understanding and recall. Quarterly Journal of Experimental Psychology, 1976, 28, 511-534.
- Bower, G.H., Black, J.B., & Turner, T.T. Scripts in text comprehension and memory. Cognitive Psychology, 1979, 11, 177-220.
- Chafe, W.L. Meaning and the structure of language. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1970.
- Chafe, W.L. The Pear Stories. New directions in discourse processing (Vol. 3). Norwood, N.J.: Ablex, 1981.
- Dale, E., & Chall, J.S. A formula for predicting readability. Educational Research Bulletin, 1948, 28, 11-20.
- Dale, E., & Chall, J.S. The concept of readability. Elementary English, 1949, 26, 19-26.
- Fillmore, C.S. The case for case. In E. Bach & R.H. Harms (Eds.), Universals in linguistic theory. New York: Holt, Rinehart, & Winston, 1968.

- Fleisch, R. The art of readable writing. New York: Harper & Row, 1974.
- Fraderiksen, C.H. Representing the logical and semantic structure of knowledge acquired from discourse. Cognitive Psychology, 1975, 7, 374-458.
- Graesser, A.C. Comprehension beyond the word. New York: Springer-Verlag, 1981.
- Grimes, J. The thread of discourse. The Hague: Mouton, 1975.
- Hirsch, E.D. The philosophy of composition. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1977.
- Houghton Mifflin. The Houghton Mifflin reading series. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1976.
- Kemper, S. Filling in the missing links. Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior, 1982, 21, 99-107.
- Kemper, S. Measuring the inference load of a text. In press: Journal of Educational Psychology, 1983.
- Kemper, S. The development of narrative skills: Explanations and entertainment. To appear: S. A. Kuczaj (Ed.), Discourse Development. Hillsdale, N.J.: Erlbaum Associates.
- Kintsch, W. & van Dijk, T.A. Toward a model of text comprehension and production. Psychological Review, 1978, 85, 363-394.
- Kintsch, W. & Vipond, D. Reading comprehension and readability in educational practice and psychological theory. In L. G. Nilsson (Ed.), Memory: Processes and problems. Hillsdale, N.J.: Erlbaum Associates, 1978.

- Klare, G. The measurement of readability. Ames, Iowa: Iowa State University, 1963.
- Klare, G. Assessing readability. Reading Research Quarterly, 1974/75, 10, 62-102.
- Lorge, I. Predicting the reading difficulty of selections for children. Elementary English Review, 1939, 1, 14-35.
- Mandler, J.M., & Johnson, N.J. Remembrance of things parsed: Story structure and recall. Cognitive Psychology, 1977, 9, 111-151.
- McCall, W.A., & Crabbs, L.S. Standard test lessons in reading. New York: Teachers College Press, Columbia University, 1979.
- Miller, G.A. & Johnson-Laird, P.W. Language and perception. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press, 1976.
- Meyer, B. The organization of prose and its effect upon memory. Amsterdam, The Netherlands: North Holland, 1975.
- Nicholas, D.W., & Trabasso, T. Toward a taxonomy of inferences for story comprehension. In F. Wilkening, J. Becker, & T. Trabasso (Eds.), Information integration by children. Hillsdale, N.J.: Erlbaum Associates, 1980.
- Norman, D.A., & Rumelhart, D.E. Explorations in cognition. San Francisco: Freeman, 1975.
- Omanson, R.C., Warren, W.H., & Trabasso, T. Goals, inferential comprehension, and recall of stories by children. Discourse Processes, 1978, 1, 355-372.

- Sanford, A.J., & Garrod, S.C. Understanding written language: Explorations in comprehension beyond the sentence. Chichester, Great Britain: John Wiley, 1981.
- Schank, R. The structure of episodes in memory. In D.C. Bobrow & A. Collins (Eds.), Representation and understanding. New York: Academic Press, 1975.
- Schank, R., & Abelson, R. Scripts, plans, goals, and understanding: An inquiry into human knowledge structures. Hillsdale, N.J.: Erlbaum Associates, 1977.
- Sutton-Smith, B. The folk stories of children. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1981.
- Scott Foresman. Scott Foresman basis in reading. Illinois: Scott Foresman, 1976.
- Stein, N.L., & Glenn, C.C. An analysis of story comprehension in elementary school children. In R. O. Freedle (Ed.), New directions in discourse processing (Vol. 2). Norwood, N.J.: Ablex, 1979.
- Thorndyke, P.W. Cognitive structures in comprehension and memory of narrative discourse. Cognitive Psychology, 1977, 9, 77-110.
- Warren, W.H., Nicholas, P.W., & Trabasso, T. Event chains and inferences in understanding narratives. In R. O. Freedle (Ed.) New directions in discourse processing (Vol. 2). Norwood, N.J.: Ablex, 1979.
- Wilensky, R. Understanding goal-based stories. Hillsdale, N.J.: Erlbaum Associates, 1979.

Acknowledgements

This research was supported by National Science Foundation Grant IST-811-0439. Thanks to Maggie Schädler, Mabel Rice, Nancy W. Denney, Meg Gerrard and the other E. B.'s for their support and encouragement.

Table 1

The event chain analysis of a sample passage. Slash marks segment the text into clauses. Each clause is labeled as an action (A), a physical state (PS), or a mental state (MS). The clauses are serially numbered. Following the passage, the underlying event chain is schematically presented. Inferred actions and states are indicated by the unlabeled nodes.

A mystery spot

/There is a "mystery spot" near Santa Cruz, California. PS1/ All trees in this mystery spot lean in one direction, A2/ but redwoods a short distance from it grow straight and tall. A3/ People have great difficulty PS4/ walking in the mystery area. A5/ Their feet feel like lead. PS6/ It is almost necessary PS7/ to drag themselves along the trail A8/ by holding onto a handrail. A9/ Many are unable MS10/ to step over a low doorail and into a cabin. A11/ They enter A12/ by sitting on the doorail A13/ and swinging their feet over it. A14/ When standing in the cabin, PS15/ they lean in the same direction as the trees. A16/ They feel MS17/ as though they are standing as usual, PS18/ but actually they are leaning at such an angle A19/ that they look ludicrous to people PS20/ watching them. A21/

/Two concrete slabs lie about six inches apart. PS22/ One is inside the mystery spot PS23/ and the other outside it. PS24/ When a person five feet tall PS25/ stands on the mystery-spot slab A26/ he looks taller

than a person PS27/ six feet tall PS28/ standing on the other slab, PS29/

although the two slabs are really on the same level. PS30/

/It is the guess of Einstein and many other scientists PS 31/ that
gravity is pulling harder at that spot. A32/

PS1--->A2 & A3

PS1--->A5---PS4 & PS6

A5--->PS7--->A8

PS4--->MS10--->A11

MS10--->A13--->PS--->A14

A14--->PS--->A12

A12--->PS15--->A16 & MS17

PS18--->MS17

PS15--->A19--->PS20

A21--->PS20

PS1--->A--->PS22 & PS23 & PS24--->A26

PS25--->A26--->PS27

PS28 & PS29--->A--->PS27

PS30--->A--->PS27

PS32--->PS1--->A--->PS31

Table 2

The Best Regression Equation for Measuring the
Inference Load of a Text

$$C_p = 0.92$$

$$R^2 = .58$$

$$\text{adjusted } R^2 = .55$$

$$\text{multiple } \bar{R} = .76$$

$$\text{residual mean square} = 3.31$$

$$\text{standard error of the estimate} = 1.82$$

$$F(3,56) = 5.44, p < .05$$

$$\text{Split-half cross validation: } F(28,27) = 1.08, p > .05$$

Variable	Coefficient
Intercept	8.41
Stated Mental States	+ .54
Stated Physical States	- .86
Inferred Mental States	+ .23

Table 3

Event chain analyses of two example stories. Each is parsed into a sequence of actions, physical states, or mental states. They are numbered to facilitate interpretation of the event chains which follow. In these chains, inferred causal links are indicated in parentheses.

Story 1

- A1 An astronaut went into space
- AS He was attacked by a monster
- PS3 He got in his ship
- A4 He flew away

Event chain

A1-->(HE WAS IN SPACE)-->A2

A2-->(HE WAS AFRAID)-->(HE RE-ENTERED HIS SPACESHIP)-->PS3-->A4

Table 3 (continued)

Story 2

PS1 There was a little fish
 PS2 It was named Josh
 A3 He was going to a fair
 PS4 There were fishers over the fair
 A5 The fishermen caught everyone
 PS6 The catch included Josh
 A7 They put the fish in the hole
 PS8 There were sharks and sting rays
 A9 A ray was going after Josh
 A10 A shark chased the sting ray
 MS11 The shark wanted something
 A12 The shark ate the ray
 A13 The sting ray stopped chasing Josh
 A14 It ran away
 A15 A fight occurred
 A16 Another shark gobbled up Josh's family
 A17 It left
 PS18 The boat was sailing
 PS19 And sailing

Table 3 (continued)

Story 2

PS20 And sailing
 PS21 There was a big storm
 A22 It hit rocks
 PS23 It made a hole
 A24 Josh escaped
 A25 He went back
 A26 He stayed there
 PS27 He was big

Event chain

PS1-->(SOMEONE CHRISTENED IT)-->PS2
 PS1-->A3-->(HE WAS AT THE FAIR)-->A5-->PS6
 PS4-->A5-->(THE FISH WERE RESTRAINED)-->A7
 A7-->(THEY WERE IN THE HOLE)-->A9, A10, A16, and A24
 PS8-->A9, A10, and A16
 A10-->(SHARK CAUGHT THE RAY)-->A12
 MS11-->A10-->(THE RAY WAS AFRAID)-->A14
 A12 and A14-->(THERE WAS A CONFRONTATION)
 A16-->(IT WAS SATISFIED)-->A17
 PS18, PS19, and PS20-->A22-->PS23-->A24
 A24-->(JOSH WAS FREE)-->A25
 A25-->(HE WAS HOME)-->A26-->PS27

Table 4

The best regression equation for predicting the age of the storyteller for the Sutton-Smith collection.

$$C_p = 0.07$$

$$R^2 = .75$$

$$\text{multiple } R = .87$$

$$\text{adjusted } R = .70$$

$$\text{residual mean square} = 2.11$$

$$\text{standard error of the estimate} = 1.45$$

$$F(5.48) 12.85, p < .001$$

Coefficient Contribution to R^2

Intercept	5.75	----
Stated Actions	+ .22	0.04
Inferred Physical States	- .61	0.07
Inferred Links	+ .27	0.05
Inverse Word Length	-1.96	0.08
Stated Mental States	+ .06	0.05

Table 5

Examples of within-clauses and between-clause pauses (in seconds) from oral retellings in The Pear Stories (Chafe, 1982). Between-clause pauses are classified as continuations, gaps, or back-ups.

1. Pauses within clauses

...a man goes by with a -.24- tsq goat...

...there's a rock in the road and he -.25- hits it with his bike...

2. Pauses between clauses

a. Continuations: those pauses between stated, causally-successive or collateral clauses

...the boys realize he's forgotten his hat -.55- So one of them whistles to him...

...he realizes that -.45- one basket is gone...

...(he) looks at the man, -1.5- looks at the bushels...

b. Gaps: those pauses between two stated clauses that can be causally-connected by means of one or more inferred causal links; these pauses fill gaps in the event chain

...then he decides to take the whole basket. -.9- And he puts in on (his bicycle)

...and they're eating pears -1.2- and they walk off...

...this kid comes along with a bicycle -.55- And he rips off...

c. Back-ups: those pauses between two stated clauses that cannot be connected by one or more inferred causal links, these pauses results from "backing-up" of the event chain to a previous link

...walking back...the way the first boy came -1.35- Meanwhile the man
who's picking pears...

...then a boy comes by on a bicycle, the man is in the tree -.9- and
the boy gets off the bicycle...

...as he's holding on to the handlebars he takes off with them. -6.35-
then...a girl rides (toward him)...

Figure Captions

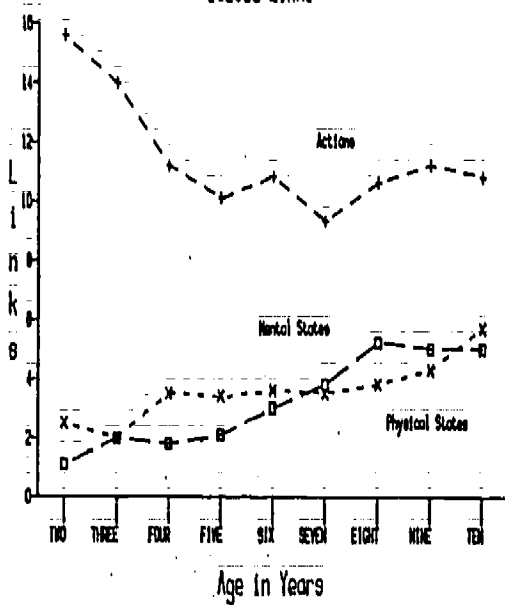
Figure 1: Chronological changes in the densities of stated and inferred actions physical states, and mental states in children's oral narratives.

Figure 2: Chronological changes in the densities of initiation, motivation, resultant, and enablement causation in children's oral narratives.

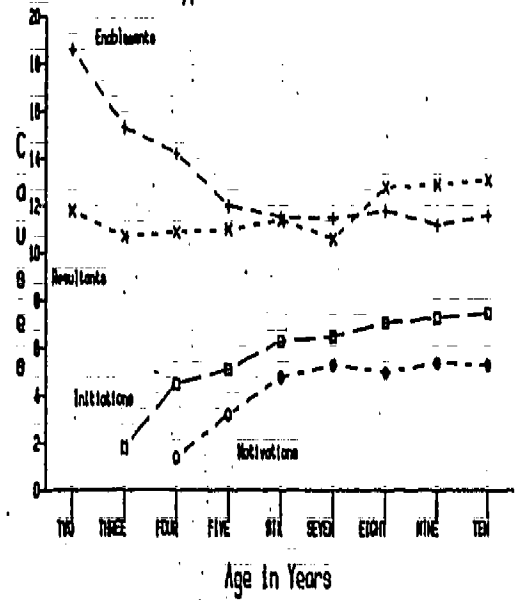
Figure 3: The mean number and a mean length (in seconds) of pauses within- and between-clauses during oral retellings in The Pear Stories (Chafe, 1982).

Figure 4: The percent of the total pause time for pauses within- and between-clauses during oral retellings in The Pear Stories (Chafe, 1982).

Stated Links



Types of Causal Links



Inferred Links

