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NARRATIVE SKILLS IN MULTILINGUAL AUTISTIC CHILDREN ACQUIRING ENGLISH AS A SOCIETAL LANGUAGE: A PILOT STUDY

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Challenges in various aspects of narrative competence are reported in autistic children: from difficulties in structuring and organizing their narratives, limited lexical diversity and grammatical complexity, to understanding and using appropriate internal state terms (ISTs) to interpret story characters' mental states. However, little is known about narrative skills in multilingual children with autism. With a recent report of potential advantages of bilingualism in aspects of narrative competence in this population (Peristeri et al., 2020), studying narrative production seems particularly promising in understanding the impact of multilingualism on autistic children's language and cognitive skills.

The current study investigates the extent to which multilingual children with and without autism, acquiring English as a societal language, differ in narrative production when matched on age, gender, SES, and type of schooling. We present data from eight bilinguals, aged between 7;7 and 11;10 - four diagnosed with autism and four typically developing, growing up in London, UK, and exposed to different home languages. Using the LITMUS Multilingual Assessment Instrument for Narratives (MAIN-R; Gagarina et al., 2019), we assessed their ability to produce story grammar components, and use of ISTs, in their societal language, English. Background measures revealed no intellectual disability in the autistic participants, but a presence of language impairment indicated by below-average receptive scores on grammar and vocabulary.

Our results reveal poorer scores of autistic participants on narrative story structure compared to TD controls. However, they showed an equal frequency of use of ISTs as the TD controls, a result rarely reported in studies investigating language skills of multilinguals with autism. While further research with larger samples of participants is needed,

our results suggest that for children with autism, being multilingual is not detrimental for their inference-making skills in relation to use of ISTs, in fact, it may enhance them.

Keywords: autism, multilingualism, narrative skills

INTRODUCTION

Multilingualism¹ is an ever-growing feature of the social and linguistic landscape worldwide. In London alone, the percentage of the population where one or more members of a household speak a language other than English is reported to be around 27% (ONS, 2021). Speaking and engaging with a heritage language (HL) may carry both personal and cultural connections as well as linguistic benefits for both the HL and the societal language (Hayakawa et al., 2022). However, less is known about the effects of multilingualism on language and cognitive development in individuals with neurodevelopmental disorders. Studies reveal no adverse effects of multilingualism on language and cognitive functioning in a range of conditions (Uljarević et al., 2016), and clinicians across the world generally advise parents to promote maintenance of HL (Sharpe & Perovic, 2023). Yet, many parents choose to use only the societal language at home, concerned that potential ‘language confusion’ will make existing language difficulties worse (Hampton et al., 2017). This is a particularly pressing issue with regards to autism, whose incidence is rising sharply worldwide (WHO, 2023). It is vital to understand the effect of multilingualism on the language and cognitive abilities of autistic individuals in order to provide informed advice to families and educators. The purpose of this paper is to investigate language skills of bilingual autistic children via narrative elicitation.

AUTISM

Autism is a developmental condition which impacts neurological processes in the domains of cognition (i.e., restricted, rigid and/or repetitive behavioural patterns or interests) and language and communication (i.e., reciprocal communication and social interaction) (American Psychiatric Association, 2013). It is characterised by extreme heterogeneity of both language and cognitive skills (see Schaeffer et al., 2023 for a review). Some individuals

1 We use the term multilingualism to encompass both bilingual and multilingual individuals acquiring more than one language irrespective of proficiency, or context in which these languages are spoken (Grosjean, 2010).

have a co-occurring intellectual disability, while many others show typical or even enhanced performance on measures of non-verbal IQ. Language delays are commonly reported, and a substantial proportion of individuals remain minimally verbal. In some individuals, obvious grammatical impairments are observed, in addition to poor vocabulary and pragmatic skills, while others may have only subtle difficulties in the domain of pragmatics in the presence of highly complex grammatical and vocabulary knowledge (e.g. Perovic et al., 2013; Modyanova et al., 2017; Schaeffer et al., 2023).

Narrative skills in autism

Important insights about language and cognitive skills of monolinguals and multilinguals with and without neurodevelopmental disorders have been gained from investigations of their narrative production. Narratives are complex forms of discourse integrating information about the '*landscape of action*', that is, the events that take place, and '*landscape of consciousness*', the characters' reactions, intentions and interpretation of these events (Bruner, 1986). To produce an informative and relevant narrative, the narrator must first rely on appropriate grammatical structures and vocabulary to describe the events in the story. They must be able to reason about the mental states of others, which will allow them to make predictions and offer interpretations of characters' behaviours, whilst still considering the perspective of, and common ground shared with, the listener. In addition, they have to organise the sequence of events in a logical and coherent way. This requires sophisticated coordination of linguistic, social and cognitive skills: vocabulary, grammar and pragmatics, Theory of Mind (ToM) and executive function (EF) skills - all known to be challenging to some degree in autism (Schaeffer et al., 2023).

Numerous studies have investigated narrative production in monolingual autistic individuals, focusing on their ability to provide the overall structure and organisation of the story (macrostructure), lexical productivity and grammatical complexity (microstructure) and use of appropriate vocabulary to describe and interpret the internal states of the characters. Challenges have been identified in all these domains in both children and adults with autism, though results are inconclusive (see reviews in Stirling et al., 2014; Baixauli et al., 2016). This is likely due to different methodologies used, but also to the heterogeneity in the verbal and non-verbal abilities of participants studied. However, even when accounting for the existence of grammatical deficits in some individuals with autism, which undoubtedly will affect the microstructure of the narratives, difficulties with story structure, the use of referential terms to identify story characters as well as the use of internal state terms (ISTs) to predict and interpret characters' internal states are reported.

In the framework of story grammar (Stein & Glenn, 1979), the command of the story grammar components, organised in episodes, is found to be inconsistent in autism: the setting of the story that introduces the characters and the time and place of the story; the initiating event that sets up the intended goal of the story characters, the characters' attempt to reach this goal, the outcome, as well as ISTs associated with initiating events and characters' reactions to an outcome. Factual components such as attempts of story characters to reach a particular goal or reaching the eventual outcome may be easier to generate than components of the story that require the narrator to infer characters' goals and motivations (Capps et al., 2000; Diehl et al., 2006). Narrative coherence may also be affected by the lack of appropriate use of referential terms (pronouns, full noun phrases), while internal state terms relevant to characters' intentions and reactions are often reported to be produced less frequently than by controls (Stirling et al., 2014; Baixauli et al., 2016).

The role of bilingualism on narrative abilities in autistic individuals is intriguing, however, research is extremely sparse, and, like in the studies involving monolinguals, results are inconclusive. In the only study conducted with bilingual children with autism acquiring English as a societal language, Govindarajan & Paradis (2022) report poorer performance of nine autistic bilingual children aged 5-9 on all aspects of macro- and microstructure, compared to ten age- and vocabulary-matched bilingual controls, all growing up in a large English-speaking city in Canada. In another Canadian study, five French-dominant bilingual children with autism produced less coherent stories than five age-matched and IQ-matched TD bilinguals though no differences on measures of microstructure were found (Hoang et al., 2018). Two studies investigated narratives in bilingual and monolingual autistic children acquiring Greek as a societal language, again with inconclusive results. Baldimtsi et al. (2016) report no difference in narrative skills of 7-11-year-old autistic and typical bilinguals in terms of either macro- or microstructure. However, Peristeri et al. (2020), the most carefully designed study in the literature that provides detailed macrostructural and microstructural analyses of narratives produced by large numbers of 7-12-year-old monolingual and bilingual autistic children, age-matched to monolingual and bilingual typical controls (20 in each group), report better story grammar components and more complex syntactic structures in the narratives of typical controls than in children with autism. Nevertheless, their bilingual autistic participants outperformed monolingual autistic participants on all the measures of narrative macro- and microstructure, as well as measures of EF.

The current study

To gain a better understanding of narrative abilities of English-dominant multilingual children with and without autism, the current study focuses on whether English-dominant multilingual children with and without autism differ in narrative production, when matched on age, SES and type of schooling. In order to investigate the relationship between general cognitive and language skills, our sample consists of children with no existing intellectual disability but with a known language impairment, as observed on standardised measures of grammar and vocabulary: the population often described as Autism + Language Impairment (ALI; Perovic et al., 2013; Schaeffer et al., 2023). Our focus is on macrostructure and the internal state language. We make use of the Multilingual Assessment Instrument for Narratives (Gagarina et al., 2019), widely used with typically developing multilinguals, and more recently with children with Developmental Language Disorder, which, to our knowledge, has not yet been used with autistic children.

METHODS

Participants

Participants were recruited from three schools in close proximity in an inner-city London borough that includes several large multilingual communities. The schools' postcodes suggest this to be an area of relatively high deprivation in terms of parents' income, with deciles 2 and 3 of the English Indices of Deprivation 2019 (McLennan et al., 2019) (where 1 is the lowest and 10 is the highest), but not in terms of parents' education, with relatively high deciles, 6 and 7.

Participants in the study were aged 7;7 - 11;10 at time of testing. Four children with the diagnosis of autism were identified as possible candidates by the schools' Special Educational Needs and Disability Coordinators (SENDCOs), and individually matched on age with a TD peer. The children were all born and raised in the UK where English is the dominant societal and instructional language. They were classified as multilingual, having been exposed to HL at birth, and to English before the age of three. Each child was exposed to a different HL: Albanian, Arabic, Greek, Portuguese, Russian, Somali, Spanish, Yoruba.

Measures

The Matrices subtest of the Kaufmann Brief Intelligence Test-2 (KBIT-2; Kaufman & Kaufman, 2004) was used to assess participants' non-verbal rea-

soning. The British Picture Vocabulary Scale-3 (BPVS-3; Dunn, 2009) was used to assess their vocabulary comprehension and the Test for Reception of Grammar-2 (TROG-2; Bishop, 2003) to assess grammar comprehension.

To test narrative production, we used two stories from the LITMUS Multilingual Assessment Instrument for Narratives (MAIN-R; Gagarina et al., 2019), *Baby Birds* and *Baby Goats*, in the ‘telling’ mode, where the child is asked to tell the story from the pictures presented to them. The protocol for MAIN-R was followed to assess the production of story grammar elements organised in episodes: initiating events (IE), Goals (G), Attempts (A), and Outcomes (O), as well as comprehension of inferred components, such as goals and internal states, which motivate characters’ actions. The story telling were audio-recorded for later transcription and scoring.

LITMUS Parental Bilingual Questionnaire (PaBiQ; Tuller, 2015) was used to gather information about exposure to HL and societal language, the context in which both languages are used at home and in the community, presence or absence of language concerns, age at which first words and sentences were produced, as well as current expressive skills. The focus is on the assessment of current language skills, where the parent is asked questions about their child’s expressive abilities in English and their home language(s), for instance, “Compared to other children the same age, how do you think your child expresses him/herself in English/their home language?” Parents were asked to give ratings on Likert scale from 0 to 3 (0 = not very well/not as well as other children; 1 = a little less well/a few differences, 2 = *generally* the same, 3 = very well/better than other children), with a potential maximum score of 15 for HL skills and English skills, respectively.

Procedures

Participants were assessed in person at their school, in a small quiet room (e.g., library or small office). Sessions lasted no longer than 45 minutes each, with a maximum of three sessions (not all the tasks administered are reported in this paper). If participants did not respond to questions, researchers provided gentle generic prompting and encouragement. Speech samples were blindly transcribed using the Computerized Language ANalysis (CLAN; MacWhinney, 2022) programme, and a sample of these were checked to ensure consistent coding across scripts.

Ethical approval was granted by University College London Research Ethics Board. Parents provided informed consent for their own and their child’s participation, with children giving their assent before the testing sessions.

Scoring and Data Analysis

For microstructural analysis, we calculated story length, via Total Number of Words (TNW) and lexical diversity, via Number of Different Words (NDW). The CLAN programme was used to derive the measures of microstructure. Following the MAIN-R guidelines, for the macrostructural analysis, the following scores were obtained for Story Structure: number of Initiating Events, Goals, Attempts.

RESULTS

Table 1 presents individual scores on relevant background measures, whereas Table 2 presents group means and information on languages spoken.

Table 1. Individual scores for matched participants on background measures

	Age	KBIT SS	KBIT RS	BPVS SS	BPVS RS	BPVS AE	TROG SS	TROG RS	TROG AE
ASC_A.02	11;3	84	25	<70	98	6;8	55	5	4;5
TD_B.04	11;0	113	36	113	152	14;8	106	18	>12;0
ASC_A.04	7;7	117	30	71	72	5;0	74	8	5;3
TD_A.08	7;8	129	35	102	106	7;9	116	17	>12;0
ASC_A.05	10;0	92	26	<70	90	5;11	55	7	4;11
TD_C.02	10;6	124	39	90	127	9;1	97	16	10;10
ASC_C.07	9;9	96	27	71	99	6;9	58	6	4;9
TD_A.01	9;9	116	35	109	144	12;0	113	18	>12;0

ASC: autistic participants. **TD:** control participants; **KBIT-2:** Kaufman Brief Intelligence Test 2; **BPVS:** British Picture Vocabulary Scales 3; **TROG-2:** Test of Reception of Grammar 2; **SS** = standard score; **RS** = raw score; **AE** = age equivalent.

All children performed within range of norm-referenced levels on the Matrices subtest of KBIT-2, revealing no intellectual disability in the sample with autism. However, the group difference on this measure is statistically significant due to the extremely high scores of the TD group (cf. Tables 1, 2). The standard scores of the group with autism were in the impaired range on vocabulary (BPVS-3) and grammar (TROG-2), resulting in significant group differences [$t(6) = 3.56, p = 0.01, d = 2.5$] and [$t(6) = 13.38, p < 0.001, d = 9.46$] respectively. The scores confirm the classification of our participants as ALI, in line with Perovic et al. (2013), and Modyanova et al. (2017).

Table 2. Group scores on age, languages spoken and background measures

	Autism	TD
N	4 (1 female)	4 (1 female)
Chronological age		
Range	7;7 – 11;3	7;8 – 11;1
Mean (months)	115.25	115.75
Mean (years)	9.60	9.64
Languages spoken		
Range	1 – 2	2 – 3
Ratio of bilingual balance (English: HL mean scores)	5.0: 5.25	14.0: 7.25
BPVS-3		
RS (Mean)	89.75	132.25
RS Range	72 – 99	106 – 152
AE (Mean)	5;11	9;9
AE Range	5;0 – 6;9	7;9 – 14;8
TROG-2		
RS (Mean)	6.5	17.25
RS Range	5 – 8	16 – 18
SS (Mean) ^a	61.33	108
SS Range	55 – 74	97 – 116
AE (Mean)	4;11	>12;0
KBIT-2		
RS (Mean)	27	36.25
RS Range	25 – 30	35 – 39
SS (Mean) ^a	97.25	120.5
SS Range	84 – 117	113 – 129
AE (Mean)	8;9	15;4

HL: heritage language; AE = age equivalent; RS = raw score; SS = standard score. BPVS-3: British Picture Vocabulary Scales 3; TROG-2: Test of Reception of Grammar 2; KBIT-2: Kaufman Brief Intelligence Test 2; ^aThe standardised assessments have a normative mean standard score of 100 and a standard deviation of 15.

Table 3 presents the descriptive statistics achieved per group on each section of the narrative instrument (MAIN-R) based on the scoring of Macrostructure (Story Structure, Internal State Terms (ISTs)), and measures of lexical diversity, derived from MAIN-R ‘telling’ activity.

Analyses run on the TNW and NDW showed no statistically significant differences, despite higher number of words produced by the TD controls: TNW [$t(6) = 0.867, p = 0.42, d = .613$]; NDW [$t(6) = 0.948, p = 0.38, d = .671$].

A significant group difference was observed on Story Structure [$t(6) = 2.72, p = 0.034, d = 1.92$]. Compared to children with autism, TD controls produced narratives that included more story grammar elements.

Table 3. Descriptive statistics for MAIN-R

	Autism	TD
Microstructure		
<i>Total Number of Words (TNW)</i>		
Mean (SD)	91.75 (35.23)	114.75 (39.69)
Range	41-121	60-151
<i>Number of Different Words (NDW)</i>		
Mean (SD)	49.50 (24.85)	64.50 (19.57)
Range	15-74	37-79
Macrostructure- Production		
<i>Story Structure Score</i>		
Mean (SD)	7.00 (2.16)	10.75 (2.92)
Range	4 – 9	9 – 13
<i>Number of Internal State Terms (ISTs)</i>		
Mean (SD)	5.00 (2.94)	5.50 (2.08)
Range	2 – 9	3 – 8

No significant difference was observed between groups in the number of ISTs used ($t(6) = 0.28$, $p = 0.79$, $d = 2.55$). Individual results reveal a heterogeneity in the frequency of ISTs used in both groups, with some children using as many as 8 or 9 ISTs (a 10;6-year-old TD control, and a 11;3-year-old with autism, respectively), or as few as 2 or 3 (a 7;7-year-old with autism, and a 7;8-year-old TD control). In both groups, ISTs used included common terms such as perception verbs: ‘see’, physiological states: ‘hungry’ as well as those describing more complex states: ‘relieved’, ‘surprised’, ‘scared’. We also observe a trend of more frequent use of ISTs in older children in the group with autism where the oldest child used the largest number of ISTs ($n=9$), compared to the youngest child ($n=2$).

The PaBiQ was used to obtain data from parents regarding their child’s early language and current language skills. One questionnaire for a child with autism was not returned. Parents of children with autism reported more concerns about their children’s early language skills, and a delay in both first words and first sentences: the age of first word ranged from 24 to 36 months, and first sentence between 24 months and 60 months. With regards to current expressive skills, for English, the mean score of the autism group was 6 (SD=1.00) and for the TD group 13.67 (SD=2.31), out of maximum 15. For HL, the mean score for the group with autism was 7 (SD=1.73) and for TD group it was 7.67 (SD=4.16), out of maximum 15. Individual scores are presented in Figures 1 and 2. For three out of four TD controls, language skills in the societal language, English, were stronger than in their HL. This

contrast between English and the HL was not as pronounced in the participants with autism (Figure 2).

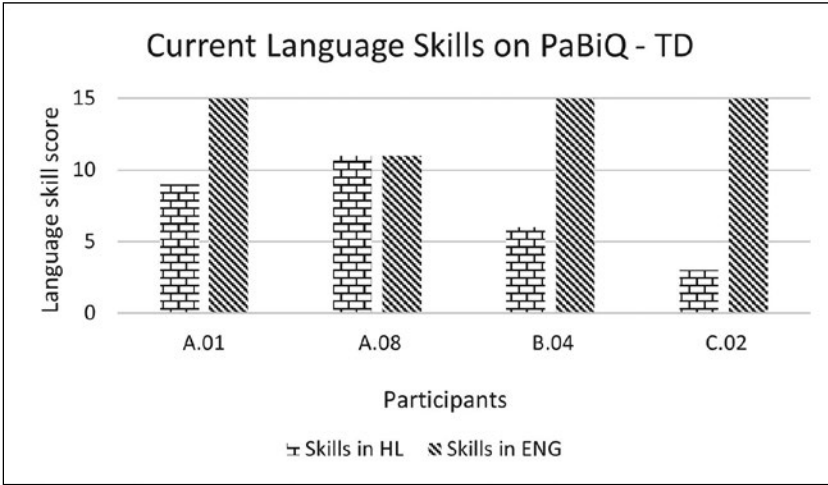


Figure 1. Current skills in Heritage Language (HL) vs. English: TD group

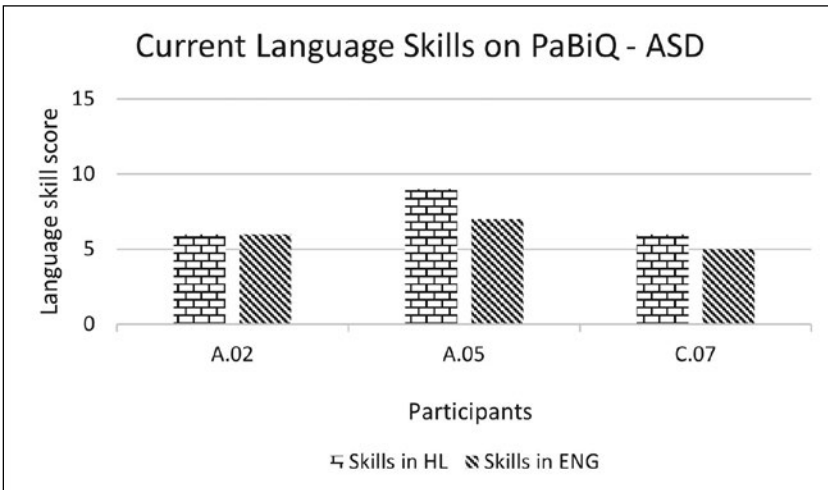


Figure 2. Current skills in Heritage Language (HL) vs. English: group with autism

Note: The data on PaBiQ was available for 3 out of 4 autistic participants.

DISCUSSION

The current paper reports the findings of a pilot study comparing 7-11-year-old multilingual children with and without autism on narrative production, a topic that has so far received scant attention in the literature. We relied on an instrument widely used in the literature in typical multilingual development, MAIN-R (Gagarina et al., 2019), with a focus on aspects of microstructure (story length, lexical diversity) and macrostructure: (expressive and receptive use of story grammar elements) as well as ISTs. In line with the literature on bilinguals with autism, the skills in the societal language, English, were directly assessed while HL skills were assessed indirectly via a parental questionnaire. The insights from this study may provide valuable guidance for future research in the field of multilingualism in autism yet due to the small sample size, the results should be interpreted with caution.

The confident production of story grammar elements by TD participants in the current study is in line with literature on typical bilinguals aged 7;0 and above (Lindgren et al., 2023).

On the two measures of micro-structure, TNW and NDW, no statistically significant differences were observed. It is not surprising that the autistic participants produced generally shorter narratives, using fewer different words, considering their poor grammar and vocabulary scores on independent measures such as BPVS-3 and TROG-2. However, larger samples are needed to confirm this trend statistically.

On story structure of the narrative, autistic participants performed worse than their TD age-matched controls. Interestingly, their production of ISTs was not significantly lower than that of TD controls'. Qualitative observations suggested that participants with autism produced more ambiguous story components (i.e., missing or disordered chronology of events, fewer episodes containing a rationale, unclear or mismatched character/referent labels). This aligns with early findings of Novogrodsky (2013), who reported a more extensive use of ambiguous third-person subject pronouns in the narratives told by autistic monolingual children, compared to TD controls.

In terms of story structure, children with autism were often unable to provide clear settings for the story, resorting to simple picture description, also observed in Peristeri et al. (2017). While the TD participants started a story with openings such as "One day, a mother bird went to her...", our autistic participants often provided a simple description of the images such as, "there was a green tree, brown tree [...] there's a two birds in a nest" (see Appendix for examples of the first episode of the Baby Birds narrative from a 10-year-

old autistic child and a 9;9-year-old TD control). There we observe the child with autism omitting the initiating IST as well as the Goal of the character, providing only the Attempt (“parent left”) and the Outcome (“parent came back”, “gave the snail to the birds”). In contrast, the episode provided by the TD child contains a full sequence: Goal (“went to her babies to find some food”), Attempt (“the mother duck flew away”), Outcome related to the main character (“came back to feed her children with wriggly worms”). The TD participant provides the listener with the internal state of the baby birds as an initiating event which determines the ‘goal-attempt’ of the mother bird which is to seek food for her babies. The outcome of this sequence is preceded by the initiation of another event but is still summarily concluded with the mother having retrieved the desired food. In the narrative produced by the participant with autism, we see very short statements which simply indicate what has happened in the picture (i.e., “the parent left”) but do not seek to elaborate on the potential internal state of the characters to explain why a particular action has happened (e.g., *because they wanted to find food for the babies*).

However, the surprising result is the similarity in IST scores between groups. The performance of the group with autism may be due to longer exposure to speech and language therapy input and general schooling. Pupils with diagnosed neurodevelopmental disorders (and/or Education and Health Care Plans – EHCPs) receive additional support if they have disordered pragmatic and/or socio-emotional skills, and all participants in this group were recipients of these types of interventions. The ISTs used by each participant included terms depicting perceptual state, physiological state, consciousness, emotion, mental verbs, and linguistic verbs (of saying/telling) of the various characters, all adding depth and meaning to the story structure and cohesion of narratives produced. The number of ISTs used by participants with autism may also be linked to their chronological age: recall that the highest number of ISTs was used by the oldest child and the lowest number was produced by the youngest child in the group with autism, unlike in the TD group. This could strengthen the argument that relative exposure (based on chronological age more than standardised age-equivalent vocabulary scores) generates more frequent and varied production of ISTs in narrative tasks for the individuals with autism, however more extensive qualitative and quantitative data is needed to determine a causal link here.

The difference in story grammar elements of the story may, in part, be attributed to known difficulties with ToM – i.e., inference, integration of world knowledge, accurate recognition of emotions and character interactions – in the population with autism, as reported in other studies (e.g. Boucher, 2012; Geelhand et al., 2020). However, it may in part also be aligned with poorer

language skills as confirmed by low scores obtained by the autistic participants on the standardised measure of grammar comprehension and vocabulary, signalling a co-occurring language impairment in all four children. Both autistic children and typical controls were aged 7-11; by this age, delays of language acquisition in typically developing multilinguals tend to disappear, if present (Paradis et al., 2011). Multilingualism cannot thus be the key to the poorer narrative production amongst populations with autism, but rather exists as another factor of their language profile.

While our results are informative, the small sample size means that the results need to be interpreted with care. Considering the established presence of language impairment in our autistic participants (as observed in the vocabulary and grammar comprehension scores lower than expected for their age), including another control group, matched on a measure of language skills, would have been useful.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Our pilot study confirmed difficulties in producing narratives in 7-11-year-old multilingual children with autism. Our participants showed poorer scores on the components of story structure. However, they showed an equal frequency of use of ISTs as the multilingual TD controls, a result rarely reported in studies investigating language skills of bilinguals with autism. While further research with larger samples of multilinguals with autism, carefully matched to TD controls for language abilities, HL and societal language exposure is needed to confirm these findings, our results indicate that being multilingual is not detrimental for the inference-making skills relevant to the understanding and use of ISTs, but in fact may enhance them.

Like in TD individuals, a wide array of factors affects the development of narrative skills in autism, from external factors such as SES and education experiences, to internal factors such as general language and cognitive abilities. The role of multilingualism and its effect on language and cognitive abilities in autism warrants further attention in light of reports that enhanced EF skills in autistic bilingual children may be responsible for their production of more complete and better organised narratives, compared to monolingual autistic children (Peristeri et al., 2020). Further investigations of the relationship between ToM and the inferencing abilities in the generation and comprehension of narratives in bilinguals vs. monolinguals with autism will enhance our understanding of the effects of bilingualism on cognitive and language abilities in both typical development and neurodevelopmental disorders.

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Appendix

SAMPLE EPISODES (BABY BIRDS, TELLING MODE)

10-year-old with autism: “There was a green tree brown tree. And...there were two birds.... Yeah, there's two birds in a nest. There was one of their parents. Was looking at them. And the parent left. The cat was going to chase the two birds. When, when the parent came back, they gave the snail to the two birds.”

9;9-year old TD control: ”One day a mother duck went to her babies to find some food and they were screeching for food as they didn't have any for four for four days. So the mother duck flew away.. in.. in into.. to find some food but suddenly out of the blue a a ferocious and hungry cat came and tried to and and looked really angry. The cat climbed the tree the cat climbed suddenly the mother the mother duck came back to feed to feed to feed to feed her little children with disgusting wo wriggly worms but the cats were coming up but the cat was coming up the tree ready to have its supper.”