

UDC 81'23

**USING MAIN AS A TOOL TO ACCESS AND EVALUATE
GRAMMATICAL KNOWLEDGE IN A WEAKER
LANGUAGE: A CASE OF SWEDISH-RUSSIAN
BILINGUAL CHILDREN WHO ATTEND MOTHER
TONGUE INSTRUCTION**

Natalia Ringblom

Ph.D. in Philology, Assistant Professor,
Stockholm University, SE-106 91, Sweden
natasha.ringblom@slav.su.se

ABSTRACT. *The purpose of this chapter is to show how MAIN (Gagarina et al., 2012) can be used as assessment instrument for testing grammatical knowledge in young bilingual children, with special focus on identifying bilingual features in the weaker language's morpho-syntax, that can be qualitatively different than in monolingual acquisition and thus needs a different educational approach. It is important for parents and educators to be aware of the underlying problems of the bilingual children's language abilities in order to give them adequate and effective assistance. In order to do this, they need an instrument that is easy to administer and use. MAIN has all the prerequisites of being such an instrument but not in its present form. In order for MAIN to be used in teaching, a shorter version should be developed.*

Eleven Swedish-Russian bilingual children, aged 6–12 years and living in the Stockholm area, were the subjects of this study and provide new data that enables us to gain fundamentally new insights into the process of bilingual language acquisition in the situation when one of the languages is dominant, while the other is weaker and requires, therefore, as much support as possible. Such support can only be given in formal teaching, and home language classes can be seen as the most appropriate platform for providing such instruction.

Keywords: *MAIN; bilingual children; morpho-syntax; weaker language, narrative task; Russian; Swedish; mother tongue instruction, Sweden.*

Introduction

It is well known that the two languages of a bilingual child do not necessarily develop in the same way and that a balanced development between the two languages is not often found (Grosjean, 1998). There is some evidence that the processes observed in such cases may be

more similar to second than to first language acquisition (Schlyter, 1993, Schlyter and Håkansson, 1994) and that one language will turn out to be the weaker language.

The purpose of this chapter is to show how MAIN (Gagarina et al., 2012) can be used for testing grammatical knowledge in young bilingual children, with special focus on identifying bilingual features in their Russian morpho-syntax in order to establish a qualitative profile of a particular student's interlanguage at a certain point in time. So far, MAIN as a narrative assessment has mainly been used for differentiating TD and SLI children, focusing on story complexity as a measure for the TD and SLI children's differences (Gagarina, 2014). However, this tool can also be used in teaching practice.

It is important for parents and educators to be aware of the underlying problems in the children's language abilities in order to give them adequate and effective feedback and assistance (Hyltenstam, 1985: 120). Educators should be able to diagnose and understand the students' problems and find ways to help them overcome them (ibid). A well-designed narrative task is helpful for eliciting valid linguistic material from the child in order to give teachers an idea of the child's linguistic abilities. It is important for the teachers to have a valid test that can be easily administered in order to gain knowledge about different phenomena in the students' output and how this information can help the teacher manage the daily instruction in the classroom.

The Material and Method

The elicited narratives of 11 Swedish-Russian bilingual children, aged from 6.9 to 12.3 years were collected and analyzed. These children represent three different conditions of Russian language exposure: (1) the children whose parents applied the OPOL Strategy, (2) those who were brought up with the one language – one environment strategy and (3) the children who were brought up with the «Russian at home only» strategy.

The subjects of this study were slightly older than the overall average of the children that were previously tested with MAIN in order to show that the test can also be used with older children. I deliberately did not include children younger than six years old since my main purpose was to identify which peculiarities in the children's divergent grammars can be traced with the help of MAIN, and it is sometimes argued that even monolingual Russian children

do not acquire a full case system until the age of 6 (Polinsky, 2006). Usually, however, very few mistakes are found in the case marking of monolingual Russian children after the age of three (Gagarina & Voeikova, 2002). Bilingual Russian-American children, on the other hand, often develop a kind of two-case system (NOM and ACC) instead of a full Russian system (Polinsky, 2006). The reduced case system has also been found in simultaneous acquisition of Russian and Swedish (Ringblom, 2012).

Common for all the children in the study is that they attend Russian language instruction (Russian as a Home Language) and were either born and brought up in Sweden or immigrated to Sweden at a very early age (before the age of 4, which is considered to be the end of the critical period). Most of the children were brought up at home until 1.5 years old and then spent most of their time in preschool; some had a Russian grandmother who either lived with them or visited on a regular basis. The onset of regular exposure to Swedish coincided with the admission to pre-school, between the ages of 1 and 1.8 for those children who were *not* exposed to Swedish by one of the parents. Some of the children went to Russia every year, while others have never been there or have been only once. The linguistic competence of the children varied as a result of the amount of input they received in the family and parental attention to their bilingualism.

This group of children may be considered representative of the Russian-Swedish bilingual children living in Sweden and attending mother tongue instruction. These children often attend mother tongue classes along with the «real Russians» (as the children themselves often call them), i. e. the children who spent most of their childhood in Russia or Russian speaking countries and immigrated to Sweden after having acquired literacy in their L1 Russian. By the time the children in this study started school, Swedish was clearly their dominant language. The dominance is determined in terms of time of exposure as well as children's and parents' own assessment.

The Material

Our material consists of 22 stories in Russian and 22 stories in Swedish. Only Russian material will be discussed here since the Swedish narratives were not much different from those of monolingual Swedish children, and since only the Russian part of the corpus is relevant for the aims of this article. The data was audio-*recorded*

and transcribed along the CHILDES translation conventions (MacWhinney, 2000). All deviant forms were extracted from the corpus and analysed separately. The linguistic histories of the informants (available through the COST Action IS0804) were also collected. Russian children in Sweden can provide interesting data that will enable us to gain new insights into the process of bilingual language acquisition where one language is dominant.

The informants (overview)

Identifi- cation	Sex	Age	Age of arrival to Sweden
CHI2	F	10;8	Born in Sweden
CHI3	F	7;4	3;6
CHI4	M	11;6	Born in Sweden
CHI5	M	8;5	2;3
CHI6	F	9;2	2;8
CHI7	M	7;1	3;2
CHI8	F	9;3	Born in Sweden
CHI9	F	7;10	Born in Sweden
CHI10	F	9;8	1;5
CHI11	m	6;9	Born in Sweden
CHI1	F	12;3	Born in Sweden

All the informants followed the same procedure. After a short warm up phase, they were asked to narrate a story. All six pictures were placed in a single row in front of the child. I pointed with my finger from the first to the last picture and the child was given some time to look at the pictures and tell the story. Prompts were given when there was hesitation. For the purposes of this study, both stories were used. The procedure was slightly different than in regular MAIN testing since all the pictures were shown to the child right away and no envelopes were used. This was done in order to make the testing procedure easier. Comprehension questions were asked in order to

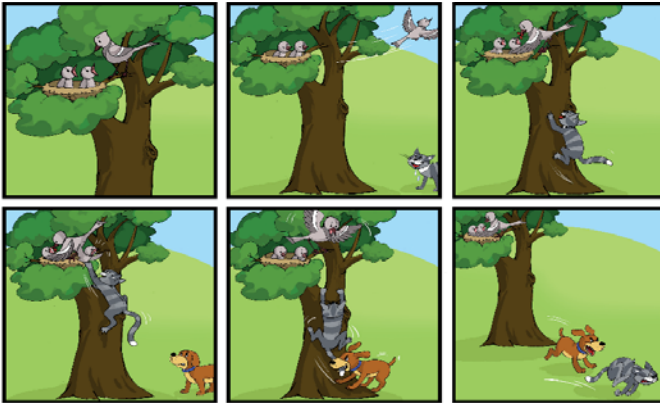
elicit more output from the children and determine their level of understanding.

The Tool: Litmus MAIN

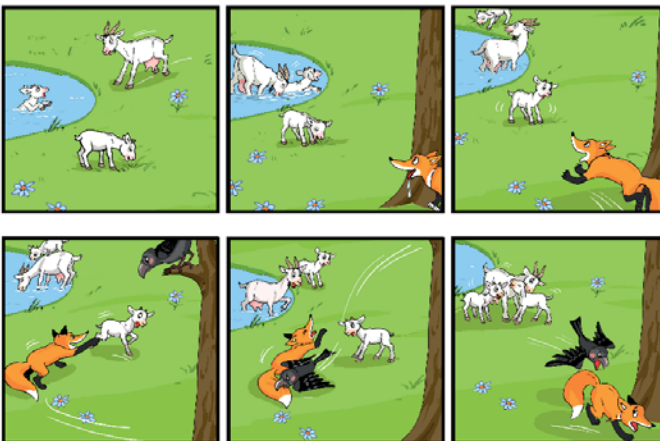
The tool used in this study was Litmus MAIN, which was developed within COST Action IS 0804 and provides a new instrument for eliciting production data and determining a child's level of narrative development. The test was developed for determining macrostructural elements in the stories in order to differentiate the children with and without SLI (Gagarina et al. 2012). However, it also gives children the possibility to use their own imagination to express feelings and emotions (cf Gagarina 2014).

The pictures chosen:

Baby birds



Baby goats



Many articles have appeared since MAIN was developed (see Armon-Lotem, 2015 for a review). Yet, one relevant question still remains: what are the implications of these results for teaching? Results from linguistic research should be applicable to teaching practice in order to make the teaching more effective (Hyltenstam, 1985). To my knowledge, there have been no articles that have applied qualitative approaches and looked in detail at deviant linguistic structures. However, MAIN provides the possibility of doing so. A qualitative approach is the only way of looking at the peculiarities of the weaker language, which can help teachers understand the main principles governing language acquisition in order to provide adequate training to their students.

The Notion of a Weaker Language

The situation of a child who is born and raised in a Russian family in Sweden will differ from that of a child born into a monolingual Russian family in Russia. Many features emerge when a language develops which do not occur in adult varieties of Russian. Some of these features are obviously of a developmental nature while others have their origin in cross-linguistic influence (CLI) and related phenomena. If one of the two developing languages does not get enough input, that language may turn out to be the weaker language.

Weaker language is a highly under-investigated field in language acquisition studies. It contains a number of aspects that are not common among monolingual speakers and is often taken for SLI (Specific Language Impairment) since the features found in a weaker language are often found in SLI children. The morpho-syntax of a weaker language is often viewed as a key indicator of SLI and nowadays, more and more children require services for language intervention (Jackson-Maldonado, 2004). Yet, it is often difficult even for professionals to distinguish SLI from normally developing bilingual children. This uncertainty is due to the lack of deeper insight into the whole spectrum of what may be called «normal» linguistic development, since most studies on bilingual development have investigated balanced bilinguals. I believe that, in order to make assessment and intervention appropriate, we need far more information about prototypical forms of development in bilingual children, especially in new language combinations. More data on unbalanced bilingualism is needed and this study aims to fill this gap.

Cross-linguistic influence (CLI), code-switching, borrowing, transfer and language mixing are unavoidable consequences of bilingual development and occur as a natural result of the children's familiarity with more than one language. CLI takes place because of language external conditions (language dominance or the frequency of some particular structure in a given language) or language internal (grammatical) conditions that include structural compatibility of domain-specific vulnerabilities. Regardless of the reason, even qualitative differences in the language abilities of the children may be observed, not only quantitative ones (Ringblom, 2012). The presence of qualitative differences shows that the processes of monolingual and bilingual acquisition are not necessarily quite the same and thus, a totally different type of mother tongue instruction may be necessary for such children.

Several reasons for CLI can be retrieved from the literature. Regardless of the reason for the CLI, it is clear that the bilingual children are not free from it. It is also the case that bilingual children may achieve grammatical competence in their weaker language that is *qualitatively different* from that of monolingual children.

One of the main challenges is to analyze the deviations in the speech of bilingual children, predict what may happen next and then create a *methodology for teaching Russian as a home language* in schools and preschools outside Russia. In order to do this, a good narrative instrument is needed that is easy to handle and use in teaching, even by the people who are not trained as linguists. I would like to propose that MAIN can be used as such an instrument since it can, in a short period of time, clearly identify children who seem to acquire Russian as L2 and might need a different type of instruction.

A well-designed narrative task is crucial for eliciting valid linguistic material from the children in order to give teachers an idea about their linguistic abilities. Such a task should be specially designed to suit the competencies of bilingual children, but so far the mother tongue teachers mostly use tests that are designed for monolingual children (if they use them at all). MAIN can be considered a valid tool for such purposes albeit in an abridged version, since it is in its present form very time consuming and complex. Even in its shorter version it would show all the main peculiarities of the children's narrative abilities at a given age and would give the teacher an opportunity to plan and provide appropriate instruction.

Importance of Narratives in Investigating Proficiency

Narratives are an ideal way to investigate the development of *linguistic knowledge*, providing a data source that contains a wide range of linguistic phenomena (Gagarina, 2012: 102). They are also an effective way to investigate structural grammatical aspects of the child's performance (Tsimply et al., 2016). There are different kinds of narrative production (picture-based, personal experience, conversation). Here we concentrate on *elicited narratives*, i. e. picture-based stories, since they are more applicable to the purpose of testing children in the beginning of the semester. Personal narratives are a very good tool as well, but it may be difficult to get children to talk about personal matters when they do not know their teacher very well.

Narration is a bridge between oral and literate language (Hadley, 1998) and plays a crucial role in the development of discourse knowledge, literacy and social abilities (Mc Cabe, 1996). Thus, it is a good tool to use with children who start school and begin to be literate in their respective languages. Telling a story can be a very difficult task for children with SLI (see Armon & Lotem, 2015: 13). However, this task may be just as difficult for a bilingual child in his/her weaker language.

In order to elicit a coherent story that will show all the abilities of a child, a good narrative instrument is needed, a narrative that is more than a series of pictures but that also contains a number of comprehension questions. A valid and easily administered task would give mother tongue teachers the possibility of testing children at the beginning of the semester, identifying children who might need a different kind of instruction in their mother tongue, and planning a curriculum which supports each child's needs.

The Levels of Analysis

The narratives might be later analysed with regard to their *macro- and microstructure*, which represent two distinct areas of discourse (Lilies et al., 1995). The MACROSTRUCTURE is the internal linguistic structure used in the construction of the coherent discourse. It is a universal behavior that contains higher-order hierarchical organization (episodic structure and story grammar components). Macrostructures mainly focus on story grammar and story conventions (i. e. the global organization of narratives). Comprehension questions are asked in

order to provide additional opportunities to assess understanding of macrostructure¹.

The MICROSTRUCTURE is defined as linguistic structure at the lexical and syntactic level. It is usually used to evaluate the complexity of the children's language by calculating form and content linguistic devices (Hughes, McGillivray & Schmidek, 1997). The microstructure is language specific behaviour on multiple levels: vocabulary, lexical diversity, and morpho-syntax.

When doing microstructural analyses, the researchers usually use descriptive statistics to score a range of variables according to the MAIN guidelines (Gagarina et al., 2012), such as (1) narrative length (measured in terms of communication units and number of clauses), (2) lexical diversity (number of different words), (3) number of coordinate and subordinate clauses, (4) number of function and content words.

However, the microstructure is much more than calculating the group scores since teaching individual children is an individual process and the mistakes of individual children have to be considered individually. Bilingual children have their unique characteristics and mistakes; yet, some generalizations that are independent of the background factors of the individuals are expected even within this group. It is suggested that microstructure components could also be analysed *qualitatively*, especially in didactic contexts since it would provide richer information about the peculiarities of the child's language that the individual teacher needs to work with. Bilingual children themselves sometimes state that the classes are mostly suitable for those who are already very proficient in Russian. From the mother tongue teacher's perspective, it is a huge challenge to integrate the two categories of students in the same classroom: those who have Russian as a mother tongue and those who have it as a second or weaker language (the group of children often referred to as HERITAGE SPEAKERS (HS)). The children of this study might in fact be considered HS as well.

Heritage Speakers and their Special Needs

According to research on heritage languages, heritage speakers typically do not reach native-like attainment in specific aspects of their

¹ The macrostructure lies beyond the scope of this investigation since this article investigates typically developing bilingual children and such children do not usually have problems with macrostructure.

heritage language. Unlike their monolingual counterparts, heritage speakers often display a better command of phonological and syntactic aspects of their heritage language than of lexical and morphological areas (Elabbas et.al, 2013; Montrul, 2004; Silva-Corvalán, 2003; Sorace, 2000). These asymmetries have generated considerable interest in understanding the properties of heritage (bilingual) grammars that are prone to incomplete (divergent) acquisition and attrition/loss. From studies of monolingual Russian acquisition it is known that Russian children acquire non-syncretic verb morphology without great problems (Gvozdev, 2005). Even though some might need a longer time to acquire noun inflection, it is already acquired by age of three (Gagarina & Voeikova, 2002). This has not been the case with children who acquire Russian and Swedish simultaneously (Ringblom, 2012) or who are called HS (Polinsky, 2006). The lexicon of bilingual children is often poorer than in monolingual children (Windsor & Kohnert, 2004), which has implication on the acquisition of morphology and syntax. At the same time, the process of language attrition may also take place in heritage grammars (Gagarina, 2012).

Since terminological distinction between bilingual children and heritage speakers is often blurred, I will refer to bilingual children with one dominant and one weaker language as heritage speakers (HS). HS are a special population with specific challenges and needs. However, many mother tongue teachers lack special competence for teaching HS. They need to apply a methodology that reflects more of a mixture of mother tongue and second language acquisition. Some students have a very low proficiency in Russian and need to *learn the language* in a totally different way than Russian children who acquire only one L1.

Results

Distinguishing between different kinds of language contact phenomena

In this article we approach the morphological aspect of weaker L1 Russian by analyzing deviations (or ill-formed constructions, using Rakhilina's (2014) terminology). The results of the study indicate that many ungrammatical forms were found in the children's speech that are not common among monolingual speakers of Russian and that the departure from the monolingual Russian variety is found in 8 out of 11 children in this study. The forms that are going to be presented here are typical for the children who acquire Russian as their L2.

The structural modifications and replacements found in the children's narratives can be classified as bilingual NOVEL FORMS since they arise as a natural outcome of the children's contact with two languages. Below I will provide a short description of such cases, even though we should bear in mind the difficulty of analyzing the nature of each novel form in the children's speech due to the large number of variables that interact with each other.

Cross-linguistic influence will be used as an umbrella term in discussing language contact phenomena. The term will categorize cases of deviation from the norms that occur as the result of familiarity with more than one language: *спасуть fågelungarna* (to save the baby birds) (6;9). Since the Swedish language of our subjects dominates and influences the weaker language (Russian), there are constructions in Russian that can be traced back to the influence from Swedish. We are dealing with instances of *transfer* here, where the structures from one language are borrowed into the other temporarily (Paradis et al. 2003): *Fågelungarna (Sw) получили (Rus) mat (Sw)* ('the baby birds got food' from the Sw: «*fick mat*» «got food») (6;9); *кошка получила шанс* ('the cat got a chance' «*fick chans*») (7;1). *И он укусил на (Sw: «på») ees (hennes, possessive «s») хвост* 'and he bet on ERR hers ERR tail'.

Mixings have been found in most empirical investigations and they may be seen both as accidental performance errors and as signs of linguistic confusion. *Мамма принесла им maskar (7;4); Getunge совсем один. А hon... hon visste inte att katten var där и хотел съесть детки (7;10)*. The reason for multiple mixings is clearly their not knowing the Russian equivalent. The children may also mix languages since they have been exposed to mixing in their environment. Even though we cannot completely control input, we know that the child constructs his/her own forms from all the input/linguistic material available.

Children's mixings may be also regarded as *code-switching*, which is used as a communication strategy. Most researchers agree that code-switching is consciously applied in order to clarify a misunderstanding, to create a certain communicative effect, to emphasize a point, to exclude someone from the conversation, to express a certain idea when activities have been experienced in only one of the languages or when some concepts or words are more simple or salient in one language over the other (see Arnberg,

1987). Code-switching is thus used for purposeful language change in order to achieve some communicative effect, and the switches are not morphologically or phonetically integrated into the base language. Even though the following structures are common in the narratives, it seems unlikely that the children consciously chose Swedish words and phrases to achieve a certain communicative effect: *Они все равно не bryr sig* (7;4); ‘They don’t care’.

Deviations that are not typical in monolingual Russian acquisition

Even though the abovementioned deviations that arise as a direct or indirect result of CLI are very important for the teachers to make the children aware of, it may be even more important to look deeper at the monolingual Russian material of our subjects, where several mistakes were noticed that are *not* common for monolingual Russian children of school age that grow up in Russia:

(1) The use of frozen NOM both in plural and singular, in nouns and pronouns (where the correct case usage can also be noted in the same story): *мама птичка дала птенчики червяк* (NOM instead of GEN); *хватить (схватить) он (его)*; *козлик с козлятки* (frozen GEN?)

(2) omitting prepositions or using wrong prepositions (*лезть в дерево* ‘climb *in* ERR a tree’(10;8)

(3) redundant prepositions: *нюхать на цветочки*.

(4) The influence of Swedish *rå*: *птенчики на гнездышке (в гнездышке)*.

(5) Use of the accusative instead of the prepositional case: *козлик сидела в водичка*

(6) Violation of noun-verb agreement: *Собачка хватить (схватила)*. It may depend on the fact that the first verb is much more common.

(7) Violation of noun-adjective agreement: *Кошка хочет маленький птичичка*

(8) Violation of noun-pronoun agreement: *вот этот собака, этот дерево (wrong gender)*

(9) No opposition between perfective and imperfective aspect forms (mandatory in Russian): *птичка летела за еду (полетела за едой)*

(10) Innovations: *Фонгать; козик; ее ребенки*

(11) omitting an unknown words

It is important to mention that neither case nor agreement errors were necessarily constant throughout the whole story. Sometimes the child would use gender correctly *собачка пришла* ('the dog FEM came FEM') and after a couple of sentences, in a different context – the same word would be used in masculine. Often the children would hear the wrong form and correct themselves, but at times they were not able to find the right form. The role of the teacher may be especially important since the child may be aware of the mistake, but is not yet mature enough to correct it. Comprehension questions give a chance to elicit more output from the child and also to provide recast:

СНІ: Птенчики сидели в эту@err эта (?) гнездышко # этот
'the baby birds were sitting to those...in that (?) nest'

ЕХР: Да, вот в этом гнездышке птенчики сидели. Вот в этом
'yes, they were sitting in this nest. In this one'. (8;5)

The stories are of course possible to carry out even without comprehension questions, but in that case they would be rather short. The older children found the pictures a little bit too childish and easy to describe. When asked what kinds of stories they wanted to have they mentioned having the pictures with more material to talk about: «Картинки, где больше вещей... а тут только водичка, травка и зверь какой-то» (12;3). Some children also expressed a preference for watching a short movie instead of describing a picture: «Было бы лучше, если мы посмотрели фильм» (12;3).

Cases are not seen as important in Swedish, whereas Russian children know from an early age that cases carry meaning (cf. also the discussion in Lepskaja, 1997, Ceytlin, 2009). The children often used combinations of a preposition and a case that would be totally impossible for a Russian monolingual child: *лезть в дерево* ('climb in ERR a tree'). On the other hand, we know that the connection between a particular case and a preposition is rather fixed in the consciousness of a Russian child (cf. Ceytlin, 2009: 275), while that was far from the case in our subjects.

Constructions containing a preposition and a noun were often created anew every time they were used, while monolingual Russian children do not usually create PREP + NOUN constructions anew every time they use them. Rather, they comprehend the morphological frame of the syntactic construction as a whole. The children often used NOM in the situations when they had to be created or some other case that was not correct. Monolingual Russian children

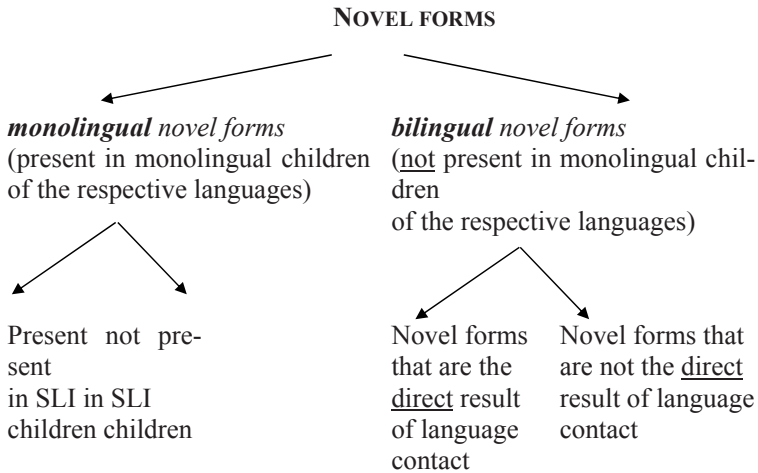
master this dynamic-static relationship between an accusative and a prepositional phrase rather early, while our informants – like many second-language learners – often used the cases interchangeably. The wrong and correct forms seem to appear in free distribution.

Discussion and Conclusion

The innovations that we observed in the children's speech seem to be of two kinds: (a) those found in monolingual children and (b) those not found in monolingual children – i. e. unique bilingual innovations that are either a direct result of language contact or not. Monolingual innovations can in turn be divided into those that are found in SLI children and not found in SLI children (Ringblom, 2012, Galkina & Urzhumova, 2014). Structural modifications in the children's narratives in Russian that arise as an outcome of their contact with the two languages cannot be explained by transfer alone since the children made mistakes even when the two languages were structured in the same way (cf Rakhilina, 2014). Rather, the bilingual *environment* as such seems to be the cause of the divergent grammatical development in the Russian language. The mistakes do not seem to disappear as the children grow older. Thus, we see the reverse effect of schooling (probably due to language attrition, but also since the Swedish domain becomes broader and the children learn more new words in Swedish). The correct forms were often used in the same sentences as the wrong ones, which shows that the grammar might have been acquired randomly.

Even though the morphosyntax of a weaker language is often viewed as a key indicator of SLI (Crago & Gopnic, 1994), this criterion alone can be misleading, since many morphological innovations in a weaker language show similarities to non-target forms found in SLA/SLI. Nonetheless, they might be nothing more than developmental deviations that occur as a result of contact between the two developing languages. Bilingual innovations in a weaker language may provide valuable information about the process of normal bilingual development. These structures are not fossilized but are subject to improvement – given sufficient input and adequate instruction. It is important for the teachers to be able to control for proficiency level of their students in order to provide good instruction. It is a subject for further – more methodically oriented research – to find out the acquisition of which forms can be accelerated by

instruction and on the developmental course of which (if any) the classroom instruction will have no effect.



It is beyond the scope of this investigation to speculate on the exact nature of the Russian deviations and the nature of CLI found in the data, but it is clear that MAIN can be used successfully to collect and document such forms. Subsequently, adequate training could be provided to the child at school using specially designed exercises for practicing those Russian constructions which are difficult for children who are acquiring Russian as a second language. The same test could be used at the end of the term in order to see if some improvement has taken place.

One of the purposes of mother tongue classes should be to provide efficient instruction to the child in their mother tongue, even if it happens to be the child's weaker language. Unfortunately, the instruction often stems from the monolingual norm, implying that the processes of monolingual and bilingual acquisition are similar. However, many of the mistakes of bilingual children are *not* found in the monolingual acquisition of Russian. The Russian stories also demonstrated a lot of variation in morphosyntactic abilities not present in TD Russian children of the same age (Eliseeva, 2000; Ceytlin, 2009). Some children formed the structures in Russian by using information they found in the Swedish grammar. Specific bilingual errors that were found in the material seem to manifest at a certain stage in the development of unbalanced bilingualism in

children and need to be investigated further in a larger sample with the help of MAIN.

I propose that this tool *can* be used for didactic purposes. This has not been done previously due to the test's complexity and difficulty to administer and use by non-trained persons. However, teachers need to see which structures in the children's language need to be developed, and thus, qualitative data should be collected. In order to do this, it is enough to ask the child to narrate a picture story followed by some comprehension questions. Thus, in a simplified version, MAIN can have a much broader application.

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ВИКОРИСТАННЯ MAIN ЯК ІНСТРУМЕНТУ ДЛЯ ТЕСТУВАННЯ Й ОЦІНКИ ГРАМАТИЧНИХ ЗНАЇЬ У СЛАБШІЙ МОВІ ДВОМОВНИХ ШВЕДСЬКО-РОСІЙСЬКИХ ДІТЕЙ

Наталія Рінгблом

кандидат філологічних наук, доцент,
Стокгольмський університет, SE-106 91, Швеція
natasha.ringblom@slav.su.se

АНОТАЦІЯ. Мета нашого дослідження полягала в тому, щоб показати, як MAIN (Гагаріна та ін., 2012) може бути використаний як інструмент оцінки для тестування граматичних знань у двомовних дітей, з особливим акцентом на виявленні двомовних особливостей у морфо-синтаксисі слабшої мови. Для батьків і педагогів надзвичайно важливо бути в курсі основних проблем, пов'язаних з мовними здібностями дитини з тією метою, щоб вчасно забезпечити

адекватний і ефективний зворотний зв'язок і надати допомогу (Hultenstam, 1985: 120). Педагоги повинні бути в змозі діагностувати і зрозуміти дитячі проблеми та знайти способи, щоб допомогти їм подолати їх (там само). Для того, щоб зробити це, їм потрібен інструмент, який простий в управлінні і використанні. MAIN має всі передумови бути таким інструментом, але не в його теперішньому вигляді. Для того, щоб MAIN використовувався у навчанні, необхідно розробити більш оптимальну версію.

Одинадцять шведсько-російських двомовних дітей у віці 6–12 років, які проживають в районі Стокгольма, були учасниками даного дослідження. Результати експериментального дослідження показали нові дані, що дозволило нам принципово по-новому зрозуміти процес оволодіння двомовністю, при якій одна мова є домінуючою.

Ключові слова: MAIN, діти-білінги, морфо-синтаксис, слабка мова, описове завдання, російська мова, шведська мова, навчання рідною мовою, Швеція.

ИСПОЛЬЗОВАНИЕ MAIN КАК ИНСТРУМЕНТА ДЛЯ ДОСТУПА И ТЕСТИРОВАНИЯ ГРАММАТИЧЕСКИХ ЗНАНИЙ В СЛАБШЕМ ЯЗЫКЕ ДВУЯЗЫЧНЫХ ШВЕДСКО-РУССКИХ ДЕТЕЙ

Наталья Рингблом

кандидат филологических наук, доцент,
Стокгольмский университет, SE-106 91, Швеция
natasha.ringblom@slav.su.se

АННОТАЦИЯ. Цель нашего исследования состояла в том, чтобы показать, как MAIN (Гагарина и др., 2012) может быть использован как инструмент оценивания для тестирования грамматических знаний у двуязычных детей, с особенным акцентом на выявлении двуязычных особенностей в морфо-синтаксисе более слабого языка. Для родителей и педагогов чрезвычайно важно быть в курсе основных проблем, связанных с языковыми способностями ребёнка с той целью, чтобы вовремя обеспечить адекватную и эффективную связь и помощь (Hultenstam, 1985: 120). Педагоги должны уметь диагностировать и понять детские проблемы и найти способы, чтобы помочь им преодолеть их (там же). Для того, чтобы сделать это, им нужен инструмент, простой в управлении и использовании. MAIN имеет все предпосылки быть таким инструментом, но не в его сегодняшнем варианте. Для того, чтобы MAIN использовать в обучении, необходимо разработать наиболее оптимальную версию.

Одиннадцать шведско-русских билингвальных детей в возрасте 6–12 лет, которые проживают в районе Стокгольма, были участниками нашего эксперимента. Результаты исследования показали новые данные, что позволило нам принципиально по-новому понять процесс овладения двуязычием, при котором один язык является доминантным.

Ключевые слова: *MAIN, дети-билингвы, морфо-синтаксис, более слабый язык, описательное задание, русский язык, шведский язык, обучение на родном языке, Швеция.*

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