



Språk- och Literaturcentrum  
Master's Thesis  
VT 2011  
Supervisor: Mechtild Tronnier

**LUND**  
UNIVERSITY

# **Cross-linguistic interference of intonation in regard to tag questions in native, second and third language use**

---

Does Russian have an impact on Danish and English in  
terms of intonation in the tags?

Submitted: 24 May 2011

Anna Knudsen  
Master of Arts in  
Language and Linguistics

-Phonetics-

## **Abstract**

This study investigates the cross-linguistic interference between speakers of Russian (as a first language or L1), Danish (as a second language, or L2) and English (as a third language, or L3) in terms of rising intonation patterns in tag questions in read speech. The subjects of the investigation are ten adults with an additive bilingualism between the ages of twenty to twenty-three, who immigrated to Denmark with their parents between the ages of four and fourteen. The control group involves native speakers of Russian (=3), Danish (=3) and English (=3). The results of individual acoustic analysis of pitch range in the tag has shown that intonation in Russian used by subjects matched with intonation used by native speakers of Russian in ninety percent of tags, whereas in Danish it was eighty percent, and in English it was fifty-seven percent. Cross-linguistic interference  $L1 \leftrightarrow L2 \leftrightarrow L3$  was clearly observed in the speech of some speakers, which means that it is more individual than general interference, which, basically, depends on the subjects' respective backgrounds.

**Keywords:** Tag questions, Tag Word or Tag Phrase, Rising Intonation Pattern, Additive Bilingualism, Third Language Acquisition, Cross-linguistic interference  $L1 \leftrightarrow L2 \leftrightarrow L3$ , Russian, Danish, English

## **Acknowledgments**

First and foremost I offer my sincerest gratitude to my supervisor, Mechtild Tronnier, who has supported me throughout my thesis whilst allowing me the room to work in my own way. Without her very patient guidance I would still be editing the data.

I owe special thanks to everyone who found time to take part in the current investigation and without whom this research would have been a distant reality.

My thanks must also go to all professors and teachers at the department of Linguistics and Phonetics at Lund University. They taught me much about acoustic analysis and language acquisition theories, which I used in my research a lot.

My friends were a big source of strength and support. Mayya Glebova, Morgan Dryden, Maria Kumanjkina deserve special awards for their understanding and support.

Finally, words alone cannot express the thanks I owe to my family, my Mom - Galina Verbitskaya and my husband - Henrik Knudsen, who supported me a lot during my work on the thesis.

## **Abbreviations**

L1 – Russian (first language)

L2 – Danish (second language)

L3 – English (third language)

CD – Copenhagen Dialect

NS – Native speaker

S – Subjects of investigation

DP – Declarative Part of a tag question

T – Tag word or tag phrase

TG – Tag question

S1,2, n – speakers of the focus group

R1,2,3 – Native speakers of Russian

D1,2,3 – Native speakers of Danish

E1,2,3 – Native speakers of English

F0 – Fundamental Frequency

ST –Semitones

MS –Milleseconds

## Table of Content

1. Introduction .....	7
2. Background .....	10
2.1 Tag questions .....	10
2.1.1 Functions of tag questions .....	13
2.1.2 Similarities and differences between English, Danish and Russian tag questions in terms of grammar .....	14
2.2 Intonation .....	15
2.2.1 Intonation in English tag questions .....	16
2.2.2 Intonation in Danish tag questions .....	18
2.2.3 Intonation in Russian tag questions .....	19
2.2.4 Similarities and differences between Russian, Danish and English tag questions in terms of intonation .....	20
2.3 First, second and third language acquisition .....	21
2.3.1 Cross-linguistic interference .....	22
2.3.2 The role of age in language acquisition .....	23
3. Design of the study .....	24
3.1 Participants .....	24
3.2 Material and procedure .....	25
3.3 Analytical framework .....	27
4. Results .....	28
4.1 Pitch contour in a tag word or a tag phrase .....	28
4.1.1 Individual analysis of pitch contour in a T .....	33
4.2 F0 in the end of DP and F0 in the start of T .....	37
4.3 Pausing between DP and T .....	38
4.4 Summary of results .....	39
4.5 Questionnaires .....	40
4.5.1 Questionnaire for subjects .....	40
4.5.2 Questionnaire for parents .....	41
5. Discussion .....	42

6. Limitations of the study .....	46
7. Conclusion .....	46
8. Further investigation .....	47
9. References .....	48
10. Appendices .....	56
Appendix I. Samples of speech .....	56
Appendix II. Questionnaires .....	64
Appendix III. Additional descriptive analysis .....	70

## 1. Introduction

Language acquisition is one of the most interesting and debatable topics in the world of linguistics. Speaking with a foreign accent can have both social and communicative consequences. It is believed that the first language influences the acquisition of the second language; the second language influences the acquisition of the third language and so forth (Bardel & Falk, 2007, Rothman, 2011, Clyne, 1993, Williams & Hammarberg, 1998, Green, 1998).

Understanding language acquisition plays a very important role in teaching and learning both native and foreign languages because strategies used by children while acquiring a native language help to improve methods and approaches in teaching either a second or a third language, for example: at schools, colleges and universities. Also, it can help to overcome difficulties in pronunciation and a foreign accent, which seem to be some of the most debatable questions in the world of linguistics, because scientists and researchers find it difficult to explain these phenomena. There are a lot of different points of view (Roy. C. Major (2001), Blumstein, S (1987)), and each researcher tries to describe why people have a foreign accent. In fact, it is difficult to explain how to prevent it. The acquisition of language is an integral part of successful learning and teaching of any language in the world. Young children face the challenge of acquiring their native language, as they are supposed to understand the system of it.

Russian, Danish and English are very different languages in many aspects. In particular the phonological systems show a lot of variation. Intonation plays a very important role because reading one language with the intonation pattern appropriate to the other can give rise to entirely unintentional effects. “Russian with an English intonation sounds affected or hypocritical to the native speaker of Russian; English with Russian intonation sounds unfriendly, confusing or threatening to the native speaker of English” (Comrie B., 1984). English with Danish intonation sounds aggressive to the native speakers of English. When Danes transfer their prosodic code to English, there is thus fertile ground for unpleasant misunderstandings (Lund K., 2003)

Russian intonation sounds rude and aggressive to the native speaker of Danish, whereas Russian with a Danish intonation sounds monotonous and confusing. Intonation is paradoxically at the same time one of the simplest and one of the most complicated phenomena while perceiving and analyzing it (Kundrotas, 2005). In any language it is used as a means of

expressing semantic and emotionally-stylistic differences of an utterance. Intonation in tag questions varies according to the context in which tag questions occur. Tag questions are mostly used in colloquial speech as opposed to written language and they have a great variety of functions: agreement, disagreement, confirmation, uncertainty, etc. There are no studies on intonation in Russian and Danish tag questions in comparison with English ones, which make it even more interesting to investigate.

The *aim* of my study is to investigate the influences of the first language (Russian) on the second (Danish) and third languages (English) in terms of intonation in tag questions in everyday conversations in young learners' speech.

*What do I want to find out?*

- 1) Does the intonation in tag questions of the Russian language influence the intonation in tag questions of the Danish language? If yes, how?
- 2) Does the intonation in tag questions of the Danish language influence the intonation in tag questions of the Russian language? If yes, how?
- 3) Does the intonation in tag questions of the Russian language influence the intonation in tag questions of the English language? If yes, how?
- 4) Does the intonation in tag questions of the Danish language influence the intonation in tag questions of the English language? If yes, how?
- 5) Does the intonation in tag questions of the English language influence the intonation in tag questions of the Russian language? If yes, how?
- 6) Does proficiency in English influence the acquisition of English intonation in tag questions? If yes, how?

***My hypotheses***

- 1) Russian immigrants always use rising intonation in tag questions when they speak English;
- 2) Russian immigrants always use rising intonation in tag questions when they speak Danish;
- 3) The Danish and English intonation in the tags influence the Russian intonation in the tags;
- 4) Degree of proficiency in English influences the adequateness of English intonation;



In summary, my hypothesis is intonation in tag questions in the Russian language has an impact on intonation in English and Danish tag questions.

The hypotheses are based on an impression that 1) English and Danish acquired as a second and third languages sound a bit different from native speech in English and Danish 2) Russian speech sounds different from native speech of Russian.

## 2. Background

### 2.1 Tag questions

Tag questions play an important role in everyday communication. They usually consist of a declarative sentence and a tag word or tag phrase. “The declarative sentence is used to put forward a view of the speaker, while the tag question indicates this view wants to be identified” (Zhang, 2010). In fact, there are a lot of definitions of tag questions. American grammarians prefer a term “a tag question”, while British linguists prefer “a question tag”. Sometimes they are called disjunctive questions (Collins, 2009). In the present thesis the term ‘a tag question’ will be used. According to Parkes (1989) “A tag question is a device used to turn a statement into a question. It nearly always consists of a pronoun, a helping verb, and sometimes the word *not*. Although it begins as a statement, the tag question prevails when it comes to the end-mark: use a question mark. When the statement is positive, the tag question is expressed in the negative; when the statement is negative, the tag question is positive”( Parkes G., 1989).

Tag questions are more common in the realm of colloquial speech than in writing. Lakoff (1975) defines a tag question as “a declarative statement without the assumption that the statement is to be believed by the addressee: one has an out, as with questions. The tag gives the addressee leeway, not forcing him to go along with the views of the speaker”.

According to Shideng (2006), English tag questions can be divided into two distinct categories: canonical and invariant tag questions. She claims that the canonical tag questions are very complicated because gender, number and tense should be taken into account in order to meet grammatical needs. For instance, the function word of the tag question should agree with the predicate verb in the preceding declarative sentence or the functional word in number, tense and form. The invariant tag questions are more informal and use modal words to interrogate, such as “all right”, “ok”, “right”, etc.

#### ***Examples of tag questions***

*You like sushi, don't you? (canonical tag question)*

*We will go to the cinema, right? (invariant tag question)*

It should be mentioned that there are some differences between British and American tag questions. Tottie and Hoffmann (2006) have conducted corpus-based investigations of colloquial

British English and American English in terms of using tag questions. They have found differences regarding the use of “canonical” tag questions such as *It’s snowing, isn’t it?*, *It’s not snowing, is it?*, or *It’s snowing, is it?* The results showed that “pragmatic functions point to a higher use of “facilitating” tags involving interlocutors in conversation in American English” (Tottie, Hoffmann, 2006). However, age played an important role in both varieties; older speakers tend to use more canonical tag questions than younger speakers. Polarity types and operators in tags also differed.

There have been a lot of investigations into English tag questions from the sociolinguistic point of view (Lakoff, 1975, Cameron, 1988). Lakoff believed that women use more tag questions in their everyday speech than men, while Cameron (1988) had an opposite opinion. Having researched tag questions in a 45,000-word sample from a British corpus of transcribed conversation, she discovered that there were 60 tag questions used by men, and only 36 by women.

In Danish, there are different particles for the formulation of tag questions: *ikke, ik’ også, synes du ikke, vel, etc.?* According to Grønnum (1995) there are three basic types of tags that can be used in Danish to turn a declarative into a formal question: adverbial tags, sentential tags and tags of the wh-type. In the case of standard negation, the particle *vel* is used. In all other cases, the particle *ikke* is used.

#### ***An adverbial tag question***

*Du kan ikke lide mælk, vel?*

*You do not like milk, do you?*

#### ***Sentential tag questions***

*Du skal ikke gå I skole imorgen, skal du?*

*You are not going to school tomorrow, are you?*

#### ***A tag of the wh-type***

*Det er dejligt vejr, hva’?*

*It is nice weather, isn’t it/huh?*

*Hvad* is used to tag assessments about matters both speakers and recipients have access to. In fact, adverbial tags are more frequent than sentential ones and tags of the wh-type (Heinemann, 2010)

The term “tag question” in Russian sounds like: “разделительный вопрос”, but, Bogyslavskaya (2004) says that there is no such term as a tag question in the Russian language. There are particles or phrases which are used at the end of the sentence and indicate that a person is either interested in hearing the answer or not. For example, *Красивая картина, не так ли? It is a beautiful picture, isn't it?*

It has the same structure as in English and Danish from a syntactical point of view. It consists of a declarative statement (DP) and a tag word or a tag phrase (T). According to the free encyclopedia there is a fixed phrase for a Russian tag question “не правда ли”, whereas Cubberley (2002) claims that there are different particles, and choosing the most appropriate one depends on whether the type of conversation is formal or informal. The grammatical structure of a sentence does not influence the particles. The most widespread particles are:

*Formal particles: не правда ли, не так ли?*

- Посмотри на них. Они не понимают, что ты им говоришь, не правда ли?  
*Look at them!!! They don't understand what you are saying to them, do they?*
- Да, да. Я вас узнала. Вас зовут Джэк, не так ли?  
*Yes yes, I recognize you. Your name's Jack, isn't it? (Cubberley, 2002)*

*Informal particles: да, а?*

- Луна движется вокруг земли, да?  
*The moon goes round the earth, doesn't it?*  
Они все таки решили развестись, да?  
*They've decided to divorce, haven't they?*
- Ты купил хлеб, а?  
*You have bought bread, haven't you? (Cubberley, 2002)*

Russian is famous for its free word order and some particles, following a subject, which can be translated into English or Danish as tag questions. For instance, the colloquial particle *zhe*.

*Example:*

*Ты же любишь меня?*  
*You zhe love me*

*You love me, don't you?*

Thus, tag questions consist of two sentences or a declarative part and a tag word or a tag phrase, which can have a complex and a simple structure in terms of grammar.

### **2.1.1 Functions of tag questions**

Tag questions in different languages can have different functions. Generally, they are used as a means of expressing courtesy, confirmation or uncertainty. Sometimes, they are also used to make accusations, especially when followed by an explicit demand for agreement: “You used the dictionary in the lesson, didn't you! Admit it!” They can also be used as a way of controlling a conversation, inducing guilt, or expressing passive aggression. For instance, after the question: “You'd never leave me, would you?”, it is not easy for someone to respond: “Oh, sure I would!” However, they are very popular among parents: “You haven't done your homework yet, have you?” (Kissell, 2005)

Nordquist (2005) claims that: “a tag question is a constituent that is added after a statement in order to request confirmation or disconfirmation of the statement from the addressee. Often it expresses the bias of the speaker toward one answer”. In other words, tag questions are used to verify or check information that people think is true or to check information that they aren't sure is true. There are some exceptions, when there is an element of surprise or sarcasm: “So you've made your first million, have you? Oh, that's your plan, is it?” (Parkes, 1989) *Du skal ikke spise is, vel? (You are not going to eat an ice-cream, are you?)*

Although tag questions can express requests for information, they typically perform a whole range of additional pragmatic functions in conversation. According to Algeo (1988), tag questions could be divided into ‘punctuational tags’, which are employed to emphasize what the speaker says and do not expect any involvement or reply by the conversational partner, ‘confirmatory tags’, which express that the speaker is unsure about what he says, ‘peremptory’ and ‘aggressive tags’, which are employed to close a discussion or to provoke and insult other speakers (Algeo, 1988, 1990). Thus, tag questions can have plenty of functions and only a speaker's intonation helps a listener understand what emotions and feelings the speaker has, whether he/she is not sure about something, confused or self-confident. It should be mentioned that the function of tag questions in discourse is predominately pragmatic and only a small amount of all tag questions are genuine requests for information (Hoffmann, 2009). Lakoff

(1972) and Cuenca (1997) believe that, pragmatically, they can soften the faced threat of a bald assertion by requesting belief rather than presupposing it. However, tag questions can also be associated with hedging or politeness. Different types of classification exist (Holmes, 1984 and Algeo, 1988, 2006), but all scholars agree that tag questions perform a whole range of functions in conversation.

Thus, tag questions have different functions, which are marked by the usage of correct intonation patterns: rising and falling.

### **2.1.2 Similarities and differences between English, Danish and Russian tag questions in terms of grammar**

Tag questions are mostly found in spontaneous conversations in Russian, Danish and English. In fact, there are more similarities between English and Danish than English and Russian or Danish and Russian. It can probably be explained by the historical development of these two languages. English and Danish are related languages. Both of them belong to the Germanic group of languages, whereas Russian is one of three (or four including Rusyn) living members of the East Slavic languages (Collins, 2009).

From a grammatical point of view, the tag form in Danish and Russian is very simple in comparison with English, since only one word or a set phrase is added after the main clause. The tags are generally realized by invariant forms (*ikke? ik' også, vel?*) in Danish, or (*не так ли, да, а?*) in Russian. The form of this word or phrase is usually independent of the structure of the clause, unlike English, which involves the selection of the right verb and, mostly commonly, a reversal of polarity of the main clauses (Slobin, 1985). English tag questions always contain a verb, while Russian and Danish tag questions do not.

**Examples:**

**English:** *You are not going to work tomorrow, are you?*

**Danish:** *Du skal ikke på arbejde i morgen, vel?*

**Russian:** *Ты завтра не идешь на работу, да?*

Nevertheless, Danish tag questions can contain a verb in a question tag, which should agree with the predicate verb in the preceding declarative sentence as it is in English.

**Example:**

Du skal lave aftensmad idag, skal du ikke?

You are going to make dinner today, aren't you?

It should be mentioned that in contrast to Russian, English tag questions, containing negation in the first part of the sentence and expressing agreement, are supposed to have a 'no' answer (while in Russian it will be 'yes'), but in case of disagreement 'yes' will be used.

**Examples:**

**English example:**

*You don't know how to make food, do you?*

No. I don't – Yes I do.

**Russian example:**

*Вы не знаете как готовить еду, не так ли?*

Да, я не знаю - Нет, я знаю

Thus, tag questions in English are very complex in terms of structure, whereas Danish tag questions can also be very complex, but, generally, they lack the special structure found in Russian tag questions.

## 2.2 Intonation

Intonation is a part of prosody and it often cooperates with other prosodic features such as duration and amplitude in order to convey or supplement meaning (Haan, J. 2002). Nevertheless, pitch, or, in acoustic terms, fundamental frequency (F0) is usually assumed to be the main correlation to intonation (Bolinger, 1986, Cruttenden, 1986, Beckman, 1995b). Stress is also an integral part of intonation. In the present thesis, intonation will be defined as the meaningful variation of pitch in the course of an utterance (Haan J., 2002).

In all languages, intonation is used as a means of expressing semantic and emotionally stylistic differences of an utterance. Intonation may be presented as raised or lowered pitch that in an expression usually means a completed or uncompleted idea, question or statement. Prosodic features, such as a tone and a pitch, can distinguish important ideas from less important ones and can show a speaker's personality and attitude towards what he/she is saying. The pragmatic role of intonation can be potent in conveying the speaker's intention with speech acts (Searle 1969). Speech acts can be loosely described as actions of speaking whereby the speaker

sends a message to a hearer with an intention. Sometimes, the message sent depends solely on the wording (Searle 1969).

According to Ladd (1996), the presence of cross-linguistic similarities in intonation is no reason to deny the existence of a language-specific, underlying phonological level. For example, when it comes to accent placement in questions, different languages may have different rules, causing question contours to have different shapes. For instance, the use of rising or falling intonation in tag questions can have different pragmatic and discourse functions in English, Danish and Russian. This means that context plays a very important role in the choice of intonation in tag questions.

### **2.2.1 Intonation in English tag questions**

Intonation in English tag questions has been investigated by many linguists such as McCawley (1988), Huddleston and Pullum (2002), and Ladd (1988). The researchers agree that it plays a very important role, because it either gives the floor to another person to speak or cues someone's turn in a conversation: "rise and fall are used as a signal for when to speak and when not" (Parkes G., 1989). If a person uses a high pitch, it means he wants to continue talking, but a fall shows completion. It should be mentioned that English tag questions are normally stressed on the verb, but the stress is on the pronoun if there is a change of person. There is often a rising tag (especially when the tag contains no negation), or the intonation pattern may be the typically English fall-rise. "English tag questions are untypically complex in comparison with the other language because they vary according to four factors: the choice of auxiliary, the negation, the emphasis and the intonation" (Collins, 2009). As a result, people can make a lot of mistakes while acquiring English as a second or third language.

Tag questions are usually punctuated with question marks, but sometimes they are not meant as questions. In most cases the speaker wants to confirm something and, as a result, the falling pattern is used. If the speaker does not know something or is not sure, he uses the rising pattern. Ladd (1981) describes two types of tag questions in English. He defines them in terms of nuclear and post-nuclear tags instead of "rising" and "falling". In other words, a context and an intonation play an extremely important role. Pitch contours are the clue to knowing what someone is really asking when they ask a tag question. The examples of nuclear and post-nuclear



tags are presented below. It should be mentioned that the term *anchor* means the declarative part of a tag question (Ladd, 1981). The falling intonation is used to seek acknowledgment that the anchor is true, entreating a strong bias for an answer that confirms the anchor. Ladd (1981) associates it with nuclear tags, whereas rising intonation in tag questions asks for confirmation of the anchor, at the same time expressing uncertainty. Ladd (1981) associates it with post-nuclear tags.

*Example: A: Julie wouldn't do it that way.*

*B: Well, Julie isn't here, /is she. (falling intonation pattern)*

*Example: A: Perhaps, Mary could do it.*

*B: Mary isn't here, / is she. (rising intonation pattern)*

Tag questions convey varying degrees of bias depending on the direction of the pitch over the tag. Falling intonation over the tag, for example, conveys a strong bias toward the proposition expressed by the anchor. Rising intonation, on the other hand, normally conveys some doubt or uncertainty by the speaker regarding the truth of the anchor and is therefore associated with a weak bias. Intuitively, falling intonation tag questions ask for *acknowledgement* of the anchor from the addressee, while rising intonation tag questions ask for confirmation (Rando, 1980; Huddleston and Pullum, 2002). When tags are used in their most frequent function, – that is, seeking confirmation or making a point, – they also have rising-falling intonation. The rising-falling pattern is definitely the more frequently occurring contour for tag questions in English. However, the same tag question can have different intonation and different meaning depending on the context. According to Dart (1982), in English speech, a pause between the statement and the tag question is very normal.

Thus, tag questions in English can have rising or falling intonation patterns, depending on a situation and person's interest in continuing or finishing a conversation.

<b>Intonation pattern</b>	<b>Example</b>	<b>Explanation</b>
RISE	You are vegetarian, aren't you?	The speaker thinks that you are a vegetarian but is not sure and asks for confirmation.
FALL	You are vegetarian, aren't you?	The speaker is sure that you are a vegetarian and expects you to agree.
RISE	You don't have a pet, do you?	The speaker thinks that you do not have a pet but is not sure and asks for confirmation.
FALL	You don't have a pet, do you?	The speaker is sure that you do not have a pet and expects you to agree.

### **2.2.2 Intonation in Danish questions: tag questions**

There is no much information about Danish intonation, and knowledge of it is due to the work of Grønnum (1992), who investigated Copenhagen Danish on the basis of instrumental and perceptual studies of read speech.

Intonation in Danish statements is, generally, believed to have a “declination”, which refers to the gradual time-dependent lowering of F0 in the course of an utterance or a text (Cohen, Collier & T'Hart, 1982; Liberman & Pierrehumbert, 1984). According to Grønnum (1992), all types of questions in Danish are not characterized by a terminal rise, but instead by the absence of declination. Her analysis of Standard Danish has shown that there is a single stress group in an utterance which consists of a brief initial fall on the stressed syllable, optionally followed by a steep unaccented rise and a steep unaccented fall. She points out that when questions are marked by a question word and/or inversion, their slopes are typically steeper than when they lack such markers. It should be noted that several linguists like Gooskens & Van Heuven (1995), who

investigated the importance of declination for the recognition of utterance type by Danish and Dutch listeners, found out that for the Danish listeners, declination slope constituted an important cue. "Ideally, Danish statements should have a fairly steep downward slope, whereas in declarative questions, declination should be absent" (Gooskens & Van Heuven, 1995). They came to the conclusion that Dutch must have a final rise, a feature which is absent from Danish question intonation; with respect to declination. Thus, it can be interpreted as the absence of rising intonation in the Danish questions. There are claims that the steady lowering of F0, while being characteristic of statements, does not occur in questions, e.g. in French and Russian (Vaissière 1983:57), in German (Oppenrieder 1988:199), and in Danish (Thorsen 1980).

The observations made by Gooskens & Van Heuven (1995) could be applied to Danish tag questions regarding the absence of declination in the declarative part (DP), whereas Grønnum's (1995) findings about the absence of terminal rise in all types of questions could be discussed. It seems that a tag word or a tag phrase (T) in Danish has rising intonation patterns in most cases. This opinion is based on observations and impressions from everyday communication in Danish. Furthermore, Grønnum says that "even though it is claimed to have a single, recurring basic stress group rather than an inventory of different pitch accents, the unaccented high tones in these groups rise higher in questions than in statements" (Grønnum, 1992, 1995). Grønnum (1995) believes that, in Danish, intonation cues to speech acts are global, not local, and that global slope, being a linguistic element, must be included into a model.

### **2.2.3 Intonation in Russian questions: tag questions**

Russian intonation is a rather complicated matter in comparison with English and Danish intonation, because Russian belongs to the group of languages with free word order and absence of auxiliary verbs. The same lexical structure can have different pragmatic meanings depending on which tonal pattern it is realized with. Early acoustic analysis focused mostly on intonational differences between statements and questions in Russian (Nikolajeva, 1977, Svetozarova, 1998, Bryzgunova, 1980), but there are no studies on intonation in tag questions. However, it should be noted that according to Bryzgunova E. (1989), there can be seven phonological constructions of a sentence with the same lexical structure, representing different pragmatic functions.

Bryzgunova (1980) says that questions have a greater excursion size and higher peaks than statements.

If questions in Russian can only be realized with a rising intonation pattern, excluding wh-questions when a wh-word is used in the beginning (Bryzgunova, 1980), it seems reasonable that Russian tag questions only have a rising pattern at the end of a question. Bryzgunova (1980) claims that rise-fall is typical for the questions without any question words, and a falling intonation pattern is used in the declarative sentences. In Russian, rising-falling contours are used in the production of statements and contrastive statements, ‘yes-no’ (polar) questions, exclamations and enumerations (Bryzgunova, 1977; Svetozarova, 1982). Phonologically, the rise-falls in statements and exclamations are typically classified as variants of falling contours, whereas rise-falls in questions and exclamations are described as realizations of rising contours (Bryzgunova, 1977; Nikolaeva, 1977; Svetozarova, 1982).

Since the tag question consists of a declarative sentence and a tag word or a tag phrase, it could be assumed that a falling intonation pattern is used in the first part of the tag question; while it uses the rising intonation pattern in the end to indicate that it is a question.

It should be noted that rising intonation in Russian is very different from rising intonation in English. Standard rising intonation in Russian is very high, whereas in English it first goes down a little and then up, but not as high as in Russian (Tretjakova, 2007). Kodzasov (2001) says Russians are often referred to as using a wider pitch range and speaking in a higher tone than in Danish, which is often characterized as monotonous speech.

Thus, the investigation of a tag question in Russian has not been paid so much attention to by linguists, especially in terms of intonation (Bogyslavskaya, 2004). It can probably be explained by the absence of a definition of a tag question in Russian and by a possible free word order. Nevertheless, it seems Russian tag questions have rising intonation in the end of an utterance, because a rising intonation pattern indicates that it is a question.

#### **2.2.4 Similarities and differences between Russian, Danish and English tag questions in terms of intonation**

There are some similarities between Russian, Danish and English tag questions in terms of intonation. The rising intonation pattern can occur in all three languages: English, Danish and

Russian. However, the falling intonation pattern is used in the first part of a tag question in English and Russian.

In fact, there are more differences between these two than similarities. For instance, Russian tag questions only have a rising intonation pattern, while English ones have both a rising and falling intonation pattern. The falling intonation contour in the first part of the question has been found in English and Russian tag questions, but it is believed that it is lower in English than in Russian (Tretjakova, 2007). Concerning Danish questions, it should be said that stress plays a very important role. There is usually a single stress group, which consists of a brief fall on the stressed syllable, followed by a steep rise or a steep unaccented fall.

### **2.3 First, second and third language acquisition**

Multilingualism and bilingualism is a norm of the modern world. Fromkin, Rodman and Hyams (2007) believe that about half of the world is natively bilingual. When people hear the word 'bilingual', they think of an immigrant family. It is true that the majority of immigrants can speak more than one language, but the extent to which they are functionally bilingual can depend on many factors, e.g. the age of a child at the time of moving to another country; the family's attitude to a new language (parents can speak a new language at home in order to help their child acquire it or not). If the parents continue to speak exclusively the minority language at home, the child will most likely undergo additive bilingualism. Additive bilingualism occurs when the learner's minority language is maintained and not replaced by the majority language (Myers, 2008). The subjects of the present thesis thus have additive bilingualism, because they use their first language at home and sometimes with their friends, whereas their second language they use everywhere else: at university, at public places and with their friends.

The majority of research into first, second and third language acquisition investigates the influences of the native language in terms of morphology, syntax, semantics and lexicon (Murthy, 2004 Dewaele, 1998, Herwig, 2001, Bardel & Falk, 2007), linguists usually pay less attention to the phonetic and phonological aspects of L1 (Leeuw, 2009, Bannert, 2005, Chamot, 1973), especially concerning tag questions. It is obvious, for example, that English tag questions are very complex in comparison to other languages (Russian, Danish, German and French) in terms of grammar, and that is why researchers focus on the acquisition of tag questions in terms of syntax and morphology (Zhang, 2010, Mills, 1981). Nevertheless, some experiments

investigating the intonation of tag questions in L2 discourse have been conducted (Verdugo & Trillo, 2005). It should be said that second language research has mainly focused on transfer phenomena from the first language (L1) to the second one (L2), excluding other possible relationships (L2→L1) (Kellerman, Kecskes & Papp, 2000). In fact, it is also possible that the third language can influence L1 and be influenced by L1 (L1↔L3) as well as L2 can influence L3 (L2↔L3) (Cenoz, 1999, Pavlenko A., 2000). Nevertheless, it seems that third language acquisition of tag questions in terms of intonation by bilinguals has not really been investigated by linguists. The conditions for cross-linguistic influence can be different: age, the context factors, “foreign language effect” (a tendency to use the L2 or languages other than the L1 as the source language of cross-linguistic influence) (Meisel, 1983), etc. In the present thesis, the focus is on the influence of the first language on the second and the third ones, not excluding other possible relationships.

### **2.3.1 Cross-linguistic interference**

The term interference has been discussed a lot in linguistics by Weinreich (1953). He defined it as: “instances of language deviation from the norms of either language which occur in the speech of bilinguals as a result of their familiarity with more than one language” (Weinreich, 1953). His term of interference was later referred to as a negative transfer because, according to Weinreich, the native language influence is considered to be a barrier to the acquisition of correct target language forms. In fact, the native language can make the acquisition of the target language easier, and that’s why Odlin’s definition of transfer is often used in linguistics: “transfer is the influence resulting from similarities and differences between the target language and any other language that has been previously (and perhaps imperfectly) acquired” (Odlin, 1989). Odlin includes both positive and negative transfer in her definition. However, other researchers (Sharwood & Kellerman, 1986) claim that the term cross-linguistic interference is more appropriate because it refers to other language contact phenomena such as L2→L1 transfer, language loss, or avoidance. The term cross-linguistic interference seems to be more appropriate in the present thesis, because all possible relationships (L1→L2, L1→L3, L2↔L3, and L3↔L2) are taken into consideration.

### **2.3.2 The role of age in language acquisition**

Age is one of the conditions of cross-linguistic influence as was mentioned above. A general belief that children are better language learners than adults is supported by the majority of linguists (Ehrman and Oxford, 1995, Celce-Murcia and Goodwin, 1991, etc). Lenneberg's Critical Age Hypothesis (CAH) claims that "there is an age-related point (generally puberty) beyond which it becomes difficult or impossible to learn a second language to the same degree as native speakers of that language" (Gass and Selinker, 2001). This theory has been tested by many researchers (Tahta, Wood and Loewenthal, 1981) in different areas of language: phonology, syntax, vocabulary (Lund, 2003). Claims about the age at which the critical period terminates have included 5 years (Krashen, 1973), 6 years (Pinker, 1994), 5-6 years (Lund K., 2003), 12 years (Lenneberg, 1967), and 15 years (Johnson & Newport, 1989). Johnson & Newport's findings seem to be the most convincing. They assert that there are few differences in the ultimate ability to learn language in learners before age 15. Adults, however, attain various levels of achievement. "While early learners are uniformly successful in acquiring their language to a high degree of proficiency, later learners show much greater individual variation" (Johnson & Newport, 1989). Nevertheless, Newport and Johnson say that the precise onset of a decline in the ability to learn a language, for phonology, is at age 6. In fact, a lot of factors influence acquisition of a native-like pronunciation: age of immigration, length of residence, social and linguistic backgrounds of participants and the frequency of usage a language.

### 3. Design of the study

The purpose of the present study is to investigate the influence of L1 on L2 and L3 in terms of intonation in tag questions. However, all possible relationships (L1→L2, L1→L3, L2↔L3, L3↔L2) are taken into consideration.

#### 3.1 Participants

The subjects of my investigations were adults with additive bilingualism at the age of twenty to twenty-three, who moved to Denmark with their parents between the ages of four and thirteen and the majority of whom crossed the critical period. All of them have acquired a native-like pronunciation, but it seems that intonation in tag questions of their first native language still influences their speech in Danish and English and vice versa.

Their first language is Russian and they speak it at home and sometimes with their Russian friends. Their second language is Danish and they use it at school, at universities and in public places. Their third additional language is American English and it has been learnt at school as an obligatory subject. Most of them use it on the internet, while talking to some of their friends and at the university. The average level of proficiency in American English is intermediate.

#### *The focus group*

<i>Name</i>	<i>Age</i>	<i>Native language</i>	<i>Second language</i>	<i>Third language</i>
S1	22	Russian	Danish (CD)	American English
S2	20	Russian	Danish (CD)	American English
S3	23	Russian	Danish (CD)	American English
S4	21	Russian	Danish (CD)	American English
S5	22	Russian	Danish (CD)	American English
S6	22	Russian	Danish (CD)	American English
S7	21	Russian	Danish (CD)	American English
S8	23	Russian	Danish (CD)	American English
S9	20	Russian	Danish (CD)	American English
S10	22	Russian	Danish (CD)	American English



## The control group

The control group consisted of 9 people:

- 3 native speakers of Russian between the ages of twenty-six and forty-two, living in Russia;

Name	Sex	Age	Native language	Place of living	Other languages
R1	male	42	Russian	Izhevsk, Russia	English
R2	female	27	Russian	Moscow, Russia	English
R3	female	26	Russian	St. Petersburg, Russia	English

- 3 native speakers of Danish between the ages of thirty-two and sixty-five, living in Denmark;

Name	Sex	Age	Native language,	Place of living	Other languages
D1	male	32	Danish (CD)	Frederiksberg, Denmark;	English, German;
D2	male	44	Danish (CD)	Ølstykke, Denmark;	English, German;
D3	female	65	Danish (CD)	Hellerup, Denmark;	English

- 3 native speakers of English between the ages of twenty-six and twenty-seven, living in America;

Name	Sex	Age	Native language	Place of living	Other languages
E1	male	26	American English	New York, USA	Chinese; Swedish;
E2	male	27	American English	Pittsburgh, USA	German; Swedish;
E3	female	27	American English	Columbus, USA	German; Swedish;

## 3.2 Material and procedure

Participants were asked to read/act out 10 dialogues presented in three languages: Russian (10 dialogues), Danish (10) and English (10), consisting of six to thirteen utterances (see Appendix I). The total amount of tag questions for each language was eighteen. All seven hundred and two tag questions have been analyzed.

The recording of material was divided into four sessions, where the languages were strictly separated. The first part involved recordings of Russian dialogues. The second part was comprised of recordings of Danish dialogues, whereas the third part involved recordings of English ones. The fourth part involved a questionnaire about the participants' language background.

The tag questions were presented in dialogues in order to create a context, because the context plays an important role in terms of intonation. A short description of a situation was given for each dialogue. In other words, the dialogues were presented in the form of a role play, involving two people. One of the roles in each dialogue was performed by the author of the present thesis; the other focusing on tags (participants). Participants were asked to speak naturally in a way in which they felt comfortable in the present situations. The topics of the dialogues were chosen on the basis of everyday conversations. The samples of material are presented in the Appendix (see Appendix I). The reading was designed to produce both rising and falling tag questions in three languages. This separation of languages was enforced in order to ensure, to the greatest extent possible, that the speakers were in a monolingual rather than a bilingual or trilingual mode (Grosjean, 2001).

A questionnaire was created for subjects to investigate the places and frequency of use for all three languages: Russian, Danish and English as well as their own assessment of their proficiency in English. The full description of different levels was presented on a separate sheet of paper (see Appendix II).

All recorded speakers were asked to fill in a language background questionnaire. It helped to determine their speaking fluency with L1, L2 and L3 and their proficiency self-assessment in English.

Parents of immigrants were asked to fill in the questionnaire about observations of their child's/children's language, consisting of four questions, in order to investigate whether they notice some changes in it or not (see Appendix II).

Then, three recordings of each dialogue had been made in order to escape obstacles (e.g. noise), and it took about two hours to record each participant, including the small breaks (5-7 minutes) between the languages: Russian, Danish and English.

It took only twenty-five minutes to record each participant from the control group. Audio recordings were made by using headphones and an installed microphone that recorded speech

directly into a computer. Recordings were made in the participants' homes in a quiet setting which ensured a suitable environment for further acoustic analysis.

The program PRAAT was used as a means of recording and analyzing a tag question in terms of pitch contour of a tag word or a phrase, fundamental frequency (F0) of a tag in the beginning and during the pause duration. During the analysis, the main focus was on the tags and tag phrases, whereas the declarative part was partially taken into consideration:

- the description of the shape of the pitch contour in a tag word or a tag phrase;
- the F0-value for the start of a tag word or a tag phrase;
- the F0-value for the end of the declarative part;
- pause length between the DP and a T;

The investigations were carried out by the author with reference to F0 using PRAAT: 1) a qualitative analysis was used to determine pitch range in a T; 2) a quantitative analysis was used to determine whether F0 excursion varies between the end of DP and the start of T. Fundamental frequencies were measured in semitones because the use of semitones, with a base of 100 Hz, helps to normalize the differences found for the male and female speakers.

The creaky phonation, which has been observed in this study, is a typical feature of Danish and American English, was not corrected to the pitch objects PRAAT produced. The possibility of dealing with creaky voice could be the unvoicing of all the parts where it occurred. However, Antilla's (2008) study showed that there was no great difference in the F0 results.

General and individual analysis of pitch contours have been made in terms of occurrence of rising intonation patterns in the tag words and phrases in order to present more objective results. F0 at the end of DP and F0 at the start of T were measured together in order to determine the average pitch changes between the declarative and the tag parts in three languages. The pause length between DP and T was measured individually for the participants.

### **3.3 Analytical framework**

Intonation theory provides a choice of frameworks (Phonemic theories, Discourse Analysis theories, the Autosegmental model of intonation by Pierrehumbert, 1980) to use when investigating the choice of 'pattern'. The British school approach (O'Connor & Arnold, 1961, Crystal, 1969 and Halliday, 1967) was chosen as an analytical framework for the current study, because it involves description of intonation in terms of movements of contours and patterns.

This approach is sometimes described as “movement” or “prosodic” theories. Although there are some objections to this framework, which include the difficulty of mapping the observed “attitude” onto specific contours, it does not seem to be a problem in the current investigation because the main focus is on the contours of the rising intonation pattern in the tag, which consists of one to four syllables. Pitch contours: High rise, moderate rise, low rise, etc.

## 4. Results

The analysis of intonation in tag questions in Russian, Danish and English has shown some similarities and differences between the languages.

### 4.1 Pitch contour in a tag word or a tag phrase

The results for the focus group and the control group show that intonation in a tag word or a tag phrase in Russian has high and moderate rising intonation patterns or a high rising intonation pattern with either a small lowering or a clear fall on unstressed syllables. Basically, it depends on the number of syllables in a tag word or a tag phrase. If a tag consists of one or two syllables, the tag has a high rising intonation pattern, if there are three syllables – the tag has high rise with a small lowering at the end; and if there are four syllables – the tag has high rise-clear fall at the end.

### Matches

Name of a language	A tag word or a tag phrase	Number of syllables	Pitch contour
Russian	Правда	2	High rise
	а	1	High rise
	да	1	High rise (Example A)
	не так ли	3	High rise-small fall (B)
	не правда ли	4	High rise-obvious fall (C)

Table 1: Intonation in a tag word or a tag phrase in Russian

The examples are presented below:

A) High rise

B) High rise-small fall

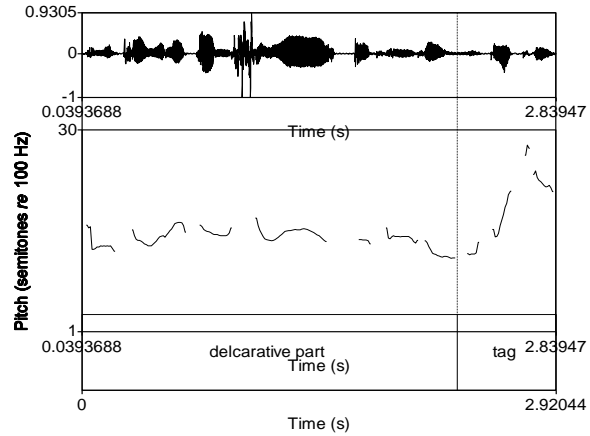
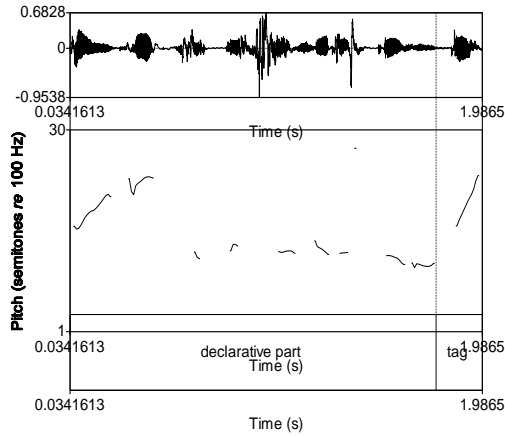


Figure 1: Example for a tag question produced by S3: Станет легче если я все расскажу, да?  
It helps, talking to someone about it, doesn't it?

Figure 2: Example for a tag question produced by S1: Они провели там всего один день, не так ли?  
But they only went for a day, didn't they?

C) High rise – clear fall

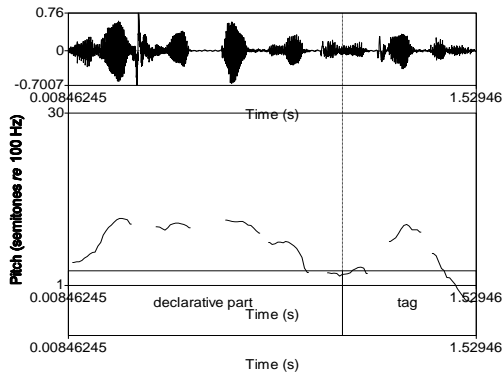


Figure 3: Example of a tag question produced by S8: Я вел себя так глупо, не правда ли?  
I've been such a fool, haven't I?

In Danish speech produced by the focus and control groups, it was noticed that no matter how many syllables were in the tag, it mostly had a rising intonation pattern, except for a tag: *eller*.

Name of a language	A tag word or a tag phrase	Number of syllables	Pitch contour
Danish	Ikke	1	Low, moderate and high rise
	Ikke også	2	Low and high rise

	Har du ikke	3	Low, moderate rise
	Tror du ikke	3	Low and moderate rise
	Synes du ikke	3	Moderate rise (B)
	Hva'	1	Low, high rise
	Gør det ikke	3	Low, moderate, high rise
	Eller	2	Low, moderate fall (Example A)

Table 2: Intonation in a tag word or a tag phrase in Danish

A) Low-moderate fall

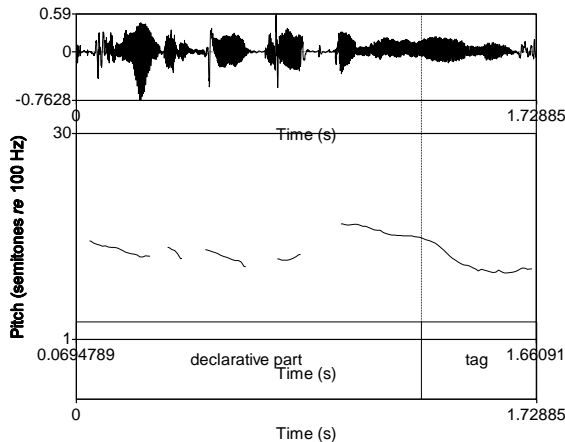


Figure 4: Example of a tag question with *eller* (S1)  
*Hun har altså fået et job dernede, eller?*  
*She has got a job over there, has she?*

B) Moderate rise

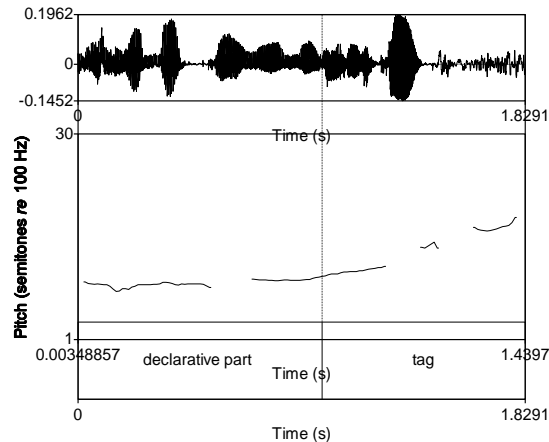


Figure 5: Example of a tag question with *synes du ikke?* (S2)  
*Jeg har godt nok dummet mig, synes du ikke?*  
*I've been such a fool, haven't I?*

In American English speech produced by the subjects, it was found that both a rising and a falling intonation pattern occur a lot, depending on the speaker's perception of the current situation, presented before each dialogue.

### Mismatches

The most widespread 'mismatch' among the subjects in terms of pitch contour in Russian and in Danish was the usage of high rise instead of low rise and low rise instead of a high one. Examples:

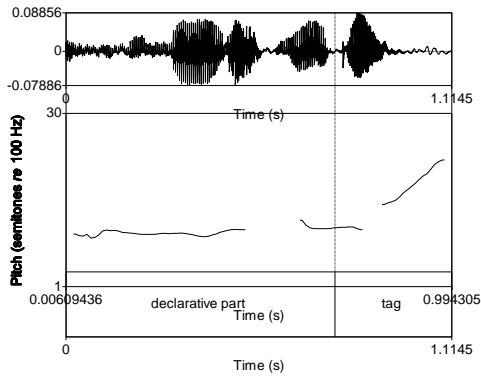


Figure 6: High rise used by S2  
*Hun er meget smuk, ikke?*  
*She is very beautiful, isn't she?*

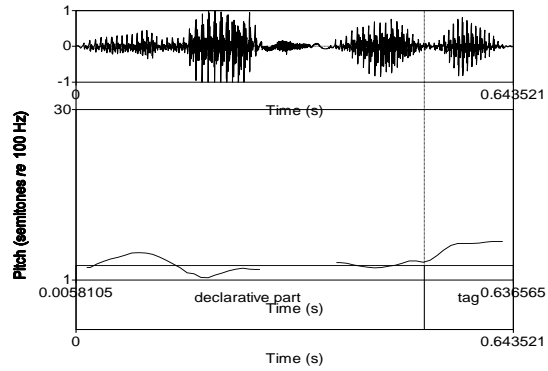


Figure 7: Low rise used by D2  
*Hun er meget smuk, ikke?*  
*She is very beautiful, isn't she?*

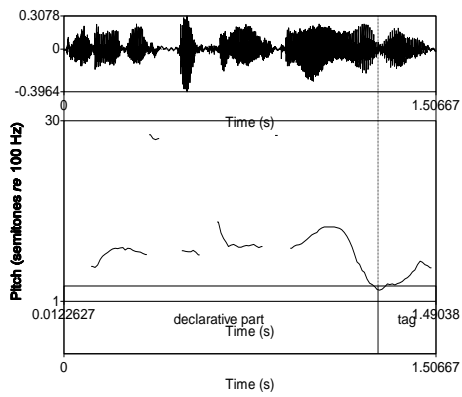


Figure 8: Low rise used by S5  
*Ты сегодня в плохом настроении, да?*  
*You are in a lousy mood today, aren't you?*

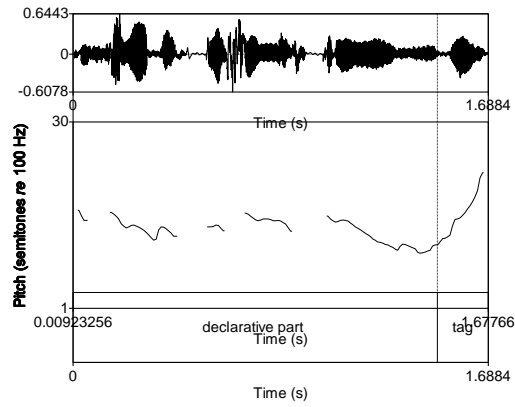


Figure 9: High rise used by R1  
*Ты сегодня в плохом настроении, да?*  
*You are in a lousy mood today, aren't you?*

The most widespread ‘mismatch’ among the subjects in terms of pitch contour in English was the usage of moderate rise small fall instead of high rise or moderate rise.

Examples:

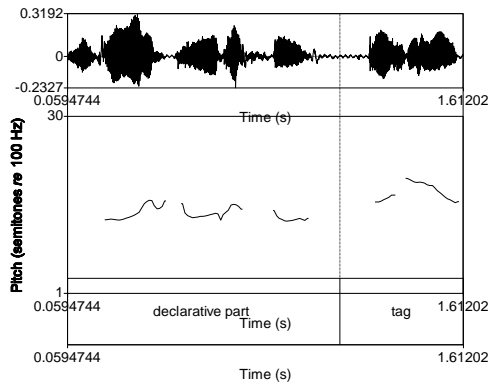


Figure 10: Moderate rise, small fall used by S5  
It's very beautiful, isn't it?

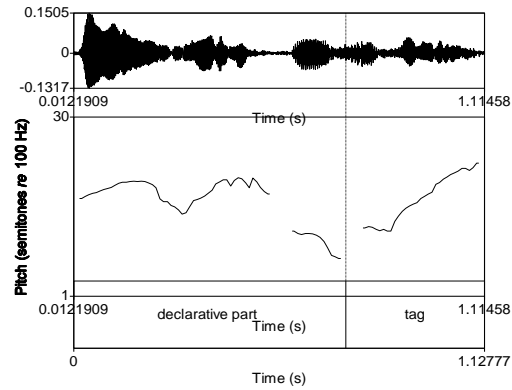


Figure 11: High rise used by E1  
It's very beautiful, isn't it?

Having compared pitch range in every tag word and phrase from the focus group with the intonation in tags of a control group, it has been found that intonation in Russian used by subjects match with intonation used by native speakers of Russian in ninety percent of tags, whereas in Danish it was eighty percent and in English it was fifty-seven percent.

Number of speaker	Russian	Danish	English
S1	100%	72,20%	66,60%
S2	94,4%	88,80%	61,10%
S3	100,00%	77,70%	55,50%
S4	61%	94,40%	61,10%
S5	78%	88,80%	61,10%
S6	88,30%	61,10%	61,10%
S7	100,00%	77,70%	27,70%
S8	89%	77,70%	33%
S9	100,00%	88,80%	61,10%
S10	100,00%	72,20%	83,30%

Table3: Match of intonation in the tags by speakers with the control group



#### 4.1.1 The individual analysis of pitch contour in a T

The charts below show the individual analysis of usage of high, moderate and low rise in a tag word or a phrase for the focus group.

##### Speaker 1

The occurrence of the rising intonation pattern in the speech of Speaker 1 is very frequent in three languages, especially high rise, which is mostly found in Danish T ( $\approx 12$ ) and English T ( $\approx 9$ ). Moderate rise equally occurs in Russian TG and Danish T ( $\approx 2$ ), while low rise can be seen in Danish T and English T. It should be said that high rise with small fall is only observed in Russian T, which is quite common in the speech of NS of Russian.

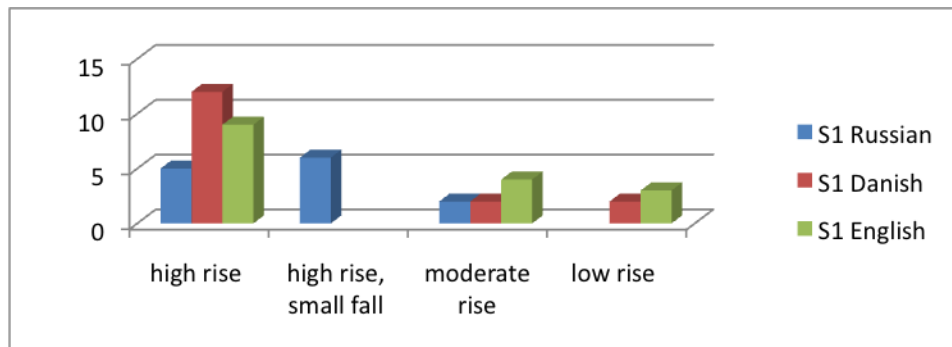


Chart 1. Number of occurrences of different pitch contours in Russian, Danish and English Ts

##### Speaker 2

The high rising intonation pattern is rarely observed in English T ( $\approx 3$  times) in comparison with Russian T ( $\approx 9$ ) and Danish T ( $\approx 8$ ). Moderate rise mainly occurs in English T ( $\approx 4$ ), low rise in Danish T ( $\approx 5$ ) and English T ( $\approx 3$ ). It should be pointed out that high rise-small fall is found in three languages, which is quite unusual for native speech of Danish and English.

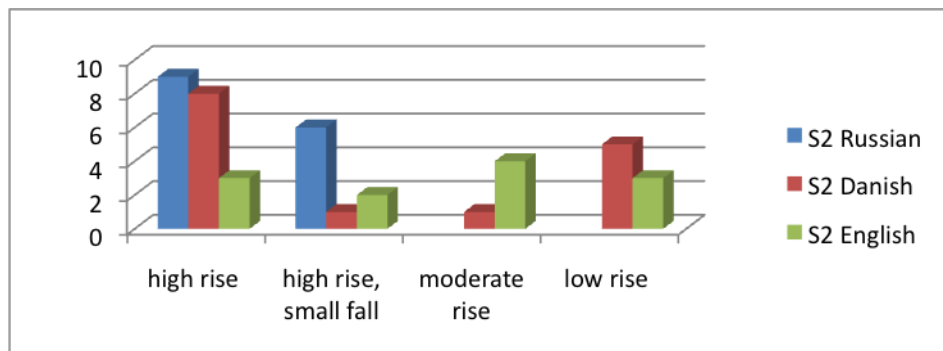


Chart 2. Number of occurrences of different pitch contours in Russian, Danish and English Ts

### Speaker 3

The high rising intonation pattern is more frequently observed in Russian T ( $\approx 7$ ) than in Danish T ( $\approx 4$ ) and English T ( $\approx 2$ ), whereas moderate rise is more common in Danish TG ( $\approx 4$ ) and Russian T ( $\approx 3$ ). Low rise is only found in Danish T ( $\approx 8$ ), which is, together with moderate rise, quite common in the native speech of English T.

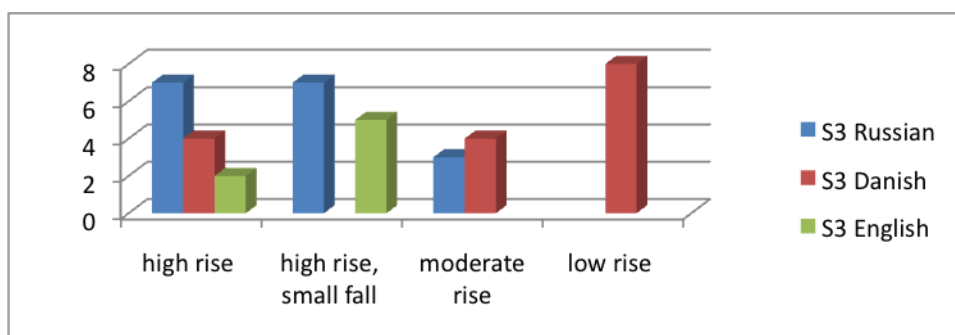


Chart 3. Number of occurrences of different pitch contours in Russian, Danish and English Ts

### Speaker 4

High rise is generally presented in Russian T ( $\approx 8$ ) and Danish T ( $\approx 7$ ), which is quite typical for the native speech of Russian T and Danish T. It is interesting that high rise with small fall is very frequent in English T ( $\approx 7$ ), which is atypical for NS of English. Moderate rise and low rise are equally present in Danish T ( $\approx 4$ ).

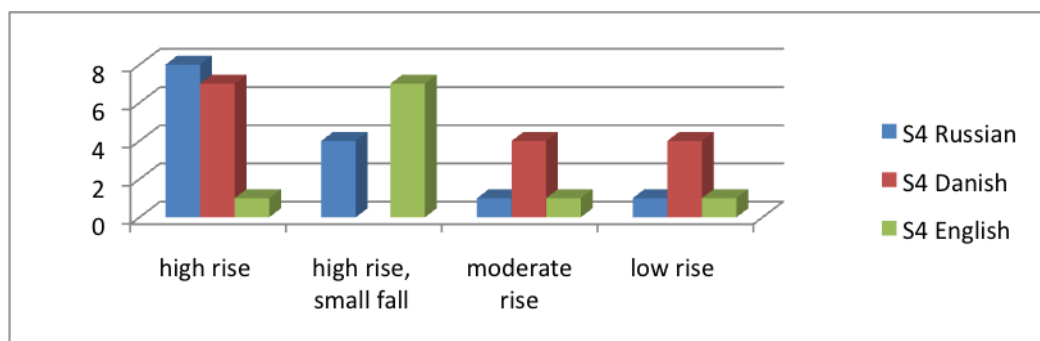


Chart 4. Number of occurrences of different pitch contours in Russian, Danish and English Ts

### Speaker 5

The high rising intonation pattern is predominately found in Russian T ( $\approx 9$ ) and Danish T ( $\approx 6$ ) in contrast to English T ( $\approx 1$ ). Moderate rise and low rise mainly occur in Danish ( $\approx 4$ ). It is

clear that high rise-small fall is equally present in Russian T ( $\approx 6$ ) and English T ( $\approx 6$ ). Additionally, low rise-small fall is essentially found in English, which is rather usual for the native speech of English.

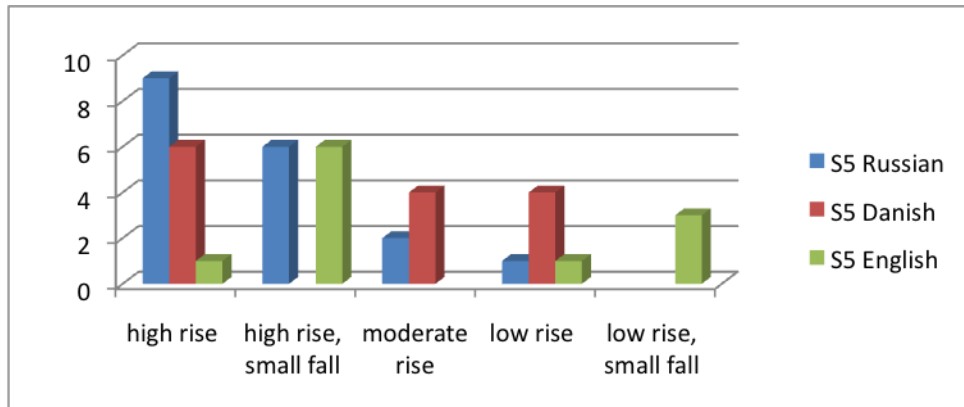


Chart 5. Number of occurrences of different pitch contours in Russian, Danish and English Ts

### Speaker 6

High rise is generally observed in all three languages, whereas its occurrence is a little bit higher in Danish T ( $\approx 11$ ) than in English T ( $\approx 8$ ) and Russian ( $\approx 8$ ). Moderate rise and low rise are mainly presented in English T. High rise-small fall only occurs in Russian T ( $\approx 7$ ).

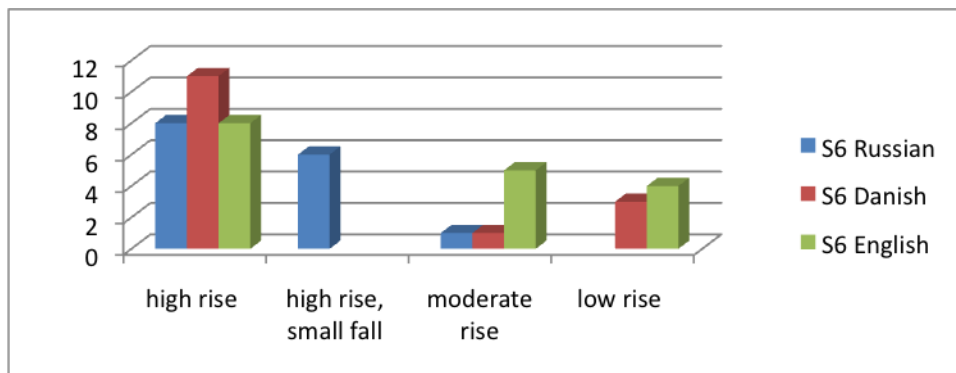


Chart 6. Number of occurrences of different pitch contours in Russian, Danish and English Ts

### Speaker 7

High rise is mostly found in Danish T ( $\approx 9$ ) and Russian T ( $\approx 8$ ), whereas it is almost absent in English T ( $\approx 1$ ). Besides, high rise-small fall is quite common in English T ( $\approx 3$ ), which is unusual as it was mentioned above. It should be said that low rise-small fall, which is found in the Russian speech of Speaker 7, is extraordinary for the native speech of Russian T.

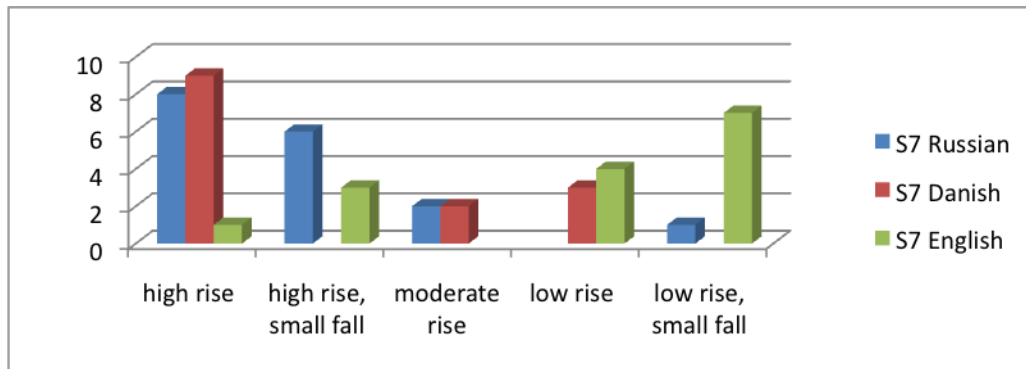


Chart 7. Number of occurrences of different pitch contours in Russian, Danish and English Ts

### Speaker 8

It is obvious that in the speech of S8, high rise does not occur in English T ( $\approx 1$ ), but occurrence of high rise-small fall can be clearly observed, including Danish T ( $\approx 1$ ). Moderate rise is largely present in Danish T ( $\approx 4$ ). Low rise-small fall is found in Russian T ( $\approx 1$ ).

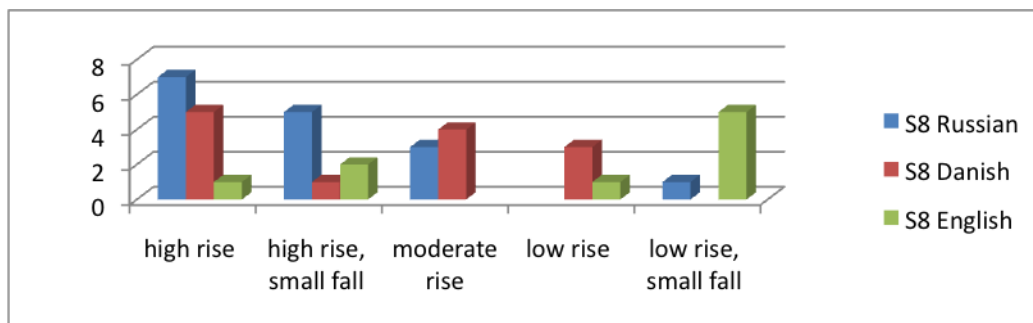


Chart 8. Number of occurrences of different pitch contours in Russian, Danish and English Ts

### Speaker 9

High rise is essentially presented in English T ( $\approx 15$ ) in comparison to Danish T ( $\approx 10$ ) and Russian ( $\approx 8$ ). Moderate rise is almost equally observed in three languages, whereas high rise-small fall occurs only in Russian T ( $\approx 7$ ). Low rise-small fall is found in Russian T ( $\approx 1$ ).

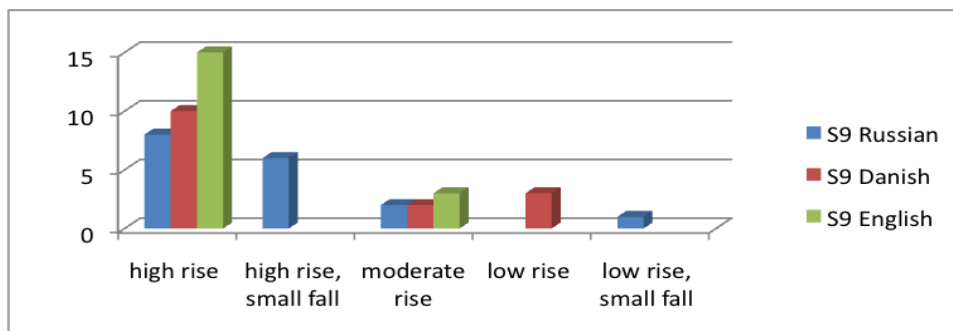


Chart 9. Number of occurrences of different pitch contours in Russian, Danish and English Ts

## Speaker 10

High rise is mostly presented in Russian T ( $\approx 10$ ). High rise-small fall is found in English T ( $\approx 3$ ) as well as in Russian T ( $\approx 7$ ). Low rise-small fall occurs in Russian T ( $\approx 1$ ), Danish T ( $\approx 2$ ) and English T ( $\approx 3$ ).

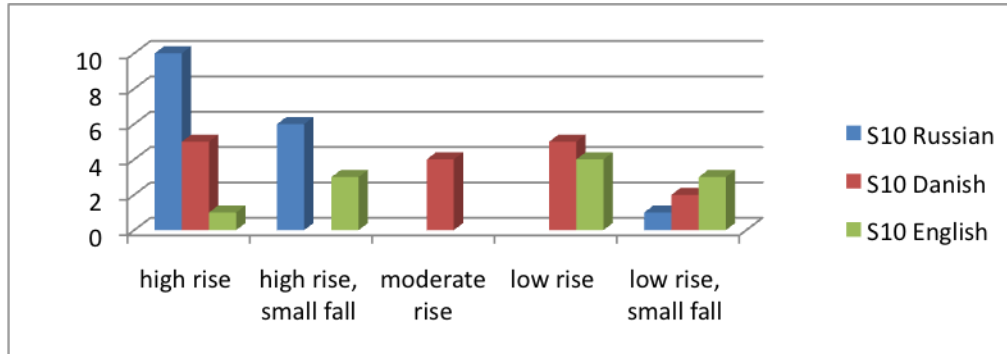


Chart 10. Number of occurrences of different pitch contours in Russian, Danish and English Ts

When generally speaking about the focus group, high and moderate rising intonation patterns are found to be the most frequent pitch contours in the three languages of current research. Furthermore, it is obvious that high rise mostly occurs in the Russian Ts and the Danish Ts, whereas it is rarely seen in the English ones. The average occurrence of high rise in Russian T is eight times, in Danish T  $\approx 7$ , whereas in English T it is only four. Moderate rise is mostly observed in Danish T ( $\approx 4$  times), whereas low rise in English T ( $\approx 4$  times).

### 4.2 *F0 in the end of DP and in the start of T*

Fundamental frequencies at the end of DP and at the start of T were measured individually for each speaker from the focus group and the control group (see tables). The results show the most obvious pitch changes between the end of DP and the start of T for the focus group are found in Russian 1,9 st, followed by Danish 1,36 st. and English 1,26 st., whereas it is 2,7 st. in Russian, 1,45 st. in Danish and 1,15 st. in English for the control group. However, having looked at the individual analysis of each speaker, some essential differences between the languages were observed, especially in the speech of S2, S7 and S10.

Concerning S2 and S10, it should be said that the most obvious pitch changes between the end of DP and the start of T, based on the individual results of the control group, are found in Danish and Russian tag questions. It is clear that  $\approx 4,65$  st. (S2) and  $\approx 2,46$  st. (S10) are quite atypical for NS of Danish, whereas  $\approx 0,84$  st. (S2) and  $\approx 0,56$  st. (S10) in Russian are very unusual for NSs

of Russian (see tables). The situation looks different for S7, where a difference of  $\approx 2,3$  st. for English can be observed, which is very exceptional for the native speech of English but very common for the native speech of Russian. There is a tendency in the speech of S8 and S9 to have the same F0 difference between DP and T in three languages, which is  $\approx 1,21$  st. for S8 and  $\approx 1,1$  for st. for S9.

	S1	S2	S3	S4	S5	S6	S7	S8	S9	S10
<b>Russian TG</b>	3,975	0,84	1,89	2,7	1,31	2,52	2,97	1,22	1,6	0,56
<b>Danish TG</b>	0,625	4,65	0,95	1,32	0,86	0,005	0,46	1,29	0,96	2,46
<b>English TG</b>	0,63	1,28	1,4	1,2	1,24	1,47	2,3	1,12	0,72	1,21

Table 3: Average analysis of pitch changes in semitones between F0 at the end of DP and F0 at the start of T for every speaker of the focus group

<b>R1</b>	3,5	<b>D1</b>	1,4	<b>E1</b>	0,76
<b>R2</b>	2,9	<b>D2</b>	1,35	<b>E2</b>	1,5
<b>R3</b>	1,6	<b>D3</b>	1,6	<b>E3</b>	1,2

Table 4: Average analysis of pitch changes in semitones between F0 at the end of DP and F0 at the start of T for every speaker of the control group

Generally speaking it should be said that, in Danish, the average pitch changes for the focus group, excluding S2, S7 and S10, is 0,8 st., these changes are very low in comparison with the pitch changes of NS of Danish of the control group - 1,45 st. (see tables 3& 4). In Russian, it coincides quite often with NS of Russian, whereas in English it matches completely with NS of English.

### 4.3 Pausing between DP and T

The bar chart below shows general analysis of pause length between DP and T in Russian, in Danish and in English for the focus and for the control group.

	S1	S2	S3	S4	S5	S6	S7	S8	S9	S10
Russian	143	51	61	48	40	85	160	6	49	0
Danish	181	94	5	78	0	136	169	5	94	106
English	190	86	59	72	0	85	247	0	11	81

Table 5: Average pause length (ms) between DP and T for the focus group

<b>R1</b>	148	<b>D1</b>	198	<b>E1</b>	34
<b>R2</b>	158	<b>D2</b>	0	<b>E2</b>	80
<b>R3</b>	33	<b>D3</b>	139	<b>E3</b>	72

Table 6: Average pause length (ms) between DP and T for the control group

According to the chart presented below, some similarities between NS Russian and NS Danish are clearly observed. The average pause length is 113 ms in Russian and 112 ms in Danish, whereas it is only 62 ms in English. Obviously, the subjects tend to have a very short pause between the DP and T, which is more natural for NS of English. The average pause length for the focus group is 64 ms. in Russian; 87 ms. in Danish and 83 ms. in English.

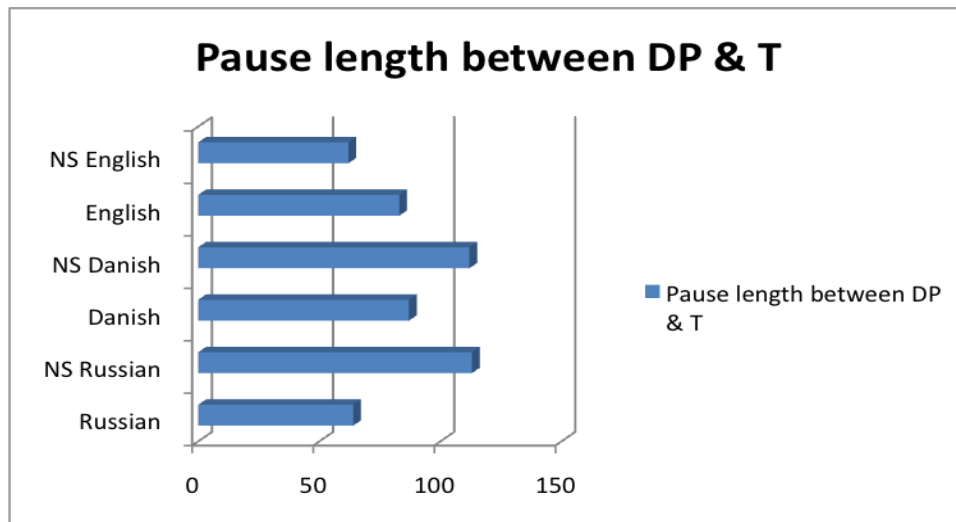


Chart 11: The average pause length (ms) for the focus and the control groups

#### 4.4. Summary of results

The influence of Russian intonation in Ts on Danish and English was observed individually.

Danish has an impact on Russian in terms of:

- pitch range in the speech of S4, S5;

However, Russian influences Danish in terms of:

- pitch range in the speech of S6;
- pitch changes between DP and T in the speech of S2 and S10;

In addition, Russian influences English in terms of:

- pitch range in the speech of S7 and, possibly, S8;
- pitch changes between DP and T in the speech of S7;

Possibly, English influences Russian in terms of:

- pitch changes between DP and T in the speech of S8 and S9;

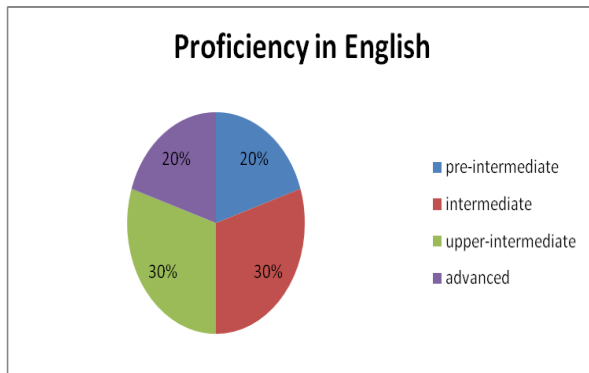
Possibly, Danish influences English in terms of:

- pitch range in the speech of S8;

## 4.5 Questionnaires

### 4.5.1 Questionnaire for subjects

The pie chart below displays the percentage of the self-assessment of proficiency in English of the focus group. The self-assessment was made according to a brief description of each level (see Appendix II). More than 50% assess the level of English as very high (upper-intermediate and advanced), whereas 40% as pre-intermediate and intermediate.



*Chart 12: Proficiency in English for the focus group*

Speakers	Proficiency in English
S1	Intermediate
S2	Pre-intermediate
S3	Intermediate
S4	Upper-intermediate
S5	Intermediate
S6	Advanced
S7	Pre-intermediate
S8	Advanced
S9	Upper-intermediate
S10	Upper-Intermediate

*Table 7: Proficiency in English for the speakers*

The chart below shows the distribution of use of the three languages in everyday life. All subjects speak Russian at home. Noticeably, some of them speak Danish as well in order to help their parents become better at it. It is clear that Danish is a dominant language and it is used everywhere else. In fact, English is largely used in written forms such as emails, writing academic papers, and in speaking forms such as chatting. However, almost half of the subjects use it at universities.



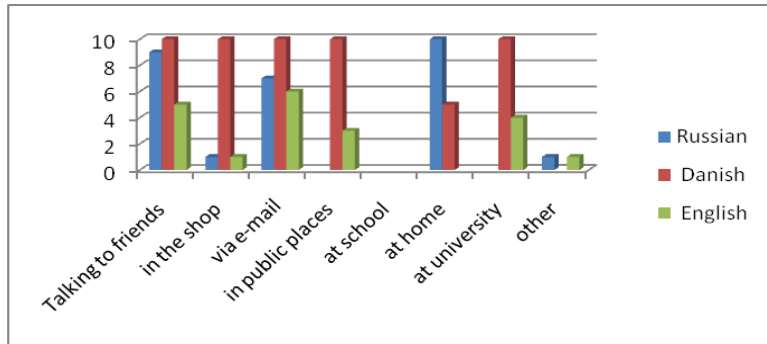


Chart 13: General use of Russian, Danish and English in everyday life

The table below presents years of living for each speaker.

Speakers	Years of living in Denmark
S1	13
S2	12
S3	11
S4	16
S5	18
S6	9
S7	12
S8	17
S9	10
S10	11

Table 8: Years of living in Denmark

#### 4.5.2 Questionnaire for parents

Interestingly, more than half of the parents (6 out of 10) have noticed language changes in the speech of their children. There are 3 parents who say their children have vocabulary and grammar problems. They claim that sometimes it is very difficult for their child to explain something in Russian. It is much easier to do so in Danish, especially concerning some educational terms. However, when they speak Russian, they translate the sentences from either Danish or English. Nevertheless, three parents noticed some changes in pronunciation. For example, the parents of S4 and S10 say that their children emphasize wrong syllables in the words and speak very fast and unclearly. Moreover, the mother of S9 claims that the Russian intonation of her child sounds different from the native-like intonation of Russian.

## 5. Discussion

In this study, it is obvious that the rising intonation pattern in the tag was more frequently used in Russian and Danish tag questions by the subjects of investigation in comparison to English Ts.

High rise was found in all Russian tag questions, including the NSs of Russian, which means that the high rising intonation pattern in Ts is a typical feature of Russian. It seems to be logical because it is the only way to indicate that it is a question. It basically supports Bryzgunova's (1980) claim that Russian questions have higher peaks than statements. Moreover, there was also a high rise-small fall intonation pattern that was found, which occurred in the tag phrases consisting of three syllables. According to Bryzgunova (1977), Nikolaeva (1977) and Svetozarova (1982), rise-fall in questions is described as realization of rising contours.

The results have shown that the Russian language has an impact on English in the speech of some speakers, and it is negative transfer according to Weinreich (1953), because it was noticed that some tags were expressed using high rise with small fall and moderate or very low fall at the end, which is very different from the NS of English, but which is frequent in Russian. It could be probably explained by the number of syllables in a tag phrase, stress and its discourse function. However, both rising and falling intonation patterns were quite frequent when they spoke English. It should serve as a reminder that in English tags the verbs are usually stressed, but the stress is on the pronoun if there is a change of person or the tag (Collins, 2009). In fact, it was not really observed in the NS of American English. It seems that there are some differences between intonation in American and British English, which means that the results could be completely different if the native speakers of English were from Great Britain.

Concerning the Danish language, it should be said that the Danish tags, like Russian tags, can consist of two to four syllables. Almost all speakers managed to produce them correctly, avoiding obvious division of the syllables. The possible explanation could be the location of the stress in the tag. It was observed that the last syllable was always stressed in such Danish tags as: *synes du ikke, gør du ikke, skal du ikke*. And as a consequence, it was expressed by high, moderate or low rise. Nevertheless, there was one tag *eller*, where the falling intonation pattern was found in the speech of all participants. Although the first syllable is stressed in the present tag, the intonation always goes down from the start. It seems that there could be several possible explanations for it. First of all, it is located at the end of the dialogues, which means that it could

be interpreted by the speakers as the end of the conversation. Secondly, it is an ‘agreement tag’, where the speaker is not interested in an answer. Moreover, the results for the Danish tags in the present paper contradict Grønnum’s (1992) claim that all types of questions are not characterized by a terminal rise. Although moderate rise and low rise are the most frequent intonational patterns, high rise was also observed in some Ts.

In the present study, the analysis has shown that, generally, intonation in Russian Ts did not really change in the speech of the focus group, excluding S4 and S5. It seems that L2→L1 transfer, described by Sharwood and Kellerman (1986), can probably be observed in the speech of S4 and S5. Russian intonation was probably influenced by Danish, because in Danish low rise or moderate fall is quite frequent. Furthermore, the mother of S4 also noticed some changes in the Russian language in terms of pronunciation: “Sometimes he accentuates wrong syllables in the words”. In fact, S4’s intonation in Danish is almost a complete match with the NS of Danish in comparison with the other subjects of the investigation, which means that he acquired it fully and it could influence his Russian intonation. In the case with S5, it should be noted that he has been in Denmark since his early childhood (four years old) and his everyday language is Danish. He mostly speaks Russian to his mother, whose Russian intonation could also be changed by Danish, because of her long residence in Denmark, which has been for eighteen years so far. Both speakers moved to Denmark during their early childhood, before the critical age according to the majority of researchers (Pinker, 1994, Lenneberg, 1967, etc.), which perhaps means that age of immigration can actually influence L1 in terms of intonation.

It seems important to say that some differences in terms of pitch range between Danish and Russian are obvious. Subjects tend to use high rise instead of a low one or vice versa. We might assume that the Russian intonation in the tags influences the Danish one and vice versa, because high rise mainly occurs in the Russian tags, whereas low rise occurs in the Danish tags. Nevertheless, high rise and low rise are not so different in terms of their functions, because they still indicate that it is a question and the speaker is interested in continuing the conversation or he is looking for confirmation. It should be mentioned that S6 uses high rise very often in Danish ( $\approx 11$  times out of 18), which is a little bit atypical for the NS of Danish, because it was observed that usually the pitch contours look ‘flat’ in the utterances and moderate and low rise are more common. It could probably be explained by S6’s age when S6 moved to Denmark, which was during S6’s very early adulthood (at thirteen years old), which means that the

speaker possibly did not fully acquire intonation in Danish TGs. This finding supports Lenneberg's Critical Age Hypothesis that there can be an age-related point beyond which it is very difficult to learn a second language to the same degree as native speakers. According to Lenneberg (1967), the critical age is twelve, whereas S6 immigrated to Denmark at age thirteen. Perhaps there are no misunderstandings in communication with the NS of Danish because she still uses a rising intonation pattern, but there is a possibility that it sounds unnatural for NSs of Danish.

In regard to English, it should be said that only half of subjects' intonation in a tag word or a tag phrase coincided with the NSs' intonation of English. The use of moderate rise-small fall instead of high rise or just moderate rise can probably be explained by the influence of Russian intonation. It should be repeated that some of the Russian tags consisted of three syllables and it is quite normal to emphasize the first syllable, which can be observed through high-moderate rise in the start of the tag, followed by a small lowering at the end. The obvious influences of Russian and Danish were found in the speech of S7 and S8, where high rise-small fall was frequently observed in the speech of English, whereas NSs of English only use high rise or moderate rise. S7 does not really have a high level of English (pre-intermediate level), which could give an explanation as to why the Russian intonation was used. The situation was the opposite with S8. It was very interesting to find out that S8 mostly used low rise-small fall intonation in the English tag questions, where it was supposed to be a high or moderate rising intonation pattern. This speaker claimed that he had quite a high level of English (advanced level), but it was not checked via placement tests. The subjects themselves had to assess their abilities according to a brief description of each level (see Appendix II). This means that their choice of level could have been very subjective. Again, it proves that the linguistic backgrounds of participants and frequency of usage of a language influence the acquisition of native-like pronunciation.

In addition, it seems that context plays a big role in the choice of intonation in the tags, especially in the English tags. Rising or falling intonation patterns, used in the same context, can serve very different functions. This is supported by the views of the majority of linguists (Ladd, 1981, Nordquist, 2005, Hoffmann, 2009, etc). All NSs of English noticed that they could use different intonation in the present Ts, depending on their mood or a situation, even though the short description of each situation was presented before each dialogue to limit an

interpretation. The descriptions were probably not good enough. It is interesting that only NSs of English faced this problem in comparison with the NSs of other languages.

In regard to F0 at the end of DP and F0 at the start of T, the influence of one language on another can be observed individually. Having looked at the results for S2 and S10, it could be assumed that Russian intonation influences Danish intonation, because the results indicate that pitch changes are more typical for Russian than for Danish, but, on the other hand, it seems strange that it is very low in Russian itself. The situation looks more optimistic in the case of S7, where it is quite clear that Russian influences English, because pitch change 2,3 st in English is quite uncommon for NS of English, but it is frequent for Russian tag questions. Nevertheless, it is quite difficult to say which language influences F0 of S8 and S9, because the results are almost equal in all three languages. We could assume that English does influence it, because both these speakers accessed their level of English as advanced, but as it was mentioned before, S8 had difficulties with the correct choice of intonation in the English tags.

In general it is noticeable that, in Danish, the majority of speakers of the current investigation show some differences from NS of Danish in terms of pitch changes between two parts. Perhaps the declarative part or the age of the current speakers influences this. The declarative part of a TG was not investigated in the current paper, but it was visually observed that the pitch range was quite monotonous in comparison to other languages, and the subjects are younger than the speakers of the control group. It seems that this could partially be connected to the pause length between DP and T. Although the focus group's mean pause length coincided with the pause length of NS of English, it seems that the way of speaking and age play an important role. It was shown that young people tend to speak faster than older people. The age difference between the focus group and the control group was a very apparent ten to forty years. Moreover, participants had to read the dialogues, which could also be one of the reasons for these differences, because it is very difficult for some people to act while reading. Furthermore, tag questions look a little bit unnatural in the written text, because they are usually used in spontaneous speech, which is more emotional than speech produced while reading. Surprisingly, pitch changes as well as pause length in the speech of the focus group almost completely coincided with NS of English, excluding some speakers: S1 and S7. Nevertheless, it seems difficult to say which language influences which, because the pause length in NS of Danish and NS of Russian is almost equal.

## **6. Limitations of the study**

Seven hundred and two tag questions were examined, and nineteen speakers, including NS of Russian, Danish and English, produced them. It seems that it could have been even better if the number of native speakers in each language was a little bit bigger in order to get more objective results, concerning each language separately. However, the results could probably be more objective if a native speaker of Danish and a native speaker of English performed one of the roles in each dialogue in order to ensure that the speakers were in a monolingual rather than a bilingual or trilingual mode. English proficiency should have been assessed with the help of a placement test in order to ascertain the English levels of the speakers more objectively. Finally, the description of the situation before each dialogue could have been more detailed in order to limit the interpretation in terms of intonation.

## **7. Conclusion**

This thesis has investigated the cross-linguistic influence between L1↔L2↔L3 in terms of the use of the rising intonation pattern in tag questions. The study was conducted on ten immigrants, whose L1 is Russian, L2 is Danish and L3 is English. The results have shown that cross-linguistic influence can be clearly observed in the read speech of individual speakers. Subjects' backgrounds in terms of the language and its frequency of use in everyday speech play a very important role in the study. Interestingly, the rising intonation pattern is expressed differently in terms of pitch contours in Russian, Danish and English.

We can conclude that the first and the second hypotheses have been partially confirmed. The rising intonation pattern was frequently observed in the speech of all speakers, but the pitch range varied a lot among the languages, which seemed to be an important finding for the present study. Moreover, the influence of Russian on Danish and English in terms of pitch changes between DP and T were observed in the speech of some speakers (S2, S10, and S7). In addition, pause length between DP and T in the three languages mostly coincided with NS of English, which was quite unexpected.

In regard to the third hypothesis, it would be better to say that it has been also partially confirmed, because influences of Danish and English on Russian were observed in the speech of a few speakers: S4, S5 and, possibly, S8 and S9.

The fourth hypothesis has been partially confirmed as well. Proficiency in English does not influence acquisition of English intonation in the speech of all speakers: S8.

## **8. Further investigation**

It is clear that English tag questions have been investigated a lot, whereas the data about Danish and Russian tag questions is very sparse. This means that further investigation should present a more accurate description of intonation in tag questions in these languages, especially the pragmatic functions of the tags in each language. Special attention should be also paid to DP. It is quite possible that DP has an impact on the tag in terms of pitch range. It could be interesting to look at pitch accents in DP, and whether or not non-native speakers of English, for example, emphasize the same words as native speakers do. From my point of view, this is very important because wrong accentuation can lead to misunderstandings between the speakers. It would also be interesting to investigate the role of pauses between the languages, because it seems that they are closely connected to the intonation in the tags and their pragmatic functions.

It could be quite helpful to conduct the experiment on native speakers of British English, because there are differences between American English and British English in terms of intonation.

From a sociolinguistic point of view, further investigations should be aimed at the study of frequency of tag questions in spontaneous and everyday speech, taking into consideration gender differences and background information such as education, proficiency in English (checked via a placement test), years of migration, etc. to get more objective results.

Furthermore, it could be beneficial to study the effects of intonation in tag questions on language processing with the help of the event-related potential technique, which is commonly used with EEG recordings, to investigate brain signal activity while, for example, producing tags with a falling intonation instead of a rising one.

## 9. References

- Algeo J. 1988. The Tag Questions in British English. *English World Wide-9*. 171-191
- Algeo J. 1990. It's a Myth, innit? Politeness and the English Tag Question. In the State of the language, edited by Christopher Ricks and Leonard Michaels, 443-50. Berkeley. University of California Press.
- Algeo J. 2006. *British or American English?* Cambridge. Cambridge University Press.
- Bardel C. & Falk, Y. The role of the second language in third language acquisition: the case of Germanic syntax. *Second Language Research* October 2007 vol. 23 no. 4 459-484
- Bhatia, T. K., Ritchie W. C. 2006. *The Handbook of bilingualism*. Blackwell Publishing Ltd.
- Blumstein S. E, M. P. Alexander, J. H. Ryalls, W. Katz, and B. Dworetzky. 1987. On the nature of the foreign accent syndrome: a case study. *Brain and Language*, 31, 215-244
- Bogyslavskaya O. V. 2004. *Intonacionnyye osobennosti anglijskix razdelitelnyx voprosov v dialogicheskoj rechi*. Moskva
- Bolinger D. 1986. *Intonation and its parts*. Stanford. California. Stanford University Press.
- Bryzgunova, E.A. 1977. *Zvuki i intonatsiia russkoi rechi*. Moskva.
- Bryzgunova, E.A. 1980. Intonatsiia", *Russkaia grammatika I*, Moskva, 96-122.
- Cameron D. McAlinden, Fiona and O'Leary Kathy. 1988. Lakoff in Context: The Social and Linguistic functions of Tag questions. In women and their speech communities: *New Perspectives on Language and Sex*, Jennifer Coates and Deborah Cameron (eds), 74-93, London, Longman.



Celce-Murcia, M., 1991. ed. *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language*. Boston: Heinle & Heinle.

Cenoz, J., Hufeisen, B., Jessner U., 1999. Cross-linguistic influence in third language acquisition. Psycholinguistic perspectives. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters. *Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*,

Chamot, A.U. 1973. Phonological Problems in Learning English as a Third Language", *IRAL, International Review of Applied Linguistics* 11, 3: 243-250.

Clyne, M. 1997. Some of the things trilinguals do. *The International Journal of Bilingualism*

Cohen, A., Collier R. & T'Hart, J. 1982. Declination: Construct or intrinsic feature of speech pitch? *Phonetica*, 39, 254-273

Comrie B. 1984. *Interrogativity in Russian*. The modern standard language, Amsterdam, Philadelphia

Cruttenden A. 1986. *Intonation*. Cambridge U.K: Cambridge University Press.

Cubberley Paul. 2002. *Russian. A linguistic Introduction*, Cambridge University Press.

Cuenca M. J. (1997), Form-use mappings for Tag Questions , in Liebert W.-A., Redeker G. & Waugh L. (eds), *Discourse and Perspective in Cognitive Linguistics*, Amsterdam, John Benjamins, Lang, 3-19.

Dart, A.K. (1982). *ESL grammar handbook*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Dewaele, J. 1998. Lexical Inventions: French Interlanguage as L2 versus L3. *Applied Linguistics*, 19 (4), 471-490

Fromkin, V., Rodman, R., & Hyams, N. 2007. Chapter 8: Language Acquisition. In V. Fromkin, R. Rodman, N. Hyams: *An introduction to language*, 8<sup>th</sup> ed. Boston: Thomson Wadsworth

Gass, S. & Selinker, L. 2001. *Second Language Acquisition. Introductory Course*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum

Gooskens, C. & V. J. Van Heuven. 1995. *Declination in Dutch and Danish. Global Versus Local Pitch Movements in the Perceptual Characterization of Sentence Types*, Proceedings 13<sup>th</sup> International Congress of Phonetic Sciences 2, 374-377

Green D.W. 1986. Control, activation & resource. A framework and model for the control of speech in bilingual brain & the language. 27, 210-223

Grønnum, N, 1992. *The Groundworks of Danish Intonation: An Introduction*, Museum Tusulanum, København

Grønnum N. 1995. *The Groundworks of Danish Intonation*. Museum Tusulanum Press. Copenhagen.

Haan J. 2002. *Speaking of questions. An exploration of Dutch Question Intonation*. LOT Dissertations series, nr 52. LOT. Utrecht.

Halliday, M. A. K. 1967. *Intonation and Grammar in British English*. Mouton.

Heineman T. 2010. The question-response system of Danish. *Journal of Pragmatics*. 42(2010) 2703-2725

Herwig, A, 2001. Plurilingual Lexical Organization: evidence from lexical processing in L1-L2-L3-L4 TRANSLATION. In J. Cenoz, B. Hufeisen & U. Jesnner (eds.) *Cross-linguistic influence in third language acquisition. Psycholinguistic perspectives*. Pp 22-41, Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Hoffmann S. 2009. Tag questions in Early and Modern English. *Journal of English Linguistics*. 2009.

Holmes J. 1984. The functions of tag questions, *English Language Research Journal* 3, 40-65.

Huddleston, R. D. and G. K. Pullum. 2002. *The Cambridge grammar of the English language*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Johnson, J.S. and Newport, E.L. 1989: Critical period effects in second language learning: the influence of maturational state on the acquisition of English as a second language. *Cognitive Psychology* 21, 60-99.

Kecskes, I., Papp, T. 2000. *Foreign language and Mother Tongue*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Kellerman E. & Sharwood Smith H. 1986. *Crosslinguistic influence in Second language acquisition*. New York. Pergamon Press.

Kissell J. 2005. Tag questions. *Journal of Linguistics*. January 10, 2005.

Kodzasov, S. V. Krivnova, O. F. 2001. *Obschaya fonetika*. Moscow, Otkrutoe obshestvo.

Kundrotas. 2005. Perception and Description of Intonation in Different languages. *Man and the Word*, 03, vol.7.

Ladd R. 1981. *A first look at the semantics and pragmatics of negative questions and tag questions*. In Papers of the Seventeenth Regional Meeting of the Chicago Linguistic Society. Chicago Linguistics Society, p.164-171

Ladd, D. R. 1986. *A first look at the semantics and pragmatics of negative questions and tag questions*. Papers from the Regional Meetings, Chicago Linguistic Society, 17, April-May, 164-171.

Ladd, D. R. and R. Morton. 1997. The perception of intonational emphasis: continuous or categorical? *Journal of Phonetics*, 25, 313-342.

Ladd, D. R. 1996. *Intonational Phonology*, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Lakoff R. 1972. Language in context, *Language* 48,4, 907-927.

Lakoff R. 1975. *Language and Woman's Place*. New York et. al.: Harper. And Row.

Leeuw, E. 2009. *When your native language sounds foreign: a phonetic investigation into first language attrition*. PhD, QMU.

Lenneberg, E. 1967. *Biological Foundations of Language*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Lieberman M. & Pierrehumbert, J.1984.Intonational Invariance under changes in Pitch Range and Length. In Aronoff, M. & Oerhl, R. T. (eds.), *Language Sound Structure*, 157-234, Cambridge MA, MIT Press.

Lund K. 2003. *Age and Accent*. The Danish University of Copenhagen.

Major, Roy C. 2001. *Foreign Accent: The Ontogeny and Phylogeny of Second. Language Phonology*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates

McCawley, J. D. 1988. *The Syntactic phenomena of English*. Vol.2, University of Chicago Press, Chicago

Meisel, J. 1983. Transfer as a second language strategy. *Language and Communication*, 3, 11-46

Murthy, S. 2004. *Second Language Transfer During Third Language Acquisition*. Columbia University,

Mills A.E. 1981. It's easier in German, isn't it? The acquisition of tag questions in a bilingual child. *Journal of Child Language*, 8: 641-647 Copyright © Cambridge University Press 1981 DOI: 10.1017/S0305000900003482. Published online: 26 Sep 2008

Myers, G. 2008. *The Bilingual Brain*. Cognitive Effects of Multilingualism. Boston University Academy thesis.

- Nikolajeva, T. M., 1977. *Frazovaja Intonacija slavyajskikh jazykov*. Moskva. Nauka
- O'Connor, J. D., and G. F. Arnold, G. F. 1961. *Intonation of colloquial English* (2nd ed., 1973). London: Longman.
- Odlin T. 1989. *Language transfer. Crosslinguistic influence in language learning*. Cambridge. Cambridge University Press.
- Oxford, R., H. Ehrman, and R. Z. Lavine. 1991. Style Wars: Teacher-Student Style Conflicts in the Language Classroom." Ed. S. S. Magnan. *Challenges in the 1990s for College Foreign Language Programs*. Boston: Heinle & Heinle, 1-25.
- Pavlenko A. L2 influence L1 in Late Bilingualism. *Issues in Applied Linguistics*.
- Parkes G. (1989). *101 Myths about the English Language*, England Books
- Poplavskaya T.V. 2006. *Obshhaya fonetika: problemu I metodu*. – Minsk. p.243
- Pierrehumbert, J. B. 1980. *The Phonology and Phonetics of English Intonation*. PhD thesis, MIT. Published by Indiana University Linguistics Club.
- Rando, E. 1980. Intonation in discourse, in Waugh and Van Schooneveld (eds), *The Melody of Language*, University Park Press, Baltimore, pp. 243-278
- Rothman J. 2011. L3 syntactic transfer selectivity and typological determinacy: The typological primacy model. *Second Language Research* January vol. 27 no. 1 107-127
- Searle, John, 1969. *Speech acts*. Cambridge University Press.
- Slobin. 1985. *The crosslinguistic study of language acquisition* Volume 1: The Data. Hillsdale NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Shideng Y. 2006. A Study of EFL Learners' Oral Production of Tag Questions. *Journal of PLA University of Foreign Languages*.

Svetozarova, N. D. 1982. *Intonatsionnaya sistiema rysskogo jazyka*. Leningrad.

Svetozarova, N. D. 1998. *Intonation in Russian*. In *Intonation Systems*. A survey of twenty languages, D. Hirst and A. Di Cristo (eds.) Cambridge: University Press, pp.261-275

Tahta, S, Wood, M. Loewenthal, K. 1981. Foreign Accent: Factors relating to transfer of accent from the first language to a second languages // *Lang. and Speech*. 1984.-2.N3.-pp.265-272

Thorsen, N. 1980. Neutral stress, emphatic stress, and sentence intonation in Advanced Standard Copenhagen Danish. *Annual Report of the Institute of Phonetics, University of Copenhagen* 14: 121–205

Tottie, G. & Hoffmann S. 2006. Tag Questions in British and American English. *Journal of English Linguistics* 34:4. 283-311

Vaissier, J. 1983. Language-independent prosodic features. In Cutler, A. and Ladd, D. R., editors, *Prosody: Models and Measurements*, pages 53-66. Springer-Verlag, Berlin. 14

Verdugo D. R., Trillo, J. R. 2005. The pragmatic function of intonation in L2 discourse: English tag questions used by Spanish speakers. *Intercultural Pragmatics*, Volume 2, Issue 2, Pages 151-168, ISSN (Online) 1613-365X, ISSN (Print) 1612-295X, DOI: 10-515/iprg.2005.2.2.151, June 2005

Weinreich, U. 1953. *Languages in contact: findings and problems*. The Hague: Mouton

Williams S. & Hammarberg B. 1998. Language switches in L3 production. Implication for a polyglot speaking model. *Applied linguistics* 19, 235-333.

Zhang Q. 2010. A Study of Chinese Learning of English Tag Questions. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, Vol 1, No 5, 578-582, Sep 2010 doi:10.4304/jltr.1.5.578-582

### **Electronic Sources**

BANNERT, R. 2005. Phonological interferences in the third language learning of Swedish and German, in *Proceedings, FONETIK 2005*. Department of Linguistics, Göteborg University.  
<http://www.ling.gu.se/konferenser/fonetik2005/papers/Bannert.pdf>

Collins H. 2009. *Collins English dictionary*. [www.babylon.com](http://www.babylon.com)

English Proficiency Level Descriptions <http://www.englishschool.org.uk/levels.htm>

Nordquist, R. 2005. Grammar & Composition Guide

<http://grammar.about.com/od/pq/g/predterm.htm>

Tretjakova G. 2007. *Useful English*. <http://usefulenglish.ru>

## 10. Appendices

### Appendix I. Samples of speech

#### *Russian version*

1. *Вы только что пришли на вечеринку. Один из вас (Б) видит знакомую девушку. Вы (Б) считаете она очень красивая.*

**А:** Боже мой, здесь столько людей.

**Б:** Посмотри на Машу. Она очень красивая, ***правда?***

**А:** Да. Она всегда выглядит на все сто!

**Б:** Мне нужно с ней переговорить. Извини.

**А:** Все нормально. Вперед.

2. *Вы (А) и ваш друг (Б) разговариваете о предмете Физика. Вам обоим/обеим не нравится этот предмет.*

**А:** Мне так надоела Физика. Я ничего не понимаю. Скучно.

**Б:** Сегодня было особенно скучно, ***не так ли?***

**А:** Да. Жаль, что я выбрала/выбрал этот предмет.

**Б:** Поздно что-то менять. Экзамен на следующей недели

3. *Вы (А) находитесь на вечеринке (Б). Вы встретили человека, который не помнит вашего имени. Вы (А) помните его имя.*

**А:** Привет, Рада/Рад тебя видеть. Как дела?

**Б:** Простите. Мы знакомы?

**А:** Конечно. Мы познакомились на вечеринке у Кати. Я сразу узнал/а тебя. Тебя зовут Миша, ***не правда ли?***

**Б:** Да. Тебя зовут Катя, ***не так ли?***

**А:** Нет. Света.

4. *Вы (А) и ваш друг (Б) разговариваете о предстоящей поездке в Испанию. Вы очень взволнованны, так как никогда не ездили в Испанию. Ваш друг посещал Испанию несколько раз.*

**А:** Не могу дождаться поездки в Испанию. Я прочитала столько книжек об этой стране. Ты был/а там, ***да?***

**Б:** Пару раз. Испания прекрасна. Я уверена она тебе очень понравится.

**А:** Надеюсь. Хочу увидеть Средиземное море. Оно красивое, ***да?***

**Б:** Оно неописуемо красиво.



5. Вы (А) и ваш друг (Б) разговариваете о фильме "Аватар". Вам не нравится этот фильм и вы уверены, что ваш друг его уже посмотрел.

А: Привет. Я только что видела Мишу и Машу. Они ходили в кино смотреть "Аватар". Им очень понравился фильм. Всем нравится это фильм. Ты смотрела "Аватар", **да**?

Б: Да. Мне очень понравился. Много спец. эффектов. Дорогой фильм. Тебе не понравился, **да**?

А: Нет. Мне показалось история скучной.

6. Представьте что вы (А) находитесь в самолете с другом (Б) и разговариваете о ваших каникулах и каникулах вашим общим друзей.

А: Все будет хорошо! У нас будут незабываемые каникулы, **не так ли**?

Б: Да. Да. Правда я немного боюсь летать. Надеюсь мы скоро взлетаем.

А: Я не могу дождаться поездки в Италию с тех пор как Бил и Эми побывали там в прошлом году.

Б: Они провели там всего один день, **не так ли**?

А: Да. Если я правильно помню, они ездили на шопинг.

7. Вы (А) и ваш друг (Б) разговариваете об одной вашей подруге, которая вам не очень нравится.

А: Отгадай кто мне сегодня звонил!

Б: Катя, **да**?

А: Ммм...

Б: Она до сих пор тебе звонит, **да**?

А: Да. Но на этот раз не из Италии, а из Сиднея.

Б: Она получила там работу, **да**?

8. Вы (А) разговариваете с вашим другом (Б). Вам очень грустно.

А: Я действительно не знаю что делать. Я вел себя так глупо, не правда ли?

Б: Да нет. Мы все иногда совершаем ошибки.

А: Станет легче если я все расскажу, **да**?

Б: Безусловно.

9. Вы (А) и ваш друг (Б) собираетесь организовать пикник завтра, но ваш друг уверен, что будет плохая погода.

А: Сегодня замечательный, солнечный день.

Б: Завтра весь день будет идти дождь.

А: Почему ты так думаешь?

Б: Завтра пикник. Всегда идет дождь, когда мы собираемся организовать пикник, **не так ли**?

А: Ты сегодня в плохом настроении, **да**?

10. Вы(А) и ваш друг (Б) разговариваете об одном из ваших общих друзей.

**А:** Я не понимаю Била. Такое ощущение, что он не понимает что он делает, *a*?

**Б:** Да. Он ведет себя странно с тех пор как вы вернулись из Испании. Что там произошло?

**А:** Ничего. Я думаю он просто не может забыть Машу.

**Б:** Может быть ты прав.

### ***Danish version***

1. *Du er lige ankommet til festen. Du (B) ser en ven. Du (B) synes, at hun er meget smuk.*

**A:** Hold da op! Hvor er der mange mennesker her.

**B:** Kig på Laura. Hun er meget smuk, *ikke*?

**A:** Ja, det er hun. Hun ser altid utrolig flot ud.

**B:** Jep. Jeg skal lige snakke med hende. Undskyld.

**A:** Det gør ikke noget.

2. *Du og din ven snakker om fysik. I kan ikke lide dette fag*

**A:** Jeg er bare så træt af Fysik. Jeg kan ikke forstå noget, og det er bare så kedeligt.

**B:** Forlæsningen var så kedelig idag, *ikke også*?

**A:** Det var den. Jeg ville ønske, jeg ikke havde tilmeldt mig.

**B:** Det er for sent. Eksamen er i næste uge.

3. *Du (A) er med til festen. Du ser en person (B), der kan ikke huske dit navn. Du (A) kan godt huske hans/hendes navn.*

**A:** Hej! Det er dejligt at se dig her. Hvordan går det?

**B:** Undskyld. Kender jeg dig?

**A:** Selvfølgelig. Vi mødtes til festen hos Jack sidste år. Jeg genkendte dig. Du hedder Bo, *ik*'?

**B:** Jep. Du hedder Mette, *ikke også*?

**A:** Nej. Jeg hedder Emma.

4. *Du og din ven snakker om en kommende rejse til Spanien. Du (A) er meget spændt, fordi du aldrig har været der før. Din ven (B) har været der et par gange tidligere*

**A:** Glæder mig til at rejse til Spanien. Jeg har læst mange bøger om landet. Du har været der, **har du ikke?**

**B:** Jo. Jeg har været der et par gange. Der er fantastisk. Jeg er sikker på, at du kommer til at elske det.

**A:** Det tror jeg. Jeg vil meget gerne at se Middelhavet. Området er så flot, **ikke?**

**B:** Yes. Det er utrolig flot.

5. *Du (A) og din ven (B) snakker om filmen "Avatar". Du kan ikke lide denne film, og du er meget sikker på, at din ven har allerede set den.*

**A:** Hej. Jeg har lige set Jack og Mary. De var i biografen for at se "Avatar". De syntes, den var god. Alle mennesker kan godt lide den film. Du har set den, **ikke?**

**B:** Ja. Jeg er vild med den. Der er mange special effects. Det er en meget dyr film. Du syntes ikke om den, **eller?**

**A:** Nej. Jeg syntes den var en smule kedelig.

6. *Forestil dig (A), at du sidder i flyet sammen med din ven (B). I snakker om din ferie og dine venners ferie.*

**A:** Det bliver rigtig godt. Vi kommer til at få den bedste ferie, **tror du ikke?**

**B:** Jo, jo, men jeg kan ikke lide at flyve. Jeg håber, vi snart letter.

**A:** Ved du hvad, jeg har glædet mig til at rejse til Italian, siden Bill og Amy var der sidste forår.

**B:** Men de var kun afsted i en dag, **ikke?**

**A:** Jep. Det var en shoppingtur.

7. *Du (A) og din ven (B) snakker om en af jeres fælles venner, som I ikke kan lide.*

**A:** Gæt hvem, der ringede til mig idag!

**B:** Det var Katya, **ik'?**

**A:** Jo.

**B:** Hun ringer stadigvæk til dig, **hva'?**

**A:** Yes, men ikke fra Italian. Hun er i Sydney nu.

**B:** Hun har altså fået et job dernede, **eller?**

8. *Du (A) taler med din ven (B). Du er meget ked af det*

A: Jeg ved virkelig ikke, hvad jeg skal gøre.

B: Nåh...

A: Jeg har godt nok dummet mig, **synes du ikke?**

B: Nej, det har du ikke. Alle mennesker begår fejl somme tider.

A: Det hjælper, at snakke med nogen, **gør det ikke?**

B: Absolut

9. *Du (A) og din ven (B) skal på skovtur i morgen. Men din ven er meget pessimistisk over for hvordan vejret vil blive.*

A: Det er en dejlig dag i dag.

B: Det bliver regnvejr i morgen.

A: Hvorfor tror du det?

B: Vi skal på skovtur i morgen. Og det regner jo altid, når vi skal på skovtur, **ikke også?**

A: Du er i et dårligt humør i dag, **ik'?**

10. *Du (A) og din ven (B) snakker om en af jeres fælles venner.*

A: Jeg kan ikke forstå Bill. Det virker som om at han ikke ved, hvad han laver, **synes du ikke?**

B: Det synes jeg. Han har opført sig underligt lige siden I kom tilbage fra Spanien. Hvad skete der?

A: Ikke noget. Jeg tror bare ikke at han kan glemme Mary.

B: Måske har du ret.

### **English version**

1. *You have just come to the party. One of you (B) sees a friend. You (B) think that she is very beautiful.*

A: Oh my God! There are so many people in here.

B: Look at Kelly. She is very beautiful, **isn't she?**

A: Yes, she is. She always looks fantastic.

B: Yes... I need to talk to her. Excuse me.

A: That's ok. Go ahead.

2. *You and your friend are discussing the Physics class. Both of you do not like it.*

**A:** I'm so tired of our Physics class. I don't understand anything and it's so boring.

**B:** Today the lecture was really boring, ***wasn't it?***

**A:** That's for sure. I wish I wasn't taking it.

**B:** It's too late. The exam is next week.

3. *You (A) are at the party and you meet a person (B), who does not remember your name. You (A) remember his name.*

**A:** Hi! It's nice to see you here. How are you doing?

**B:** Excuse me. Do I know you?

**A:** Of course. We met at Jack's party last year. It should be I recognize you. Your name is George, ***isn't it?***

**B:** Ja! And your name is Kate, ***isn't it?***

**A:** No. I am Jane.

4. *You and your friend are talking about your upcoming trip to Spain. You (A) are very excited about it because you have never been there before. Your friend (B) has been there several times.*

**A:** I'm looking forward to going to Spain. I've read so many books about this country. You've been there, ***right?***

**B:** Yes. I've been there a couple of times. It's awesome. I'm sure you'll like it.

**A:** I think so. I want to see the Mediterranean Sea. It's very beautiful, ***isn't it?***

**B:** Oh, yes!!! It's fantastic.

5. *You (A) and your friend (B) are talking about the movie "Avatar". You do not like this film and you are sure your friend has seen it.*

**A:** Hi!!! I've just seen Jack and Mary. They went to the cinema to see 'Avatar'. They also think it's good. Everyone likes this movie. You've seen it, ***haven't you?***

**B:** Ja! I loved it. There are a lot of special effects. It's a very expensive movie. You didn't like it, ***did you?***

**A:** Not really. I think the story line was a little bit boring.

6. *Imagine that you (A) and your friend (B) are sitting in the plane and talking about your vacation and the vacation of your friends.*

**A:** Everything will be fine. We'll have the best vacation ever, won't we?

**B:** Okay, okay. Planes just make me a little bit nervous. I hope we take off soon.

**A:** You know, I've been looking forward to Italy since Bill and Amy went there last spring.

**B:** But they only went for a day, *didn't they?*

**A:** Yeah. If I remember correctly, they went on a shopping tour.

7. *You (A) and your friend (B) are talking about your common friend, who you do not really like*

**A:** Guess who called me this morning!

**B:** It was Kate, *was it?*

**A:** Well...

**B:** So, she's still calling you, *is she?*

**A:** Yes, but not from Italy. She's in Sydney now.

**B:** So, she's got a job over there, has she?

8. *You (A) are talking to your friend (B). You feel very sad.*

**A:** I really don't know what to do...

**B:** Well.

**A:** I've been such a fool, *haven't I?*

**B:** No, you haven't. We all make mistakes sometimes.

**A:** It helps, talking to someone about it, *doesn't it?*

**B:** Absolutely.

9. *You (A) and your friend (B) are having the picnic tomorrow, but your friend is very pessimistic about the weather.*

**A:** It is a nice day today

**B:** It will rain tomorrow.

**A:** Why should it?

**B:** It's the picnic tomorrow. It always rains for the picnic, *doesn't it?*

**A:** You are in a lousy mood today, *aren't you?*

10. *You (A) and your friend (B) are discussing one of your friends.*

**A:** I can't understand Bill. It seems he doesn't know what he is doing, *does he?*

**B:** I agree. He has been acting weird since you came back from Spain. What happened there?

**A:** Nothing. I think he just can't forget Mary.

**B:** Maybe you are right.

## Appendix II. Examples of questionnaires

### Questionnaire for subjects of investigation

*Dear participant,*

*I would like to ask you answer the questions in the following questionnaire, which is going to be used in my master thesis.*

**Name of a person:** \_\_\_\_\_

**Age:** \_\_\_\_\_

**Number of years in Denmark:** \_\_\_\_\_

1. How often do you speak Russian? (one variant)

A: All the time

B: Very often

C: Often

D: Sometimes

E: Rarely

F: Never

G: Other

---

---

2. Where do you speak Russian? (several variants are possible)

A: at home;

B: to my friends;

C: at school;

D: in the shops;

E: via e-mail;

F: in public places;

G: at university;

H: Other:

---

---

3. How often do you speak Danish? (one variant)

A: All the time

B: Very often



- C: Often
  - D: Sometimes
  - E: Rarely
  - F: Never
  - G: Other
- 
- 

4. Where do you speak Danish? (several variants are possible)

- A: at home;
  - B: to my friends;
  - C: at school;
  - D: in the shops;
  - E: via e-mail;
  - F: at public places;
  - G: at university;
  - H: Other:
- 
- 

5. How often do you speak English? (one variant)

- A: All the time
  - B: Very often
  - C: Often
  - D: Sometimes
  - E: Rarely
  - F: Never
  - G: Other
- 
- 

6. Where do you speak English? (several answers are possible)

- A: at home;
- B: to my friends;
- C: at school;
- D: in the shops;
- E: via e-mail;
- F: at public places;
- G: at university;

H: Other:

---

---

7. Have you ever lived in the USA/UK?

A: Yes

B: No

8. If yes, how long \_\_\_\_\_

9. Have you ever travelled to the USA/UK?

A: Yes

B: No

10. How do you evaluate your proficiency in English?

A: Elementary

B: Pre-intermediate

C: Intermediate

D: Upper- Intermediate

E: Advanced level

F: Other

---

---

Thank you for the participation!!!

# English Proficiency Level Descriptions

[www.englishschool.org.uk/levels.htm](http://www.englishschool.org.uk/levels.htm)

## 1. BEGINNER

Can **understand** a few everyday expressions of simple **functions** in known situations, and can **produce** some single words and set phrases in response, or can make requests using, for example, a single word + 'please' ('Salt, please'). Little structural grasp, except in **reading**, where (s) he can recognise the existence of a few basic structural contrasts (e.g. singular/plural or continuous v. simple) even if not always certain exactly what they mean. Can substitute items in one or two structural patterns in **writing**, but not manipulate the patterns any further.

## 2. ELEMENTARY

Can **understand** many simple expressions of everyday basic **functions** in familiar situations and sometimes grasp what the basic topic of a conversation in English is. Can **produce** understandable questions and answers involving information above basic (e.g. Not only 'What is your name?' but 'What does your father do?') even if structures often go wrong and words are not known. In **reading** can follow very simplified stories or information, and recognize the meanings of a number of structural contrasts (e.g. 'the'/'a' or 'I go'/'I'm going'), and can **write** a few simple but connected sentences on a given topic with some awareness of the forms required, even if not always using them correctly.

## 3. PRE-INTERMEDIATE

Can **understand** the gist of a commonplace conversation in English, though not in detail, and can **produce** English well enough to take part if spoken to carefully. Can also initiate conversation by asking questions on a range of everyday topics (e.g. sport, or food) and can perform most everyday social and practical **functions** (e.g. buying things in shops, going to the doctor) well enough to survive comfortably. In **reading** can grasp the full meaning (content) including details, of simpler authentic texts (e.g. instructions on a packet) with the exception of a few of the less common words, including understanding the sense of most basic structures (e.g. verb tense and modals). Can **write** coherent short compositions using simple but varied structures correctly on a variety of non-specialist topics (e.g. telling stories, personal letters, giving and explaining an opinion).

## 4. INTERMEDIATE

Can **understand** the gist of a commonplace conversation involving fluent speakers, provided that some allowances are made, or occasional help given. Can **produce** well enough to make substantial relevant contributions (e.g. of an example or story clearly related to the topic) and to get full and satisfactory information from other speakers by questioning as necessary. Is **functionally** competent for all everyday negotiations except where completely unpredictable problems arise. In **reading** can get the gist/intention of most straightforward (i.e. non-stylized) authentic texts and can **write** effective

communications of information or opinion, but perhaps with a number of errors, or problems arising from inability to handle some of the more complex structures.

#### 5. UPPER-INTERMEDIATE

Can **understand** well enough to hold a continuous conversation with a native speaker, even where the speaker does not, or can not, adapt his/her language to a foreigner. Can **produce** well enough to initiate new topics, change the subject, and generally take part in the management of the conversation rather than merely responding. Can manage all normal life **functions** with ease, and cope linguistically with completely new situations (e.g. a negotiation in a shop not going according to expectations). In **reading**, can understand the majority of any non-specialist, modern text and begin to respond to different 'registers' or types of writing. Can produce fluent **writing** on most kinds of topic, including arguing for an opinion, and can use complex sentence structures within many errors.

#### 6. ADVANCED

Can **understand** native speakers of everyday standard English, even when not being directly addressed, and can therefore take part in normal interaction on almost the same terms as a native speaker. Can **produce** speech fluent enough to convey feeling, to argue and maintain a point of view, or to convey complex information (e.g. explaining a process) to a listener. In **reading**, can use specialist books written in English to acquire specialist knowledge (including new terminology), can recognize and respond to different styles of writing and, to some extent, to shades of meaning. Can **write** fluently and with relatively few errors, not only on any topic but also in a range of styles (e.g. narrative, formal argument, business letters, and prepared public speaking).

*Questionnaire for parents*

Dear participant,

I would like to ask you answer the questions in the following questionnaire, which is going to be used in my master thesis.

*Name of a person:* \_\_\_\_\_

*Age:* \_\_\_\_\_

*Number of years in Denmark:* \_\_\_\_\_

1. Do you always speak Russian to your child/children?

- A. Yes
- B. No
- C. Sometimes

2. If not, write down the situations and places when you DO it:

---

---

---

3. Have you ever noticed anything unusual in your child's speech when he/she speaks Russian?

- A: Yes
- B: No
- C: Sometimes
- D: Never

4. If YES and SOMETIMES, choose or write down the things, which seem unusual for you:

- A: Stress in the words
- B: Rhythm in the sentences
- C: Intonation
- D: Other:

---

---

---

## Appendix III. Additional descriptive analysis

### The control group

