He's Like, "My Nan Loves That Naan Bread"

Quotative *Be+Like* and Mimetic Performance Among Migrants to St. John's NL

by

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Abstract

This thesis examines quotative verb use and mimetic performance among migrants to St. Johns, Newfoundland. The first part examines the variation and distribution of quotative verbs among this community, implements variable rule analysis and delves into which grammatical and social constraints condition the choice of quotative verbs by these speakers. The second part investigates the properties of mimetic speech and explores how these individuals create voices using the acoustic properties of vowels. These topics are examined through the lens of social network theory (Milroy 1987) and performance speech. I propose a framework of sociolinguistic comfort that incorporates these concepts to account for the patterns of quotative and mimetic performance. As our world grows ever more global, understanding the ways migrant speakers learn to perform identity, incorporate highly regionalized features, and yet remain connected to their adopted community is essential.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Introduction

My study is an investigation into the quotative behaviour of recent migrants[1] to Newfoundland, Canada. The thesis consists of two parts. The first part examines the variation and distribution of quotative verbs among this community, and delves into which grammatical and social constraints condition the choice of quotative verbs by these speakers. The second part investigates the properties of mimetic speech and explores how these individuals create voices using the acoustic properties of vowels. This section also introduces a framework, sociolinguistic comfort, to better understand how social network connections and personal ties to local communities can influence how mimetic performance is achieved.

1 The term *migrant* is used throughout thesis to indicate that individual has not decided whether to settle permanently in NL.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

The first investigation in this study is a variationist analysis of the quotative system used by migrant speakers in NL. A general background literature review on past studies on variation and change in English quotative systems is found in section 2.2. This review identifies the different functions of *be +like*, the grammatical and social constraints that condition quotative *be + like*, and the globalization and adoption of quotative variants worldwide. The second component of this study (sections 2.3 & 2.4) examines the occurrence of mimetic behaviour as part of the quoted content produced by these speakers. This review considers properties of mimesis, the co-occurrence of mimesis to quotative verbs, and mimetic performance among bilingual speakers. The third part of this review (sections 2.5 & 2.6) introduces the target vowels of this study and gives an overview of Newfoundland English and Indian/Pakistani English and their acoustic properties.

2.2 Quotative Verbs: Grammar & Use

The English quotative system consists of a number of verbs used to introduce "constructed or reported dialogue" (Tagliamonte & Hudson 1999). These can include *say, think, tell, go*, *zero* (or null), and *be+like (Blyth, Recktenwald & Wang 1990)*. The spread of *be+like* taking the place of previous quotatives has been well documented (Romaine & Lange 1991; Ferrara & Bell 1995). In this section (2.2) I review previous findings on *be+like* to show how its use is constrained by internal (2.2.1) and external (2.2.2) factors.

The lexical item "like" is multifaceted. D'Arcy (2007) outlines four distinct functions of like: quotative complementizer (quotative verb) (a), approximate adverb (b), discourse marker (c) and discourse particle (d). Examples are given below:

(1) Functions of "like"
   a. I was **like**, "No thanks!"
   b. It was cold, **like** minus 30 here last night
   c. My dad works here. **Like** in that building over there
   d. I'm friends with her, but she's **like** really flaky

The quotative complementizer functions as a synonym to verbs such as *say, go,* or *think*. This type also has language external (social) and language internal (grammatical) constraints. Approximate adverbs signal prepositional or approximal content, similar to the word *about.* The discourse marker "brackets elements of talk" (D'Arcy 2007, 394) and can replace the items such as *so*, *well,* or the phrase *you know*. Finally the discourse particle form of "like" differs from a discourse marker in that it occurs within the clause. The focus of this study is the quotative verb *be+like*, which D'Arcy (2007) and Buchstaller (2008) argue is a grammaticalization of the discourse particle "like", appearing in English more recently than the others.

I have adopted a variationist framework Labov (1981)to study the use of the quotative *be+like* among recent migrants to St. John's, NL. Under this framework, variation in linguistic behavior is centralized and examined according to linguistic and social factors that influence their occurrence. The use of quotative verbs, in general, have been governed by internal constraints such as grammatical person, tense and temporal reference, content of the quote, and elements of mimesis. The social, or external constraints introduced in section 2.2.2. include age and gender. As I demonstrate below, recent research determined that these constraints have consistently conditioned the use of *be+like* across varieties of English. The question posed in this study is whether newcomers to St. John's adopt the local constraint patterns, retain their own, or utilize a combination of both.

2.2.1 Internal Constraints

Internal constraints are grammatical factors such as person or number that affect linguistic variation. In the following section, I discuss the internal constraints that condition quotative verbs.

2.2.1.1 Grammatical Person

Grammatical person has been shown in numerous studies to be an important factor in the selection of quotative variants, with 1st person subjects favouring *be+like* (Barbieri 2008; Blyth, Recktenwald & Wang 1990; Buchstaller & D'Arcy 2009; Cukor-Avila 2002; Ferrara & Bell 1995; Tagliamonte & Hudson 1999; Tagliamonte & D'Arcy 2007). As quotative verbs are often used for storytelling and describing the narrator's mental state and inner thoughts, it is not surprising that it occurs with the 1st person (Buchstaller 2008) However, this selection is not universal, as the 3rd person context has also been found to favour *be+like* (Davydova 2015; Kohn & Franz 2009; Macaulay 2001; Winter 2002) including 3rd person neuter *it* in Newfoundland English (D'Arcy 2004). Alphen & Buchstaller (2012) note that 3rd person neuter *it* strongly favours *be+like* when included in data analysis and that this inclusion could account for the apparent variation between 1st and 3rd person in the studies described above.

2.2.1.2 Tense and Temporal Reference

The earliest studies of *be+like* demonstrated that it occurs with the present tense. Buchstaller (2003) argues that the storytelling function of quotative verbs lends them to be used in present tense. Quotative verbs are also strongly associated with the historical present (Singler 2001). The historical present occurs when an action that has happened in the past is coded with present tense morphology, so there is a difference between the tense (present) and the reference (past).

Wolfson (1978) also notes the historical present is tied to performance, gestures, and sound, and therefore occurs often in story-like narratives. *Be+like* and the historical present has also been found in global varieties of English (Baird 2001; Winter 2002; Bogetic 2014; Meyerhoff & Schleef 2014), including Newfoundland English (D'Arcy 2004). There have been exceptions, with *be+like* associated with past tense in the UK (Diskin & Levey 2019; Macaulay 2001) and in AAVE (Kohn & Franz 2009).

2.2.1.3 Content of the Quote

The next internal factor to be considered is the content of the quote. Initial studies have shown *be+like* is used for internal thought and dialogue, taking over the slot formerly occupied by *think*. According to Buchstaller & D'Arcy (2009) traditionally the quotative *say* was used for direct reported speech and *think* was used for reporting mental activity or inner dialogue. However, Tagliamonte & D'Arcy (2007) found that Canadian youth were using *be+like* to indicate thought content instead of the more traditional quotatives. Recent studies have suggested that *be+like* is being used for direct speech as well, possibly indicating grammaticalization in Newfoundland English, Irish English and varieties of American English (D'Arcy 2004; Diskin & Levey 2019; Ferrara & Bell 1995; Hohn 2012).

2.2.1.4 Mimesis

Mimesis consists of quotes and speech performed in a different "voice" with the speaker using different pitch, rhythm, or accent than their natural speaking voice. A number of recent studies have found the mimetic voice effect favors *be+like* in varieties of English, including the US, New Zealand, England and Denmark (Romaine & Lange 1991; Singler 2001; Buchstaller 2008; Buchstaller & D'Arcy 2009; Davydova & Buchstaller 2015; Diskin & Levey 2019; Bressendorff)

2012). Because mimesis is a central component of the current study, I describe its influence in greater detail in section 2.4.

2.2.2 External Constraints

External constraints are sociological factors such as gender or age that affect linguistic variation. In the following section, I discuss the external constraints that condition quotative verbs.

2.2.2.1 Age

Early studies of quotative *be+like* showed that its use was largely constrained to younger speakers globally. This supported the idea that it was a change in progress (Buchstaller 2006). More recently research suggests that *be+like* is continuing to be used through generations, as the adolescent innovators move into middle age (Alphen & Buchstaller 2012).

2.2.2.2 Gender

Despite *be+like* often being associated with women D'Arcy (2007), the actual research shows that the answer is not straightforward. While many of the earlier studies indicated females were the strongest users of *be+like* (Romaine & Lange 1991; Tagliamonte & Hudson 1999; Macaulay 2001; Baird 2001), other studies have indicated males use it more often (Blyth, Recktenwald & Wang 1990; Sanchez & Charity 1999; Buchstaller & D'Arcy 2009; Hohn 2012; Diskin & Levey 2019). Other studies have found that gender is not significant (Tagliamonte & Hudson 1999; Dailey-O'Cain 2000; Buchstaller 2008; Meyerhoff & Schleef 2014). Overall, gender does not seem to be a stable indicator of the use of *be+like*.

What is the situation in St. John's, the community under study here? D'Arcy (2004) studied the grammaticalization of *be+like* among young adolescent girls in Newfoundland English and identified a higher usage of existential *it+like* compared to Toronto speakers and she

argued that *be+like* has become a marker of third person direct speech. She also determined that historical present tense was exclusively used with *be+like* and that St. Johns' youth were more likely to use *be+like* for direct speech instead of internal dialogue. An overview of global constraints conditioning *be+like* compared to D'Arcy's (2004) Newfoundland findings are displayed below.

Table 1: "Be+Like" Constraint Overview

Constraints Favouring "Be+Like"	**Constraint Effects in Newfoundland**
1st and 3rd person	3rd Person Neuter "it"
Narratives with Historical Present Tense	Narratives with Historical Present Tense
Inner Dialogue	Direct Speech
Mimetic Performances	Not Studied
Younger Speakers	Not Studied (Participants Young Only)
Females (Mixed Results)	Not Studied (Participants Female Only)

2.3 Quotative Verbs in L2 Communities

As we have just seen, the use of *be+like* is governed by a number of linguistic and social factors. I have also highlighted which of these factors are active in the St. John's speech community, which gives us a set of expectations for what we might find in this study of *be+like* usage among recent migrants to St. John's specifically: do these speakers recognize which grammatical and social constraints condition *be+like* in Newfoundland English and use them in their own productions? While a small section of the literature has examined the use of quotative verbs in individuals who speak English as a second language, what we do know is that speakers with a

high level of English knowledge or exposure are able to recognize and implement the same constraints as native speakers do.

Meyerhoff & Schleef (2014) examined Polish-born teens who live in Edinburgh, Scotland. They compared the Polish-born teens to local Scottish teens to determine whether *be+like* is easily learned. The Polish-born participants did not use quotative *be+like* at the same rates as the local teens and when used, the participants showed little knowledge of internal or external constraints. The researchers proposed that when non-native speakers adopt a new form, they experiment with constraint rankings, but over time, the constraints are acquired one-by-one, with eventual similarity to native speakers.

Davydova & Buchstaller (2015)studied German graduate students who had varying levels of exposure to English. They found that language internal constraints such as mimesis and grammatical person were easier to learn than language external constraints. Exposure to casual, non-academic language was found to be essential in acquiring the rules surrounding the use of *be+like*. Those with extended face-to-face contact with native English speakers had the greatest grasp on *be+like*.

Diskin & Levey (2019) examined Polish immigrants who settled in Ireland and also found that low English proficiency and lack of native English speaker contact affected the use of *be+like*. The grammatical constraints conditioning *be+like* also differed between the two groups. While males favoured *be+like* in both groups, the Irish speakers used *be+like* with the past tense and non-mimetically, while the Polish group used in historical present and mimetically. Diskin & Levey also found that within the low-proficiency group, there was a high rate of zero quotatives, which the authors explained as the non-native speakers avoiding the act of having to choose a particular verb, and therefore having to attend to the internal language constraints of each verb.

Bressendorff (2012) examined Danish individuals who learned English as a second language. She also discovered that zero quotatives were the most common, and *be+like* was not utilized widely. However, the constraints that were found to condition the use of *be+like* were similar to those around the globe, such as 1st person, HP, mimesis and a female preference.

Although my study looks at both Indian and Pakistani English speakers, I have not discovered any literature examining quotative verbs in Pakistani English. Davydova (2015) determined that *be+like* has entered Indian English and has been adopted by upper-class female speakers, following previously determined linguistic constraints that were identified in North American English, namely grammatical person and mimesis. Davydova also observed local Hindi variants of quotative verbs being adapted into Indian English which behave similarly to *be+like* and follow the same grammatical constraints. The author describes this phenomenon as "layering" where old and new variants are used together, citing examples such as Hindi *ki,* and English *okay*. These innovations were also common among young, upper-class female speakers.

2.3.1 Globalization

The quotative form *be+like* is considered a global variant, and is present within English speech communities (Tagliamonte & Hudson 1999). Studies demonstrate its use in Trinidad (Deuber, Hänsel & Westphal 2020), Jamaica (Hohn 2012; Bogetic 2014), South Africa (Lochner 2019), Australia (Winter 2002),Scotland (Macaulay 2001), and India (Davydova 2015). While a global innovation, this verb is incorporated into systems in different ways producing regionalized social and linguistic constraints on its use (Buchstaller & D'Arcy 2009)

Buchstaller & D'Arcy (2009) compared four separate varieties of English and according to the authors, *be+like* globalizes, and the constraints are transferred to the receiving variety and are available for re-interpretation. Speakers can choose to implement *be+like* and adapt and

mould it to their needs and local languages. For example, Tagliamonte & D'Arcy (2007) observed an increase in *be+like* among Canadian youth, identified the linguistic constraints that promote use of *be+like* (content of quote and grammatical person) and reported that females under 40 are most likely to use quotative *be+like*. These studies demonstrate that quotative *be+like* has globalized and although the linguistic constraints that govern *be+like* appear to be universal, there is some innovation and variation at the local level.

2.4 Mimesis

As identified above, another component of the current study seeks to examine the co-occurrence of mimetic behaviour and quoted content. One internal factor that has been found to favour quotative *be +like* is mimesis, or quotative speech performed in a different "voice" where the speaker uses different pitch, rhythm, or accents other than their natural speaking voice (Klewitz & Couper-Kuhlen 1999). Compared to studies of variation and change in quotative systems, mimesis has been relatively understudied. As a result, we know less about the relationship between these two phenomena. What we do know is summarized below.

Mimesis has been found to co-occur with quotatives globally (Buchstaller 2003; Buchstaller & D'Arcy 2009) and is often associated with demonstrative reenactments (Clark & Gerrig 1990; Fox & Robles 2010). Quotative speech with mimesis can signal that the narrator is telling a "stylized version" of what is said (Spronck & Nikitina 2019, 144) and can also express unstated attitudes (Niemelä 2005; Alphen & Buchstaller 2012). Sams (2010) explains that quoted speech is not a pure replication of another speaker's words, but is a demonstration and can express the storyteller's attitude about what was said. Speakers can also use mimesis to recreate situations where they themselves were not present, but can express what they think should have occurred, such as a witty comeback. Prosodic and mimetic effects such as breathy voice can be

used to indicate mental states and emotions in the world created by the narrator. By using recognizable, codified prosodic cues, the narrator can express opinions about characters in their story without outright stating it. Niemelä (2005) discovered that individuals in a conversation often match the voicing, prosodic cues and volume of each other in order to show solidarity. For example, if an individual used higher pitch, rhythm, and volume to give voice to a particular character, the listener can then voice that character using similar cues to show that she agrees with the narrator's evaluation. De Decker (2013) demonstrated that quoted speech is acoustically distinct from the surrounding narrative speech. In this study, De Decker examined the quoted and narrative speech of Newfoundland English speakers and determined that there is a significant shift in pitch and vowel quality in quoted speech. While pitch shifting was consistent across the speaker sample, De Decker argued that observed shifts in vowel qualities could be employed by individual speakers to construct a persona for the speaker being quoted. There may be some support for De Decker's claim in the work of Flege & Hammond (1982). They showed that bilingual (English/ Spanish) participants asked to read sentences in a "Spanish accent", exhibited shortened VOT for /d/ and/t/. This suggests that some non-distinctive phonetic differences are salient to speakers and available for mimesis.

Like De Decker's study, I look at the acoustic properties when speakers perform mimesis – in particular the salient linguistic features – of those they quote. I add to this work by considering how speakers who migrated to St. John's, NL, use Newfoundland English features in mimetic performances. Given this focus is on the use of Newfoundland English features, I turn now to a brief overview of those that may be salient to participants in this study.

2.5 Linguistic Features in Newfoundland English

Newfoundland English (NLE) is characterized by extensive internal variation, and many dialects of NLE differ greatly from English spoken throughout the rest of Canada (Clarke 2010). Although NLE and standard Canadian English share the same vowel and consonant inventory, their phonetic realizations differ and these realizations are often salient to individuals who are familiar with standard Canadian English (Clarke 2010). As my target vowels are KIT, LOT, and STRUT I describe the NLE pronunciation of these vowels below.

2.5.1 KIT

The KIT/DRESS sets (Wells 1982) of [ɪ] and [ɛ] tend to be tensed and raised in NLE, particularly in the St. John's area. However, in some dialects, especially those located in Southwestern Newfoundland, KIT/DRESS can be lowered and retracted (Clarke 2010). Some keyword examples of KIT/DRESS from Clarke (2010) include *sick*, *build*, and *symbol*.

2.5.2 LOT

The lax vowels in LOT/CLOTH/THOUGHT lexical sets tend to be more fronted in NLE. These sets are often merged in Canadian English and are realized by [ɑ] or its rounded equivalent [ɒ]. For example, the word *job* can sound like the word *jab*. Due to Irish and Southern English origins, Newfoundland English tends to produce the unrounded counterpart [ɑ] in the LOT/CLOTH/THOUGHT merger (Clark 2010). *Dock*, *tall*, and *lawn* are examples of the LOT/CLOTH/THOUGHT lexical set in NLE (Clarke 2010).

2.5.3 STRUT

Words in the STRUT class (*luck, rough, tongue*) are pronounced as a more back and perceptibly more rounded vowel in NLE (Clark 2010).

2.6 Linguistic Features of Indian & Pakistani English

The participants in this study are speakers of either Indian or Pakistani English. They have all learned English as a second language during elementary school and are pursuing higher education in English. Their first language is either Hindi or Urdu, although most also speak multiple regional languages. English was introduced by the British in the colonial era in the early 17th century (Mahboob 2009; Sailaja 2012). After independence from British rule in 1947, English became an official language of both India and Pakistan, along with Urdu in Pakistan and Hindi in India. English remains a language of administration, media and higher education and business in both countries (Census of India 2011; Pakistani Bureau of Statistics 2017).

The terms Indian English (IndE) and Pakistani English (PakE) are used to refer to non-native languages that often develop as a result of colonization and that display unique differences from the colonizing language in lexicon, grammar, phonology and style. English is taught in schools in both countries, and is often compulsory (Mesthrie 2008; Sailaja 2012; Rahman 2020).

There is considerable variation in Indian and Pakistani English based on the first language of speakers, however there are generalities (Wiltshire & Harnsberger 2006; Sailaja 2012). These commonalities include retroflex consonants [ʈ] [ɖ], dental consonants ([t̪, d̪] for fricatives[ð, θ] and approximate [ʊ] in place of [v] and [w] (Mesthrie 2008; Mahboob 2009; Irfan Khan 2012; Rahman 2020).

As I focus on the KIT, STRUT, and LOT vowels, I describe the previous research on this topic below. There have been relatively few acoustic or statistical studies, as most are impressionistic or grammars. Acoustic studies of Indian English include studies of stress (Pickering & Wiltshire 2000; Wiltshire & Moon 2003), vowels produced by Tamil & Gujarati

speakers (Wiltshire & Harnsberger 2006; Phull & Kumar 2016),and diphthongs (Maxwell & Fletcher 2010). Acoustic studies of Pakistani English focus mostly on vowels produced by individuals who speak Punjabi as a first language (Mahboob 2009; Hafiz, Bilal, Abbas, et al. 2011; Hafiz, Bilal, Mahmood, et al. 2011; Hassan 2015). The majority of these studies compare IndE and PakE to Received Pronunciation (RP).

2.6.1 KIT

In IndE and PakE, KIT is pronounced similarly to the RP pronunciation of KIT (Gargesh 2008; Rahman 2020). Hafiz, Bilal, Mahmood, et al. (2011a) studied KIT in PakE and Wiltshire & Harnsberger (2006) in IndE and discovered that KIT is pronounced lower than in RP and Canadian English in both varieties.

2.6.2 LOT

In IndE, LOT can be realized by [ɒ], [ɔ] or [ɑ] depending on the 1st language of the speaker (Wiltshire & Harnsberger 2006; Mesthrie 2008; Sailaja 2012). Wiltshire & Harnsberger (2006) confirmed that the CAUGHT-COT merger existed in their group of speakers. In PakE, LOT is described as being similar to RP (Irfan Khan 2012; Rahman 2020), but acoustic studies have also identified a CAUGHT-COT merger (Hassan 2015).

2.6.3 STRUT

There has been ongoing debate on whether STRUT exists as a separate vowel in Indian and Pakistani English. Some authors claim that STRUT is realized as a schwa (Mesthrie 2008; Sailaja 2012; Farooq 2015). Others claim it is a distinct vowel in PakE (Mahboob 2009; Rahman 2020) and this has been confirmed by acoustic studies (Mahboob 2009; Hafiz, Bilal, Abbas, et al. 2011b), which demonstrate STRUT is distinct and fronted in PakE.

Unfortunately, detailed acoustic studies of vowels are scarce in NLE and IndE/PakE. I have included demographic information for studies that include Canadian English (Hagiwara 2006), Newfoundland English (Hofmann 2015), RP (Henton 1983, Indian English (Phull & Kumar 2016) and Pakistani English (Hafiz, Bilal, Abbas, et al. 2011b; Hafiz, Bilal, Mahmood, et al. 2011a) in Table 2 below.

Table 2: Demographic Information

	# of Participants	**Gender**	**Age**	**Location**
Hagiwara	10	Both	18-25	Winnipeg, MB
Hofmann	34	Both	18-65	St. Johns, NL
Henton	35	Male	18-35	London, UK
Phull & Kumar	16	Male	20-60	India
Hafiz et al.	40	Both	18-25	Punjab, Pakistan
Hafiz et al.	20	Both	18-25	Punjab, Pakistan

Formant values for the target vowels from these studies are displayed in Table 3. Please note that these values are not definitive, but are presented in order to give examples of possible formant values for each variety of English.

Table 3: Formant Values of Target Vowels

Variety of English	KIT		LOT		STRUT	
	F1	F2	F1	F2	F1	F2
CanE	370	2090	560	820	680	1310
RP	360	2100	560	920	680	1200
IndE	400	2010	550	1100	525	1250
PakE	425	2030	520	1050	625	1470
NLE	425	2000	780	1250	725	1400

Each of these studies include participants who are similar to my participants demographically. My study examines these vowels acoustically in quoted and narrative speech among IndE and PakE speakers.

Chapter 3: Theoretical Framework

3.1 Introduction

So far, I have outlined the object of study: quotative and mimetic patterns in the speech of migrant speakers of English living in St. John's, NL. I turn now to the theoretical underpinnings of this project: how to account for any observed empirical behaviour and introduce models of identity performance and social network ties. My discussion of the results is guided by the following sociolinguistic factors:

1) the speakers' social network ties

2) social identity issues of the speakers

In this section I describe each in order to show how the quotative behaviour presented in this study might be understood as a response to the social positioning of the speaker.

3.2 Social Network Theory

Patterns of sociolinguistic variation are a type of identity performance tied to the social resources, linguistic landscape (Eckert 2008) and speakers' experience within their speech community or social network (Schilling-Estes 1998). By adopting a form or variant, one adopts the qualities they think it represents, such as socioeconomic prestige, authenticity, or membership in a community. Members of a social network can index certain attributes about a group and create the change that is "locally meaningful" (Eckert 2019, 2).

While the meaning of sociolinguistic variation has not always been examined with reference to a localized context (Eckert & McConnell-Ginet 1992), social network analysis provides one way to do this. This thesis uses a social networks framework to help account for patterns of quotative and mimetic performance in my study. According to Milroy, "the term social

network refers quite simply to the informal social relationships contracted by an individual" (1987: 174). Networks can be measured by the characteristics of density and multiplexity within a community(Milroy1987). Density is measured by examining the quantity of social ties within the network, whereas multiplexity is measured by determining the quality of social ties (Milroy 1987).

Milroy's (1987) study of Belfast English features among working class men and women found that vernacular features were correlated with a high network strength score. The strength of a network was measured on a five point scale that included the following factors: membership in a high density network, having kinship ties in a community, working in the same place as two others of the same sex, and associating with co-workers after work hours. The researchers demonstrated that those who shared the same social ties (high density score) and whose social ties overlap in several areas (high multiplexity score) used more local vernacular features. This has the following implications for my study: I argue that participants with strong networks within the St. John's community will be more likely to discern and employ NLE features for performance speech.

3.3 Social Network Theory in L2 Communities

Social network theory has been used to study migrant speakers and language learning. Lybeck (2002) studied American women who had relocated to Norway and were learning Norwegian. She measured the pronunciation and saliency of Norwegian /r/ and the strength of the women's social networks. Lybeck found that women who had strong networks, usually facilitated by Norwegian partners, had significantly better discrimination and pronunciation of /r/.

In her look at the use of /t/ allophones among Irish immigrants in New York City, Kirke (2005) developed a scale to measure their social ties to Irish English speaking communities and

local American English speaking communities. Kirke found that the realization of the /t/ allophone existed on a continuum, with those having strong ties to the immigrant community using the fricativized "Irish" variant, whereas those with weak ties to the immigrant community were more likely to be aware of and use other "American" variants, such as flapped /t/.

Pozzi (2017) examined American students studying abroad in Argentina and their perception of voiced and voiceless fricatives and the pronoun *vos*. The American students had learned Standard Spanish in the US and then were exposed to these features in vernacular dialects once abroad. Through elicitation sessions and sociolinguistic interviews, she found that the students who had close and frequent contact with their host families and other Argentinians were more likely to be aware of devoicing rules and use *vos* in conversation.

In addition to strong social networks, the following studies show that a positive attitude toward the target culture also affects non-native speakers' perception and acquisition of linguistic features. Drummond (2012, 2013) studied sociolinguistic variation in a second language. In this study, he argued that a learner's speech is rule- governed, it follows linguistic constraints and that it is as prone to systematic variation as a first language. By studying a Polish immigrant community in Manchester and examining the patterns of ING variation and STRUT fronting, Drummond concluded that linguistic and social factors influence variation for L2 learners. He found that extended contact with native Mancunian English speakers (partners and friends) and positive attitudes towards Manchester corresponded with the use of variants that are used in Mancunian English by the non-native speakers. He posits that identification with either the L1 (Polish) or L2 (English) condition whether a form is adopted. The speakers that intended to return to Poland were far less likely to acquire the features of Mancunian English.

Sharma (2005) also looked at dialect contact by examining Indian English speakers in the United States. She noted that second language speakers are aware of variants used in American

English style shifting and are able to make use of them in different contexts and registers. The American English features studied were aspiration, l-velarization, and rhoticity, which vary from the participants' L1. Sharma found that awareness and use of these features were dependent on the individuals' attitudes towards US culture. Similar to Drummond's (2012, 2013) studies, Indian English speakers who had connections within the American English speaking community and positive attitudes towards it were able to recognize these linguistic features and use them for identity work.

These studies indicate that speakers are aware of L1 style-shifting and they also suggest that migrant speakers' experiences in and relationships with another culture can be signalled by the linguistic variants they adopt.

3.4 Performance Speech

I have examined the phonetics of quoted speech under a sociolinguistic identity performance framework proposed by Schilling & Kiesling 1998). In this model, style-shifting consists of an individual taking on different roles or "footings" within different speech events. The individual uses various speech features to index certain identities for themselves. This style shifting is displayed in what Schilling-Estes (1998) calls "performance speech", which is a register that can be used in dialect imitation or when a speaker attempts to perform a particular language variety. Performance speech has regular patterning and can give insight to researchers about how the speaker perceives and interprets local features, since when speakers perform a voice, they only have the features that are salient to them.

Schilling & Kiesling (1998) applied their Footing and Framing Model to Schilling-Estes' (1998) case study of a speaker from Ocracoke, NC. They found that during sociolinguistic interviews, the speaker style-shifted by performing an exaggerated version of his vernacular

dialect. Schilling & Kiesling (1998) argued that by using this "performance speech" he was indexing the attributes associated with a "quaint island fisherman" (Schilling & Kiesling 1998, 1) to posit a friendly stance towards the researchers. Indexing attributes can also be a method of communicating ideas and judgments without actually stating them (Eckert 2019). Importantly, the authors note that style shifting is directly related to speaker agency and identity creation is realized by indexing characteristics of various prototypes. A linguistic feature such as vowel raising can start out as relatively neutral, but can become a sign once it's distributed among speakers and can be used to identify that community (Eckert 2009). Over time, it can begin to index certain positive or negative attributes about the group. Therefore, speakers can draw on these indexed attributes to evoke characteristics of particular communities.

Within this framework I will determine if salient NLE features (such as LOT-fronting, KIT-raising, and STRUT-lowering) are employed by speakers to create voices and identities for the Newfoundland English speakers they quote. These aspects are discussed further in the methodology section (Chapter 4).

Chapter 4 Methodology

4.1 Introduction

The following sections discuss the data collection, methodological tools and analyses that were implemented in the study.

4.2 Participant Background

As mentioned earlier, this study will examine quotative verb use and mimetic performance of migrants to St. Johns NL. The term "migrant" is used throughout to indicate that participants had immigrated to NL, but had not made a decision whether they intended to stay permanently. The individuals analyzed had migrated from India or Pakistan to study in Newfoundland at a university level and were part of St. John's international student community. Some participants had graduated and were working, others were full time students and worked part-time. These individuals had been living in NL for at least one year, with the longest being 11 years. The sample consists of 14 participants, 12 men and 2 women ranging in age from 19-30. All spoke Hindi or Urdu as their first language. The participants are multilingual, and had learned English by the time they were in secondary school.

4.3 Recruitment and Data Collection

Participants were recruited through posters placed in public areas of Memorial University of Newfoundland, student groups or through my personal networks. Following Labovian variationist data collection techniques (Labov 1981), participants were recorded in one-on-one interviews. These interviews were generally loosely structured in a conversational format and were as informal as possible to encourage casual speech styles. The interviews began with

elicitation sentences with the participant's consent and then I used conversation starters (Appendix B) to encourage conversation. I asked the participants to answer open-ended questions such as "Tell me about your first day in Newfoundland", "Tell me about a funny conversation or argument you have had recently", "Tell me about what it was like to first hear the NLE accent?" etc.

A list of elicitation sentences in stylized NLE containing the target vowels (KIT, LOT, STRUT) that are socio- phonetically different in NLE (compared to a continental standard English) was presented to the interviewees (Appendix A). These served to elicit speech under controlled styles (Labov 1972). Speakers were asked to read them with a "Newfoundland accent". The output of these readings serve as a baseline for a comparative analysis of the forms produced in the interview, and under narrative and quoted conditions. This elicitation task along with the data from the sociolinguistic interview allowed for an analysis of style-shifting across styles (narrative, quoted, NLE reading). Another benefit of using the elicitation sentences was to narrow the focus of analysis: I determined which features are subject to variation across the sentence styles and available for mimesis (Flege and Hammond 1982).

The duration of the recordings range from 22 minutes to 90 minutes, with an average of 39 minutes. Interviews were recorded using a 16 bit, 24kH sampling rate to ensure high quality audio recordings sufficient for acoustic analysis. To control for environmental effects and background noise (De Decker 2016) the interviews were conducted in a quiet office or library study room at Memorial University.

4.4 Social Network Scores

The information gained in the interview was used to calculate the strength of participants' social networks. For this, I used Milroy's Social Network Strength Scale (1987). Social networks for each participant were calculated along a five point scale, with 1 point given for each component: close kinship ties with NLers (partner, best friend), associating with NL classmates/co-workers after class or work, self reported number of NL friends, participation in local activities and clubs (sport teams, volunteer work), and NL focused study or work (studying NL history or culture, or providing medical care to NL outports). The first two items measure the multiplexity or quality of connections, whereas the other three measure the density, or number of areas of social ties in the network (Milroy 1987).

4.5 Statistical and Acoustic Analysis

4.5.1 Variable Rule Analysis of Quoted Verbs

Following the work of previous quotative researchers, all conversations obtained in this study were transcribed, quotatives extracted, and then coded for internal and external factors (Tagliamonte & Hudson 1999; Singler 2001;Tagliamonte & D'Arcy 2007). The coded tokens were analyzed in a quantitative, multivariate analysis using Rbrul software (Johnson 2009). Rbrul was chosen for the analysis due to its ability to fit mixed models and continuous variables, while also giving the user the option to report results using factor weights. This option makes comparing results to previous studies that used variable rule programs easier. The linguistic factor groups included were based on previous research such as: mimesis, grammatical person, tense and temporal reference and content of the quote. The social factors were age, first language and the identity of the quotee. This data explains how *be+like* patterns in this population of speakers

and forms the background for my research questions. Each of these data analysis processes are described in detail in Chapter 6.

4.5.2 Acoustic Analysis of Target Vowels

Following De Decker (2013), the mimetic content of the quoted dialogue attributed to Newfoundland English speakers is acoustically analyzed using PRAAT (Boersma & Weeknik 2014). I compare vowel quality and pitch measurements taken from elicitation speech, quoted speech and narrated non-quoted speech. This analysis is later detailed in Chapter 7.

4.6 Ethics

The personal data obtained from the participants included age, gender, hometown, language, and their length of time in NL. A number was assigned to ensure anonymity. After recording, the data was transcribed and all identifying information was omitted in the final transcripts. Ethics approval for this study was granted by ICEHR in under the Ref # 20200696-AR. The author completed the Tri-Council Policy Statement: Ethical Conduct for Research Involving Humans Course on Research Ethics (TCPS 2: CORE) in December 2018.

Chapter 5: Hypotheses

5.1 Hypotheses

As stated above, my examination of results is guided by the models of speakers' social network ties (Milroy 1987) and performance speech and identity (Schilling-Estes 1998). In summary, previous literature has demonstrated that those who shared the same social ties are more able to discern and employ local features, including those in migrant communities. In addition, it has been demonstrated that performance speech can be used to create voices and identities for quoted speakers.

Taking these models into consideration, I propose the following preliminary hypotheses:

1).Migrant speakers of English will use *be+ like* according to the constraints that govern Canadian/Newfoundland speakers

2). Migrant speakers' vowel quality (F1, F2) will be more similar to NLE when performing elicitation speech and quoted speech compared to narrative speech. There will also be a shift in F0 when performing elicitation and quoted speech compared to narrative speech. This would demonstrate they are creating "voices" or characters for those they are imitating.

3). I also hypothesize that the speakers who score high on the social network strength scale will be more likely to discern and employ NLE features for performance speech.

Chapter 6: Variable Rule Analysis of Quotative Verbs

6.1 Introduction

This section describes the methodology, variables, and results for the quotative verb analysis.

6.2 Identifying and Coding Quotative Verbs

In my analysis below I present the proportional use of various quotatives according to external and internal factors that are significant in the previous literature. The quoted sentences were first extracted from transcripts from each speaker and placed in a spreadsheet along with the coding for various factors. The rationale for coding and a description of each external and internal factor is presented below.

In order to determine the full context of *be+like* and how it is used in this community, I examine the quotative system in its entirety. All verbs used to introduce quotative speech were included in the analysis, following the Principle of Accountability (Labov 1972a 72, 94). Pitch, intonation and voicing changes were used to differentiate quotative speech from narrative speech. Large sections of quotative speech were treated as separate quotes if a change of narrator had clearly occurred, if not, the sentences were considered a single quote. I included tokens that referred to written materials such as text messages and posters, as per Tagliamonte & D'Arcy (2007).

While quotative verbs such as *say, tell*, etc, were relatively easy to identify and code, there are multiple forms of *be+like* that have different grammatical functions, as described in section 2.2. In order to distinguish between discourse markers/particles and quotative verbs, I identified any phrases with *be+like* that could be replaced with *so*, *well,* or the phrase *you know,* and they were discarded as acting as discourse markers (D'Arcy 2007), not quotative verbs.

In addition to traditional quotatives and *be+like,* I also included zero quotatives as tokens. Zero or "unframed" (Buchstaller 2004,1) quotatives are those with no attributed speaker or verb. They are often used in a storytelling format to mimic dialogue and turn taking between multiple speakers. Buchstaller (2004, 29) interprets zero quotatives as a variant without a "lexical signal" and argues that a balanced study requires these quotatives to be included.

6.2.1 Coding Internal Constraints

The following four internal constraints are described in detail below: content of the quote, mimesis, grammatical person, and tense.

The content of the quote has been coded and divided into three sections: direct speech, hypothetical speech and thought. These tokens were intuitively coded based on Buchstaller's "epistemic continuum" (2004, 52) and Tagliamonte and Hudson's (1999) guidelines, using prosodic clues and the context of the quote. As the sole interviewer and transcriber, I was aware of the full context of the quote. If the quote appeared to describe an internal state, feelings, or internal dialogue of narrator or characters, it was coded as internal dialogue. If it was dialogue that clearly was attributed to another or characters responded to in the story, it was coded as direct speech. Quotative speech that was not clearly on either end of this spectrum or ambiguous was coded as hypothetical.

Any quotes that had a voice effect, sound effect or gesture attached with them were coded as mimetic, following Buchstaller (2008). If the speaker used an impressionistically different voice in quoted speech than narrative speech, it was also coded as mimetic.

All possible grammatical persons were coded for, including 1st-3rd person, 3rd person plural, "indefinite" for pronouns such as *somebody* or *everybody*, and referential *it* for sentences like "*Its like, run away right now*!"

Referential *it* or 3rd person neuter *it* was included in the analysis due to D'Arcy (2004) finding that *be+like* favours referential *it* in St. John's Newfoundland English, which is where my data collection was based.

I coded for four tenses: past, future, present and historical present. A token was coded for historical present when an event that appeared to have taken place in the past is coded with present tense morphology.

6.2.2 Coding External Constraints

The following four external constraints are broken down below: language, age and gender and quotee.

Participants were evenly divided into two categories: younger (below 25) and older (over 25). The speakers range from 19-30 years old, with an overall mean of 24 (3.73). The young group had a mean of 24 (1.24) and the older group had a mean of 27 (1.35).

The two languages I coded for are Hindi and Urdu. Most participants indicated that they spoke multiple languages (example: Urdu, English, Arabic), however they all stated that either Hindi or Urdu was their first language, and other languages were learned in school. English proficiency level varied by speaker, with some speakers more fluent than others, despite all having English taught in primary school. All participants were currently enrolled at Memorial University of Newfoundland, which requires an International English Language Testing System (IELTS) overall score of "competent" or 6.5 in order to be accepted. I did not include any scales measuring L2, as fluency is difficult to measure reliably. Most L2 assessment requires some form of self reported fluency and participants often over/under estimate their knowledge of a language (Drummond 2012). Therefore, L1 only was selected as a variable for this study.

Due to the relatively small number of female participants, I was unable to analyze gender differences of *be+like* use in this community. Therefore, gender was not selected as a variable to study, and all results should be interpreted in the context of uneven sample size, as 85% of participants were male.

The factor of quotee is underrepresented in previous studies, as most are concerned with "what" people are quoting, rather than "who". I am interested in finding out what sections of the population are quoted in narratives. I divided the individuals who were quoted into four categories: Newfoundlanders, South Asians, Unknown, Other. I used the term South Asian to refer to the participants, their families, and those who they refer to specifically as identifying as Pakistani, Indian, Bangladeshi and Kashmiri. Unknown are those who are not identified, and Other was all other nationalities, these included Canadians, Americans, and Germans, and French. I also divided quotees according to profession or the role in which the narrator interacted with them, such as family, customer, co-worker, or authority figure such a professor, or doctor.

6.3 Quotative Verbs: Overview of Corpora

We have now arrived at Table 3, which displays the total number and percentage of each quotative verb in the dataset.

Table 4: Breakdown of Quotative Verbs

Quotative Verb	#	**%**
be+like	239	39
say	166	27
zero	102	17
tell	40	7
ask	27	4
other	21	3
think	10	2
okay	3	<1
go	1	<1
Total	**609**	**100**

As this table shows *be+like* is the most favoured variant, followed by *say*, then the *zero* quotative. These three make up over 80% of all quotative verbs used. The other category contains verbs that have less than 10 tokens, some examples include: *called, replied, wonder, realize* and *shout*. *Go* and *okay* were included in the table and not consolidated in the other column as they were previously considered quotatives of interest in American English, Canadian English and British English, while *okay* was found to be a particular innovation in IndE (Davydova 2015). Although *okay* is present in the data, it is only used by a single speaker. There are a number of other innovative verbs mentioned by Davydova (2015) in her research such as *ki*, and t*hat+discourse marker,* but these were not found in my data. Please note that in all following tables, *okay* and *go* will be included in the "other" category, due to the small number of tokens.

An interesting note is the percentage of *zero* quotatives in the total data set. A number of studies estimate the proportion of *zero* quotatives as remaining stable at 18% in Canada

(Tagliamonte and Hudson 1999; D'Arcy 2004, Tagliamonte & D'Arcy 2004) which is similar to my data at 17%.

Figure 1: Quotative Verbs Distributed by Speaker

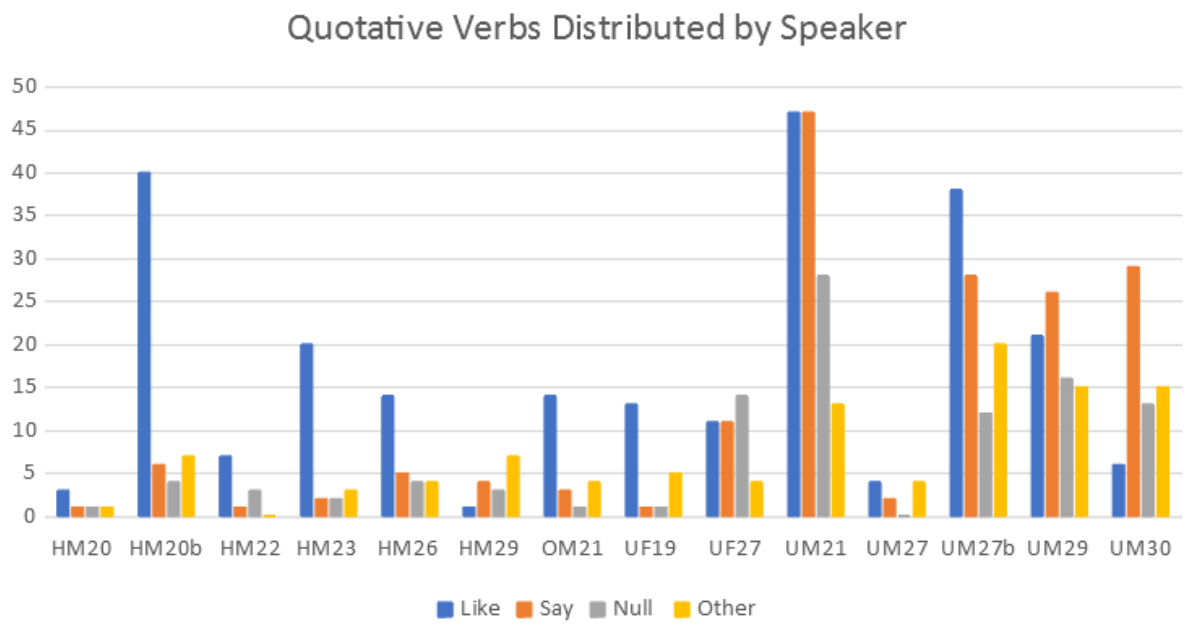


Figure 1 breaks down the type and number of quotative verbs used by each of the 14 speakers. The speaker codes display the social information agreed upon by the participants. For example in the code HM29, the H stands for their first language (either Hindi or Urdu), the second letter M to their gender identity, in this case male, and the number refers to the participants age. The single O in speaker OM21 refers to someone whose first language was Urdu, but asked to be identified as neither.[2] This table displays the wide variation present in the dataset, as well as personal style, as some speakers used quotation, while others utilized quotation at a much lower rate. It also

2. This person grew up in Kashmir and spoke English at home due to the political associations of Urdu (Pakistan) and Hindi (India). English was considered a neutral language. At this time, interviews were done during the Kashmir crisis in 2019-2020, and he was very specific about his language identification.

displays which quotative variants the speakers chose to implement. Despite variation in the frequency of quotative behavior, all but 4 speakers used *be+like* more often than any other quotative.

Table 5: Internal Constraints on All Quotative Verbs

	LIKE	***SAY***	***ZERO***	***OTHER***	***Total #***	***Total %***
Mimesis						
Yes	217	138	95	79	529	87
No	22	28	7	23	80	13
					609	**100**
Grammatical Person						
1st	132	64	39	54	289	47
2nd	6	4	4	4	18	3
3rd	45	83	25	20	173	28
3rd Person Plural	26	15	13	20	74	12
Referential "It"	15	0	0	0	15	3
Zero	15	0	21	4	40	7
					609	**100**
Content of Quote						
Direct Speech	135	130	51	71	387	63
Internal Dialogue	74	4	25	12	115	19
Hypothetical	30	32	26	19	107	18
					609	**100**
Tense						
Historical Present	88	24	36	35	183	30
Present	2	7	3	5	17	3
Past	131	129	43	58	361	59
Future	4	6	6	4	20	3
Zero	14	0	14	0	28	5
Totals	*239*	*166*	*102*	*102*	*609*	*100*

For full transparency, this table displays the raw data for the top three quotative verbs, plus the "other" category. This shows the number of tokens for each of the internal constraints studied,

what each level contains, and what categories were coded for. This shows that when quoting, regardless of quotative choice, these individuals use mimesis, prefer to quote themselves, and tend to quote direct speech in describing what happened in the past.

Moving on, we will now examine the external factors that affect the use of quotative verbs by our sample of migrant speakers of English.

Figure 2: Nationality of Quotee

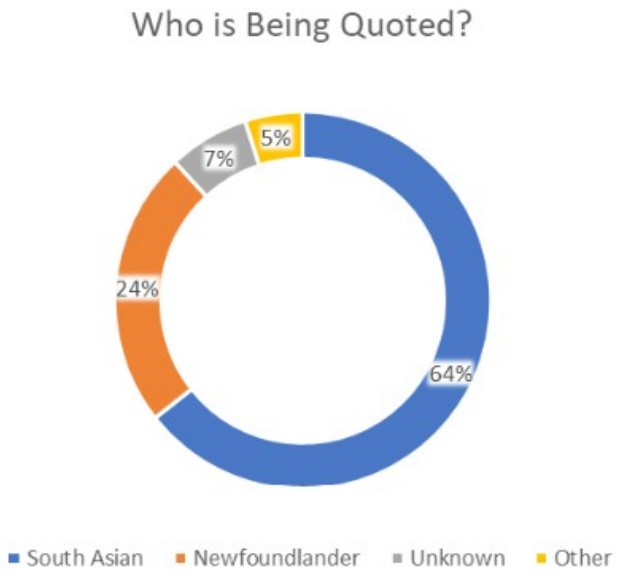


Figure 2 shows that the majority of quotes produced in this corpus are quotes from South Asian speakers. This is not surprising due to the large number of quoted tokens for "self". Many quotes involve re-constructing what was said, and the narrator can add their thoughts and feelings about the event, whether they were present or not Sams (2010). Newfoundlanders are also represented, but are a much smaller percentage. The remaining 12% are those whose nationalities are unknown, or other.

Table 6: Identity of Quotee

Identity	#	%
Self	319	52.7
Friends	67	11.1
Local Character	59	9.8
Authority Figures	31	4.5
Co-worker	25	4.1
Family	23	3.8
Retail Worker	22	3.6
Neighbor	17	2.8
Customer	12	2
Actor	11	1.8
	609	100

As discussed above, the identity of who is quoted include those you would expect: themselves, friends and family. Authority figures are individuals such priests, doctors, immigration officers, or professors. Retail workers are those who the participant has shared an experience with, such as a cashier. As many of my participants worked in the service industry, I included a "customer" category as well. "Other" is often non-speech events, such as text messages, documents or online posts that were quoted.

A point of interest is the addition and number of "local character" tokens, which is a local Newfoundlander that the person has met on the street, in a restaurant, or someone who has offered assistance. These are almost always present in the participants' narratives and seem to encapsulate what these students view as a positive "typical" Newfoundlander. For example, participants have described interactions with strangers who gave them directions or advice,

people in the grocery line who invited them to tea, individuals who they often meet in downtown St. Johns, and taxi drivers who were their first contact after arriving to Newfoundland. These people are usually represented as friendly, kind and helpful, and are often performed using lexical items associated with NLE, such as *buddy*, *b'y*, and *ducky.*

It could be argued that choosing to place a character in their narrative, voicing the character and giving particular dialogue could be a way of sharing an opinion of the community they are a new part of, without explicitly doing so.

Another way of sharing experiences is by "recursive quotation" (Buchstaller 2014, 45), which is quoting quoted speech by someone else. For example, two participants chose to share quotes from stand-up comedians quoting others to express their experience of moving to Canada as shown in (a) below:

a. He was like, "I was talking to Greg the other day, and he was like 'Where the hell did you crawl out of?'"

This could be a way of expressing themselves and their complicated feelings about Canadian culture and cultural adaptation by using other's opinions and words, while keeping two steps removed. Alphen and Buchstaller (2012) proposes that by using quoted speech, the listener hears the story through the voices of the characters, which allows the narrator to remove themselves from the narrative. This assists in protecting the narrator from possible critique and gives them extra safeguards when discussing sensitive topics. By using recursive quotation when telling these stories my participants can make a point about their experiences without directly sharing the details, explicitly claiming certain positions, or possibly offending the interviewer.

6.4 Multivariate Analysis of Internal Constraints

Now that we have examined the corpora and determined which verbs are present in the data set, the constraints involved, and who are being quoted, I will move on to statistical analysis.

The data was analyzed using Rbrul (Johnson 2009), which is a program specifically designed for linguistics to use with the software R (R Core Team 2020). This program provides multiple logistic regression analysis, which is ideal for my data, as I have multiple factors that need to be analyzed together. Once tokens were re-coded and omitted, these decisions brought down the total number of tokens from 609 to 539 tokens for mixed-model analysis. Stepwise regression was performed with "speaker" as a random fixed effect, as my participants produced an uneven number of tokens. The application value was *be+like* and the non-application value was all other verbs combined. Internal constraints and external constraints were not combined together as dependent variables in the same run, but separated into different runs.

Before getting to the details of my statistical analysis, a few notes about the format of the table is needed. The total number is the number of both the application and non-application value combined. Percentage is the percentage of the application value in the category. For example in Table 6, *be+like* makes up 41% of all "yes" tokens in the mimesis category. The input value is the probability that the dependent variable will be chosen again in the same context. Factor weight is a number that shows the relationship between a factor (such as grammatical person) and the dependent variable (*be+like* in Table 6). This value can range from 0-1.00, if the relationship is 1.00, it is considered a "knockout". A knockout is a situation where there is no variation, the factor is related to the dependent variable 0% or 100%. When knockouts occur, the factors either have to be omitted or re-coded.

Due to knockouts and minimal data, the following categories were either omitted or recoded for the final analysis:

-*Zero* quotatives proved to be problematic, as many had to be omitted (53) due to knockouts, as they mostly occurred with "zero" grammatical person and tense.

-Referential *it* was coded as 3rd person, indefinite was coded as 3rd person plural, 2nd and null person were omitted due to lack of tokens

-Tokens without an obvious tense were removed

-Verbs with token count less than 10 were combined under "other" category.

A value above 0.5 is interpreted as a positive association between the factor and the dependent variable. The standard deviation for the random fixed effects displays how well the data fits the given model.

Below are the final results for *be+like, say* and *zero* in table form. Each verb has a table showing the external constraints and a table with the internal constraints. The internal constraints are discussed first below.

Table 7: Internal Factors Conditioning “Be +Like”

Input 0.228	**Factor Weight**	**Total N (539) Like N (212)**	**%**
Significant Mixed Effects			
MIMESIS (P =.006)			
Yes	**.60**	191	41
No	**.39**	21	28
Range	**21**		
TENSE (P =.002)			
Historical Present	**.76**	77	50
Past	**.66**	131	37
Future	**.39**	2	13
Present	**.19**	2	13
Range	**57**		
CONTENT OF QUOTE (P<.001)			
Internal Speech	**.70**	71	69
Unknown	**.60**	5	42
Direct Speech	**.40**	122	34
Hypothetical	**.32**	14	21
Range	**38**		
Not Selected			
GRAMMATICAL PERSON			
Random Effects			
SPEAKER	**STANDARD DEVIATION**	**1.003**	**N=14**

Moving on to results, mimesis was chosen as the most significant constraint. Buchstaller (2014, 102) argues that mimesis appears to be “the most consistent constraint among the English speaking world”, and my results align with many other studies where mimesis is taken into account, such as (Romaine & Lange 1991; Singler 2001; Buchstaller & D’Arcy 2009;

Bressendorff 2012; Davydova & Buchstaller 2015). The number of mimetic tokens varied among participants, with some using it along with non-verbal sound and physical gestures, while others did not utilize mimesis at all. It is possible it is a stylistic choice, as well as indication of being comfortable with the interviewer. This result could also be explained by the high number of internal dialogue tokens, which often differs in voicing to distinguish it from the surrounding narrative. Overall, it appears that mimesis is an indicator of quoted speech for this community, which is consistent with the global English system.

Historical present is the constraint chosen for tense. This is consistent with previous studies that argue that when historical present is coded and analyzed separately from present tense, it is associated with *be+like*. These studies include Newfoundland English (D'Arcy 2004) and Indian English (Davydova 2015). Wolfson (1989) notes that historical present use is also tied to performed narrative that includes gestures and sound. As *be+like* is associated with mimetic use as described above, it follows that the historical present would be selected for tense. In addition, *be+like* makes up 50% of all historical present use. Past tense appears to condition selection of *be+like* as well for my participants. Past is not as common as historical present in the literature, but is selected in some varieties, such as Scottish English (Macaulay 2001), Irish English (Diskin and Levey 2019) and AAVE (Kohn and Franz 2009).

The content of the quote shows that *be+like* has been adopted as a quotative to express inner dialogue, and appears to have taken the space traditionally occupied by *think*. In my data *be+like* makes up 69% of all internal dialogue tokens, while *think* is only 9%. It also has been found to be a globally consistent constraint (Alphen and Buchstaller 2012) for *be+like*. Grammatical person has been selected as non-significant, which is unusual, as it has been selected in majority of studies, and it is one of the constraints that Tagliamonte and D'Arcy (2007) argue is adapted globally. I return to discuss this in the summary in section 6.6.

When reviewing previous literature, it was unclear whether the tokens in other studies were broken down into 3rd person singular and 3 person plural, or they are combined in the final analyses. In my data, there was no methodological reason to combine them, so they stayed separate categories in my analysis.

In her study of Newfoundland English, D'Arcy (2004) found that grammatical person was not a significant constraint in the speech of adolescent females. However, there was a high amount of 3rd person referential "it". Out of 184 tokens, 64% were *be+like*, with *it+be +like* comprising 8.2%. D'Arcy argues that this is significantly higher than many other studies previously. Comparing it to my data, out of 607 tokens, 39% were *be+like* and 6% of those were *it+be+ like,* and grammatical person was not significant. This could be indicative of participants picking up constraints of St. John's quotative system, a point I elaborate on in section 6.6.

Buchstaller & D'Arcy (2009)suggest that the grammatical person constraint may be "levelling out", meaning that the use of *be+like* is spreading from the 3rd person to 1st person. Tagliamonte & D'Arcy (2007) note that speakers use *be+like* to quote themselves and it is possible that the person effect is leveling in Canadian English. It could be that *be+like* is a relatively late-comer to South Asian Englishes, and so it arrives in the country with the levelling effect already in place. When examining my raw data, for example, 1st person was pretty evenly spread out among the quotative variants, ranging from 40-52% of all quotatives are 1st person.

Another possibility for this result is that for certain individuals, determining which variant is associated with which grammatical person is difficult to discern due to language learning. Meyerhoff and Schleef (2014) argue that the syntactic-discourse interface may be more difficult to acquire by second language speakers, which can lead to a high number of zero quotatives, and subsequent zero tense and zero grammatical person in L2 learner's lexicon. L2 learners can use

this as a “workaround” when the grammatical constraints or discourse rules surrounding quotative verbs are confusing or out of reach.

However, most of my speakers have learned English at an early age and pursuing higher education in English, which means this could be a constraint that my participants’ community has chosen not to adopt, but instead use the other constraints such as mimesis and tense.

We now turn to *say* in the following table:

Table 8: Internal Constraints Conditioning “Say”

Input 0.176	**Factor Weight**	**Total N (539) Say N (162)**	**%**
Significant Mixed Effects			
GRAMMATICAL PERSON (P<.001)			
3rd	**.65**	83	45
1st	**.48**	64	23
3rd Plural	**.38**	15	21
Range	**27**		
TENSE (P<.001)			
Present	**.60**	5	33
Future	**.58**	6	40
Past	**.56**	128	36
Historical Present	**.28**	23	15
Range	**32**		
CONTENT OF QUOTE (P<.001)			
Hypothetical	**.76**	25	38
Direct Speech	**.65**	130	36
Unknown	**.49**	3	25
Internal Speech	**.15**	4	4
Range	**61**		
Not Selected			
MIMESIS			
Random Effects			
SPEAKER	**STANDARD DEVIATION**	**0.503**	**N=14**

These results are not as conclusive as *be+like* due to the significant factors having fewer numbers of tokens.

The tense selected for *say* is present and future tense, however, the low number of tokens prevents me from reaching a clear conclusion. There are examples of *would+ say* which demonstrate the use of future tense, as well as the hypothetical content. These quotes "predict" what they think the character would say if they met in the future, or were part of a future event or conversation.

Hypothetical content is selected by *say*, which is content that was unclear whether it was quoting direct speech or internal dialogue. The hypothetical can be used for both *be+like* and *say.* This leads to a purposeful ambiguity, where the speakers avoid committing to whether the quote was actually uttered aloud. An example of this is shown in (a) below:

a. I just say, "Hold on, what was that thing?"

The fact that a traditional verb such as *say* is associated with hypothetical content reiterates the difficulty of peeling apart and differentiating between internal dialogue and direct reported speech. It could be that *say* is moving into more ambiguous areas, rather than just indicating direct speech for these speakers.

Say is associated with the 3rd person, which has been noted in British English (Tagliamonte & Hudson 1999), Irish English (Diskin & Levey 2019), Australian English (Winters 2002) and New Zealand English (Baird 2001).

Mimesis was not selected, which is consistent with the few studies that have explored mimesis and *say* (Buchstaller & D'Arcy 2009; D'Arcy 2010). It appears that this community reserves mimesis for *be+like,* similar to other global systems.

We now turn to *zero* in my analysis:

Table 9: Internal Constraints Conditioning "Zero"

Input 0.017	**Factor Weight**	**Total N (539) Zero N (71)**	**%**
Significant Mixed Effects			
TENSE (P =.02) Future Present Historical Present Past Range	 **.71** **.53** **.44** **.31** **40**	 6 3 24 38	 40 20 16 11
Not Selected			
GRAMMATICAL PERSON MIMESIS CONTENT OF QUOTE			
Random Effects			
SPEAKER	**STANDARD DEVIATION**	**0.566**	**N=14**

The only category selected for *zero* is tense. Future tense has been selected as significant, and this is usually the term "would", used in sentences like *I would.* However, as this category only has six tokens, these results should be taken cautiously.

Grammatical person is once again not selected as significant. Davydova (2015) also had a high number of *zero* coded grammatical person in her Indian English data. She notes that Indian English is a pro-drop variety, and the deletion of subject is permitted. As I have both Indian and Pakistani English speakers as participants, this could also explain the reluctance to adopt grammatical person as a constraint. Content of the quote and mimesis were also not selected, however, there were also a high number of *zero* tokens that had to be removed from final Rbrul runs, which could explain this result.

6.5 Multivariate Analysis of External Constraints

The next section discusses the external factors that condition the three common quotative verbs in my dataset. These external factors include language, age, and quotee.

Table 10: External Constraints Conditioning "Be+Like"

Input 0.311	**Factor Weight**	**Total N (539) Like N (212)**	**%**
Significant Mixed Effects			
AGE (P =.002) Under 25 Over 25 Range	 **.69** **.31** **38**	 131 81	 53 28
QUOTEE (P =.008) South Asian Newfoundlander Unknown Other Range	 **.66** **.58** **.47** **.30** **36**	 159 42 7 4	 46 32 22 15
Not Selected			
LANGUAGE			
Random Effects			
SPEAKER	**STANDARD DEVIATION**	**0.866**	**N=14**

The most notable finding in the table above is the factor of age. The youngest speakers use more *be+ like*, with those under 25 making up over half of the *be+like* tokens.

When it comes to quotee identification, they use *be+like* to quote those that are from similar cultural groups to themselves, and *say* to quote others. Most quotes using *be+like* are South Asian, and used to quote characters that narrators identify as belonging to this group. As Figure 2 shows, the majority of quotes come from this population, as people tend to quote themselves, friends and family. This result could also be explained by the high number of quoted tokens for "self", as displayed in Table 6. Many quotes involve re-constructing what was said, and the narrator can add their thoughts and feelings about the event, whether they were present or not Sams (2010). As shown in Table 7, "be+like" is associated with internal dialogue in this population, so it is possible that this result is prompted by large numbers of self-quoting participants using "be+like" for internal dialogue.

Whether a person speaks English influenced by either Urdu or Hindi does not seem to condition the use of *be+like,* as the language difference was not selected as significant. The similarities between both Hindi and Urdu as well as IndE and PakE could account for this. However, as noted in section 6.6.2 the token distribution for this factor is very uneven, so even if it was selected as significant, results would be inconclusive.

Table 11: External Constraints Conditioning "Say"

Input **0.275**	**Factor Weight**	**Total N (539)** **Say N (162)**	**%**
Significant Mixed Effects			
QUOTEE (P =.007) Other Newfoundlander Unknown South Asian Range	 **.70** **.53** **.49** **.25** **55**	 13 53 11 85	 50 40 34 24
Not Selected			
AGE LANGUAGE			
Random Effects			
SPEAKER	**STANDARD DEVIATION**	**0.401**	**N=14**

As with *be+like*, the category of quote was selected as significant. *Say* is used most often with the "other" category. This is also a category that usually does not have mimetic content. I would argue that in order to perform mimesis, the individual needs to have an opinion or strong feelings about the interaction to perform it. You also have to be comfortable and confident that your listener will be able to understand and interpret the prosodic cues to use to index correctly. It

is possible that for these interactions, this shared knowledge or opinions were not perceived to be present.

Age was not selected for *say*. While *say* is more popular with the above 25 year olds, it is still only 36% of all quotative verb tokens. With *be+like* making up 25%, and other quotatives the remaining 40%, it is clear that older speakers use a wider range of quotatives than their younger counterparts, which could explain why *say* itself was not selected.

As mentioned above, the fact that language was not found to be significant is not surprising, due to similarities between the two languages and the uneven distribution of tokens.

Table 12*:* External Factors Conditioning "Zero"

Input **0.02**	**Factor Weight**	**Total N (539) Zero (71)**	**%**
Significant Mixed Effects			
QUOTEE (P =.004) Newfoundlander South Asian Other Unknown Range	 **.98** **.98** **.90** **N/A** **8**	 23 46 2	 17 13 8
Not Selected			
LANGUAGE AGE			
Random Effects			
SPEAKER	**STANDARD DEVIATION**	**0.443**	**N=14**

The only factor selected as significant for *zero* quotatives was that of quotee. In my data, Newfoundlanders are quoted using *zero* quotatives. Many participants used highly identifiable,

almost stereotypical Newfoundland English when quoting, such as *whaddya at* or *b'y.* It was obvious from their lexical choices that they were quoting someone other than themselves, and by using these indexed lexical items, they assumed I would recognize the identity of the speaker as well. By using this type of language, there was no need to use an explicit quotative verb to indicate change of character, or injection of their own thought or opinion. The quotee category "unknown" was omitted from the analysis, as none occurred with *zero* verb.

6.6 Quotative Verb Analysis: Summary of Findings

My hypothesis at the beginning of this thesis was that migrant speakers of English will use *be+ like* according to the constraints that govern Canadian/Newfoundland speakers. This is partially confirmed, as my speakers appear to have acquired a combination of constraints that are similar to Newfoundland English and Indian English.

I found that *be+like* is a robust part of our migrant speakers' quotative system, as it is in Canadian English (Tagliamonte & Hudson 1999; D'Arcy 2004; Tagliamonte & D'Arcy 2007). It was the most common quotative verb, followed by *say* and *zero*. In general, the constraints that condition *be+like* are ones recognized as global constraints, such as mimesis, historical present tense, internal dialogue, and age.

This community quoted themselves, family and friends the most often, but made an effort to quote "local characters". These portrayals of positive "typical" Newfoundlanders could be a way of sharing an opinion of the community they are a new part of, without explicitly doing so.

What makes this group unique is the lack of a grammatical person constraint on quotative *be + like*. This could be attributed to a single or combination of three things:

1). The fact that pro-drop subjects are permitted in IndE and PakE

2). The speakers are adopting constraints that are active in Newfoundland English. D'Arcy (2004) found grammatical person to be non-significant in her study of females living in St. Johns, NL.

3). It is difficult for some L2 learners to acquire constraints that interact with the syntactic-prosodic interface.

The table below compares my community of speakers with the female Newfoundland speakers from D'Arcy's (2004) study and Indian English speakers from Davydova's (2015) study.

Table 13: Comparison of Constraints Conditioning "Be+Like"

Comparison of Constraint Findings						
		Person	Tense	Content	Mimesis	Gender
D'Arcy	2004	Not Significant	HP	Direct Speech	N/A	N/A
Davydova	2015	1st & 3rd	N/A	Inner Dialogue	N/A	Female
My Data	2020	Not Significant	HP	Inner Dialogue	Yes	N/A

As both my data set and D'Arcy's (2004) data set are quite small, any conclusions are not definitive.

However, it appears that the migrant speakers have acquired a combination of constraints that are similar to Newfoundland English and Indian English. A larger study with more tokens and an equal number of male and female participants would be needed to see if these results are replicable.

Chapter 7: Acoustic Analysis of Mimetic Behaviour

7.1 Introduction

In this section, I describe the acoustic analysis of my data, and detail the methodology, data extraction, statistical analysis and demographic factors of my participants. This chapter of my thesis examines the acoustic properties of the vowels KIT, LOT, and STRUT. I examined them in three separate environments: elicitation sentences containing stylized NLE, spontaneous quoted speech and spontaneous narrative speech. My hypothesis is that IndE and PakE speakers will shift F0, F1, or F2 of these vowels in these different environments. When producing vowels in elicitation sentences, I expect the formant values to be closer to NLE than their regular speech, and that speakers with a higher social network score (SNS) will be able to use these vowels for performance speech.

7.2 Methods and Variables Examined

Each speaker was analyzed, with their target vowels extracted, measured and placed in a spreadsheet. Pitch, intonation and voicing changes were used to differentiate quotative speech from narrative speech. Large sections of quotative speech were treated as separate quotes if a change of narrator had clearly occurred, if not, the sentences were considered a single quote.

When extracting vowels in all environments, functional words were avoided. The elicitation sentences were designed to have 8 instances of each target vowel, however due to mispronunciation, poor audio quality, repetition or omissions, some speakers have slightly more or less. 11 out of the 14 participants performed the elicitation sentences. The remaining 3 refused to read the elicitation sentences, stating they were uncomfortable. This is discussed further in section 8.2. All instances of target vowel in elicitation speech and quoted speech that were clear and able to be analyzed were extracted. As for narrative speech, 25 tokens of each vowel were

extracted. Only vowels in syllables that had the main stress were included. Any words that were stuttered, or overlapped with interviewer's speech were omitted. I included function words if they were not reduced due to sentence position and I also included some repeated words.

A script in PRAAT was used to determine the 25%, 50% and 75% points of duration of the vowel. For the purpose of the following analysis, measurements at the 50% point of duration were used. Formant measurements were then taken manually at this point using PRAAT's LPC and formant tracking markers. All data was then transferred into an excel file.

7.3 Statistical Analysis

To test whether there is statistical relevance in vowel quality between the three environments, I applied Kruskal-Wallis H tests, with post-hoc pairwise Mann-Whitney tests with Bonferroni correction. These tests are rank-based non-parametric tests that are used to compare two independent samples from a single source to determine whether there is a difference in population mean ranks.

These tests were selected instead of t-test and ANOVA because my sample size was small and I couldn't assume normality of distribution. In addition, these tests account for outliers, which can skew the results of very small data sets.

7.4 Vowels: Overview of Corpora

The overall number of tokens for each vowel and each environment is displayed in the following table:

Table 14: Total Number of Tokens

Vowel	HM26	HM22	HM23	HM20	HM20b	HM29	UM21	UM27	UM29	UM30	UF19	UF27	UM27b	OM21
	ES	**ES**	**ES**	**ES**	**ES**	**ES**	**ES**	**ES**	**ES**	**ES**	**ES**	**ES**	**ES**	**ES**
KIT	7	0	7	8	7	0	6	0	7	6	7	7	0	7
LOT	7	0	7	7	7	0	7	0	7	6	7	7	0	7
STRUT	8	0	7	8	8	0	9	0	8	9	8	8	0	8
	NS	**NS**	**NS**	**NS**	**NS**	**NS**	**NS**	**NS**	**NS**	**NS**	**NS**	**NS**	**NS**	**NS**
KIT	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25
LOT	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25
STRUT	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25
	QS	**QS**	**QS**	**QS**	**QS**	**QS**	**QS**	**QS**	**QS**	**QS**	**QS**	**QS**	**QS**	**QS**
KIT	8	5	4	4	12	3	15	7	14	12	5	5	22	6
LOT	6	1	4	1	10	3	24	3	13	16	10	13	12	11
STRUT	10	6	5	1	13	8	19	4	11	17	9	11	16	8
Total	**121**	**87**	**109**	**104**	**132**	**89**	**155**	**89**	**135**	**141**	**121**	**126**	**125**	**122**
Total #	**1656**													

The ES column displays tokens from elicitation speech, the QS column is quoted speech, and NS are tokens from narrative speech. The totals for each speaker is shown at the bottom of the table. The table shows the variation among speakers, with some speakers producing many more vowels in quoted environments than others. As noted, there are several speakers that did not produce the elicitation sentences, so their analysis is restricted to quoted versus narrative speech.

7.4.1 External Factors

The social factors examined in the following analysis are length of residence in NL and social network scores. As mentioned previously, the length of residence is the length of time that the participant has been in NL, with the minimum being 1 year, and maximum 9 years.

The social network score is described in detail in section 3.2. In the table below it is represented by a single number (Total Score), from 1-5 that describes the individual's connection to the St. John's community.

Table 15: SNS Overview

Participant Code	Kinship Ties	Workmate Association	NL Friend Group	Local Activities and Clubs	NL Focused Work	Total Score
HM20	0	1	0	0	0	1
HM26	0	1	1	0	0	2
HM23	0	1	1	0	1	3
UF27	0	1	0	1	1	3
UM29	1	1	1	1	1	5
UM30	0	1	1	1	1	4
HM22	0	0	0	1	0	1
UF19	0	1	1	0	0	2
UM27	0	0	0	0	1	1
UM21	0	1	1	1	0	3
OM21	1	1	1	0	0	3
HM20b	0	1	1	1	1	4
HM29	0	1	0	0	0	1
UM27b	1	0	1	0	1	3

If a participant was given a point for kinship ties, they had a partner or best friend that was from Newfoundland. Workmate association indicated that they had relationships with NL co-workers outside of work, and a point for NL focused work meant that they worked for a local company (such as an offshore company) or their studies or research was focused on NL history, culture or economics. The participant was also given a point if they had a friend group that included Newfoundlanders. Finally, if they were part of local activities such as the NL theatre scene, planning for local events, or part of a local sports team, a point was given.

A table displaying all social factors is given below.

Table 16: Social Factors

Code	Social Network Score	Length of Time in NL
HM20	1	1
HM20b	4	1.2
HM22	1	1
HM23	3	1
HM26	3	1
HM29	1	2.5
UF19	2	1.2
UF27	3	10.11
UM21	3	1.5
UM27	1	1.1
UM27b	3	1.5
UM29	5	3.11
UM30	4	9
OM21	3	1.1

As noted in section 6.3, the letters and numbers in speaker code stand for language, gender, and age. The second column contains the SNS, the third the length of time in Newfoundland in years and months.

In the following sections, I will describe the acoustic analysis results for each of the target vowels; KIT, LOT and STRUT. For each of the vowels, I will examine the statistically significant shifts in F0, F1 and F2 dimensions. An overview of these formant measurements of these target vowels were provided in Canadian English (Hagiwara 2006), Newfoundland English (Hofmann 2015), RP (Henton 1983, Indian English (Phull & Kumar 2016) and Pakistani English (Hafiz, Bilal, Abbas, et al. 2011b; Hafiz, Bilal, Mahmood, et al. 2011a) and presented in section 2.6. A quick review of these values are presented in Table 17 below:

Table 17: Formant Values of Target Vowels

	KIT		**LOT**		**STRUT**	
	F1	F2	F1	F2	F1	F2
CanE	370	2090	560	820	680	1310
NLE	425	2000	780	1250	725	1400
IndE	400	2010	550	1100	525	1250
PakE	425	2030	520	1050	625	1470

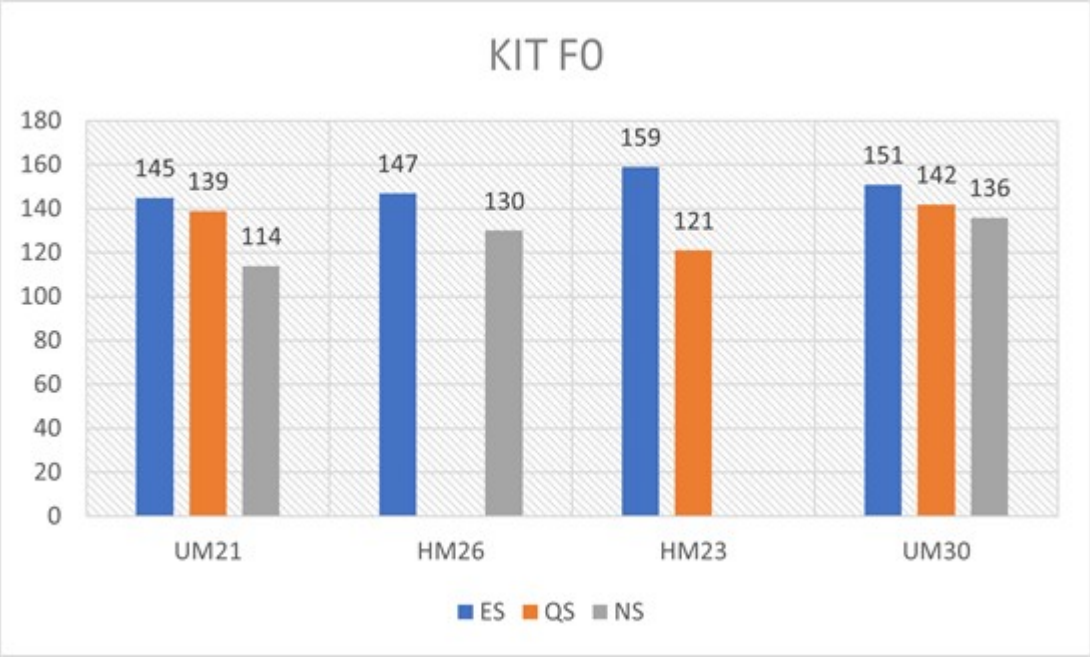
7.5 Acoustic Analysis Results

In this section, the acoustic results for the vowels KIT, LOT, and STRUT for each speaker are examined in three dimensions: F0, F1, and F2. The significant results are displayed in the figures below.

7.5.1 KIT

The first vowel I will be examining is KIT. In NLE, KIT tends to be tensed and raised, particularly in the St. John's area. The first dimension I examined was F0, and measurements were compared for the three environments: elicitation speech (ES), quoted speech (QS) and narrative speech (NS). Significant results are shown in Hz in Figure 3 below.

Figure 3: F0 Measurements of KIT



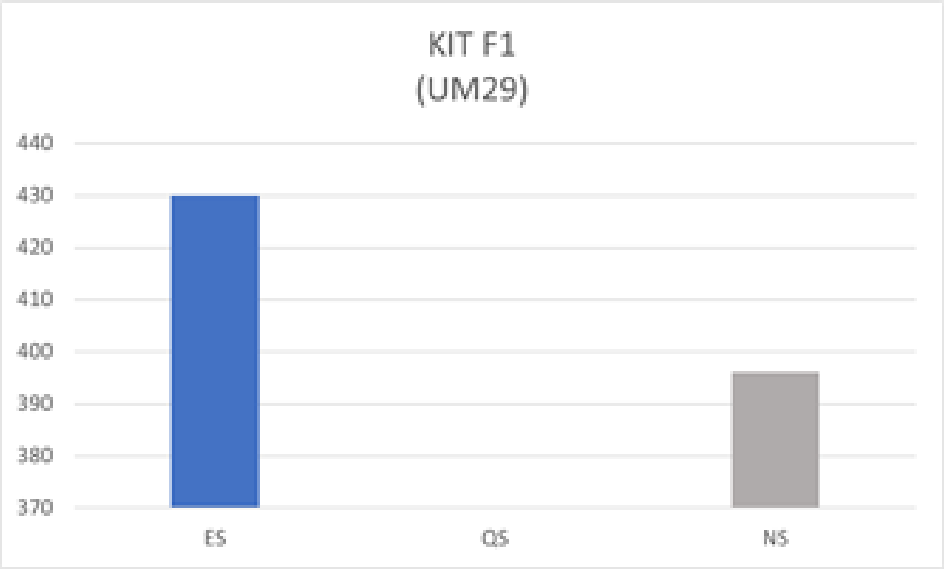
Four speakers shifted KIT F0 in the three environments in ways that were statistically significant. UM21 raised his pitch ($H = 17.568$, $p < 0.001$) in QS (, $p < 0.001$) and even higher in ES

(p<0.001). A similar pattern occurs with UM30 (H = 15.382, p <0.001) with QS (p = 0.005) and ES (p= 0.0249) being significantly higher than narrative speech.

HM26 and HM23 showed slightly different patterns, only raising F0 in elicitation speech. HM26 (H =7.2714, p = 0.02637) raised F0 in ES tokens vs NS tokens (p = 0.005). HM23 (H =8.2215, p = 0.0164) raised F0 in ES tokens vs QS tokens (p = 0.009)

In conclusion, KIT vowels pronounced while performing NLE in elicitation sentences tend to be pronounced in a higher pitch, while some speakers also raise their pitch in quoted speech.

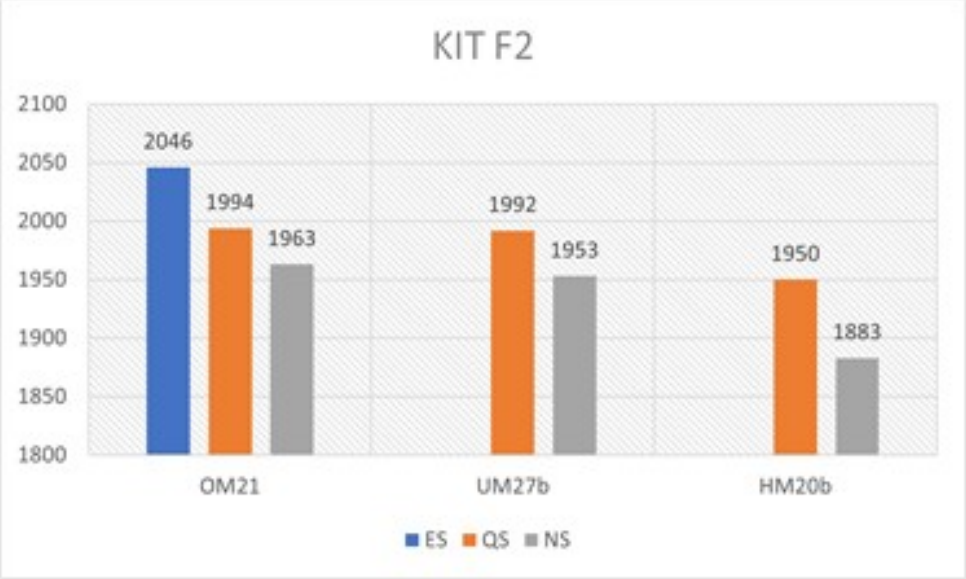
Figure 4: F1 Measurements of KIT



Only one speaker, UM29 significantly shifted KIT F1 in my dataset (H =7.3521, p =0.02532). Compared with his narrative speech tokens, KIT is lowered in ES (p=0.01). Elicitation speech consists of the sentences that the researcher asked the participant to perform in NLE. This lowering of about 34 Hz is consistent with the difference between the formant values of some

dialects of South Asian English compared to Newfoundland English. It is interesting that this participant lowered KIT, which is more common on the Southwestern coast of Newfoundland.

Figure 5: F2 Measurement of KIT



This table displays the three speakers who practised significant KIT fronting in their quoted or elicited speech.

OM21 ($H = 15.985$, $p < 0.001$) fronted KIT in both QS ($P = 0.03$) and ES ($p < 0.001$). The other two speakers shifted F2 in quoted vs narrative speech. UM27b fronted tokens in QS vs NS ($H = 3.9316$, $p = 0.03$). He did not perform elicitation speech, so these could not be tested. HM20b ($H = 9.5769$, $p = 0.008325$) also fronted KIT in QS vs NS ($p = 0.032$). This speaker did have ES tokens, but these were not found to be significant.

7.5.1.1 KIT Summary

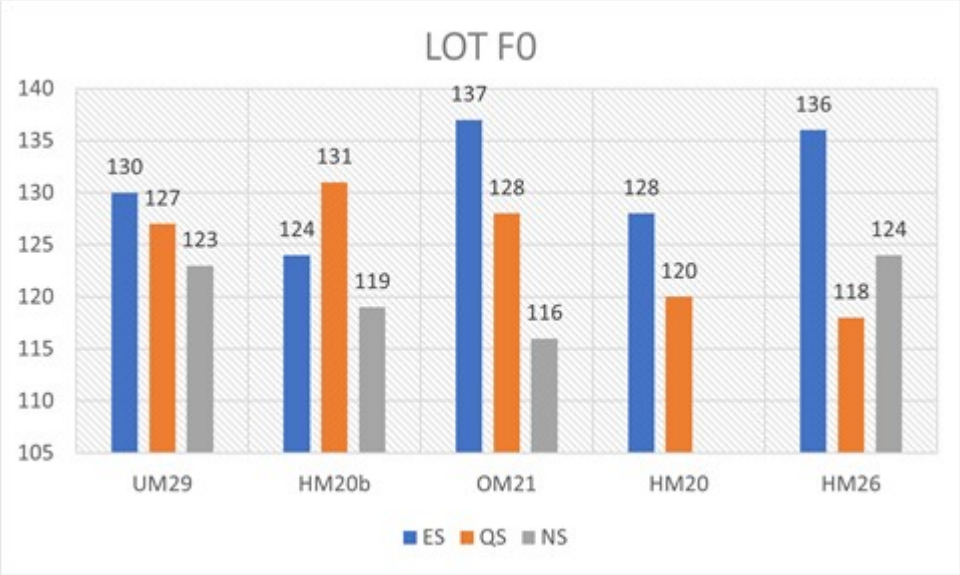
My analysis for the mimetic performance of KIT found that four participants increased their pitch when performing NLE in ES or QS, one speaker lowered F1 when performing NLE, and F2 was fronted in QS and ES of three speakers. This is consistent with my hypothesis that participants

are more likely to shift F1, F2, and F0 towards NLE values when performing NLE and quoting others.

7.5.2 LOT

The second vowel I examine is LOT. The LOT lexical set tends to be fronted, unrounded, and merged with CLOTH/THOUGHT in NLE. As with KIT, I analyzed F0, F1 and F2 of the vowel in three environments.

Figure 6: F0 Measurements of LOT



The analysis of the F0 of LOT was not as straightforward as KIT F0.

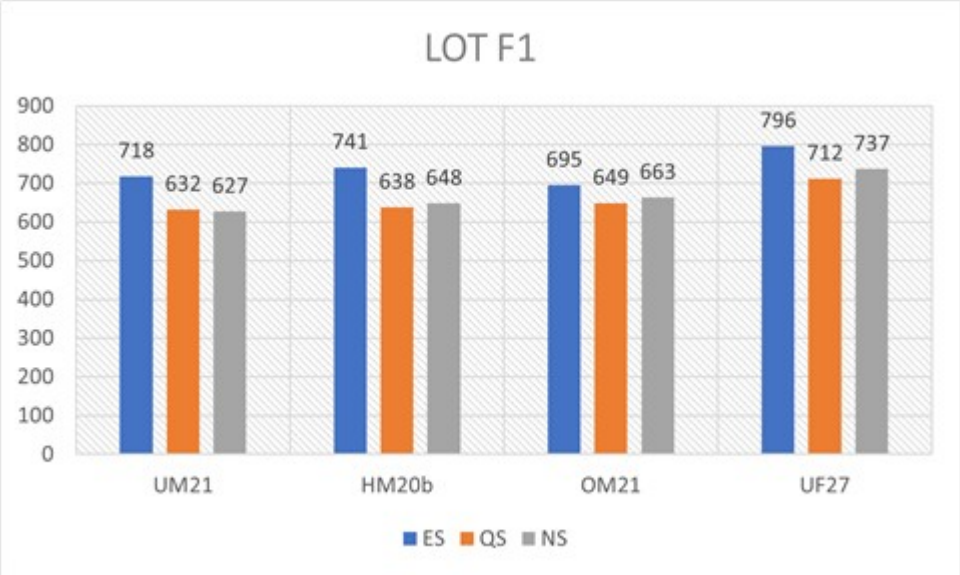
Four speakers raised the pitch of their voice when reading the elicitation sentences. UM29 (H = 6.1031, p =0.04729) had a higher F0 in ES and QS (P = 0.026) , OM21 (H =9.9413, p = 0.006939) also had higher pitch in ES compared to QS (p =0.003), and QS vs NS (p =0.002). HM26 (H = 6.9396, p = 0.03112) also had higher pitch in ES compared to QS

(p =0.015) and ES vs NS (p =0.022). HM20 (H = 7.3404, p = 0.02547 had higher pitch in ES versus QS (p =0.008).

However, HM20b (H = 6.1130. p = 04705 had higher pitch in quoted speech compared to narrative speech (0.023).

Overall, elicitation speech that contained LOT was higher in pitch than quotative or narrative speech, with one speaker also quoting in a higher pitch.

Figure 7: F1 Measurements of LOT

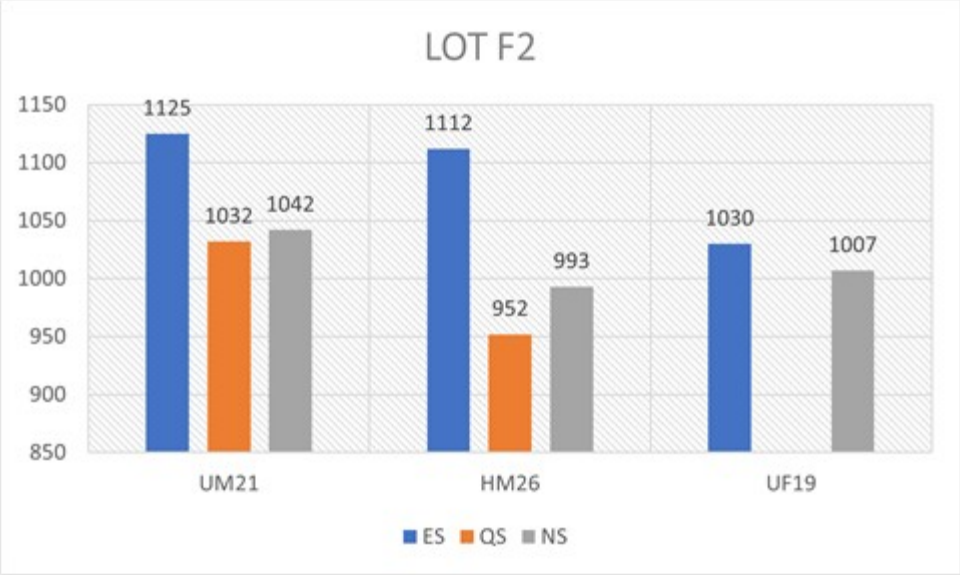


LOT-lowering was present in four speakers. UM21 (H =7.4664, p = 0.02392) shifted F1 in ES versus NS (p = 0.006) and versus QS (p = 0.011). HM20b (H =12.92, p < 0.001) patterned his F1 in a similar way, in ES versus NS (p < 0.001) and versus QS (p < 0.001). OM21 (H =7.9226, p = 0.01904) lowered LOT significantly in ES compared to the QS environment (p = 0.005). UF27 (H= 7.5421, p = 0.02303) shifted F1 in the ES versus QS (p < 0.007) and versus NS (p =0.022).

All speakers had a slightly lower LOT when performing NLE then when narrating in their normal voice or quoting others. This is consistent with the significantly high F1 values in NLE

compared to Indian or Pakistani English. This aspect could make it easier for participants to recognize this vowel and incorporate into their performance.

Figure 8: F2 Measurements of LOT



This table demonstrates the three speakers who utilized LOT-fronting. These speakers had a significantly more fronted LOT when performing NLE while reading the elicitation sentences, which indicates saliency. UM21 ($H = 10.462$, $p = 0.005348$) had a higher F2 in ES versus NS ($p < 0.001$) and QS ($p < 0.001$). HM26 ($H = 7.6664$, $p = 0.02164$) had a much higher F2 in ES versus QS ($p = 0.015$) and NS ($p = 0.022$) In the case of UF19, only ES versus NS was significant ($p < 0.001$).

7.5.2.1 LOT Summary

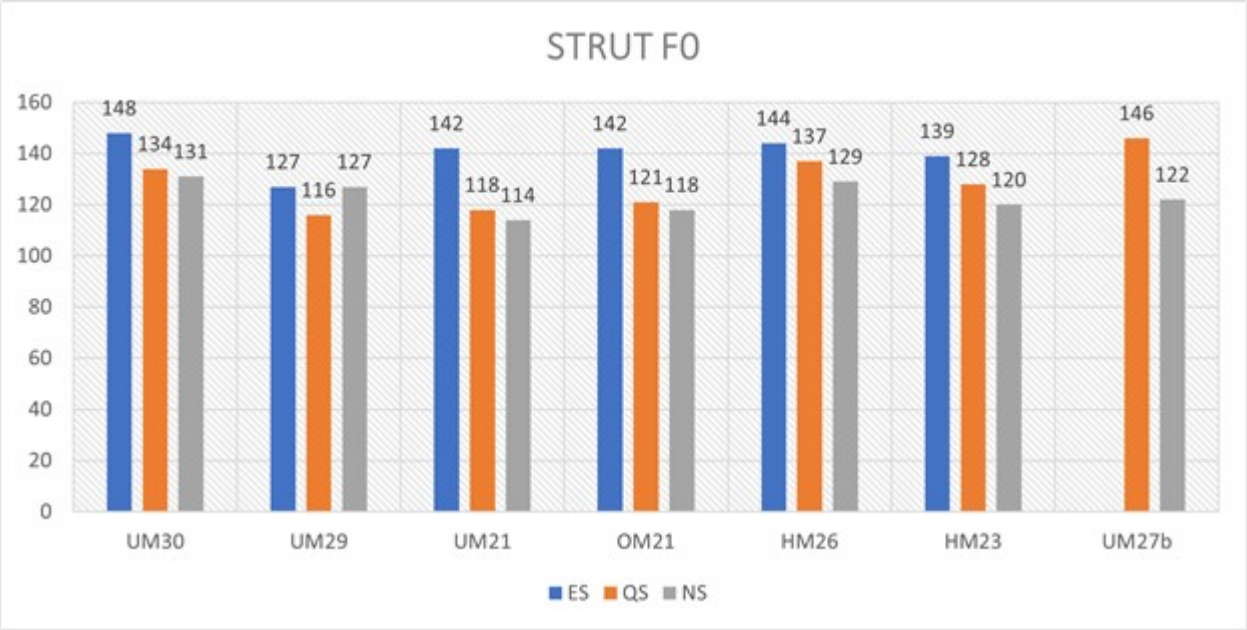
In summary, five speakers raised their pitch when reading elicitation sentences and in quoted speech. Four speakers performed LOT lowering when reading elicitation sentences compared to quoted or narrative speech. Three speakers fronted LOT in ES, while there was no significant fronting in quoted speech. LOT appears to be a vowel that is recognizably different in NLE and

differs enough from the speaker's native dialect to be salient. The speakers who decided to use this vowel consistently fronted and lowered LOT to make their performance sound local. This is consistent with my hypothesis that participants are more likely to shift F1, F2, and F0 towards NLE values when performing NLE and quoting others.

7.5.3 STRUT

The last vowel I analyzed was STRUT. In STRUT/FOOT sets, STRUT is pronounced as a more back and perceptibly more rounded vowel in NLE. The results for F0, F1, and F2 are discussed below.

Figure 9: F0 Measurements of STRUT



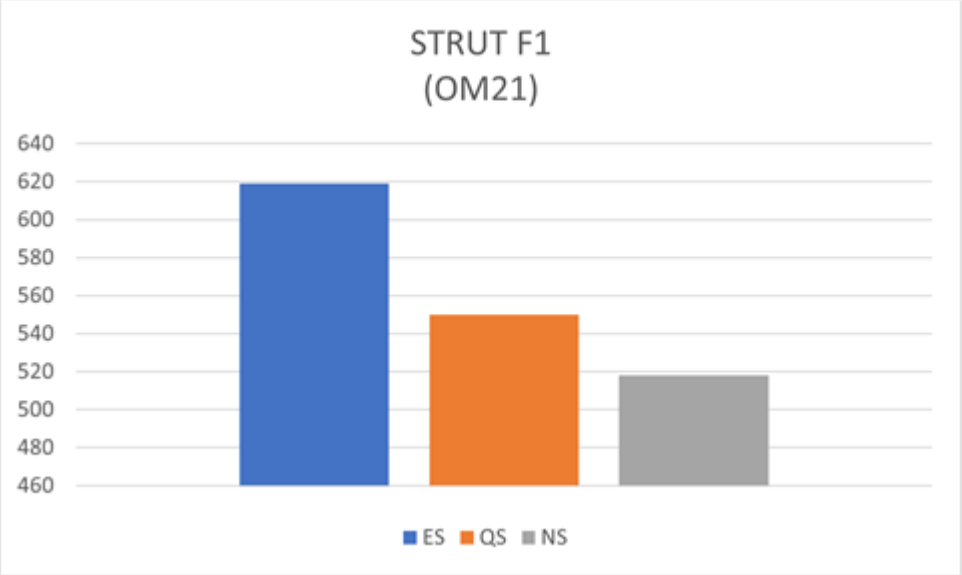
Out of the three target vowels, the most speakers shifted their pitch while using the STRUT vowel.

UM27b (H= 4.8728, p =0.02728) did not have elicitation sentences to examine, but raised his pitch in quoted speech. UM30 (H = 7.9272, p = 0.01899) raised pitch in ES vs NS (p =

0.01) and QS vs NS (p =0.007) UM29 (H = 0.038585.9381, p = 0.04135) shifted pitch in ES vs QS (p =0.012) and QS vs NS (p = 0.046) UM21 (H =7.6857, p =0.02143) shifted pitch in ES vs NS (p = 0.007) and ES and QS (p=0.034) OM21 (H= 11.251, p = 0.003604) shifted pitch in ES vs NS (p < 0.001) and ES vs QS (p = 0.011)HM26 (H = 7.7318, p = 0.02094) shifted pitch in ES vs NS (p = 0.016) and ES vs QS (p = 0.011).HM23 (H = 6.5103, p = 0.03858) shifted pitch in ES vs NS (p = 0.017) and ES vs QS (p =0.043).

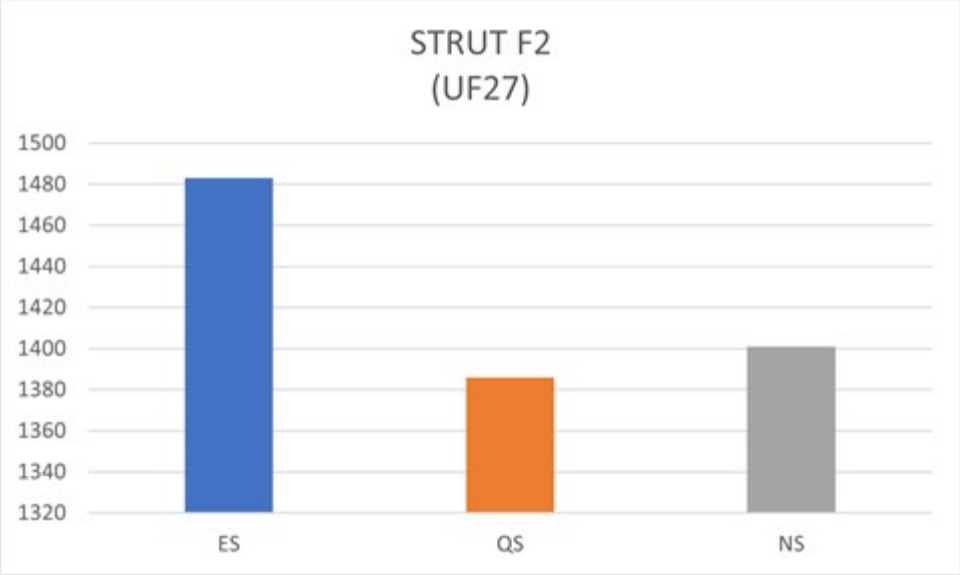
In conclusion, over half of the speakers raised F0 in either elicitation speech or quoted speech.

Figure 10: F1 Measurements of STRUT



There was one case of STRUT lowering by OM21 (H = 8.0914, p = 0.0175). The F1 of LOT was higher in ES vs QS (p =0.015) and QS vs NS (p =0.033). While STRUT-lowering is not mentioned in the literature about NLE vowels, NLE STRUT has a much higher F1 than Indian or Pakistani English. OM21 may be able to perceive this difference and chooses this dimension to demonstrate his knowledge of NLE.

Figure 11: F2 Measurements of STRUT



There was also one case of STRUT fronting by UF27 (H = 6.9555, p= 0.03088). The vowel was fronted in ES vs QS (p = 0.004) and QS vs NS (p =0.042).

7.5.3.1 STRUT Summary

In the case of STRUT, pitch was the most common way to voice a character, with half of the participants choosing to raise their pitch in elicitation sentences or quoted speech. STRUT was also lowered by one speaker and fronted by a different speaker. This is consistent with my hypothesis that participants are more likely to shift F1, F2, and F0 towards NLE values when performing NLE and quoting others.

7.6 Acoustic Analysis: Summary of Findings

Overall, my findings demonstrate that the three vowels are salient at different levels to different individuals and are not implemented equally across the board.

Elicitation speech is the most likely environment to be shifted, followed by quoted speech, then narrative speech. This confirms my hypothesis that participants are more likely to shift F1, F2, and F0 towards NLE values when performing NLE and quoting others.
F0 was the most likely to be used in mimetic performance, and was an important indicator of elicitation or quoted speech. This was followed by F2, and then F1.

As for individual vowels, LOT appeared to be the vowel that was the most salient in all three dimensions among the largest number of participants. KIT and STRUT were used selectively by fewer individuals for performance speech.

In the next section, I will address the external factors discussed in 7.4.1, and how they can be used to interpret these observed shifts and performance speech.

Chapter 8: Sociolinguistic Comfort: A preliminary framework

8.1 Introduction

In this section, I join together the two analyses of quotative verb usage and mimetic performance into a focused framework in order to better understand the sociolinguistic variation we saw above. This framework is based on participant demographic information, measurement of social network scores, and analysis of each participant's use of the target vowels in elicitation, quoted and narrative speech that is detailed in section 7.4 and 7.5. This framework is designed post-hoc and was not examined in any systematic way here but could be used in future studies of sociolinguistic variation investigating migrant speakers of English.

First, the analysis of the quotative verb system provided us with a measure of linguistic integration for the migrant speakers of English. We have seen that migrant speakers have acquired a combination of constraints that are similar to Newfoundland English and Indian English.

Second, the analysis of mimetic performance offers a glimpse into our speakers' meta-linguistic awareness of NLE. Some features carry social meaning to the St. John's speech community and the migrant speakers' use of these features indicate some understanding of this localized link between NLE phonetics and social meaning.

There are likely multiple ways to explain these patterns of variation across speakers. Some speakers have been in St. John's longer than others; speakers vary in access to situations in which they can communicate with speakers of NLE; or they may differ in their understanding of the social meanings (e.g. authenticity) behind using NLE, as a migrant speaker of English.

However, my third point is that these accounts, and the observed patterns of quotative variation and mimesis are partly explained by the second finding presented in this thesis, that patterns of performed NLE are associated with social network integration scores.

Based on these findings, I argue that the relationship between the linguistic and the social is mediated by the personal experiences each speaker has faced in their own process of socialization, or becoming comfortable communicating within the St. John's speech community. I refer to this framework as *sociolinguistic comfort* and provide a preliminary definition of it here:

> *sociolinguistic comfort:* ***the level of subjective comfort a migrant speaker feels performing features of a host dialec****t.*

In this case, comfort refers to the perceived level of knowledge of NLE between the interviewer and interviewee. In order to feel comfortable performing NLE, the interviewee has to feel confident that they can recognize and utilize NLE features in a manner that will be acknowledged by the interviewer.

A linguistic feature can be used in a limited way and be perceived as accurate, even if it's not linguistically accurate (Preston 1999). I argue that each participant uses the features salient to them to add just enough local flavour in order for the performance to be perceived correctly and demonstrate awareness of the local variety. In the context of the linguistic data presented in this thesis, it is likely that some of these features are below the level of conscious awareness for many speakers. Likewise, some speakers do demonstrate some awareness but are not able to describe their understanding of these salient features. In the sociolinguistic interviews, some participants spontaneously described NLE as having "a lot of emphasis", "rhythm", and speed and it is possible that they are using these specific words to describe prosodic cues as well as vowel fronting and backing. At some level of perception, aspects of LOT, STRUT, and KIT are salient and indexed in Newfoundland English even if the participants can't describe it in detail

themselves. The reading experiment was specifically designed to expose features that had a high level of salience or availability with the idea that greater performance means more vernacular features. These sentences were designed with stylized Newfoundland English to encourage performance. As noted above, elicitation speech had significantly higher pitch which indicates performance and some participants changed their posture, they shifted around in their seats and as if they became the character they were voicing. Depending on their level of comfort, they seemingly use different phonetic properties of the target vowels (e.g. more fronted, more backed, etc.)

8.2 Sociolinguistic Comfort: Analysis

Based on these observations, participants can be categorized in terms of their comfort using NLE. Active users are those individuals who were the most proactive in shifting the target vowels towards NLE when reading the elicitation sentences, showing an awareness of which vowels are available for identity work. They were also the individuals who shifted F1 and F2 of the target vowels most often. These speakers had more quoted speech, and more tokens in general. This is displayed in the table below:

Table 18: Linguistic Tools of Active Users

Code	F0 Shift	F1 Shift	F2 Shift	QS Sentences
HM20b	✔	✔	✔	56
HM26	✔✔✔		✔	26
UF27	✔	✔	✔	39
UM21	✔✔	✔	✔	134
UM27b	✔		✔	90
UM29	✔✔	✔		77
OM21	✔✔	✔✔	✔	31

Two of the six active participants had partners who were Newfoundlanders, which is consistent with Lybeck (2002) who shows that having a personal connection with the local community through partners or family often indicates a higher use of adoption of vernacular features. These speakers had the highest SNS, confirming my hypothesis that a higher level of connection to St John's community and Newfoundland culture assists in the ability to recognize specific vowels as part of NLE. These factors are displayed later in Figure 12.

The second category are passive users of NLE. Participants in this category did not shift vowels often, but used pitch to signify the difference between elicitation, quoted and narrative speech. They appear to be aware of tone and intonation differences between NLE and IndE/PakE but are unable to pinpoint exactly which vowels or direction to shift to make the performance salient to the interviewer. This knowledge is only partial, so they attempt to represent characters voices using the tools (F0) and target they know they can hit reliably. The number of quoted speech tokens in this category varied, with some speakers using more than others. These speakers had a wider range of SNS, from 1-4.

Table 19: Linguistic Tools of Passive Users

Code	F0 Shift	F1 Shift	F2 Shift	QS Sentences
HM20	✔			16
HM23	✔✔			26
UF19			✔	20
UM30	✔✔			62

Finally the third group are those who are reluctant users. This group did not read the elicitation sentences, stating they were not comfortable. These individuals tended to quote less than the other two groups and had the lowest SNS.

Table 20: Linguistic Tools of Reluctant Users

Code	F0 Shift	F1 Shift	F2 Shift	QS Sentences
HM22	✕	✕	✕	10
HM29	✕	✕	✕	14
UM27	✕	✕	✕	9

The participants sociolinguistic comfort level and demographic information is combined in the figure below:

Figure 12: Sociolinguistic Comfort Levels

Level	Code	SNS	Length of Time in NL	ES
Active	HM20b	4	1.2	Yes
	UF27	3	10.11	Yes
	UM21	3	1.5	Yes
	UM27b	3	1.5	No
	UM29	5	3.11	Yes
	OM21	3	1.1	Yes
	HM26	3	1	Yes
Passive	HM20	1	1	Yes
	HM23	3	1	Yes
	UF19	2	1.2	Yes
	UM30	4	9	Yes
Reluctant	HM22	1	1	No
	HM29	1	2.5	No
	UM27	1	1.1	No

8.3 Sociolinguistic Comfort: A Summary

In this section I examined the sociological variables and I found that participants with strong networks are more likely to discern and employ NLE features for performance speech. I also sketched out a framework, sociolinguistic comfort, to better understand the sociolinguistic

behaviour presented. Here, sociolinguistic comfort is conceived of three levels: active, passive and reluctant users of the host dialect, NLE. I argued that the participants in different levels use different vowel properties to perform voices in their stories, as demonstrated by Tables 17-19. This in turn is associated with external factors such as SNS and personal connections in the community.

Chapter 9: Conclusion

9.1 Discussion and Conclusion

While English verbs of quotation have been extensively examined by sociolinguists for the past thirty years, two related phenomena remain understudied: the use of quotative verbs by migrant speakers of English and how mimesis can be used to construct identities for the quoted speakers. In this thesis, I examined the distribution and variation of quotative verbs among migrants to St. Johns, NL and I explored the phonetic properties of three vowels, and how these properties are used to create identities in performance speech. The theory of sociolinguistic comfort was introduced to demonstrate how social factors such as social networks and future plans affect the variation and extent of mimetic performances.

My preliminary hypotheses were that: migrant speakers of English will use *be+like* according to the constraints that govern Canadian/Newfoundland speakers; migrant speakers' vowel quality will be more similar to NLE when performing stylized, NLE, elicitation speech and quoted speech compared to narrative speech; speakers who score high on the social network strength scale will be more likely to discern and employ NLE features. I grounded these hypotheses in a theoretical framework consisting of the concept of performance speech and identity (Schilling-Estes 1998) and speaker's social network ties (Milroy 1987). I will discuss the outcomes of these hypotheses and frameworks below.

The first part was a variationist analysis of quotative verb behaviour by migrant speakers of English speakers who have recently moved to Newfoundland from India and Pakistan. These speakers demonstrated that *be+like* is a part of this community's systems, and the constraints that condition quotative *be+like* follow global constraints found elsewhere, such as mimesis, historical present tense, internal dialogue, and age. I argued that this group has adopted some

Newfoundland English constraints, while retaining others from their native variety, partially confirming my hypothesis.

Significant findings include: *be+like* has flourished among young migrant speakers from this community and they have implemented their own unique order of constraints, such as a lack of grammatical person. This unusual ordering could be attributed to their native language systems, language learning, or attempts at adopting local NLE. As my dateset is quite small and doesn't account for gender variation, any conclusions are not definitive. However, a larger study with more tokens, and an equal number of male and female participants would be a beneficial addition to the literature.

The second part of my study focused on the phonetic content of quoted speech to determine whether speakers are sensitive to the salient features of Newfoundland English and whether they can use these features for local identity performances. The phonetic content I examined consisted of three vowels: KIT, LOT and STRUT, which I studied using acoustic analysis and interpreted these results through social network theory.

Significant results include: the participants that had higher SNS scores were more likely to shift their vowels towards NLE. The three vowels were salient at different levels to different individuals, however most speakers were able to recognize and implement F0, F1, or F2 shifts to perform NLE. These findings confirm my hypothesis.

Future studies in this area could include larger datasets with more quotative speech, or other varieties of English. A detailed and systematic examination of language awareness and participants' attitudes towards the quoted variety is also needed.

Finally, I proposed a framework of sociolinguistic comfort that incorporates the two aspects of my theoretical background (performing identity and community networks) to help account for patterns of quotative and mimetic performance in my study. This is a novel way of

describing participants' comfort level with performing a local dialect and their integration into a local community.

My original contributions to the literature include: investigating an overlooked population in Canada, analyzing both the grammatical and metalinguistic use of quotative verbs, determining quotee identity, statistically inspecting the mimetic content of quoted and elicited speech, implementing Milroy's (1987) social network theory to understand performance speech, and creating a framework demonstrating how social factors and comfort affect the variation and extent of mimetic performances.

I have taken concepts from the literature of quotative verbs, mimetic performance and language acquisition and formed an applicable methodology that can be employed with migrant speakers who come in contact with different varieties of English. Future researchers can utilize this framework to gain a fuller understanding of constraint hierarchies, determine what may be salient features in the host dialect, and measure interactions between social integration and linguistic awareness.

As our world grows ever more global, understanding the ways migrant speakers learn to perform identity, incorporate highly regionalized features, and yet remain connected to their adopted community is essential. These types of studies have academic and practical applications, as they can assist in enhancing language awareness and community connection for both migrant and local speakers. Uncovering the complexity of language change and enriching social connections should be a joint endeavour between local and migrant communities.

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Appendix A: Elicitation Sentences

1. **Put** the **fish** in the oven, would ya?

2. Whatcha **knitting** there, **mother**?

3. Are you looking for a **job** in St. J**ohn's young** fella?

4. It's **calm** today, yesterday was just **awful!**

5. **His** house is up the **hill,** across from Holy Heart

6. Well, he was real **cut** up about it

7. **Buddy** over there is on his fifth **bottle**

8. We're having **jiggs dinner Sunday**

Appendix B: Conversation Starters

Moving to NL

What was your first day in St. John's like?

What is it like being an international student at MUN?

What did you think when you heard the NL accent for the first time?

Have you visited other places in Canada?

Cultural Activities

Have you tried any Newfoundland foods?

Are there any foods that you miss from home?

What are some cultural events that you have participated in?

What are some traditions you follow? Christmas, religious holidays, etc

What are some things you liked to do as a kid?

Personal Activities

How do you like to spend your free time?

Are you part of any student societies on campus?

Do you work after class? What is that like?

What are your plans after you graduate?

Could you tell me about where you grew up?