

INDEXING LINGUISTIC INSECURITY

IN WINNIPEG

ACCEPTED

by

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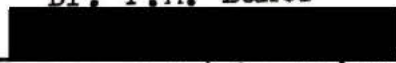
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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to validate the Canadian Index of Linguistic Insecurity test as a measure of the attitude linguistic insecurity in two communities of Winnipeg.

The Canadian Index of Linguistic Insecurity (CILI) test is a parallel form of Labov's Index of Linguistic Insecurity (ILI) test. The ILI test was developed as part of Labov's study of New York English.

The CILI test and the ILI test were given in the same interview to a random sample of eighty households in the Winnipeg communities of Lord Roberts and Riverview in order to obtain a wide stratification. The data were analyzed in terms of the variables social class and sex.

The CILI test showed a strong criterion validity, in that there was a high positive correlation between the scores of the ILI test and the scores of the CILI test. The CILI test also showed construct validity in that the CILI proved to be more sensitive to linguistic insecurity in Winnipeg than did the ILI test. The 'stronger' effect of the CILI

was attributed to the fact that the items of the GILI more appropriately reflect the evaluational norms of the Winnipeg speech community.

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CHAPTER 1

LINGUISTIC INSECURITY: RESEARCH AND THEORY

1.1. The Purpose of This Study

The purpose of this study is to construct a Canadian equivalent of Labov's Index of Linguistic Insecurity, a Canadian Index of Linguistic Insecurity, and to validate its use as a measure of linguistic insecurity.

The items for the CILI will be selected from Scargill's (1974) study of Canadian English in which forty-two items were used to study the pronunciations of Canadians. Scargill had chosen the forty-two lexical items for his survey in order to explore areas in which English-speaking Canadians were believed to have divided usage.

The CILI test and the ILI test will be administered to a random sample of households chosen from two adjacent neighbourhoods in Winnipeg: Lord Roberts and Riverview. These two communities combine to reflect a wide range of stratification necessary to replicate Labov's New York study using the ILI test.

We will show the validity of the CILI test in two ways:

- 1) We will show the criterion validity of the Canadian Index of Linguistic Insecurity (CILI) test by comparing the scores

of the CILI with the scores of Labov's ILI.

2) We will further show the construct validity of the CILI as a measure of linguistic insecurity by testing the variables sex and socio-economic status, following Labov's analysis of the ILI scores.

1.2. Linguistic Insecurity

Linguistic insecurity is considered a pervasive language attitude in the United States (Labov, 1970; Baron, 1976), manifesting itself as a variety of behaviours. Labov has stated that the attitude, linguistic insecurity, can motivate sound change (Labov, 1963) and also that linguistic insecurity can be used as the defining characteristic of a speech community (Labov, 1966). Baron has suggested that the effects of linguistic insecurity range from stopping conversations because one of the participants may feel his speech is somehow inadequate, to provoking hypercorrections which may alter the course of language (Baron, 1976:1).

Labov has traced the origins of linguistic insecurity as far back as the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, when the middle class first began to recognize that their speech patterns were not appropriate for certain situations (Labov, 1966: 475). Labov stated that as the notion that a certain variety of English was the correct standard became more popular, the attitude linguistic insecurity grew as well, and he concluded that linguistic insecurity is part of

the heritage of the American people (Labov, 1966; 475).³

Baron stated that two forces are responsible for the attitude linguistic insecurity: first, the stereotyping of dialects, and second, "an educational system based upon a doctrine of correctness and purity in language" (Baron, 1976; 2).

In general terms, this study is concerned with the validation of a measurement, the Canadian Index of Linguistic Insecurity (CILI), of the language attitude called linguistic insecurity. The CILI test is a parallel form of the Index of Linguistic Insecurity (ILI) which was devised as part of Labov's sociolinguistic study of New York speech (Labov, 1966).

Before stating the purpose of this study in specific terms we will examine, in general, the role of language attitudes in relation to the study of language and will review the studies completed which deal with the measurement of language attitudes. We will also explain Labov's measurement of linguistic insecurity in the context of Labov's description of the social evaluation of New York speech.

1.3. Language Attitudes and Their Measurement

The study of language attitudes has not always been deemed worthwhile by linguists, since it was often noted that observations about speech made by respondents often did not correspond to more objective observations made by linguists. This sort of perspective was best summed up by

Bloomfield (1944) who called respondents' observations about language secondary and tertiary responses to language. Bloomfield pointed out that such utterances, although interesting and sometimes humorous, should be left to disciplines other than linguistics for investigation.

Prior to 1960, studies dealing with language attitudes were confined to studies of language borrowing or second language learning or as part of ethnographic descriptions (Nader, 1962:276).

More recently the study of attitudes has been considered an important dimension in the study of language. Hoenigswald called for the study of informants' pronouncements about language to be a discipline which he suggested be called folk linguistics or ethnolinguistics (Hoenigswald, 1964). Hoenigswald argued that other disciplines have embraced such a concept and that topics for investigation would include attitudes to speech differences, correspondence between language judgements and the truth, bilinguals' views on bilingualism, and attitudes to the internal structure of speech.

Halliday rated the study of attitudes as a major topic of institutional linguistics along with languages in contact, dialects, and registers. Halliday outlined several major types of language attitudes: the sense of one's own language being superior, pejorative attitudes toward mixed languages, and varieties of language (Halliday, 1968).

Fishman saw the study of attitude as a major topical division of the study of language maintenance and language shift. (Fishman, 1971). Hymes advocated the study of attitudes as part of an ethnolinguistic description of a community of speakers (Hymes, 1972).

The first major review of studies dealing with language attitudes came from Agheyisi and Fishman (Agheyisi and Fishman, 1970) who were interested in improving the work in sociolinguistics on topics involving attitudes through an investigation of the various methodological approaches which had been taken up to that time.

Agheyisi and Fishman felt that sociolinguistic studies dealing with language attitudes could benefit from the theoretical formulations about attitude which have been developed in the behavioural sciences. Agheyisi and Fishman identified two major trends in the study of attitudes in the social sciences. The first trend was in the mentalist tradition of dealing with attitudes as a mediating concept. The second trend, following the behaviourist tradition, defined attitudes operationally as a probability concept. They further pointed out that both trends converge in their usage of response covariation to derive their attitude measurement and although there is disagreement about the structure and components of attitudes there is agreement that attitudes are learned, enduring, and positively related to overt behaviour (Agheyisi and Fishman, 1970: 151).

Agheyisi and Fishman subdivided the current literature at the time of their article according to three major topics. The first they called language oriented or language directed (Agheyisi and Fishman, 1970: 141). This type of study is exemplified by McDavid's explanation of the distribution of post vocalic /r/ in South Carolina using his field records (McDavid, 1948), and by Ferguson and Nader who both reported on Arabs' attitudes towards Arabic, the former basing his comments upon his years of observation, and the latter using interviews as a data-gathering technique (Ferguson, 1959; Nader, 1962).

The second topic identified by Agheyisi and Fishman dealt with various behaviours resulting from attitudes such as language learning or language choice. Herman's study of bilingual speakers in Israel and Fishman's study of Puerto Ricans in New York are but two examples of many studies on this topic (Herman, 1961; Fishman, 1971). More recent examples of this type of study would be Adekunle, 1972; Carranza, 1977; Gal, 1979.

The third topical subdivision Agheyisi and Fishman called the social significance of language varieties (Agheyisi and Fishman, 1970: 141), and it encompasses the topic of this study.

Beginning in 1960 and throughout the decade Lambert et al conducted a number of studies which examined stereotyped responses to tape recorded samples of speech, using a

technique called 'matched guise'. This technique requires respondents to evaluate personality traits of speakers through listening to tape recordings of their voices. The judges are not aware that the varieties of language or different languages they hear have been recorded by bi-dialectal or bilingual speakers who have a native-like ability in both dialects or both languages presented. In this way there is a control in the experiment for such variables as voice quality of the speaker and the personality of the speaker, so that the judge's evaluation can be taken as the evaluation of speakers of that language rather than the specific speaker in that situation.

Agheyisi and Fishman (1970:146) suggested that a weakness of the 'matched guise' technique is its assumption that each population is characterized by a single language variety, and that the appropriateness of the language sample for the topic, range, and domain of the situation as well as the functional associations of language codes are not dealt with.

Lambert, Hodgson, Gardner, and Fillenbaum (1960), using the 'matched guise' technique, studied the evaluational reactions of university students to French and English. These researchers found that there was low correlation between the measures of attitude by means of questionnaires and the favourableness of English and French as indicated.

by the scores on the 'matched guise', and interpreted this as a reflection of the influence of stereotypes on the evaluation of French and English speaking Canadians.

In addition to investigations of evaluations of different languages, subsequent studies by Lambert et al between 1960 and 1970 examined the evaluations of different speech varieties (Anisfeld, Bogo, and Lambert, 1962), and dialects (Tucker and Lambert, 1969). These studies supported their claim that the 'matched guise' was an effective technique for eliciting stereotyped reactions toward samples of speech.

Herman (1961) studied the determinants of the choice of language in a subject who is bilingual and who could use either language as a medium of conversation. The study was based upon data collected in Israel from a) case histories of students b) interviews with immigrants and visiting students c) a questionnaire given to university students and d) surveys on language use from a collective and from a stratified sample of an immigrant township.

Herman's study concludes that the choice of one language in favour of another is influenced by the relative potency of a) the background situation and the personal needs, or b) the demands of the immediate situation. The potency was regarded as a result of the attractiveness or repulsiveness of these factors (valence) and the perceived prominence of one of the factors (salience) of the situation.

Nader (1962) interviewed upper class Arabs after they had listened to tape recordings of Arabic spoken by Arabs who came from small villages, and found that the city dwellers reacted with admiration to the rural Arabic style. Nader commented that her findings run counter to the notion that social rank lends prestige to varieties of language and that borrowings in language is promoted from one language to another according to this prestige factor. Nader concluded that language interchange is only in part a factor of status acquisition, and added that factors of the use to which language is put, such as honesty, amusement, or ambivalence, must be considered. These factors vary with personality, group membership, and various aspects of culture. One further conclusion Nader made was that an analysis and description of prestige variants must include the uses to which the dialects are put and the situations in which they arise.

Gumperz also used interviews to gather data regarding attitudes toward the use of Bakmál, the standard dialect, and Ranamál, the local dialect, in Norway. Gumperz (1964:37) interviewed Norwegians after they had listened to tapes of themselves speaking in conversation and found that the expressed attitudes to the two dialects were independent of the personal switching that occurred as the conversation moved from topic to topic.

Heise (1966) conducted research to examine the hypothesis that no major variations in word connotations occur among persons in different social positions. Data were collected by survey from male cadets in an American naval training center and from male and female college students. The respondents were asked to rate words using a semantic differential scale, following the style of Osgood, Suci, and Tannenbaum (1957). Heise found that the attitudinal association or the connotation of a word is generally uniform across social position.

Webster and Kramer (1968) presented five tape-recorded voices to thirty English-speaking Canadians for evaluation on ten six-point scales. Two of the voices were a 'matched guise'. This study suggested that factors influencing judgement of personality on the basis of accent may not only be due to community-wide stereotypes, but may also be due to less broad levels of influence.

Webster and Kramer believe that listeners of middle degrees of prejudice "overcompensate" for their community biases and tend to rate an accented guise more favourably than a neutral guise. Being aware of the French-Canadian demands for equality, the moderately prejudiced recognize their biases as undesirable and compensate for them.

Kimple (1969) studied the evaluation of tape-recorded samples of Spanish and English by bilingual Puerto Ricans.

✂ Kimple's study was a modification of the 'matched guise' developed by Lambert et al, which Kimple called the 'mirror image' technique. The respondents were first asked to evaluate conversations in Spanish in which certain role relationships were established. The respondents were then asked to evaluate conversations in English in which the speakers assumed the 'mirror image' of the roles which had been established under the Spanish guises. In this way Kimple allowed for topic, speakers, and situation in the evaluation of the guises. The results of Kimple's study showed that the bilingual listeners had internalized the norms regarding the appropriate use of Spanish and English.

As part of a two year study of bilingual Puerto Ricans in New York, Fishman (1971) reported on a study of attitudes and their relation to behaviours. Questionnaires with fifty-seven items to be answered either "yes" or "no" were sent to approximately four hundred members of a Puerto Rican youth organization. Accompanying eighty percent of these questionnaires was a special questionnaire which Fishman called a 'commitment measurement'. This latter scale, modelled on the Guttman (1950) scale, was an attempt to measure the 'conative' or action component of attitude. The commitment measure which focused on the respondents' willingness to maintain and strengthen Spanish in the community was compared with the criterion activity of attendance at an evening of Puerto Rican songs, dances, and recitations. Fishman found

that the commitment items were better predictors of the criterion behaviour than the traditional questionnaire attitude measures. Fishman further concluded that his data showed that subpopulations high in language commitment will have a higher relationship between self-respect and language behaviour.

*Showed
possessed*

Silverman (1968) used a variety of data-gathering techniques in his study of the evaluational reactions of high school students who spoke Spanish and English. As well as using a questionnaire, Silverman used the 'matched guise' technique in which the guises were evaluated according to fourteen bipolar scales in the style of Osgood's (1957) semantic differential. Silverman found that all subjects rated English higher, and concluded that naive listeners can observe the same differences as discerned by linguistically trained observers and that naive listeners could also distinguish ranges in the repertoires of speakers. These findings suggested to Silverman that the semantic differential is sensitive to changes in repertoire as well as changes in variety of speech or in language.

Following the tradition of Lambert et al, researchers in the 1970s continued to examine the role of stereotypes in relation to the listener's judgement of language. Williams (1973) showed that stereotyped attitudes can be elicited by relevant clues heard in the stimulus presentation and that stereotyped attitudes function as 'anchor points' for

evaluating speech samples. Bruce Fraser (1973) found that perceived race prompts the stereotype response and this will affect the perception and rating of the sample. Ryan (1973) found that Spanish accent prompted a stereotyped attitude and recommended that a scale be devised to measure the degree of accentedness. Palmer (1973) found that respondents were not successful in identifying the mother tongue of speakers who spoke English with an accent. This finding, Palmer felt, makes it difficult to assess the role of stereotypes, affecting the rating of foreigners' accented English since it raises doubts as to on which specific stereotype the evaluation is based.

Samarin and Kalmar (1979) studied the evaluational reactions of fifty Czechoslovakian and forty-nine Armenian immigrants to two tape-recorded selections of one Italian immigrant presented as though the recordings were from two different speakers. One important conclusion Samarin and Kalmar made is that social class is not necessarily the most important characteristic of a population to be considered in studying attitudes to socially significant linguistic variation. The most important factors in this study were ethnic identification, sex, and expected reinforcement to the language learner from native Canadians and from his own ethnic group.

Several researchers, in seeking to understand the development of language attitudes, concentrated on studies

which involved the investigation of children's attitudes to language samples. Laberge and Chaisson-Lavoie (1971) studied five samples of French-speaking adolescents from different socio-economic groups, by means of a questionnaire, to examine their attitude to 'joual'. Laberge and Chaisson-Lavoie found that the adolescents from the higher socio-economic group showed more linguistic security than the disadvantaged student. Light (1977) found that children at eight and nine years of age are sensitive to speech differences and have absorbed many of the attitudes of society toward standard and non-standard speech.

Deshaies (1982) studied the attitudes associated with language variation with groups of pre-adolescent and adolescent students. Using interviews to gather her data, Deshaies found that the students expressed attitudes reflecting different levels of French language proficiency when comparing their own speech to their concept of a norm of proficiency.

Another aspect of the study of the social significance of language during the decade from 1960 to 1970 was the continued examination of the role that language attitudes play in the interaction of teachers and their students. Taylor (1973) used a questionnaire with twenty-five items to examine teachers' attitudes toward black English and non-standard English. Taylor found that, in general, both black and white teachers evaluated all varieties of English tested positively.

Williams (1974) reported on two studies dealing with teachers and students from which he developed a two-dimensional judgement model for linguistic attitudes. Williams argued that attitudes are not best represented by a single point on an attitude scale but as a range of values or the "latitude of the attitude", and stated that two scales, the confidence-eagerness scale and the ethnicity-nonstandardness scale, measured the global attitudes by which teachers differentiated children's speech.

Shuy and Williams (1973) used factor analysis with evaluational data of five different dialects of English, and identified four evaluational dimensions from twelve semantic differential scales. The four dimensions identified were 1) value 2) complexity 3) potency and 4) activity. Shuy and Williams examined the degree to which judgements varied according to the respondents' ethnicity, social status, age, and sex. Sex was the only variable for which there was no interaction with observed attitudes. Shuy and Williams compared these four dimensions with Williams' dimensions of ethnicity-nonstandardness and confidence-eagerness as representing two different levels of a person's reaction to speech.

Macaulay's (1977) study examined the attitude of Glaswegians towards their own speech. His survey consisted of three sets of interviews: a community sample, a sample of teachers, and a sample of personnel managers of various firms. Macaulay found that all three groups reported some

dissatisfaction with Glaswegian speech, and used the results of his study to make suggestions for improvement of the educational system in Glasgow.

Studies dealing with language attitudes of French Canadians and English Canadians were the topic of several studies (d'Anglejan and Tucker, 1973; Lomy, 1976; Jackson and Zinman, 1976).

D'Anglejan and Tucker (1973) used a questionnaire and the 'matched guise' technique to examine the attitudes of a sampling of three different groups of French Canadians: students, teachers, and workers. This sampling was drawn from three different areas of Quebec with an even male-female split. D'Anglejan and Tucker found that in their study of the effect of congruity or lack of congruity between topic and language variety, the respondents showed an awareness of a social class structure and an awareness of regional variation. The French Canadian respondents expressed attitudes which placed speech secondary to personality and intelligence in importance for success. The majority of respondents also felt that language does change and that not only is it possible to influence change but that their language does need improvement.

One recent study will be noted finally because it relates directly to Labov's subjective evaluation of New York English.

Mills (1980) has used a subjective reaction test based upon Labov's model to investigate the evaluation of the merger of the lower back unrounded and rounded vowels ([ɑ] - [ɔ]) in Oregon. In many dialects the contrast between the lower back vowels distinguishes such minimal pairs as "cot-caught" and "hock-hawk", but in the Pacific Northwest there has been a merger of these two vowels resulting in a lack of contrast.

Mills asked twenty respondents to evaluate eighty speech samples drawn from sixteen different speakers. The respondents were asked first to rank ten occupational titles, and then, after listening to each speech sample, were asked to write down the highest job they thought the speaker could hold.

Mills concluded that respondents did react to the [ɑ]·[ɔ] split. Speakers who maintained the split most consistently were rated highest and those speakers who had only the sound [ɑ] were given the most negative ratings.

In summary, it can be said that these representative studies show that there have been many studies since 1960 which have investigated the social significance of language. These studies have investigated attitudes toward different languages, accented speech, social varieties and dialects, and the distribution of these attitudes according to race, age, sex, occupation, and social class. We can conclude that

although many issues remain unresolved, pursuing language attitude studies is seen as contributing to our understanding of language.

The nature of attitude remains a major topic of theoretical concern. A second major topic which emerges from these studies is the specification of the determinants of attitude. Thirdly, we see that questions concerning the relationship between attitudes and behaviour largely remain unanswered. Finally, the development of various measurement techniques shows that the measurement of attitudes begs further research.

Cooper and Fishman (1974) have listed these four topics as important to all language attitude studies. Under the topic measurement of attitude, they see the need for research to study the relationships among attitude scores obtained from different classes of attitudinal measures, and between measurements of attitudes directed toward an object and those directed toward a situation. Cooper and Fishman also see the need to investigate the reliability and validity of indirect measures of attitude. *called for the deve of m.f.*

Aboud and Taylor (1974) have criticized researchers in language attitude studies, in general, for not developing their repertoire of measurement techniques.

Within the context of the four concerns of language attitudes mentioned above, we now turn to an account of one

particular language attitude--linguistic insecurity. What follows is a summary of Labov's account of linguistic insecurity, drawn largely from The Social Stratification of New York Speech (1966). We will present Labov's explanation of the nature of linguistic insecurity, the determinants of this attitude, and the behavioural consequences of linguistic insecurity. Also, and most significantly for this paper, we will review the various measurement techniques which Labov used, in particular his ILI test.

1.4. Linguistic Insecurity and Labov's Study of New York English

Labov (1966:500) stated that a dominant theme of his study of the social evaluation of the phonological variables of New York English was a profound linguistic insecurity of the New Yorkers coupled with a longstanding pattern of negative prestige. Linguistic insecurity was, Labov stated, one of the primary elements of New York speech which affected all classes but most seriously affected the lower middle class (Labov, 1966:479). Linguistic insecurity was pervasive in New York forming the basis of the evaluational norms which unified all New Yorkers and defined them as a speech community. Linguistic insecurity was central to Labov's description of the evaluational norms of the New York speech community and, in later work, Labov (1970) ascribed this attitude to all Americans.

In the first part of Labov's study of New York speech he was able to show the regular stratification of five phonological variables over social class and style of speech. The fact that the variables used in the most formal styles were the same variables used most often in all styles by speakers who are ranked higher on an objective socio-economic scale, led Labov to conclude that these variables were seen by the New Yorkers as better, more correct, or endowed with superior status.

Labov (1966:242) found that lower middle class speakers would hypercorrect in their use of the prestigious variables in the most formal styles of speech; that is, the lower middle class would show a higher frequency of usage of a particular variable than the upper middle class. Labov (1966:311) also found that women were more prone to hypercorrection than were men. A third finding Labov (1966:305) made was that Jews, Italians, and Negroes could be distinguished by their use of certain phonological variables.

Labov used four techniques to gather data for his description of the evaluational norms of New Yorkers: interviews, a Subjective Reaction test, a Self-Evaluation test, and the Index of Linguistic Insecurity test.

Labov (1966:489) characterized the expressed attitudes of New Yorkers as "linguistic insecurity." New Yorkers in general felt that to be recognized as a New Yorker was a

stigma, and felt that people not from New York did not like New York speech. New Yorkers would use words such as "horrible", "distorted", and "sloppy", to describe New York speech, and often report that they had tried to change the way they spoke (Labov, 1966:482). As a consequence of these negative expressions, Labov stated that New York was a great sink of negative prestige (Labov, 1966:499). These expressed attitudes, Labov felt, were direct expressions of New Yorkers' linguistic insecurity.

Labov (1966:455) further states that New Yorkers' expressed language attitudes are not based upon their "sense experience", but upon socially accepted statements about language and that the expressed attitudes correlate with the measured phonological behaviour of his respondents.

The Subjective Reaction test (SR) was constructed as a tape recording of twenty-two sentences spoken by five speakers. The speakers were chosen for their use of the variables under study. In this test Labov was able to estimate the respondents' subconscious evaluation of a particular variable. The respondent was asked to assume the role of a personnel manager, and to rate the speakers on their ability to hold a certain job ranging from a factory worker to a television personality. Labov (1966:447) found that the pattern of subjective reaction to the variables matched the patterns of stylistic and social variation. In the first part of Labov's study he had shown that a New Yorker who

had used a high degree of a stigmatized form in his casual speech would systematically shift his pattern of speech in more formal styles and would use less of the stigmatized variable. In Labov's study of the subjective evaluation of the variables he found that a New Yorker would rate the speech of others negatively in the SR test if the speech pattern contained these stigmatized forms. In general, the more a person used the stigmatized forms the more sensitive he was to these forms in others, and the more he would judge others more negatively (Labov, 1966:450).

Labov (1966:440) explained the existence of these two phenomena—the use of a stigmatized form and shift of the rate of usage of these forms in more formal speech, and the greater sensitivity to these forms in others—as resulting from two forces. One is the force from above, corresponding to an overall hierarchy of values imposed by the community. The second force is the pressure for identification with particular ethnic, neighbourhood, or occupational groups.

The force from above is based upon the norms which attribute prestige to certain phonological variables. Inasmuch as the whole community shows their deferral to this standard in judging others, despite their own particular use of the variables, the results of the SR test are another manifestation of linguistic insecurity.

Labov's third test, the Self-Evaluation test, showed that New Yorkers were very inaccurate in reporting their own

speech, and that New Yorkers would report the community's norm of correctness rather than report their own speech usage (Labov, 1966:455). The respondents were read various pronunciations of certain words which contained the variables Labov had examined in his study, and the respondents were asked to indicate on a form which pronunciation they used.

All social classes were inaccurate in reporting which form of the variable they actually used, even though the use of the variable could be shown to relate to social class (Labov, 1966:460). Labov concluded that the important factor to consider in explaining the patterning of evaluation of self and others is the subjects' reliance on established social norms which rate some variables as prestigious and which downgrade others. A New Yorker's evaluation of his own and others' speech is based upon a social norm accepted by the whole community (Labov, 1966:455). His use of the variable in casual speech may depend upon forces from below—occupation, community identification, or ethnic ties. But in his reporting of his own pronunciation, and in his evaluation of others', he depends upon his acceptance of the community's agreed evaluation of the variable.

In terms of the Self-Evaluation test this means that most people would report their own pronunciation according to the social norm--which would be the prestige form--and this results in the data of self-reporting being inconsistent with the objective measurement of the variables. The New

Yorkers are inaccurate in reporting their own speech since they do not monitor their speech directly but use the social norm as the basis of their response.

Again, Labov (1966:476) accounted for the unconscious deferral to the pronunciation standards of a prestigious social class as a manifestation of the particular language attitude called linguistic insecurity. The Self-Evaluation test, Labov feels (1966:477), tapped the respondents' latent insecurity, inasmuch as the respondents' inaccurate reporting is below the level of consciousness, without any deliberate attempt at misrepresentation.

To measure a respondent's overt deferral to a standard other than his own, what Labov (1966:476) has called the manifest insecurity of the respondent, Labov devised the Index of Linguistic Insecurity test (ILI). In this test the respondent must admit that his own pronunciation is different from another pronunciation which he considers is the correct one. ^{can respond}

From the results of the Self-Evaluation test, Labov explained that most people would report that they pronounce words with the prestigious pronunciation, and so most people would normally rate low scores on the ILI since they would not admit that their own pronunciation is not the correct one. To score on the ILI, the linguistic insecurity of the respondent--his deferral to another standard apart from his own pronunciation--would have to be so great that would be

willing to admit that his pronunciation is incorrect and that another is preferred (Labov, 1966:476). In Labov's terms he would show high manifest linguistic insecurity.

Labov found (1966:477-478) that the distribution of scores from the ILI, as with his other evaluation measures, corresponded with the measured phonological behaviour of the respondents. The highest scores on the ILI were shown by members of the lower middle class, the very same class which had shown signs of hypercorrection. The lower class, working class, and upper middle class all showed low scores on the index test of linguistic insecurity. Women's mean scores were twice as high as the men's mean scores. The convergence of the results of the ILI test and the observed language behaviours gave validity to the ILI as a measure of linguistic insecurity.

One further dimension of the ILI test is brought out by Labov in his discussion of the scores of the ILI according to race. The results of the ILI test showed that Italians scored higher than Jews. The Jews had shown the highest scores on the Subjective Evaluation test which measured latent insecurity, and therefore would be expected to score the highest on manifest insecurity as well.

In order to account for this apparent discrepancy, Labov (1966:479) described one respondent, Emilio D., an Italian plumber. Although Emilio's income rank was quite high, his occupational rank and education rank were relatively

low. This meant that Emilio received a high salary and paid a high rent but his background and education were more typical of the working class than of the middle class. Emilio scored the highest of any respondent taking the test. Labov took this high score to be a reflection of his status incongruency. For Labov, (1966:109) this example stood as a clear indication of the value of the ILI test to reflect a respondent's recognition of a standard of correctness different from his own speech.

In summary, Labov showed that the objective index of the phonological variables correlated with the uniform pattern of subjective reactions and the expressed attitudes of New Yorkers towards their own speech. The evaluational norms, which characterize New York as a speech community, are centered around a profound linguistic insecurity which in turn manifests itself by language behaviours, criticism of language variables, and inaccurate self-reporting. The value of the ILI test is that it gives an independent measure of these phenomena (Labov, 1966 b).

1.5. Subsequent Work on Linguistic Insecurity

Relatively little subsequent research has attempted to explore linguistic insecurity, either to theorize on the nature of this language attitude or to devise a new methodological approach to its measurement.

Bailey (1973) has reported on the use of Labov's ILI test "with some modification" with students. The test was administered to newcomers to a wealthy Detroit suburb who had formerly lived in the inner city. These students showed higher scores on the tests and this was interpreted as a "clear indication of status feelings" (Bailey, 1973:390).

Bailey also reports that sixth grade boys had a slightly higher Index score than girls, but that girls proved to be twice as insecure about their language as boys by the time they reached high school.

Finally, Bailey reports that the Index test when used with right and left political activists, and with black and white students in a teacher preparation program, showed that a high Index "accompanies an individual's awareness of himself as remote from the source of power and authority" (Bailey, 1973:390).

D'Anglejan and Tucker (1973) investigated the presence of linguistic insecurity in French Canadians' attitudes to their own language. D'Anglejan and Tucker used a questionnaire which asked their respondents if they would accept correction of their speech from other Quebecers or from Europeans, and if their desire to sound correct was stronger than their desire to sound like a Quebecois. From the data, these researchers concluded that the French Canadians suffered from a 'malaise', as they felt they spoke a low prestige form of the French language.

Underwood (1974) challenged Labov's claim that linguistic insecurity is a characteristic language attitude of all Americans. Underwood used a semantic differential technique, originally developed by Osgood and his associates (1957), to study the Arkansawyer's attitude toward his own speech. As part of his Arkansas Language Survey of 1973, Underwood played a tape recording of ten speakers reading a standard thirty-second passage, and asked his respondents to rate each speaker on a number of traits. The speakers on the tape represented speakers from various areas of the United States, and black and white speech.

The study showed that Arkansas judges rated their own dialect as most favourable, showed no recognition of a consensus standard, and did not exhibit any signs of linguistic insecurity.

In response to the belief that linguistic insecurity arises from a dogmatic acceptance of the dictums of grammar manuals, Jensen (1974) reported on a program for pre-service elementary teachers. In this program the teacher trainees were asked to compile a list of usage errors from various grammar manuals; they were then requested to ask a sampling of adults to give their attitudes toward this list. These samples had a range of sampling sophistication and validity. Jensen's report stressed that the project was successful in developing the pre-service teachers' awareness of the relationship between attitudes and usage in language.

CHAPTER 2

METHODS AND HYPOTHESES

2.1. The Sample

In this chapter we first describe the sample used in the research, including the screening techniques needed to obtain eligible respondents. The interview procedures are noted and then the two indices of linguistic insecurity are discussed in detail: Labov's ILI, and the new CILI developed for this study. The measure of socio-economic status (SES) is briefly described and the chapter ends with a presentation of the specific hypotheses to be tested in evaluating the validity of the CILI.

The procedure for selecting the sample of respondents was designed to replicate as closely as possible the type of sample used by Labov. In Labov's study, the sample had been drawn from a sample list which had been constructed for a previous social survey of the Lower East Side of New York as part of a study of juvenile delinquency. The survey had been extensive and had used rigorous methodology to gain as accurate a sample as possible of the Lower East Side, first enumerating each household and then using the enumeration as the basis for its random sample. The extensive demographic

information which had been gathered from each respondent was made available to Labov.

With this demographic information, Labov was able to select from the initial sample of 988 names those who were native speakers of English and who had lived in New York since the age of eight or younger. Labov had defined a native speaker as one who had learned English before the age of five. This selection resulted in a sample population of 195 individuals, of which Labov successfully interviewed 81; from these Labov used 73 as a source for his data on the ILLI test.

The principle reason for choosing Lord Roberts and Riverview as the area for this study is that these two districts comprised the largest area this researcher could feasibly survey for which all the essential demographic material was available to allow replication of Labov's method of calculating socio-economic status. The Transportation Research and Development Branch of the City of Winnipeg was able to provide data on income which was used to establish the median income of the two areas. The City of Winnipeg's Department of Environmental Planning reported that the housing stock in Riverview was in relatively good condition while Lord Roberts' housing showed a greater degree of decline while still being classified as in fair or good condition (Winnipeg, 1978). This information indicated

that the two areas combined seemed likely to provide the wide stratification needed.

The selection of Lord Roberts and Riverview was also guided by the fact that the selection of the respondents was to be by random sample and that the respondents would only be those who had learned English before the age of five and had lived in Winnipeg since age eight or younger. By following these restrictions we could most closely replicate Labov's sampling procedure. Two characteristics of Lord Roberts and Riverview suggested that these areas would provide a population that would increase the efficiency of the random sample. The Statistics Canada 1976 report indicated that in both these areas the the majority of the population reported that English was their mother tongue. (Riverview is Census Tract number One and Lord Roberts is Census Tract number Two.) Secondly, the Department of Environmental Planning of Winnipeg reported that Riverview and Lord Roberts have relatively stable populations (Winnipeg, 1978). These facts indicated that a random sample of these two areas would be efficient in that an individual selected would have a high probability of fulfilling the restrictive qualifications which Labov had imposed on his sample. Upon completion of the survey it was found that non-eligible households accounted for 19% of the 280 households selected.

One final point must be mentioned which had some

influence on the decision to choose Riverview and Lord Roberts, and which may introduce some bias. The researcher is quite familiar with these areas, attending church in Riverview and having family living in the area. In fact, although the households were drawn at random, six of the respondents knew either the interviewer or some member of his family. This had the effect of helping the completion rate since none of the respondents who knew the interviewer refused to complete the interview. Secondly, those respondents who knew the interviewer or his family were conscientious about completing the interview.

To achieve the random sample, a list of all households in each of the two areas was obtained from a city directory and then a simple random sample of 280, or 7%, was collected by means of a random number table. Interviews were attempted at all households which were not vacant and several return calls were made to any household where the residents were not at home. Refusals, vacancies, and repeated absences accounted for 53% of the 280 households.

A selection procedure was used to obtain approximately equal numbers of males and females, and to ensure that the respondents were native English speaking adults who had lived in Winnipeg from the age of eight or younger.

2.2. Interviewing Procedures

The interviewing procedures are discussed in some detail in appendix A and are only noted here. The purposes of the interview were a) to replicate Labov's procedure of using the interview to gather data for the index test b) to ask for responses to the ILI and CILI tests and c) to gather the necessary demographic data on education, income, and occupation.

The context of administering the tests in this study differed from Labov's approach; for Labov, the ILI test was the last section of a two-to-three hour formal linguistic interview, while the entire interview for this study simply determined the responses to the ILI and CILI tests and seldom lasted more than twenty minutes. Having a short interview was advantageous since no respondent suffered from fatigue, and the results would not be biased by lack of concentration; also, respondents were more willing to complete the survey when they were told it would take only a few minutes.

The majority of the interviews were carried out between April and September of 1982, either during the early evenings or on weekends by this researcher at the homes of the respondents. (See appendix A for a discussion of the exceptions.)

In order to gain acceptance by the respondent, the interviewer introduced himself as a school teacher, even

though this introduced the possibility of some bias. Labov (1966:455) found that respondents tend to report their own pronunciation as being the correct pronunciation. Most certainly this tendency would be strengthened when the interviewer is known to be a school teacher, and probably had the effect of increasing the number of zero scores on the ILI and CILI tests.

Once an eligible respondent had consented to be interviewed, he was given a questionnaire form and was told he was about to hear two pronunciations of each word. He was instructed to circle the pronunciation he thought was correct and to put a check beside the one he usually said. After reading aloud the first five items the interviewer would make certain that the respondent understood the instructions and then would continue reading the variable pronunciations for the remaining thirty-five items. Half the interviews began with reading the variable pronunciations of the CILI items and the remainder began with the ILI items, but in both cases the respondents considered all the items to be from only one test. Once the list had been completed the respondent was asked to complete the reverse side of the questionnaire which was designed to provide information on sex, income, occupation, and education. There was also space to record that the respondent had resided in Winnipeg since age eight and had learned English before age five.

2.3. Labov's Index of Linguistic Insecurity (ILI)

The basic procedure for the ILI was described by Labov:

Each of eighteen different words is pronounced by the interviewer in two different ways, in accordance with the phonetic forms shown in the questionnaire. The respondent is asked to circle the number of the pronunciation which he thinks is correct. Then he is asked to check the pronunciation which he actually uses. The number of items in which the respondent circles one form and checks another is the index of linguistic insecurity. (Labov, 1966:476)

The rationale for the ILI was put forth as follows:

...It is obvious that in many cases the respondent will not admit to using a variant pronunciation which he considers substandard even when he has already used this pronunciation in his reading style.... Now we are measuring a type of linguistic insecurity which is overt where the respondent is willing to admit to himself and to the interviewer that his own usage is not the correct one. (Labov, 1966:476)

Labov calls this "manifest insecurity." In other words, the ILI measures an admitted discrepancy between actual pronunciation and a form of pronunciation perceived by the individual to be "correct." If the individual claims to pronounce a word in one way (e.g. [kæts̺]) but feels that another pronunciation ([kɛts̺]) is correct, then that individual is linguistically insecure with respect to that one item. The use of a large number of items gives greater reliability to the index as a whole and provides an interval-level measure of the underlying construct.

It is important to note that Labov grouped scores in the ILI to form four categories. Table 1 shows his grouping technique.

TABLE 1

ILI SCORES: CATEGORIES, FREQUENCIES, AND PERCENTAGES

ILI Score	Category	Frequency	Percentage
0	1 (None)	26	35.6
1-2	2 (Low)	20	27.4
3-7	3 (Moderate)	21	28.8
8-13	4 (High)	6	8.2

(Labov, 1966; 477)

Labov gives no explicit rationale for these groupings, but it may be inferred that he grouped ILI scores "from the bottom up" and that the intent was to obtain a rectangular distribution, which would be about twenty-five percent in each of the four categories. The preponderance of cases with scores of 0 reflects a natural tendency of individuals to report their speech according to the norms of acceptable speech. It also forced Labov to group ILI scores in the way shown in Table 1. In our analysis of ILI and CILI scores a similar procedure was followed.

The eighteen words used on the ILI are shown in Table 2 (see appendix B for alternative pronunciations).

TABLE 2
ITEMS ON THE ILI TEST

1. Joseph	10. length
2. catch	11. February
3. tomato	12. ketchup
4. diapers	13. escalator
5. aunt	14. new
6. often	15. tune
7. garage	16. avenue
8. humorous	17. because
9. vase	18. half

At first glance, the use of a list of words with variable pronunciations in the New York City speech community to measure linguistic insecurity in Winnipeg, Canada, might appear foolish. However, there are several strong arguments which can be made for this procedure. First, the overpowering cultural influence of the United States on Canada has been well documented. Most Canadians watch American television daily and listen to American singers on the radio almost as often. Canadians, as part of the North American linguistic community, identify, at

least to some degree, with the class distinctions associated with the variable pronunciations of most of the words on the ILI.

Second, almost all of the items on the ILI are listed in The Canadian Senior Dictionary (Gage, 1979) with American pronunciations as one variant. Third, several words in the ILI (e.g. tomato, vase, aunt, new) are also included in Scargill's (1974) survey of Canadian English. Fourth, the data presented below empirically demonstrates that the ILI items work with Winnipeg speakers. Canadian speakers in general are part of several linguistic communities: that of their own region, of their own country, and of the United States. Most Canadians are aware of the correct forms of pronunciation in their own region, their own country, and in the United States. Americans for the most part do not have the extra burden of knowing Canadian norms regarding variable pronunciations.

2.4. The Canadian Index of Linguistic Insecurity (CILI)

The items used in the construction of the CILI test and the pronunciations for each item were based upon the Survey of Canadian English directed by Scargill (Scargill, 1974). In that study, forty-two items were used which were designed to elicit information regarding pronunciation. Of the original list of forty-two items, five items were excluded because they were items which had more than two pronunciations: father, calm, again, soot, and guarantee. Next, eleven words were discounted because the frequency of occurrence of one pronunciation was relatively low. It was felt that setting the cut-off at 10% was too low because that included too many items, while 20% was too high since it excluded too many. Therefore 15% was set as a compromise between these two values.

As a result of this figure, only words which had a frequency of at least 15% for either men or women in Manitoba were considered. The omitted items were z, semi, greasy, squirrel, roof, creek, luxury, ate, yeast, deaf, and home. Finally, four items which appeared on Labov's list, tomato, vase, aunt, and new, were excluded because they were already on Labov's ILI. These two items will be counted as scores on Labov's ILI but not on the CILI since it was felt that this refinement would not significantly change the final analysis of the data. The remaining twenty-two items which were used as the CILI test are presented in table 3. (see appendix C for alternative pronunciations).

TABLE 3
ITEMS ON THE CILI TEST

1. lever	12. leisure
2. student	13. either
3. apricot	14. cot
4. schedule	15. missile
5. genuine	16. film
6. anti	17. almond
7. bury	18. progress
8. arctic	19. route
9. butter	20. congratulate
10. caramel	21. ration
11. lieutenant	22. whine

2.5. Determining the Social Class

The method of determining social classes used for this study follows very closely the method used by Labov (see appendix D). Each individual was ranked using a combination of three scales: occupation, education, and income. Each of these scales was divided into four major categories and the ranking from each scale was combined by means of the matrix used by Labov in order to obtain a social class

ranking from zero to nine. These social class rankings were grouped in order to achieve the final four major levels of social class used in this study.

The occupational scale was divided as follows:

- IV. Professionals, Managers, and Officials
(Salaried and Self-Employed)
- III. Clerks and Salesmen
- II. Craftsmen and Foremen, Self-Employed White
and Blue-Collar Workers
- I. Operators, Service Workers, Labourers,
and Permanently Unemployed Persons

The education scale was divided as follows:

- IV. Completed some College or more
- III. Finished High School
- II. Completed some High School
- I. Finished Grade School or less

The calculation of income ranking was more complicated. The questionnaire completed by each respondent gave the total income of the family within a range of values (see appendix A). For those persons who were retired, the income marked on the questionnaire was doubled since, on average, a retired person's income is roughly half the income received while still working. Approximately five people refused to give information on income. Their income was determined on the basis of their occupation, age, and relative value of the dwelling. The median of the range of incomes selected

by the respondent was used as the total income of the household.

Next, the number of equivalent adults per household was determined by means of a weighted scale based upon the cost of maintaining the individual in the household. Persons over eighteen were rated 1, persons aged 13-17 were rated .75, persons 5-12 were rated .5, and persons under 5 were rated .25. Finally, the income per equivalent adult was determined by dividing the total income of the household by the total number of equivalent adults. The income per equivalent adult was used to rank the households according to income on the following scale:

- IV. More than the Canadian Median
- III. More than the Lord Roberts/Riverview Median but less than the Canadian Median
- II. More than the Minimum Wage but less than the Lord Roberts/Riverview Median
- I. Less than the Minimum Wage

Once rankings had been established for occupation, education, and income, a social class index could be determined using a matrix (see appendix D). The final four major social classes were established as follows:

SEC Index

0-2	Lower Class
3-5	Working Class
6-8	Lower Middle Class
9	Upper Middle Class

For the most part, the method of determining social class used in this study replicates Labov's procedure for indexing social class in his New York study. The ranking scale for incomes in this study was adjusted upward to reflect the change in wage scales from the time of Labov's study in 1963 to the present.

There is one other difference between the income ranking of Labov's study and the income ranking used in this study. Labov had subtracted a sum from each income which represented the common household expenditures for all families. Labov's study of New York English, apart from the ILI test, had required very fine stratification using ten different levels of social class. However, in this study only four major levels were needed so that subtracting a common household sum would have had very little effect, if any, on the overall determination of social class and so this step was omitted. The results of the study support this decision.

2.6. Hypotheses

The criterion validity of the CILI test will be evaluated according to the following hypothesis:

- 1) The scores from the ILI test will be positively correlated with the scores from the CILI test.

The hypotheses against which the construct validity of the CILI test will be evaluated are as follows:

- 2) The lower middle class scores will be greater than any other class scores from the ILI test.
- 3) The lower middle class scores will be greater than any other class scores from the CILI test.
- 4) The scores from the lower middle class from the CILI test will be greater than the lower middle class scores on the ILI test.
- 5) Females will score higher than males on the ILI test.
- 6) Females will score higher than males on the CILI test.
- 7) Female scores on the CILI test will be greater than female scores on the ILI test.

CHAPTER 3

THE RESULTS

The results, in general, show that the CILI test is a valid measurement of linguistic insecurity in the two Winnipeg communities studied. This chapter will first compare the data obtained on the ILI test in Winnipeg with the results Labov obtained in New York. Next, we will compare the results obtained from the ILI and the CILI tests as given in Winnipeg, and discuss the results of both tests in terms of socio-economic status. Finally, this chapter will discuss the results in terms of the independent variable sex.

The pattern of the distribution of scores received on the ILI given in Winnipeg largely follows the pattern of the ILI scores Labov received in New York City, as shown in table 4. From table 4 we see that the majority of the lower class (SES 0-2) and the working class (SES 3-5) scored zero in Winnipeg as they had in New York City. A small percentage of the lower class and working class of Winnipeg had high scores. Again, table 4 shows that Labov had similar results in New York City.

TABLE 4
 PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION BY SES OF ILI SCORES
 IN NEW YORK AND WINNIPEG

ILI	SES GROUPS							
	0-2		3-5		6-8		9	
	New York	Winnipeg	New York	Winnipeg	New York	Winnipeg	New York	Winnipeg
0.....	44	76	50	46	16	33	20	40
1-2.....	25	12	21	30	16	14	70	...
3-7.....	12	12	25	24	58	48	10	60
8-13.....	19	...	04	...	10	05
	<u>100</u>	<u>100</u>	<u>100</u>	<u>100</u>	<u>100</u>	<u>100</u>	<u>100</u>	<u>100</u>
N:	16	17	28	37	19	21	10	05

The lower middle class (SES 6-8) of Winnipeg had scores which were distributed in a similar pattern to the way in which scores of the lower middle class of New York patterned themselves. The majority of the lower middle class of Winnipeg reversed the pattern of the lower class and working class and had high scores exactly as did the lower middle class of New York City. The lower middle class of Winnipeg also followed the lower middle class in New York

by having relatively fewer zero scores than high scores.

The upper class scores show quite a different patterning between the two studies. In the New York study most of the upper class (SES 9) scored low (70%) and relatively few (10%) received a high score. However in the Winnipeg study the majority of the upper middle class (60%) scored moderately or in the high range. This comparison of the ILI results in Winnipeg and New York has been based upon the grouping Labov had used for the ILI index scores in order to obtain a rectangular distribution of the scores received in his New York study (see table 1).

In order to compare the distribution of the scores of the ILI test and the CILI test as obtained in this study, the scores of each study must be divided into four categories: zero score group, low scores, medium scores, and high scores. The same procedure was used in determining the division of the scores for both the ILI test and the CILI test results for this study as Labov had used in dividing the scores from the ILI test given in New York City.

The division of the ILI scores received in Winnipeg into four categories is shown in table 5. (See appendix E for the distribution by frequency and percent of each score.)

The division of the scores from the CILI test used in Winnipeg according to their frequency is shown in table 6. (See appendix F for the frequency of occurrence of each score.)

TABLE 5
 DIVISION OF SCORES ON ILI WITH RESULTANT
 FREQUENCIES AND PERCENTAGES

<u>Score</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percentage</u>
0	39	48.8
1-2	16	20.0
3-5	17	21.3
6+	8	10.0
	80	

TABLE 6
 DIVISION OF SCORES ON CILI WITH RESULTANT
 FREQUENCIES AND PERCENTAGES

<u>Score</u>	<u>CAT</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percentage</u>
0	1	39	48.8
1-3	2	17	21.3
4-8	3	17	21.3
9+	4	7	8.8
		80	

The percentage distribution achieved by means of the groupings established in table 6 is very close to the percentage distributions of the ILI scores in table 5.

Tables 5 and 6 have subdivided the data from each test, the ILI and the CILI, into groups of scores which allow for comparison between the two tests. Table 5 shows how the ILI scores were divided into the four groups: the zero score, the low scores, the moderate scores, and the high scores. The division of the scores was made with the intent of achieving a balanced distribution in the four groups. Similarly, table 6 shows how the scores from the CILI test were divided for a balanced distribution.

In table 7 we show the relationship between the ILI scores received and the CILI scores received in terms of these groupings.

TABLE 7
RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ILI AND CILI SCORES USING
FREQUENCIES OF SCORES BY GROUPS

	6+	1	0	2	5
	3-5	1	5	10	1
ILI	1-2	3	8	4	1
	0	34	4	1	0
		0	1-3	4-8	9+
			CILI		

It is evident from table 7 that there is a strong positive relationship between the scores of the two tests. The 4x4 matrix of table 7 clearly supports our first hypothesis that the scores from the ILI test will be positively correlated with the scores from the CILI test, and gives support to our claim of the validity of the CILI test.

We now turn to a presentation of the data in terms of the variables social class and sex. Table 8 shows the distribution of the index scores from the ILI test for four socio-economic groups.

TABLE 8
PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF ILI SCORES FOR
WINNIPEG RESPONDENTS BY SES

ILI	SES GROUPS			
	<i>lower class</i> 0-2	<i>workers class</i> 3-5	<i>lower middle class</i> 6-8	<i>upper middle class</i> 9
0	76	46	33	40
1-2	12	30	14	0
3-5	6	16	38	40
6-8	6	8	14	20
	<u>100</u>	<u>100</u>	<u>100</u>	<u>100</u>
N:	17	37	21	5

The data from table 8 follows the same pattern as the data displayed in Labov's table showing the results from his New York study. First, no class in table 8 has a high percentage of scores in the high score range. Secondly, the majority of the lower and working classes scored zero, and a small percentage of these classes had high scores. Thirdly, the lower middle class reverses the pattern of the lower and working classes with the majority of scores from the lower middle class being in the moderate range.

Only the upper middle class scores do not follow the New York pattern. In table 8 we see that the majority of the scores of this class are in the moderate and high ranges whereas in the New York study the majority of the upper middle class had low scores (see table 4).

Even with the discrepancy between the distribution of the upper middle class scores on the ILI test from this study and from Labov's New York study, the data still supports our second hypothesis that the lower middle class scores will be larger than any other class scores. The lower middle class scored much higher than all the other classes.

	<u>Mean ILI Score</u>
Lower middle class	2.8
All other classes	1.5

The t test for the significance of the difference of the lower middle class mean score and the mean of all the

other classes resulted in a t value of 3.67, which is significant at the .01 level of confidence. (See appendix G for the calculations used.)

Table 9 shows the distribution of index scores, from the CILI test, for four socio-economic groups.

TABLE 9
PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF CILI SCORES FOR WINNIPEG
RESPONDENTS BY SES

CILI	SES GROUPS			
	0-2	3-5	6-8	9
0	76	51	24	40
1-3	12	27	14	40
4-8	12	11	48	20
9	0	11	14	0
	<u>100</u>	<u>100</u>	<u>100</u>	<u>100</u>
N:	17	37	21	5

The data from the CILI as displayed in table 9 also shows a remarkable similarity to the pattern achieved by Labov with the ILI test in New York City. The majority of the lower and working classes had zero scores and very few

of these respondents had scores of more than three. In the case of the lower middle class the distribution of scores is reversed from the distribution of lower class and working class scores as Labov had found. The majority of the lower middle class had high scores and very few had zero or low scores.

The upper middle class scores from the CILI test follow the pattern found by Labov in the ILI test in New York City. This result contrasts with the patterning shown by the ILI test scores received in Winnipeg. The majority of the upper middle class scored zero or in the low range and only a small percentage scored in the moderate range.

The results in table 9, then, clearly support our third hypothesis that the lower middle class scores from the ILI test will be greater than any other class scores.

Furthermore, the lower middle class scored higher on the CILI test than did the other social classes, as shown below.

	<u>Mean CILI Score</u>
Lower middle class	4.8
All other classes	1.9

A t test for the significance of the difference of these two means showed the difference to be significant at the .01 confidence level with the obtained t ratio= 3.34. (See appendix G for calculations used in this test.)

With this data we have support for claiming that our third hypothesis is correct: the lower middle class scores will be greater than any other class's scores from the CILI test.

The lower middle class scored almost twice as high on the CILI test than on the ILI test.

	<u>Mean Test Score</u>
Lower middle class on CILI	4.8
Lower middle class on ILI	2.8

A t test did not show this difference to be significant (see appendix G) but because our sample size was small we will accept the obtained differences in scores as supporting the fourth hypothesis.

Our final discussion of the results of the data deals with the comparison of the scores made by males and females. In Labov's New York study, the females scored 50% higher than the males (Labov, 1966: 478). In this study the females also scored higher than the males on both the ILI and the CILI tests as shown below.

	<u>Mean ILI Score</u>	<u>Mean CILI Score</u>
Females	2.2	3.3
Males	1.4	2.1

We take this data to support our fifth and sixth hypotheses. The females on the ILI test scored 36% higher than the males scored on the same test. This supports our

hypothesis that females would score higher than males on the ILI test. Secondly, the females scored 36% higher than the males scored on the CILI test. This data supports the sixth hypothesis that females would score higher than males on the CILI test.

Our final hypothesis stated that the females scores on the CILI test will be greater than the female scores on the ILI test. This hypothesis is also supported by the data since the female CILI scores were in fact higher than the female ILI scores.

	<u>Mean Test Score</u>
Female (CILI)	3.3
Female (ILI)	2.2

The t test for significant differences showed that neither the male-female score differences nor the difference of the female scores on the CILI and the female scores on the ILI were significant at the .05 level (see appendix G). However, as mentioned above, our sample size was small and therefore the value of the significance tests is marginal. We stress that we do interpret observed differences as supporting hypotheses six and seven.

In summary, table 4 showed the high correlation of the CILI test results with the ILI test results. The data from both the ILI and CILI tests showed that the lower middle class scored higher than any other class. This result is

exactly what would be expected from Labov's claim that the lower middle class is most affected by linguistic insecurity. Labov also claimed that women were more affected than men by linguistic insecurity. The results from both tests also reflect this claim since women did score higher than men in both tests.

Furthermore, both the lower middle class and women scored higher on the CILI than on the ILI test. These results were hypothesized since the CILI test was designed to more accurately reflect the norms of the Winnipeg speech community.

The results of this study as presented in this chapter support the assertion that the CILI test is a valid measure of linguistic insecurity in Winnipeg.

CHAPTER 4

CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSION

4.1. Conclusions

The data allows us to conclude that the CILI test is a valid measurement of linguistic insecurity in Winnipeg. The CILI test results show the high criterion and construct validity.

The criterion validity was shown by the very strong association of the CILI test with the ILI test results when both tests were administered in Winnipeg.

The construct validity of the CILI test was equally well supported by the data. First, the ILI test results from this study showed that Labov's ILI test as constructed for his New York study was also a sensitive measurement of linguistic insecurity in Winnipeg. The lower middle class scored higher on the ILI test than did any other class, and females scored higher than males. These results are exactly what Labov predicted in terms of his explanation of the characteristics of linguistic insecurity. According to Labov, the lower middle class is most seriously affected by linguistic insecurity and also, females are much more

linguistically insecure than are men. We would expect then that the lower middle class would have the highest scores of any class and that females would have higher scores than males, and this was the case for the ILI test results.

Moreover, the CILI test results showed the same pattern with the lower middle class scoring higher on the CILI than any other class and females scoring higher than males on the CILI test. Inasmuch as Winnipeg is a speech community distinct from New York City and the CILI test was designed using items which would more accurately reflect the norms of Winnipeg, we expected the CILI test to show a 'stronger' effect.

This expectation was supported by the data since the lower middle class scored higher on the CILI test than on the ILI test, and females also scored higher on the CILI test than on the ILI test. We conclude that the CILI test demonstrates construct validity since it appears to be more sensitive to the attitude linguistic insecurity in Winnipeg than does the ILI test.

4.2. Discussion

Having shown the CILI to be a valid measure of linguistic insecurity, we now turn to a discussion of the future role the CILI test might play in linguistic studies.

This researcher sees the CILI being a useful tool to discover the extent of the attitude across Canada. It would

be interesting, for example, to discover if Newfoundlanders exhibit the same self-pride Underwood found with the Arkansawyers. It would also be interesting to discover if the CILI was sensitive to racial differences, to first and second generation Canadians' differences, to native Indians on reserves as compared to native Indians off reserves, and to rural-urban differences. Using schools as a sample population it would be possible to discover the first signs of this attitude. This information might lead to insights concerning the forces influencing linguistic insecurity and its role in linguistic processes.

The immediate questions which arise from acceptance of the validity of the CILI are, "What are the origins of linguistic insecurity in Canada?" and "What are the variables associated with it?" Although this study was not designed to investigate these specific questions certain speculations can be made based upon the data and upon the casual interchanges which followed the interviews. The following discussion is provided only as exploratory comments meant to encourage further research.

A cursory glance at the scores received shows that those who claimed that school was an influence in teaching them the pronunciations of words, or those who relied on the spelling for determining the correct pronunciations, tended to have high scores. Those who claimed they learned the pronunciations from their friends tended to have low scores.

These tentative findings warrant further research.

Age also seemed to be a factor in the index scoring. It was a general impression that those over sixty, male and female, scored zero or very low. This study did not control for age so this claim cannot be substantiated. One particular respondent gives weight to this speculation. Hubert C. claimed that he spoke with a French accent as a young man, but because of pressures from his co-workers who would tease him, and because of his aspirations to be a labour organizer, practised his English until he removed all but a trace of his former accent. At the time of the interview it was very difficult to detect any accent. At age fifty, he spoke candidly about his efforts at self-improvement and was confident of his English pronunciation. This was reflected in the CILI test and his score was very low. (His actual scores were ILI 0, CILI 3.) The CILI test results show the linguistic security which Hubert had gained through his conscious efforts over many years.

There is evidence that occupation seems to influence the CILI test as well. Teachers, in particular, scored high on the test. Again, occupation was not controlled for in the data and calls for further research.

Winnipeggers did not express the great negative prestige that Labov found in New York. Several people commented that they thought Canadian English was better than

British or American English. There were some, though, who felt ashamed by their Canadian pronunciation when they travelled to Britain, and some who claimed there really wasn't such a thing as Canadian English. In general most ranked American English below Canadian and British English. These observations suggest that linguistic insecurity reveals itself differently in Winnipeg than in New York. Probing this question might provide answers to the very nature of attitude itself.

Labov reported that the ILI test is sensitive to status incongruency and this also was shown in one particular case in this study, Richard C. Richard lived in a very large home in Riverview on one of its most prestigious streets. He had recently become a vice-principal of a large Winnipeg high school and his income was well above the nation's median. Early in his career Richard had been a Physical Education teacher and prior to becoming an administrator had been a teacher of English. Although Richard's social class index was very high he scored 8 on the CILI, an unusually high score. The index score reflects Richard's insecurity and his incomplete acceptance of his new social status. (Richard's actual SES index was eight due to his large, mature family living at home which forced down the income per equivalent adult.)

Much further work remains to be done with the data. Many of the items of the CILI are directly comparable to the

data as gathered by Scargill. There may be a difference between Scargill's results and the results of this study. If so, how are the differences to be explained? Are the differences due to the different methods of collecting the data or are they signs of linguistic change in progress?

Labov has claimed that linguistic insecurity is an instigator of linguistic change. Examination of the data item by item might provide some insight into this claim.

Future research might replicate, in Winnipeg, other aspects of Labov's New York study. Accepting the validity of the CILI entails the acceptance of the theory that Winnipeg is characterized by a set of evaluational norms unique to this community. We must also accept that variable pronunciations of the twenty-two items reflect those evaluational norms and therefore the use of these pronunciations is determined by social forces as well as by the well-established historical forces. This one study provides modest evidence to support such important conclusions and subsequent studies should concentrate on developing these theoretical concerns.

The CILI test reflected the manifest insecurity of the respondents but it is also necessary to investigate the latent insecurity, as Labov did in his New York study, in order to more fully understand the norms which govern the evaluational reactions of Winnipeg residents.

Labov's explanation of linguistic insecurity also

included the claim that there are distinct behavioural consequences of linguistic insecurity, one of them being the criticism of stigmatized language traits in others. This bears investigation in the Winnipeg setting.

A further behavioural consequence of linguistic insecurity claimed by Labov is the hypercorrect use of phonological variables. This type of investigation would be more extensive but would also provide valuable insights into Labov's theory of linguistic insecurity and into the nature of Canadian English.

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APPENDIX A

INTERVIEWING PROCEDURES IN DETAIL

As mentioned previously, the majority of interviews were carried out between April and September, 1982, either during the evenings or on weekends. The months of July and August did not prove to be the best time to complete the surveys, even though this researcher could interview during the day. In many cases both members of the household either worked or were out when the interviewer called, or the family was taking advantage of Winnipeg's short summer season and was away on holiday.

For the first 140 households picked at random, all were first contacted by telephone to ask if they would be interested in completing the questionnaire, and if they qualified by being a native speaker and resident of Winnipeg since age eight, and finally if they would select a convenient time for an interview. This procedure was not very satisfactory, resulting in a very high refusal rate. Of the first 140 households, 18% of those contacted by phone refused to be interviewed. The reason most often given for not wanting to complete the survey was that they were not interested. The difficulty in understanding exactly what the survey was about and the uneasy feeling that this was

a language test they might fail, along with the general dissatisfaction people feel towards telephone solicitations combined to bring about a high failure rate in achieving interviews.

The next 140 households were approached without a preliminary phone call. The majority of the interviews were completed by this researcher, and eight were completed by the researcher's wife, Audrey Owens. Both are university educated, both teachers, are approximately the same age, and are natives of Winnipeg. Two cases Mrs. Owens completed were females living alone, who felt more relaxed inviting a female interviewer into the home. In two other cases the respondents were well known to Mrs. Owens' parents, and in four cases Mrs. Owens conducted interviews during working hours when this researcher was at his full-time teaching job.

When the interview began the interviewer introduced himself as a school teacher who was completing a survey in Lord Roberts and Riverview in order to determine attitudes people held towards various pronunciations of certain words. In order that the respondent feel his response was important, it was explained that not everyone in the area could be interviewed, so different homes had been selected at random and that it was necessary to find out what the respondent thought in order to obtain a good representation of all views in the area.

The interviewer then asked if the respondent had lived in Winnipeg since age eight or younger and if he had learned English before age five. These were the same restrictions Labov had used in determining his sample in New York City. If the answers to both questions were affirmative, the interviewer would ask permission to conduct the interview. If the individual was not eligible, the interviewer asked if any other adult in the household was eligible and would permit an interview. If no adult was eligible the interviewer would move on to the next household on the list.

The questionnaire would then be shown to the respondent and he would be asked his pronunciation of the first item-- [||: vəʔr] or [||evaʔr] . Once the number corresponding to his response had been circled and he was told that the whole interview would take about ten or fifteen minutes, the respondent was usually willing to complete the interview. In only eight cases, or 6% of the 140 respondents, were interviews refused.

The majority of those who refused were female and over sixty. These people were polite and listened attentively as the survey was introduced but were quite firm in their refusal. One gentleman simply had no time for "university types" and their surveys which "amounted to nothing." In two cases the spouse refused on behalf of the mate who was not at home at the time.

Most respondents took the ILI and CILI test as a challenge and found the tests interesting. All respondents considered the items under question on the ILI and CILI tests as comprising one test. The items for the ILI test were numbered 1-18 in the first column and items for the CILI test were numbered 19-40 in a second column. No respondent remarked on the imbalance of the two columns, nor did any respondent question why the interviewer started with the first column (the ILI test) or the second column (the CILI test).

The vast majority of the respondents were surprisingly open and congenial to the interviewer. Although the stereotype of the city dweller is one of being unfriendly and suspicious, this was certainly not the case for the residents of Lord Roberts and Riverview who were very gracious and hospitable.

On average the interviews did take only about fifteen minutes. Occasionally it would be done right at the doorway in a very few minutes, as the interviewer read from a guide list giving the pronunciations of the words, but most were completed in living rooms or at kitchen tables. When other members of the family were present they would also take the test. These tests were not counted and the interviewer did not allow any discussion or comparison until after the completion of the ILI and the CILI.

Often the respondents asked for a repeat of the pronunciations and took several moments to complete the item. These observations, along with the fact that many interviews were followed by long and animated discussions, show that in general the respondents thought the test was interesting and completed it with some care.

Those respondents who thought both pronunciations were correct were asked to check the pronunciation which they thought was most correct. If this was still not satisfactory for the respondent he was asked to omit the item.

omit
ITEM

Following the completion of the pronunciation items on the test the conversation was continued on the subject of language in general, asking the respondents their opinions on Canadian English: whether Canadian English exists, whether it is better or worse than American or British English, and whether their English had ever been remarked upon when they travelled and if they had ever been made to feel foolish because of the way they spoke. Their comments were noted at the bottom of the questionnaire as they spoke, or afterwards between interviews.

The purpose of this general conversation on language was to gather information about the respondents' attitudes towards their own speech and to establish that the survey was a serious attempt to understand language attitudes.

After this discussion a rapport had usually been

established and at this time the interview sheet was handed back and the respondent asked to complete the questions concerning the demographic material necessary for analysing the data. Only five people, four males and one female, refused to complete the information regarding income. Since the respondent always named the occupation it was relatively easy to approximate their income by discussing the question with other members of the profession.

What follows is the questionnaire as presented to each respondent.

Attitudes Towards Pronunciation

You are about to hear two possible pronunciations of the words listed below. Circle the one you believe is correct. Then check the one you usually use.

- | | | | | | |
|---------------|---|---|------------------|---|---|
| 1. Joseph | 1 | 2 | 19. lever | 1 | 2 |
| 2. catch | 1 | 2 | 20. student | 1 | 2 |
| 3. tomato | 1 | 2 | 21. apricot | 1 | 2 |
| 4. diapers | 1 | 2 | 22. schedule | 1 | 2 |
| 5. aunt | 1 | 2 | 23. genuine | 1 | 2 |
| 6. often | 1 | 2 | 24. anti | 1 | 2 |
| 7. garage | 1 | 2 | 25. bury | 1 | 2 |
| 8. humourous | 1 | 2 | 26. arctic | 1 | 2 |
| 9. vase | 1 | 2 | 27. butter | 1 | 2 |
| 10. length | 1 | 2 | 28. caramel | 1 | 2 |
| 11. February | 1 | 2 | 29. lieutenant | 1 | 2 |
| 12. ketchup | 1 | 2 | 30. leisure | 1 | 2 |
| 13. escalator | 1 | 2 | 31. either | 1 | 2 |
| 14. new | 1 | 2 | 32. cot | 1 | 2 |
| 15. tune | 1 | 2 | 33. missile | 1 | 2 |
| 16. avenue | 1 | 2 | 34. film | 1 | 2 |
| 17. because | 1 | 2 | 35. almond | 1 | 2 |
| 18. half | 1 | 2 | 36. progress | 1 | 2 |
| | | | 37. route | 1 | 2 |
| | | | 38. congratulate | 1 | 2 |
| | | | 39. ration | 1 | 2 |
| | | | 40. whine | 1 | 2 |

Circle the most appropriate number.

Sex 1. M 2. F

Education

- | | |
|---------------------------|-------------------------|
| 0. none | 5. 11th |
| 1. some elementary | 6. 12th |
| 2. elementary (8th grade) | 7. some university |
| 3. 9th | 8. graduated university |
| 4. 10th | |

Total Income of Household

- | | |
|------------------|-------------------|
| 1. under 8,300 | 5. 17,900-27,999 |
| 2. 8,300-13,999 | 6. 28,000-33,199 |
| 3. 14,000-16,599 | 7. 33,200-35,799 |
| 4. 16,600-17,899 | 8. 35,800 or over |

Occupants in this Household

adults (over 18) _____ youngsters (5-12) _____
 teenagers (13-17) _____ infants (0-4) _____

Occupation _____

Have you lived in Winnipeg since you were 8 years old?

1. yes 2. no

Did you learn to speak English before you were 5 years old?

1. yes 2. no

APPENDIX B

BROAD PHONETIC TRANSCRIPTIONS OF ITEMS ON THE ILI TEST

The following are broad phonetic transcriptions of the two forms of the items which were read aloud for the ILI test. They follow the pronunciations used by Labov (1966:601).

1. [dʒousɪf]	[dʒouzɪf]
2. [kætʃ]	[kɛtʃ]
3. [təməstə]	[təmətə]
4. [dɑɪpəz]	[daɪəpəz]
5. [ɑnt]	[ænt]
6. [ɔftən]	[ɔfn]
7. [gərdʒ]	[gərd:ʒ]
8. [hjumərəs]	[jumərəs]
9. [veɪz]	[va:z]
10. [lɛnθ]	[lɛŋθ]
11. [fɛbruəri]	[fɛbjʊəri]
12. [kætʃəp]	[kɛtʃəp]
13. [ɛskələɪtə]	[ɛskjʌlɪtə]
14. [nɛju]	[njɛju]
15. [tɛjun]	[tɛjʌn]
16. [ævənju]	[ævənju]
17. [bɪkɔz]	[bɪkɔz]
18. [hæf]	[haf]

If the respondent claimed he used neither form for item 7, then the pronunciations [gərədʒ] and [gərəʒ] were read aloud.

APPENDIX C

BROAD PHONETIC TRANSCRIPTIONS OF ITEMS ON THE CILI TEST

The following alternate pronunciations were used for the items of the CILI test. These pronunciations were based upon the alternate pronunciations used by Scargill (1971).

1. [li:vər]	[levər]
2. [stju:dənt]	[stu:dənt]
3. [eɪprəkət]	[æprəkət]
4. [skedʒvəl]	[sedʒvəl]
5. [dʒenjʊɪn]	[dʒenjʊain]
6. [æntai]	[ænti]
7. [berɪ]	[bəri]
8. [arktɪk]	[artɪk]
9. [bndər]	[bntər]
10. [kærməl]	[kærəməl]
11. [leftənənt]	[lu:tenənt]
12. [lezər]	[li:zər]
13. [aɪðər]	[i:ðər]
14. [kɒt]	[kət]
15. [mɪsəl]	[mɪsəl]
16. [fɪləm]	[fɪlm]
17. [almənd]	[a:mənd]
18. [præʊgres]	[prəʊgres]
19. [raʊt]	[ru:t]

20. [kəŋgrætʃvleɪt]

[kəŋgrædʒvleɪt]

21. [ræfən]

[reɪfən]

22. [hwaɪn]

[waɪn]

If the respondent claimed he used neither form of item 17, then the pronunciations [ælmənd] and [æmənd] were read aloud.

If the respondent claimed he used neither form of item 10, then the pronunciations [kərməl] and [kə'əməl] were read aloud.

APPENDIX D

LABOV'S METHOD OF INDEXING SOCIAL CLASS

The following procedure was used by Labov to index social class in his 1966 study of New York speech. The information is taken from The Social Stratification of English in New York City (Labov, 1966:213-216) and is provided here for comparison with the indexing procedure used in this study.

Labov chose three indicators as the basis of his stratification: occupation, education, and income. Each of these was divided into four broad categories. The categories for occupational rank are listed below:

Occupational Rank

- IV Professionals, Managers, and Officials
(Salaried and Self-Employed)
- III Clerks and Salesmen
- II Craftsmen and Foremen: Self-Employed White and
Blue-Collar Workers
- I Operatives, Service Workers, Laborers, and
Permanently Unemployed Persons

The categories for educational rank were as follows:

Educational Rank

- ✓ IV Completed some College or more
- 1, 2, 3 III Finished High School
- CP " II Completed some High School
- 1, 2, 3 I Finished Grade School or less

The categories for income rank were:

Income Rank

- IV More than Nation's Median
- III More than Lower East Side Median but less than Nation's Median
- II More than Minimum Wage but less than Lower East Side Median
- I Less than Minimum Wage

The income was calculated by a four step procedure listed below.

1. The total income for the family, and the number of adults and children who are supported by that income were determined.

2. The number of "equivalent adults" in the household was determined from a chart which gave less weight to children than adults, following figures on the relative costs of supporting children and adults.

3. The income per equivalent adult was determined by dividing total family income by the number assigned under 2 above.

4. This figure was adjusted downward by \$5.00 weekly, representing the common household expense for all sizes of families. The remaining figure is the adjusted income per equivalent number of adults.

The final index was determined using the following matrix.

<u>Educa- tional Rank</u>	<u>Income Rank</u>															
	(High) IV				III				II				I (Low)			
	<u>Occupational Rank</u>				<u>Occupational Rank</u>				<u>Occupational Rank</u>				<u>Occupational Rank</u>			
	(High)	(Low)	(High)	(Low)	(High)	(Low)	(High)	(Low)	(High)	(Low)	(High)	(Low)	(High)	(Low)	(High)	(Low)
<u>IV</u>	<u>III</u>	<u>II</u>	<u>I</u>	<u>IV</u>	<u>III</u>	<u>II</u>	<u>I</u>	<u>IV</u>	<u>III</u>	<u>II</u>	<u>I</u>	<u>IV</u>	<u>III</u>	<u>II</u>	<u>I</u>	
High IV	9	8	7	6	8	7	6	5	7	6	5	4	6	5	4	3
III	8	7	6	5	7	6	5	4	6	5	4	3	5	4	3	2
II	7	6	5	4	6	5	4	3	5	4	3	2	4	3	2	1
Low I	6	5	4	3	5	4	3	2	4	3	2	1	3	2	1	0

The resulting index scale of social class of 0-9 was divided into four major classes as shown below.

- 0-2 lower class
- 3-5 working class
- 6-8 lower middle class
- 9 upper middle class

APPENDIX E
DISTRIBUTION OF DATA BY SCORES FROM ILI

<u>ILI SCORE</u>	<u>FREQUENCY</u>	<u>PERCENT</u>
0	39	49
1	5	6
2	11	14
3	5	6
4	8	10
5	4	5
6	3	4
7	4	5
8	1	1
	<hr/>	<hr/>
	80	100

APPENDIX F
DISTRIBUTION OF DATA BY SCORES FROM CILI

<u>CILI SCORE</u>	<u>FREQUENCY</u>	<u>PERCENT</u>
0	39	49
1	5	6
2	3	4
3	9	11
4	4	5
5	2	3
6	4	5
7	2	3
8	5	6
9	1	1
10	1	1
11	3	4
12	2	3
	<hr/>	<hr/>
	80	101*

* due to rounding

APPENDIX G

SUMMARY OF CALCULATIONS USED IN STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

This appendix contains the somewhat abbreviated calculations used in computing the statistical significance of the data. The formulas used here and the procedures followed were all taken from Elementary Statistics in Social Research (Levin, 1973: 154-57).

Calculation of Means

Means were calculated using the following formula:

$$\bar{X}_i = \frac{\sum x_i}{N}$$

The procedure for testing the significance of two means when the groups are small and unequal is outlined below. This procedure (Levin, 1973: 154-57) was used to test the significance between

- a) LMC scores and all other class scores on ILI
- b) LMC scores and all other class scores on CILI
- c) Female scores and male scores on the ILI
- d) Female scores and male scores on the CILI

$$1. \quad \sigma = \sqrt{\frac{\sum x^2}{N} - \bar{X}^2}$$

where σ = standard deviation

$\sum x^2$ = sum of scores squared

N = total members of group

\bar{X} = mean of group scores

$$2. \quad \sigma_{diff} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{N_1 \sigma_1^2 + N_2 \sigma_2^2}{N_1 + N_2 - 2} \right) \left(\frac{1}{N_1} + \frac{1}{N_2} \right)}$$

σ_{diff} = standard error of the difference

$$S \bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2$$

N_i = members of each group

σ_i = standard deviation of each group mean

$$3. \quad t = \frac{\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2}{\sigma_{diff}}$$

$$4. \quad df = N + N - 2$$

where df = degrees of freedom

5. The obtained t ratio was compared to the table t ratio given in Elementary Statistics in Social Research (Levin, 1973: 263).

The procedure for testing the significance of the means when the groups were the same size was also taken from Levin (1973:152-54). The test for small groups of equal size was used in comparing

- a) LMC scores on the ILI and on the CILI
- b) Female scores on the ILI and on the CILI.

$$1. \sigma_i = \sqrt{\frac{\sum x^2}{N} - \bar{X}^2}$$

σ_i = standard deviation of each sample group

$\sum X^2$ = sum of scores squared

N = number in each sample group

\bar{X} = means of each sample group

$$2. \sigma_{\bar{X}_1} = \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{N-1}} \qquad \sigma_{\bar{X}_2} = \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{N-1}}$$

$\sigma_{\bar{X}_i}$ = standard error of each mean

$$3. \sigma_{d,ff} = \sqrt{\sigma_{\bar{X}_1}^2 + \sigma_{\bar{X}_2}^2}$$

$\sigma_{d,ff}$ = standard error of the difference

$$4. t = \frac{\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2}{\sigma_{d,ff}}$$

\bar{X}_i = mean of each sample

$$5. df = N_1 + N_2 - 2$$

The obtained t ratio was compared with the t ratio taken from table C in Levin (1973:263).

The calculations for testing the difference between the LMC scores and all other class scores on the ILI are as follows:

1. means: all other class scores = 1.5 LMC = 2.8

$$2. \quad \sigma_1 = \sqrt{\frac{314}{59} - (1.5)^2} \quad \sigma_2 = \sqrt{\frac{297}{21} - (2.8)^2}$$

$$= 1.75 \quad = 2.51$$

$$3. \quad \sigma_{d,ff} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{59(1.75)^2 + 21(2.51)^2}{59 + 21 - 2} \right) \left(\frac{1}{59} + \frac{1}{21} \right)}$$

$$= .502$$

$$4. \quad t = \frac{1.5 - 2.8}{.502}$$

$$= -2.60$$

$$5. \quad df = 59 + 21 - 2$$

$$= 78$$

obtained t ratio = 2.60

table t = 2.00

df = 60

P = .05

The calculations for testing the difference between the LMC scores and all other class scores on the CILI are as follows:

1. means: all other class scores = 1.98 LMC = 4.8

$$2. \quad \sigma_1 = \sqrt{\frac{785}{59} - (1.9)^2} \qquad \sigma_2 = \sqrt{\frac{821}{21} - (4.8)^2}$$

$$\qquad = 3.06 \qquad \qquad \qquad = 3.99$$

$$3. \quad \sigma_{diff} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{59(3.06)^2 + 21(3.99)^2}{59 + 21 - 2} \right) \left(\frac{1}{59} + \frac{1}{21} \right)}$$

$$\qquad = .846$$

$$4. \quad t = \frac{1.98 - 4.8}{.846}$$

$$\qquad = -3.33$$

$$5. \quad df = 59 + 21 - 2$$

$$\qquad = 78$$

obtained t ratio = 3.34

table t ratio = 2.66 for df=60

P = .01

Calculations for comparing LMC scores on the ILI and the CILI are as follows:

$$1. \quad \sigma_{CILI} = 3.99 \qquad \sigma_{ILI} = 2.51$$

2. standard error of the mean

$$\begin{aligned} &= \frac{3.99}{\sqrt{21-1}} & &= \frac{2.51}{\sqrt{21-1}} \\ &= .89 & &= .56 \end{aligned}$$

3. standard error of the difference

$$\begin{aligned} &= \sqrt{(.89)^2 + (.56)^2} \\ &= 1.053 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} 4. \quad t &= \frac{4.81 - 2.8}{1.05} \\ &= 1.914 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} 5. \quad df &= 21 + 21 - 2 \\ &= 39 \end{aligned}$$

obtained t ratio = 1.914

table t ratio = 2.02

df = 40

P = .05

Calculations for comparing female and male scores on the ILI test are as follows:

1. means female: 2.24 male: 1.42

$$2. \sigma_1 = \sqrt{\frac{450 - (2.24)^2}{42}} \qquad \sigma_2 = \sqrt{\frac{242 - (1.42)^2}{38}}$$

$$= 2.387 \qquad \qquad \qquad = 2.085$$

$$3. \sigma_{diff} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{42 (2.387)^2 + 38 (2.085)^2}{42 + 38 - 2} \right) \left(\frac{1}{42} + \frac{1}{38} \right)}$$

$$= .509$$

$$4. t = \frac{2.2 - 1.4}{.509}$$

$$= 1.57$$

$$5. df = N_1 + N_2 - 2$$

$$= 42 + 38 - 2$$

$$= 78$$

obtained t ratio = 1.57

table t ratio = 2.00

df = 60

P = .05

Calculations for comparing female and male scores on the CILI test are as follows:

1. means female: 3.28 male: 2.10

$$2. \quad \sigma_F = \sqrt{\frac{1011}{42} - (3.28)^2} \quad \sigma_M = \sqrt{\frac{604}{38} - (2.1)^2}$$

$$= 3.64 \quad = 3.38$$

3. standard error of the difference

$$= \sqrt{\left(\frac{42 (3.64)^2 + 38 (3.38)^2}{42 + 38 - 2} \right) \left(\frac{1}{42} + \frac{1}{38} \right)}$$

$$= .8$$

$$4. \quad t = \frac{3.3 - 2.10}{.8}$$

$$= 1.5$$

$$5. \quad df = 42 + 38 - 2$$

$$= 78$$

obtained t ratio = 1.5

table t ratio = 2

df = 60

Calculations for comparing female scores on the CILI and on the ILI are as follow:

1. means: female (CILI) = 3.3 female (ILI) = 2.2

2. $\sigma_f(\text{CILI}) = 3.64$ $\sigma_f(\text{ILI}) = 2.387$

3. $\sigma_{\bar{x}_1} = \frac{3.64}{41}$ $\sigma_{\bar{x}_2} = \frac{2.387}{41}$
 = .568 = .372

4. $\sigma_{diff} = \sqrt{(.568)^2 + (.372)^2}$
 = .68

5. $t = \frac{3.3 - 2.2}{.68}$
 = 1.62

6. $df = 42 + 42 - 2$
 = 82

obtained t ratio = 1.62

table t ratio = 2.00

df = 60

P = .05

APPENDIX H

RAW DATA

Data from female respondents:

	<u>In- come Rank</u>	<u>Occu- pation Rank</u>	<u>Edu- cation Rank</u>	<u>SES In- dex</u>	<u>ILI Score</u>	<u>CILI Score</u>
1.	I	III	II	3	0	1
2.	II	III	IV	6	0	8
3.	I	I	II	1	0	0
4.	II	III	III	5	7	9
5.	II	II	III	4	2	6
6.	II	IV	II	5	1	0
7.	IV	IV	III	8	4	5
8.	IV	IV	II	7	0	0
9.	III	III	III	6	0	0
10.	IV	III	IV	8	0	1
11.	III	II	III	5	0	0
12.	IV	I	IV	6	5	8
13.	II	I	II	2	0	0
14.	IV	II	III	6	0	0
15.	II	II	I	2	2	3
16.	IV	III	III	7	0	0
17.	I	III	II	3	2	3
18.	III	I	III	4	1	2
19.	I	III	IV	5	2	7
20.	I	IV	IV	6	7	12

21.	I	III	II	3	2	3
22.	II	II	IV	5	1	0
23.	III	III	II	5	0	0
24.	II	II	IV	5	4	0
25.	IV	IV	IV	9	6	0
26.	I	III	III	4	4	10
27.	III	II	II	4	2	3
28.	IV	IV	IV	9	5	5
29.	II	I	I	1	7	8
30.	I	III	IV	5	3	7
31.	IV	IV	IV	9	3	3
32.	I	III	II	3	0	0
33.	I	II	III	3	3	2
34.	III	IV	IV	8	1	6
35.	II	III	IV	6	4	8
36.	II	III	IV	6	8	11
37.	III	IV	III	7	0	0
38.	II	IV	II	5	4	3
39.	IV	IV	III	8	4	4
40.	II	II	II	3	0	0
41.	II	III	II	4	0	0
42.	II	III	III	5	0	0

Data from male respondents

	<u>In- come Rank</u>	<u>Occu- pation Rank</u>	<u>Edu- cation Rank</u>	<u>SES In- dex</u>	<u>ILI Score</u>	<u>CILI Score</u>
43.	I	I	II	1	0	0
44.	II	I	II	2	5	4
45.	I	I	II	1	0	0
46.	I	III	III	4	0	3
47.	II	III	III	5	0	0
48.	I	I	I	0	0	0
49.	IV	II	II	5	0	0
50.	II	IV	IV	7	2	1
51.	II	I	II	2	0	0
52.	II	II	II	3	2	1
53.	I	I	II	1	0	0
54.	IV	IV	IV	9	0	1
55.	II	IV	IV	7	3	4
56.	I	II	II	2	0	0
57.	II	III	II	4	0	0
58.	I	II	III	3	2	6
59.	IV	IV	II	7	4	6
60.	I	II	II	2	0	0
61.	II	IV	III	6	5	3
62.	I	I	I	0	0	0
63.	I	I	I	0	0	0
64.	III	IV	IV	8	6	8

65.	III	IV	III	7	4	4
66.	III	III	II	5	0	0
67.	III	I	II	3	0	0
68.	II	III	IV	6	2	12
69.	III	II	II	4	2	0
70.	II	II	III	4	0	0
71.	I	II	I	1	0	0
72.	II	II	I	2	1	3
73.	II	II	III	4	0	0
74.	I	I	II	1	0	0
75.	II	IV	II	5	0	0
76.	II	II	II	3	6	11
77.	II	II	II	3	3	2
78.	II	I	II	2	0	0
79.	I	IV	III	5	7	11
80.	IV	IV	IV	9	0	0

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Winnipeg Press, 1968.

"Asking Good Questions." In Cross Currents LIOJ Journal
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Title of Thesis

INDEXING LINGUISTIC INSECURITY IN WINNIPEG

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