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**Unstitching the Linguistic Cityscape of Tiaret Speech
Community**

A case study of shop signs in Tiaret city centre

**A Dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment for the Requirement of the
Degree of Master in Linguistics**

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بِسْمِ اللَّهِ الرَّحْمَنِ الرَّحِيمِ

**In the Name of Allah
The Entirely Merciful, the Especially Merciful**

“Language is all around us in textual form as it is displayed on shop windows,
commercial signs, posters, official notices, traffic signs, etc.”

Durk Gorter (2006).

“The city is a place of language contact.”

Peter Backhaus (2007).

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Dedication

In the memory of my Grandmother

To: The precious gyms I ever got from Allah; my beloved parents;

Mr & Mrs. DJAAFAR and YAMINA MERDAF

Thanks mom, thanks dad for your efforts, guidance, sacrifices and prayers. Maybe there is no book for teaching parenthood; but your unconditional love, continual support is all I have ever needed. I am here today because of you two. Mom & Dad thank you for being there in my weakest and strength moments and for showing me that the word impossible itself says: I'm possible.

To: My wonderful and lovely sisters
KHALIDA & CHAIMA

With you, I always find my smile. I just want you to know that with you my accomplishments and efforts are really worthwhile. You are my angels and the greatest gifts that I ever known.

To: My kind Aunt REKIA
You deserve to know that you are absolutely essential to the happiness that lives in my heart.

To: My best friend SADIA

One line; side by side or miles apart we are sisters connected by heart

To: New members in family NOUHA, BEN OUDA

Nouha chaima; You are the sweetest and cutest little baby girl I've ever met. You've brought happiness and joy to our house. For better or for worst your aunt will be always there for you my baby girl.

To: My YELLOW CANARY

You were the only one to survive, and you taught me how to survive the darkest moments in my life. You accompanied me in my Ups and downs .despite of your early annoying singing; you have been always a part of this family.

To Every member in MERDAF & BENTOUMIA families

To: the BAD MOMENTS that brought GREAT and WONDERFULL PEOPLE in my life.

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Table of Contents

Acknowledgements	I
Dedication	II
Table of Contents.....	III
List of Tables.....	VII
List of Graphs.....	VIII
List of Abbreviations and Acronyms used in the Dissertation.....	IX
Abstract	X
المخلص	XI
Résumé.....	XII
General Introduction	1

Chapter One: Literature Review

1.1 Landscape.....	5
1.2 The Notion of Linguistic Landscape	7
1.2 Functions of Language	9
1.3 Functions of linguistic landscape	10
1.4 Definition of Signs	11
1.4.1 Types of Signs.....	13
1.6 Linguistic Landscape Items.....	14
1.6.1 Documentation of Linguistic Landscape Items	14
1.7 Language and place	16
1.8 Space and Place	18
1.9 Major Contributions in Linguistic Landscape Studies	18
1.10 Variables of Signs.....	25
1.10.1 Internal Variables of Signs.....	26
1.10.1.1 Linguistic Landscape Actors	26
1.10.1.2 Code Choice	28
1.10.1.3 Spatial Organization.....	28

1.10.1.4	Symbolic versus Indexical Meaning	29
1.10.1.5	Non-linguistic Elements	30
1.10.2	External Variables of Linguistic Landscape	31
1.10.2.1	Proper Names in the Linguistic Landscape	31
1.10.2.2	Language Policy and Linguistic Landscape	32
1.10.2.3	Linguistic Landscape: As a Product of Globalization	34
1.11	Conclusion.....	36

Chapter Two: Sociolinguistic Profile of Algeria

2.1	History and Story of Algeria	40
2.1.1	An Overview of Algeria.....	40
2.1.2	Demography and Social Structure	41
2.1.3	Historical Overview	41
2.1.3.1	Phoenicians in Algeria	42
2.1.3.2	The Roman Era in Algeria (106. BC-430.BC).....	42
2.1.3.3	The Arabs' Arrival	43
2.1.3.4	The Spanish Era in Algeria (1492).....	44
2.1.3.5	The Turkish Invasion (1516-1830)	44
2.1.3.6	The French Occupation (1830 – 1962).....	45
2.1.3.7	The Post Colonial Era (1962- 2020)	45
2.2	Tiaret: The Current Context	47
2.2.1	Presentation of the Region	47
2.2.2	History of the Region.....	49
2.3	The Linguistic Situation in Algeria	50
2.3.1	History of the Arabic Language.....	50
2.3.1.1	Classical Arabic(CA)	51
2.3.1.2	Modern Standard Arabic (MSA).....	51
2.3.1.3	Algerian Dialectal Arabic (ADA)	52
2.3.2	Berber Language and its Varieties	53
2.3.3	Foreign Languages in Algeria.....	53

2.4	The Linguistic Situation in Tiaret	54
2.5	Aspects of Language Contact in Algeria.....	54
2.5.1	Bilingualism	54
2.5.1.1	Societal Bilingualism and Individual Bilinguality.....	55
2.5.1.2	Compound, Coordinate, and Subordinate Bilinguals.....	55
2.5.1.3	Balanced and Dominant Bilinguals.....	56
2.5.1.4	Early and Late Bilinguals.....	56
2.5.1.5	Folk and Elite Bilinguals.....	56
2.5.1.6	Additive and Subtractive Bilinguals.....	57
2.5.1.7	Bilingualism in Algeria.....	57
2.5.2	Diglossia	57
2.5.2.1	Diglossia in Algeria.....	59
2.5.3	Code Switching.....	60
2.5.3.1	Code Switching in Algeria:	61
2.5.4	Borrowing	61
2.5.4.1	Borrowing in Algeria	62
2.6	Conclusion.....	62

Chapter Three: Data collection, Analysis and Discussion

3.1	Research Design	65
3.1.1	Criteria for the Collection of Signs	65
3.1.2	Target Population.....	66
3.1.3	Research Approaches and Instruments	68
3.1.4	Gaining Permission.....	69
3.2	Data Collection.....	69
3.2.1	The Collection of Shop Signs	70
3.2.2	Semi-guided Interviews with Shopkeepers.....	72
3.2.3	Questionnaires for Potential Readers.....	72
3.3	Data Analysis.....	73
3.3.1	The Analysis of Language Presence on Shop Signs	73

3.3.1.1	Language Frequency	73
3.3.1.2	Signs Typologies	75
3.3.1.3	Language Frequency in Signs Patterns	76
3.3.1.4	Languages in Combination.....	77
3.3.1.5	Area of Activity.....	78
3.3.2	The Analysis of Language Choice in the Linguistic Cityscape.....	80
3.3.2.1	Shopkeepers' Professional Data.....	82
3.3.2.2	Factors Influencing Language Choice Process.....	83
3.3.3	The Analysis of Readers' Perception towards Linguistic Cityscape.....	94
3.3.3.1	Sociolinguistic Profile of Informants.....	95
3.3.3.2	Informants' attitudes towards Languages used on Shop Signs.....	97
3.4	Discussion of the Findings	106
3.5	Conclusion.....	109
	Limitations of the Study.....	110
	Further Implications	110
	General Conclusion.....	111
	References	114
	Appendices.....	119

List of Tables

Table 1.1 The Administrative Organisation of the Wilaya of Tiaret.....	48
Table 3.1 The Number of Readers.....	67
Table 3.2 The Number of Photographs.....	69
Table 3.3 Frequency of Language Varieties.....	74
Table 3.4 Relative Frequency of Language Varieties.....	74
Table 3.5 Typologies of Signs	76
Table 3.6 Language Frequency in Signs Patterns.....	77
Table 3.7 Combination Patterns in Bilingual Signs.....	78
Table 3.8 Combination Patterns in Multilingual Signs.	78
Table 3.9 Frequency of Language Varieties According to the Area of Activity.....	79
Table 3.10 The Number of Native Speakers Using the First Language for Identity Reasons	86
Table 3.11 Respondents' Attractiveness towards Language Varieties Displayed on Shop Signs.....	104
Table 3.12 Respondents' Views towards the Use of Different Codes on Shop Signs.	105

List of Graphs

Graph 3.1 Shopkeepers' Experience.....	82
Graph 3.2 Factors Influencing Language Choice Process.....	83
Graph 3.3 Native Languages of Respondents.....	85
Graph 3.4 Language Choices Influenced by 'Good reasons' Strategies.....	88
Graph 3.5 Distribution of Languages According to 'Good reasons' Strategy.....	89
Graph 3.6 Groups Influencing Language Choice.....	89
Graph 3.7 Language Choice Based on the Category of Commercial Activity.....	93
Graph 3.8 Respondents' Sex.....	95
Graph 3.9 Informants' Age.....	96
Graph 3.10 Participants' Levels of Education.....	96
Graph 3.11 Respondents' Mother Tongue(s).....	97
Graph 3.12 Language varieties/ Foreign Languages Mastered by the Informants.....	98
Graph 3.13 Language Varieties Used in Everyday Life.....	98
Graph 3.14 Respondents' Language Competences.....	99
Graph 3.15 Presence of Language Varieties According to Informants' Attitudes.....	100
Graph 3.16 Language Dominance According to Informants' Attitudes.....	100
Graph 3.17 The Use of MSA for Identity Reasons.....	101
Graph 3.18 The Impact of Colonialism on French Use in Commercial Sector.....	101
Graph 3.19 Respondents' Views toward the Use of ADA on Shop Signs.....	102
Graph 3.20 Informants' Preference towards Foreign Languages Usage on Shop Signs.....	103
Graph 3.21 The Number of Language Varieties on Shop Signs.....	104

List of Abbreviations and Acronyms used in the Dissertation

LL: Linguistic Landscape.

MSA: Modern Standard Arabic.

ADA: Algerian Dialectal Arabic.

CA: Classical Arabic.

TSC: Tiaret Speech Community.

Fr: French.

Abstract

The present study attempted to investigate the linguistic landscape of shop signs in Tiaret speech community; particularly it focused on analysing the linguistic cityscape scenario. Therefore, this study examined the nature, shop keepers' motives and readers' attitudes towards language varieties/ foreign language (s) used on shop signs. Thus, this study adopted a mixed-method approach that included qualitative and quantitative methods. Three data collection methods were used: the content analysis of 679 photographs of monolingual, bilingual and multilingual shop signs, a semi-guided interview with 27 shop keepers and 80 questionnaires administered to potential readers. The findings showed that the linguistic cityscape of Tiaret speech community is of monolingual nature. The results also indicated that the main motives for formulating shop signs were; 'Presentation of self' and 'Good reasons'. Unsurprisingly, readers attitudes towards the linguistic codes used on shop signs were different since each one of them has his/ her views toward the display of codes on shop signs. However, their attractiveness to Modern Standard Arabic was strongly highlighted.

Keywords: Linguistic landscape, language varieties, foreign languages, readers' attitudes, shop signs, shop keepers' motives.

المخلص

إن هذه الدراسة تحاول دراسة المشهد اللغوي لمدينة تيارت و بالأخص تحليل السيناريو اللغوي للقطاع التجاري، علاوة على ذلك، هته الدراسة سلطت الضوء على طبيعة المشهد اللغوي ، الأسباب ومواقف القراء السائدة اتجاه اللغات، اللهجات و اللغات الأجنبية الظاهرة على لافتات المحل . لدراسة ذلك يتبع هذا البحث أسلوب مختلط يجمع بين الكمية و النوعية، حيث أنه تم استخدام ثلاث أدوات لجمع المعلومات و التي تتمثل في: 679 صورة للافتات المحلات التي كتبت بلغة واحدة ، اثنان وحتى ثلاث لغات. إلى جانب (27) مقابلة موجهة لأصحاب المتاجر و (80) استبياناً للقراء. بعد تفسير البيانات المتحصل عليها، أشارت الدراسة إلى أن طبيعة المشهد اللغوي تتميز باستخدام لغة واحدة على لافتات المحل، كما بينت النتائج أيضاً أنه من بين الأسباب الرئيسية لاختيار اللغة من قبل أصحاب المحلات: أصل صاحب المحل، جذب القراء.....الخ. مما لا يثير الدهشة اختلفت آراء القراء تجاه اللغات الم وجودة على لافتات المتاجر حيث أن لكل منهم وجهات مختلفة حول ذلك. ومع ذلك، كانوا اشد انجذاباً للغة العربية الفصحى.

الكلمات المفتاحية: المشهد اللغوي ، اللغات و اللهجات ، اللغات الأجنبية ، مواقف القراء ، لافتات المتاجر ، دوافع أصحاب المتاجر.

Résumé

Cette étude a tenté d'étudier le paysage linguistique dans la communauté de langue Tiaret, en particulier, il se concentre sur l'analyse du scénario linguistique de la coté commercial. Au-delà de cette étude, cette étude a mis en évidence la nature, les motivations des commerçants et les attitudes des lecteurs vis-à-vis des variétés linguistiques / langues étrangères utilisées sur les enseignes. Cette étude a examiné la nature, les motivations des commerçants et les attitudes des lecteurs .Ainsi, cette étude a adopté des méthodes de recherche mixtes; qualitative et quantitative, dans lequel trois instruments ont été utilisés pour la collection de données; (679) des photographies d'enseignes monolingues, bilingues et multilingues ont été collectées ainsi que (27) des entretiens semi-guidés ont été adressés aux commerçants et (80) des questionnaires ont été administrés pour les lecteurs potentiels. Après avoir interprété les résultats, les données ont montré que le paysage linguistique de la communauté linguistique Tiaret est de nature monolingue. Les résultats indiquent également les principaux motifs sur lesquels les participants s'appuient pour formuler des enseignes de magasin; «Présentation de soi», «bonnes raisons»... etc. Sans surprise, les attitudes des lecteurs envers les codes linguistiques utilisés sur les enseignes des magasins étaient différentes puisque chacun a son point de vue sur l'affichage des codes sur les enseignes. Cependant, leur attrait pour l'arabe moderne standard a été fortement souligné.

Mots-clés: Paysage linguistique, variétés linguistiques, langues étrangères, attitudes des lecteurs, enseignes, motivations des commerçants.

General Introduction

For so many years, public and private spaces of cities were composed of linguistic items. These pieces of language have strongly drawn the linguistic scenario of different speech communities all over the globe (Eg., Al-Athwary (2017) in Yemen; Bianco, 2018) Hence, this fact contributed to the emergence of growing promising subfield of sociolinguistics, better known as *linguistic landscape* (LL). This field of research refers to the visibility and salience of language varieties in public and private sectors. Moreover, this field of study had emphasized the fact that language cannot be studied in isolation from its social context. Owing to the major contributions of public inscriptions in shaping the public sphere, scholars' interest had grown to examine how/ what language (s) is used in our societies.

Due to the substantial presence of linguistic landscape items like; signs on walls, brand names, and shop signs. These signs among others were studied from a wide range of disciplines such as sociolinguistic, geography, marketing, semiotics, communication, applied linguistics, architecture and economics. Since linguistic landscape has been a promising field, it has provided an opportunity for scholars to investigate different topics and issues.

From a sociolinguistic point of view, landscapers had tackled these signs from various perspectives, such as; language policy and planning, multilingualism, language acquisition...etc. However, their focus was always on the display and the linguistic complexity of the linguistic scenario. Moreover, language visibility in public and private sectors is due to the societal participation in the process of making the linguistic landscape, and a sign is always designed by someone i.e. the author, to someone else, i.e. the reader. Despite their sociolinguistic background and linguistic competences, social actors shape the linguistic scenario and reflect the sociolinguistic composition of a given speech community. Nonetheless, signs as component of language connect people with each other and play the

role of a medium between the maker and the reader of signs. In addition, signs are used to fulfill other purposes.

In fact, the main motivation to investigating signs is that they characterize the essence of sociolinguistics, which is the manifestation of language in public and private spaces. Signs such as shop signs, street names, graffiti writing and even road signs are omnipresent in the street. In this respect, the researcher chose to investigate shop signs only because the writer of the sign is not anonymous unlike other signs, and the purpose behind the use of certain words and symbols can be detected. Besides, another key motivation for this study is to enrich the existing body of research in linguistic landscape. Hence, this research study attempts to closely examine the three pieces that compose the whole puzzle. Firstly, identifying the nature of the linguistic landscape. Secondly, determining the reasons behind the use of certain linguistic code on shop signs. Thirdly, by highlighting readers' attitudes and awareness towards language varieties or/ and foreign languages used on shop signs.

The major aim of this study is to analyse the linguistic cityscape of Tiaret speech community through the identification of the linguistic composition (language varieties/ foreign languages) along with the societal participation in the process of making shop signs. To achieve this aim, three main questions will be addressed throughout this study:

1. What is the nature of linguistic cityscape of Tiaret speech community?
2. On what basis do shopkeepers use codes on shop signs?
3. How far readers are aware of the linguistic cityscape of Tiaret speech community?

In order to test the above stated research questions; the following hypotheses were formulated:

1. It is commonly assumed that the majority of shop signs are composed of two language varieties /foreign language (s).

2. MSA, French and English would be the only language / foreign languages displayed on shop signs.
3. We suppose that the reason behind the use of different codes is to attract readers, and this fact has nothing to do with identity reasons.
4. It is believed that readers are well aware of the linguistic cityscape of Tiaret speech community (reasons and language presence).

The sample of this research study is selected randomly. The selected population is a group of shopkeepers and readers from different origins. The instruments are three data collection methods. They are photographs of different shop signs that are located in the busiest commercial areas in Tiaret city center .The second instrument is a semi-guided interview with shop keepers. It incorporates a set of questions to identify the reasons behind language choice on shop signs. The third tool is a questionnaires administered for readers. It is composed of closed and open-ended questions.

Thus, this study will explore the linguistic landscape of Tiaret speech community through an analysis of shop signs (linguistic cityscape). The focus will be on the analysis of the nature of the linguistic cityscape: language presence, linguistic diversity, and combination patterns with a special interest in the societal participation in the construction and perception of the private sphere. Hence, this dissertation is divided into three chapters. The first chapter is a theoretical overview of linguistic landscape studies. Its first part will shed the light on the previous studies on linguistic landscape. The second part will focus on the different variables that influence the process of making sigs in both private and public spheres. The second chapter will deal with the sociolinguistic profile of Algeria and of Tiaret speech community in particular; in this chapter we try to deal with the main sociolinguistic phenomena in Algeria such as diglossia and code switching. Besides, this chapter will enable us to study the linguistic composition of our context of study. Chapter three presents the data collection and analysis process, along with the data discussion.

Chapter One: Literature Review

1.1	Landscape.....	5
1.2	The Notion of Linguistic Landscape	7
1.2	Functions of Language	9
1.3	Functions of linguistic landscape	10
1.4	Definition of Signs	11
1.4.1	Types of Signs.....	13
1.6	Linguistic Landscape Items.....	14
1.6.1	Documentation of Linguistic Landscape Items	14
1.7	Language and place	16
1.8	Space and Place	18
1.9	Major Contributions in Linguistic Landscape Studies	18
1.10	Variables of Signs.....	25
1.10.1	Internal Variables of Signs.....	26
1.10.1.1	Linguistic Landscape Actors	26
1.10.1.2	Code Choice	28
1.10.1.3	Spatial Organization.....	28
1.10.1.4	Symbolic versus Indexical Meaning	29
1.10.1.5	Non-linguistic Elements.....	30
1.10.2	External Variables of Linguistic Landscape	31
1.10.2.1	Proper Names in the Linguistic Landscape	31
1.10.2.2	Language Policy and Linguistic Landscape	32
1.10.2.3	Linguistic Landscape: As a Product of Globalization	34
1.11	Conclusion.....	36

Language is a crucial medium that is used for communication; it is used to connect people with each other and it is a key element that distinguishes a speech community from another. Thus, language has been studied for a long period of time from different perspectives. Linguistics witnessed the birth of a new discipline known as sociolinguistics in the 1960's. It studies language in its social settings and among users; language is omnipresent in public and private space. Therefore, linguistic landscape came as a new young sub-discipline of sociolinguistics to investigate the visibility of language varieties in public spaces (Gorter & Cenoz, 2017). For instance; road signs, street names, Graffiti, etc. Moreover, linguistic landscape studies has tackled different point of views in different speech communities such as language policy, language vitality, world Englishes and translation investigating different signs in different contexts.

This chapter is devoted to review the literature related to linguistic landscape. It will provide definitions of the key concepts in linguistic landscape. In addition to that, different theories and approaches will be mentioned in this section along with the previous studies conducted in linguistic landscape. This theoretical framework will provide researches and readers of the linguistic landscape with the different variables that need to be taken into account when reading a sign. It will, therefore, highlight the internal and the external variables that affect the linguistic landscape such as: authorship and readership, spatial organization, and language policy.

1.1 Landscape

Since the major concern of this study is linguistic landscape, it is important to shed light on the etymology of the word landscape. Its origin comes from Germanic languages. Antrop (2013, p. 12) stated that one of the oldest references in the Dutch language dates from the early thirteenth century when "lantscap" ('lantscep', 'landschap') referred to a land region or

environment. It is related to the word 'land', meaning a bordered territory, but its suffix -seep refers to land reclamation and creation.

Antrop (2013) has highlighted that; in the seventeenth century, the Dutch painting brought the meaning of landscape as '*Scenery*', it was introduced to the English language by laying much emphasis on '*Scenery*' rather than '*Territory*'. In French and Italian, the words (*paysage* and *paesaggio*) refer to a region with historical and social importance. But, in Slavic languages, landscape is used as indication for land and soil .Moreover, the earliest realistic presentation of the term linguistic landscape dates back to the fifteenth century, particularly in the Renaissance painting. It became an expression of beliefs, thoughts and even feelings. For that, it can be seen that linguistic landscape may have different meanings in different languages.

As a result, different meanings of the word '*Landscape*' have created a sort of confusion in the linguistic interpretations and translations, which led to the emergence of the first landscape research (Eg., Zonneveld,1995; Olwig, 1996; Claval, 2004; Antrop 2005) seeking to find the scientific definition for the term linguistic landscape .Surprisingly, after conducting some studies, Antrop (2013) pointed that some adjectives were added to the notion '*Landscape*' ,like: natural or cultural landscape ; rural or urban landscape or designed landscape.

Although there are several meanings of the term '*Landscape*' such as: territory, scenery, land, and oil, its real meaning remains linked to the area of research that needs to be investigated, which means that the context of the study plays in important role in identifying the real use of the term '*Landscape*'.

1.2 The Notion of Linguistic Landscape

Since the 1990s, the study of signs has received a substantial attention, which led to an increasing interest in this area of research. However, there is no single definition that is conclusive. Therefore, a set of definitions concerning our area of research will be provided. In their seminal paper '*Linguistic landscape and Ethnolinguistic Vitality: An Empirical Study*', Landry and Bouhris (1997, p. 25) defined the term landscape as: "*The language of public road signs, advertising billboards, street names, place names, commercial shop signs, and public signs on government buildings combines to form the linguistic landscape of a given territory, region, or urban agglomeration.*"

Thus, Linguistic landscape (LL) refers to the visibility and salience of language varieties in public space. Although this definition was acknowledged by many scholars (Gorter & Cenoz, 2006), it faced a lot of criticism due to the use of term '*Public Signs*', leading to huge misunderstanding of the concept. This definition was too limited. Therefore, other scholars (Backhaus, 2006; Huebner, 2006; Shohamy & Waksman, 2009) attempt to expand the notion linguistic landscape to include several objects such as: logos, images, and icons.

Other researchers focused their studies on a particular signs, such as : billboards (Tulp, 1978), shop signs (Dimova, 2007; MacGregor, 2003; Sadikhova & Marjan, 2000; Schlick, 2002, 2003), road signs (Puzey, 2007), or proper and brand names (Edelman, 2009; Tufi & Blackwood, 2010). However, some of them included visible or displayed texts (Cenoz & Gorter, 2006; Dagenais, Moore, Sabatier, Lamarre, & Armand, 2009; Spolsky & Cooper, 1991, Litvinskaya, 2010, p.11).

Meanwhile, Litvinskaya (2010) highlighted some researchers, who additionally counted the non- static objects, like transport and clothes (Curtin, 2009); transgressive art–graffiti (Hanauer, 2004, 2009; Pennycook, 2009); and images and notes in a microbiology lab

(Hanauer, 2009, 2010). In their collection of articles on linguistic landscaping in India, Itagi and Singh (2002) also included newspapers and periodicals as items for analysis.

People contribute in creating and shaping linguistic landscape to achieve a certain function. In their book '*Linguistic landscape: Expanding the scenery*', Shohamy and Gorter (2009) demonstrated that people create the language of the public space; therefore, the landscape communicates messages conveyed by people. These messages often have a deeper meaning than what is seen on the surface.

Ben-Rafael (2009) noted that linguistic landscape is a complex system in which many actors are involved in creating and interpreting messages and meanings. Due to the fact that the linguistic landscape is a field of interaction, not only the sign maker and/or shop owner, but the passerby consumer on the street. Both the sign maker and the sign reader are involved in designing and interpreting the linguistic landscape.

In 2002, Itagi and Singh made a distinction between the terms '*Linguistic landscape*' and '*Linguistic landscaping*', by which they noted that the gerund form '*Linguistic Landscaping*' refers to the planning and implementation of signs, while the noun '*Linguistic Landscape*' indicates the result of the action of implementation. In 2009, Backhaus and Coulmas use the gerund as Itagi and Singh whereas Barni and Bagna (2009) considered it as '*studying the linguistic landscape*'.

Another important notion that we will refer to throughout this research study is '*Cityscape*'. Gorter (2006) suggested the term '*Multilingual Cityscape*' instead of '*Linguistic Landscape*'. He argued that '*Linguistic Landscape*' is used whenever there is investigation on the country as a whole, but the term '*Cityscape*' is more suitable when describing commercial areas in cities. (Edelmen, 2010 ,p. 9)

Linguistic landscape can be defined as the visibility of different signs such as: shop signs, billboards, and road signs, etc. where both the writer and the reader play an essential role in the process of making these signs.

1.2 Functions of Language

In his article '*Linguistics and poetics*', Jakobson (1963) distinguished six functions of language:

1.2.1 Referential (denotative or cognitive) Function

It is to convey information or a message. The linguist observant should take into account the other functions.

1.2.2 Emotive (expressive) Function

It is the expression of emotions, feelings, and attitudes.

1.2.3 Conative Function

It is meant to persuade and influence others via commanding and ordering.

1.2.4 Phatic Function

It is meant to establish relations with people. According to Jakobson it is the first function acquired by infants and the only one shared between people.

1.2.5 Metalingual (glossing) Function

It is meant to make words, meanings, and intentions clear and unambiguous.

1.2.6 Poetic Function

It is meant to indulge in language for its own sake.

These functions represent communication elements as context, message, addresser, addressee, contact and code. However, Halliday (1994) added that language has three metafunctions:

1. Ideational Function

To communicate a new information or new content.

2. Interpersonal Function

Using language for the expression of social and personal relationships.

3. Textual Function

Refers to the rules of language that make discourse into a coherent and unified text.

1.3 Functions of Linguistic Landscape

Linguistic Landscape (LL) reveals much about a certain area, city, or a country since it gives information about people, the languages used, and the dominant language. Hence, Linguistic Landscape performs certain functions: informational, symbolic (Landry and Bouhris, 1997), mythological (Hicks, 2002), and commercial functions (Hornsby, 2008).

1.3.1 Informational /Indexical Function

Landry and Bouhris (1997) divided signs into two groups: government signs and private signs. Informational function has two aspects: First, Linguistic Landscape (LL) inform(s) in-group and out-group members of the linguistic characteristics, territorial limits, and language boundaries or the region they have entered. Second, the dominance of one language on the public signs in an area can be an indicator of availability of services in that language. The indexical function, on the one hand, indicates the dominant language used in government and private sectors. It may indicate the sociolinguistic composition of a certain area, city, or country such as: the linguistic repertoires of a given speech community, the relationship between the combinations of codes in Linguistic Landscape. Thus, it is similar to referential function of language.

1.3.2 Symbolic Function

The symbolic function is linked to the identity of language users and the inhabitants of a certain area. Landry and Bourhis (1997, p.28) stated that: *“the symbolic function implies that the presence of one’s own language on signs can contribute to the feeling that this language has value and status within the sociolinguistic setting”*. While for the other people, it makes

them feel that they are discriminated. The symbolic function indicates that there is a deeper meaning beyond the surface. Besides, Dagenais et al. (2009) claimed that meanings interpreted in relation to cultural affiliation, identity, power relations, and language status are factors related to symbolic functions (Dixon, 2015). This means that most of the time, linguistic landscape contains deeper meanings concerning sense of cultural belongings, identity and languages status and power in a given speech community or city.

1.3.3 Mythological Function

In 2002, Hicks analysed the Gaelic revitalisation in Scotland, and added the mythological or the folkloric function. It focuses on places named in association with traditional stories, myths, and folklore. Furthermore; these signs reflect the traditional culture of a specific group and may serve as transmitter or a link between the past and the present generations, which represents one of the design features of language ‘*Cultural transmission*’. Thus, adding a sense of belonging for in-group .Therefore, this function has to do with the phatic function of language to establish relationship between past and present generations.

1.3.4 Commercial Function

Hornsby (2008) coined the commercial function. It is fulfilled when a language is used to promote a certain product or a place for tourists. It is, therefore, used for commercial purposes. This function is associated with conative function because it calls for persuasion and affecting consumers’ behaviours.

1.4 Definition of Signs

We are surrounded by signs in aspects of our daily life. A sign refers to several different things such as a color, a gesture, a wink, or an object. For instance, the word ‘*Rose*’ does not stand for the sounds that it contains, but it also stands for a color, a flower, and joy.

In his book ‘*Messages, Signs, and Meanings*’, Danesi (2004, p.5) stated that: “*Signs allow us to refer to things and ideas, even though they might not be physically present for our*

senses to perceive". That is to say; signs refer to people, things and objects that is not necessarily to be present or concrete. More precisely, they stand for somebody or something that does not occur in the current context.

In semiotic theory, Scollon and Scollon (2003) indicated that a sign is any material object and meaningful unit that may be understood as or refers to something other than itself (Zimny, 2017). This means that a sign indicates or provides information about the object that it represents depending on the context in which it occurs. Moreover, the pioneering father of the modern linguistics Ferdinand de Saussure (1916) in his book '*Course in General Linguistics*' pointed out that the linguistic sign consists of relationship between signified and signifier of a concept and a sound image a sign.

Besides, Buchler (1955) in his book '*Philosophical Writings of Pierce*' stated that:

A sign, or representament, is something which stands to somebody for something in some respect or capacity. It addresses somebody, that is, creates in the mind of that person an equivalent sign, or perhaps a more developed sign. That sign which it creates I call the interpretant of the first sign. The sign stands from something, its object. It stands for that object, not in all respects, but in reference to a sort of idea, which I have sometimes called the ground of the representament. "idea" is here to be understood is a sort of platonic sense, very familiar in everyday talk; I mean in that sense. (p.99)

He develops a relationship between a sign or representament and an idea/ interpretant to an object it represents, emphasizing the process of interpreting a sign and the importance of the interpreter (reader).

Soanes and Stevenson (2003, as cited in Backhaus, 2007, p.456) draw readers' attention to two notions:

1. Sign is an object, quality, or event whose presence indicates the probable presence or occurrence of something else (= the semiotic sign).
2. Sign is a notice on public display that gives information or instruction in a written or symbolic form (= the public sign).

1.4.1 Types of Signs

According to O'Grady, Archibald, Aronoff and Rees-Mille (1990), Signs are classified into four main types in their book '*Contemporary Linguistics*'

1.5.1.1 Iconic Signs (Icons)

An icon is a visual representation, an image, a photograph, or a picture. It possesses a character that gives the object an identity. Sometimes, it is closely related to the object it represents and looks exactly the same as the object. However, an icon can represent an object that does not have an existence in the real world. For example: female or a male signs on a restroom door, words as buzz, splat, and squish in English.

1.5.1.2 Indexical Signs (Indexes)

Indexes are used to represent or to point out abstract objects, and they have indirect relationship. They are not arbitrary because of their referent. For example: a knock on the door is an index of arrival, and a smile is an index of happiness.

1.5.1.3 Symbolic Signs (Symbols)

Symbols are signs that have no link with the object they represent. Therefore, there is an arbitrary relationship between the symbol and the referent. To illustrate with, there is no actual relation between the word mobile phone and the object it represents.

1.5.1.4 Mixed Signs

Signs are not always of one type. They can be iconic when they represent their referent, indexical if they represent a spontaneous response (symptomatic signs), or symbolic sign if there is an arbitrary relation between them and the object they represent.

1.5.1.5 Signals

Signals are signs that trigger an action on the part of the receipt than it takes for the transmitter. For instance: red traffic light requires the driver to stop.

1.6 Linguistic Landscape Items

There exist different types or objects in the public sphere as; shop signs and road signs, etc. these items are considered to be '*linguistic objects that mark the public space*' Furthermore, Ben-Rafael et al. (2006) claimed that Linguistic landscape items are any announcement located outside or inside a public institution or a private business in a given geographical location, That means that; they are all the objects that mark public and private spaces.

Moreover, Backhaus (2007) described Linguistic Landscape inscriptions as '*any piece of written text within*', emphasizing on the language displayed in the sign, or as any inscriptions displayed in public space in order to convey a message of wider concern to potential readers. Therefore, signs in linguistic landscape can be items such as billboards shop signs road signs or proper and brand names. And other non- static objects, graffiti and images.

1.6.1 Documentation of Linguistic Landscape Items

Squares, street walls, neighborhoods and many other public and even private spaces are full of different linguistic landscape (LL) items. Due to the huge amount of signs, researchers have suggested various methods of documenting and categorizing them.

Spolsky (2009) has categorized signs as: street signs, advertising signs, warning notices or prohibitions, building names, informative signs, commemorative plaques, objects and graffiti. He relied on Landry and Bouhris' definition of LL (1997). Moreover, Huebner (2009) suggests the following categorisation: (a) expressive signs, which convey emotions or feelings; (b) directive signs, which offer recommendations, advice, or attempt to persuade; (c) informational signs, which inform or report information; (d) interactional signs, which create contact between the addresser and addressee; and (e) signs with poetic function, which use a code to communicate meanings that would not otherwise be communicated. (Dixon, 2015, p.11)

Furthermore, Barni and Bagna (2009) used computer software to map and categorize signs depending on: first, monolingual or multilingual signs. Second, the domain, location, context and place. Third, categorizing signs based on the visibility of creation language varieties, in addition to the time and date the photo was taken. This type of data collection and categorisation allows researchers to analyse the creation and reception of signs in the linguistic landscape (Dixon , 2015).

Huebner (2009) provided another categorisation. It is based on duplicating, fragmenting, overlapping, and complimentary signs. Duplicating signs present the same information in its entirety in all languages present. Fragmentary presents all information in one language. Selected parts in another languages. Besides, overlapping is that a part of the information is repeated in a second language. Finally, complementary signs convey different information in different languages.

Furthermore, there is some categorisation based on the role of the authorship. First, Calvet (1990) distinguished between '*in vitro*' and '*in vivo*' items. They are items written by the authority as street names, and what citizens write like: shop signs. Secondly, Scollon and Scollon (2003) documented Linguistic Landscape objects into '*Municipal signs*' and '*Commercial items*' (Bianco, 2018, p. 21). Third, Ben-Rafael et al. (2006) stated that:

The 'top-down' LL items included those issued by national and public bureaucracies, public institutions, signs on public sites, public announcement and street names. 'Bottom-up' items, on the other hand, included those which were issued by individual social actors, shop owners and companies like names of shops, signs on businesses and personal announcements. (p.14)

That is to say, the 'top down' signs are concerned with government signs like; street names...etc. While, the 'Bottom up' items belong to private signs like; commercial signs.

In addition, Bianco (2018) emphasised on that the reader plays a crucial role in Linguistic Landscape .He/she perceives and reads signs and can influence language choice made by the author. Readers 'perception of the public space influence the language choices

made by the authors. Thus, the '*Linguistic Landscape Actors*' plays a central role in making the linguistic scenario of public space.

Besides, the Lingscape University of Luxemburg added six types of signs. First of all, status signs whether they are authorized by the government, or transgressive signs which are not allowed and can be removed called, such as: pieces of art .Also, documenting signs depending on translation which can be either homophonic (contains the same information in different language) or polyphonic (showing different information and meanings in different language varieties). In addition, Huebner (2009) added fragmentary, overlapping and contemporary signs .Moreover, signs can be classified based on their layering, they can be dialogic signs that create dialogue between writers on the wall. Second, linguistic layering signs composed of mixing different codes to convey meaning. Besides, dominance category where there is a dominant language variety. For example: dominant languages tend to be above, left, centered, and bold. Finally, signs can be categorized as being operative or retired when they fulfill a certain purpose depending on discourse types. For instance: regulatory (road signs, warnings), commercial (advertising).

To conclude with, these are lists of categories suggested by scholars. It depends on the research study, goals and method of analysis to select the suitable documentation method to organize the data collected.

1.7 Language and Place

For a long period of time, sociolinguists have always been interested in conducting research studies in places such as: nations, regions, cities, neighborhoods, or a block. A setting is rich of linguistic aspects. Since the 19 century, dialectologists have studied how language varieties vary from one place to another. Then, sociolinguists linked language to other social variables such as: gender and age, etc. Recently, place becomes a key theme in sociolinguistics. Some researchers are exploring the effects of physical environments on

patterns of variation and change by shaping speakers' social environments. Others are investigating the linguistic expression and construction of '*place identity*'. Others describe '*linguistic landscape*'. Another stand of inquiry has to do with how places can be socially constructed through language (Johnstone, 2010).

Cities are rich with linguistic landscape (LL) in which there is a visibility of languages and language varieties. Backaus (2007) described a city as follows:

The city is a place of language contact and the signs in public space are the most visible reminder of this. The linguistic landscape not only tells you in an instant where on earth you are and what languages you are supposed to know, but it contains information going far beyond this. It provides a unique perspective on the coexistence and competition of different languages and their scripts, and how they interact and interfere with each other in a given place. (p.145)

In the light of this quote, the city is a place of language contact. Public inscriptions are the most visible reminder of this. However, Linguistic Landscape does not only fulfill an informative function, it provides a unique perspective on the coexistence and competition of different languages and their scripts, and how they interact and interfere with each other in a given place.

Finally, the relationship between language and landscape (public space) is inescapable since each one requires the other. In 2016, Nash explored the close relationship between them, in the sense that language and Landscape are obliged to each other. Language needs landscape, landscape expects language. (Al-Athwary, 2017). On the one hand, place as public environment or a context of study contains a lot of linguistic aspects, for example: the existence of language varieties. Language itself in public and private place can tell about language policy, language identity, etc. of a certain place .thus, this indicates that language and place are strongly related to each other.

1.8 Space and Place

Linguistics and geography are distinct terms. However, they are interrelated. This connection is recognised in linguistic landscape (LL). Hence, to indulge in this field, we should also define landscape, space and place.

Although space and place are considered to be as synonyms in everyday discussions, they have two different meanings. Tapaninaho (2019, p. 6) stated that: “*place can be described as a location filled with human experiences. A place can be a country, a city, a street, or one’s home*”. Which means; a place is combination of location and meaning, each place consists of both physical and humans experiences, affection and feelings. For example: a shop owner puts his/ her daughter’s name .while, space on the other side can be seen as a container .which means; it constitutes place. When people have an attachment to space, it becomes a place. However , it depends on people to whether use the term place or a space and this can be seen in the following example :A client may consider a mall as space .but , a worker at that place may consider it as place where he / she has a lot of memories and experiences in it.

1.9 Major Contributions in Linguistic Landscape Studies

Linguistic landscape (LL) is considered as sub-discipline of sociolinguistic. Research studies on signs have a long journey. In the 1970s, studies were linked to language policy and planning in multilingual settings. Rosenbaum et al. (1977) investigated English and Hebrew signs in the streets of Palestine, stating that there is a gap between the official language policy and tolerance towards other languages, mainly English. In Brussels, Tulp and Wenzel (1978) examined the visibility of Dutch and French in commercial billboards. They aimed at demonstrating the contribution of these languages to the city’s Frenchification (Gorter & Cenoz, 2006, p. 68).

In 1991, Spolsky and Cooper conducted another study in Palestine. They analysed 100 language signs to investigate language choice of readers and writers of a sign. They contributed to linguistic landscape because they provided three different classifications of signs including the use and function of a sign (street signs, advertising signs, warning notices, building names, informative signs, graffiti), the materials by which the sign is made as: metal, wood, and/or stone, and the number of language varieties used in a single sign (monolingual, bilingual, or/ and multilingual).

Moreover, they provided three sign conditions. Sign-writer's skill condition: '*Write signs in a language you know*'. Here it is a necessity condition to write in a language that the writer can speak with degree of proficiency. Also, '*Presumed reader condition*' prefers to write signs in the language or languages that intended readers are assumed to read, which requires different degrees of proficiency from the reader. This rule has an economic motivation with informative function. Moreover, '*Symbolic value condition*': prefer to write a sign in your own language or in a language with which you wish to be identified. It has symbolic function and it has to do with language loyalty. However, Spolsky and Cooper (1991) emphasised rule one as an essential condition. (Gorter & Cenoz, 2007,p.7). This contribution was considered as the first approach in Linguistic landscape studies.

Rodriguez Landry and Richard Bourhis (1997) conducted a study in Quebec investigating language use among 2010 French Canadian minorities, and interpreted their results in terms of relating language maintenance in bilingual settings to ethnolinguistic vitality. They made an important contribution to linguistic landscape by coining the vitality of competing ethnolinguistic groups in a multilingual society (Fakhiroh & Rohmah, 2018). Besides, Landry and Bourhis (1997) made a distinction between the informative and the symbolic functions of signs. They approach it from a social psychological point of view focusing on relationships between the in-group and the out-group.

According to Gorter and Cenoz (2007):

The informative function of language signs indicates the borders of the territory inhabited by a linguistic group and also the availability of a specific language to communicate in that territory. On the other hand the symbolic function refers to the perception that members of a language group have of the value and status of their languages as compared to other language. (p.4)

In 2006, Gorter and Cenoz conducted a comparative study of two cities, Donostia-San Sebastian in the Basque Country (Spain) and Ljouwert-Leeuwarden in Friesland (The Netherlands). The result was that 55% of the signs in Donostia-San Sebastian and 44% of the signs in Ljouwert- Leeuwarden were bilingual or multilingual. Moreover, their famous work '*the International Journal of Multilingualism*' pushed linguistic landscape into a proper field. Since, it covers different case studies from Israel, Bangkok, and Tokyo. That for sure made a rich linguistic background for linguistic landscapers.

Ben-Rafael et al (2006) undertook a study in Israel, entitled '*Linguistic Landscape as Symbolic Construction of the Public Space: The Case of Israel*'. They used sociological perspectives to analyse the decorum of the public life where Hebrew, Arabic, and English are used. They made a contrast between '*Top down*' and '*Bottom-up*' signs. Top-down signs are government signs as: official signs for street names, street names. These signs reflect a specific language policy. While, Bottom-up signs are private signs such as shop signs indicating individual preferences. Ben Rafael et al. did not only make distinction between these signs but also between language varieties used in these signs. Three main structuring principles were identified:

1. The power relations perspective suggested by Bourdieu (1983, 1993), the '*Bourdieu's hypothesis*' suggests that the code choices in the linguistic landscapes of Israel are linked to power relations between the dominant and subordinate groups. (Hebrew has a predominant role in all linguistic landscapes).

2. Boudon's (1990) '*The Good reasons*' perspective explains the interests of Linguistic Landscape actors. It can be seen through the presence of English in the LL of a non-English speaking community. According to Ben Rafael et al (2006) the usage of English in the LL of Israel can indicate two main reasons. First, to promote tourism in this speech community. Second, the high-status of the English language paves the way to be considered as status marker .

3. the '*Presentation-of-self and primordialist*' perspectives or '*The subjectivist perspective*' suggested by Goffman(1963, 1981) identified 'identity markers' as the use of the subordinate code on LL items, challenging the power of the dominant groups language. the use of Arabic as the preferred code in Arab localities in East although it is less salient presence where Jews and Arabs coexist and in Jewish areas

In addition to that, Ben-Rafael (2009) discussed the collective identity hypothesis. This principle is based on that the messages of Linguistic Landscape items connect actors with particular sectors of the community. Even though there seems to be an overlap between '*presentation of self*' and '*collective identity*' principles because both of them focus on '*identity markers*', However, Ben-Rafael (2009) stressed on that the '*presentation of self-principle*' is related to the actors '*uniqueness*' and the '*collective identity principle*' is it refers to whom the actor belongs and wishes to attract clients on the basis of fellowship or likeness. (Finzel, 2012)

In Bangkok, Thom Huebner (2006) tackled code-mixing of Thai and the impact of English. He analysed the use of different languages and scripts including Thai, Roman, Chinese, Arabic, and Japanese. The results showed that there exist highly creative displays of language mixing, innovation, or hybridization. Moreover, Backhaus s' chapter (2006): 'Multilingualism in Tokyo: A Look into the Linguistic Landscape'. He described the Japanese writing system in detail: it is composed of a complex nature. Since, it is a combination of four

scripts: Kanji, Hiragana, Katakana, and the 26 letters of the Roman alphabet. The author emphasised on the fact that Tokyo is a place of written language contact. In 2007, he conducted a comparative study in Tokyo. He highlighted three main points that needs to be taking into account; the origin of a sign, the reader of a sign, and the dynamics of the languages and scripts in contact. His work showed that Tokyo is a multilingual speech community with the fact that 20% of all signs are bilingual or multilingual (Gorter & Cenoz, 2006,p236-237).

Moreover, Gorter (2007) conducted another study in four different neighborhoods (With 12 different streets) in Rome. He sought to understand the multi-ethnic and multi-cultural city of Rome via describing the bilingual and multilingual signs. His descriptive approach used in this study provided a new insight to measure the diversity of languages in the sociolinguistic context. Gorter argues that LL has an impact on people (Fakhiroh& Rohmah , 2018,p.97). Besides, Shohamy and Gorter's (2009) '*Linguistic Landscape: Expanding the Scenery*' made huge contribution to study the relationship between language and signage; they shed light on what was missing in the study of Linguistic Landscape , the role of people: the sign writers, readers and interpreters. Also, they pointed out that online and virtual spaces deserve to be investigated as well.

Gorter (2006) suggested the term '*cityscape*' instead of '*Linguistic Landscape*'. His proof was based on the fact that Cities are a showcase for the visual display of symbols and images. Since, there is ah huge number of signs in commercial areas and in urban contexts; therefore the term '*Multilingual cityscape*' could be a technically better denomination, and He argues that most of LL studies are conducted in the cities because of urbanization and globalization, where different signs are available among multilingual population, language contacts, and language conflicts.(Litvinskaya,2010)

Coulmas (2009) provided a historical approach to study signs. He analysed ancient writings on landmarks, like the Rosetta Stone and the Taj-Mahal. His analysis focused on three aspects: the producer of the writing, the place where it was displayed, and the functions it served. Moreover, Scollon and Scollon (2003) introduced Geosemiotics. It has to do with interpretation of languages and signs with regard to physical and social contexts. They also identified three main principles of geosemiotics: indexicality, which means the meaning of semiotic signs depends on their physical placement), dialogicality in which a sign cannot be interpreted in isolation from the context and other signs, and selection where people select which signs and meanings are salient and which are not (Litvinskaya, 2010,p.18).

Gorter and Cenoz (2004) provided a different approach in the context of second language acquisition studies. The major aims were to know the perception of L2 users of linguistic landscape, and the role of the linguistic landscape as an additional source of language input in SLA. They believed that landscape contributes to the construction of the sociolinguistic context because people process the visual information that comes to them. This approach also influences L2 learners' perception of the status of different languages and even their own language use or their linguistic behavior (Gorter & Cenoz, 2007, p.7).

Reh (2004) developed a multilingual writing approach to categorize the multilingual writings in the streets. This model consisted of three main parameters which are: a) spatial mobility of signs, b) visibility of multilingualism, and c) information arrangement on signs. The third parameter is concerned with the arrangement of information in a multilingual text. Four main types of arrangement are distinguished: a) duplicating, b) fragmentary, c) overlapping and d) complementary. First, Duplicating strategy refers to cases where the same information is given in more than one language since not all people in the target community will be reached by a single language only, and when the multilingual writer is interested in attracting a particular target group, in case of trade and tourism. Second, fragmentary

multilingual writing refers to multilingual inscriptions where the full information is given on one language, but fragments or parts of the same text are translated into another language variety or other varieties. Third, overlapping writing is used if part of the information is given in two or more languages, but also both convey additional content. In this case, the content of the text in the different languages may overlap. Although Reh made a distinction between fragmentary and overlapping multilingual texts, Backhaus (2007) considered them exactly the same and term them as mixed signs. Finally, complementary multilingualism occurs when texts in which different parts of the overall information are written in a different language (Al-Athwary, 2017, p.150).

Sutherland (2015) introduced the term writing system mimicry (WSM). It refers to the choice to make a text in one writing system superficially similar to text in another within the LL. To define the term, Sutherland (2015, p.150) stated that: “*The mapping of (real or imagined) design features and/or graphemes of a mimicked writing system onto a base writing system, so that the base writing system somewhat resembles the mimicked writing system while retaining legibility*”. The ‘base writing system’ is the text intended to be read. The choice to mimic another writing system may be conducted to serve some social, commercial purposes or identity purposes. The Writing System Mimicry has recently become an apparent feature of the Linguistic Landscape, especially private commercial sectors. It is only employed on bottom-up signs to perform functions of identity and solidarity.

In Africa, A new approach emerged in linguistic landscape studies. According to Banda and Jimaima (2015), Zambia is a multilingual country with different language varieties as Tonga (around Livingstone), Bemba (around Lusaka), and English. They used the walking narrative methodology and proved it is essential in understanding rural-space. Besides, Said and Rohmah (2011) conducted a research concerning to the use of the Arabic language in public space. They were interested in knowing whether Arabic is used in Spain after it was

banned by the government since the Christian rulers governed the Spanish Peninsula in the fifteen centuries. The results showed that Arabic existed in the toponyms of the road signs as many of the place names were borrowed from Arabic. Arabic is used in commercial sectors to attract customers and as a symbol of identity among Muslims.

Arab countries like Iraq, Palestine, Algeria, and Morocco are characterised with linguistic diversity and language minorities. Saleh and El-Yasin and Dawabsha (1996) conducted a study on the use of foreign business names on shop signs in Jordan and Palestine. They emphasised the reasons behind this phenomenon and its impact on Arabic speakers. Their purpose was to investigate the different social and psychological attitudes and views of Arabs towards the spread of foreign elements in advertising, their results was concluded on that symbolic function shape spaces and that attitudes are subjective. (Al-Athwary, 2012).

Finally, these works along others have promoted linguistic landscape to stand as subfield of sociolinguistic and facilitate the research studies for other researchers in the field. Thus, this study will be done to transfer once again this area of research in our Algerian context, specifically in Tiaret speech community.

1.10 Variables of Signs

There are certain variables that influence the process of sign making process. Thus, based on Barni and Bagna (2009)'s three levels of analysis we will identify these variables. The three levels are:

1. '*Semiotic analysis*'; the semiotic function of a sign is identified via the relationship between the sign and the setting (time and space).
2. '*Macro-linguistic analysis*'; it takes into account a sign's internal functions such as spatial organisation and the roles of authorship and readership in sign making.

3. *'Micro-linguistic analysis'*; at this level, the focus is on the 'Occurrences' or what is called the qualitative evaluation of the text displayed on sign. Such as: the language varieties in a given sign (Finzel, 2012, p.16).

Therefore, the variables involved in the process of sign making are divided into *internal Variables*, which refer to factors that are involved in the meaning-making process of a sign (Macro-linguistic analysis), and external variables, that is the factors of the outside world of a sign.

1.10.1 Internal Variables of Signs

There are aspects involved in the whole process of sign making. They affect the semiotic function of signs and determine the organization of texts in a sign. These variables are:

1.10.1.1 Linguistic Landscape Actors

Spolsky and Cooper (1991) highlighted three main actors; the animator (initiator of the signs), author and the readers in this case clients. Goffman (1992) in *'Forms of Talk'* attributed three different roles the producer of a text. First of all, the role of an *'Animator'*, whom produces the text verbally. Secondly, the role of the *'Author'* or the writer of the verbal text. And thirdly, the role of a *'participant'* who believes personally in what is being said and takes the position that is implied in the remarks". The animator and the author are the same person in most cases.

Moreover, Malinowski (2009, as cited in Finzel, 2012, p.18) described the author "*as a complex, dispersed entity who is only somewhat in control of the meanings that are read from his or her written 'utterances'*". He argued that signs are a random product but it is clear that the creator of a shop sign sets the look of it. Ben-Rafael et al. (2006) used of the terms *public* for Top down (TD) and *private* for Bottom up (BU) signs. Also, Backhaus, 2007) used the terminology of *in vitro* (corresponding to TD) and *in vivo* (corresponding to BU).

Malinowski (2009) added that TD signs prefer the officially dominant language, while BU signs prefer the non-dominant language. Furthermore, Rodriguez (2009) suggested a threefold categorization of signs. Firstly, *private texts* which are designed by single persons and local businesses (e.g. graffiti, notes, shop signs). Secondly, *public texts* are formulated by official and governmental institutions as: street signs. Adding the corporate *texts used by* international non-local companies, like: logos (Finzel, 2012, p.19).

Ben-Rafael et al. (2006) called the creators of signs ‘Actors’. They argued on that the actors in cooperation with each other shape the linguistic scenario of the public sphere. They have relied on Spolsky’s and Cooper’s (1991) discourse principles that participate in the construction of signs in linguistic landscapes. Their three conditions have a value and importance in an analysis of the purposes of sign writers in initiating signs in linguistic landscapes:

1. ‘Write signs in a language you know’.
2. ‘Prefer to write signs in the language or languages that intended readers are assumed to read’.
3. ‘Prefer to write signs in your own language or in a language with which you want to be identified’.

These conditions were discussed in more details in major contributions section by which the first condition requires writing in a language that is familiar, as necessary. However, this rule suits the role of the author. while the other conditions include ‘*Readership condition*’ where writers use a language that readers know on public signs, and ‘ownership condition’ requires to write in writer’s own language. As it is shown, most of works have emphasised on the role of the author while there is few studies concerned with how the LL is perceived (Alomoush, 2015, p.26).

1.10.1.2 Code Choice

To identify the reasons and motives that construct the Linguistic Landscape (LL), it is important to shed the light on LL actors' behaviors and choices. Based on Ben Rafael et al. (2006, p.9) definition of Linguistic Landscape actors as: "*those who concretely participate in the shaping of the LL by ordering from others or building by themselves LL elements according to preferential tendencies, deliberate choices or policies*". Therefore, they interpreted the code choices depending on three sociolinguistic hypotheses.

From a Bourdieusard perspective is about the relation of different codes in signs. It has to do with dominant versus subordinate language varieties. Presentation-of-self and primordialist perspective hypothesizes that identity markers of communities would imprint themselves quite strongly on Linguistic Landscape. Finally, good reasons perspective suggests that one would be able to interpret Linguistic Landscape 's structures and characteristics in terms of the interests of its actors vis-à-vis the public ,that is to say; the attractiveness and expected influence of signs on eventual clients.

1.10.1.3 Spatial Organization

Whenever there is more than one code used on a sign, there is an order. This refers to the so called '*Spatial Organisation*'. The appearance of different codes within the same sign shows power relations between languages where some might or might not have official status. The prevailing code is presented as more visible than the other and it is written in bigger letters.

Kress and Van Leeuwen (1996) have invented the so called '*Visual semiotics* via examining '*the grammar of visual design*'. They emphasised on '*the ways in which images communicate meaning*'. A set of indicators of modality should be taken into account, such as '*colour saturation*', '*colour differentiation*', '*contextualisation*' and '*brightness*'. Based on this framework, Scollon and Scollon (2003) presented an important key to decode the spatial

order. They created ‘*code preference system*’, which has to do with font size, colour and placement of codes within a sign. It plays an important role in coding LL items.

Scollon and Scollon (2003) claimed that whenever there are multiple codes, there is always a preferred code. The preferred linguistic system is on the uppermost, left or central position of a sign; on the contrary, the marginalised language is positioned on the bottom, the right or the margin surface of signs, but if there is a conflict between size and order size 35 outweighs order Nevertheless, there are different works based on this framework.

Huebner (2006) argued that the placement of text and size of font used are used to determine the dominant language on multilingual signs. He added other features as ‘*colour, images and amount of text*’. There is no agreement among linguistic landscapers which colours are used for dominant language (Finzel, 2012).

1.10.1.4 Symbolic Versus Indexical Meaning

Signs in most cases can indicate the language varieties spoken by a speech community. For example the use of modern standard Arabic (MSA) and French in signs .Moreover, Backhaus (2006, as cited in Finzel, 2012, p.22) stated that: “*the use of foreign languages on nonofficial signs is mainly motivated by a desire to create an overseas atmosphere, even if there is no direct link to the world outside. Rather than power, solidarity is the underlying motivation here*”.

Scollon and Scollon (2003) attached a double indexicality to signs. Signs do not only convey meaning through their placement, but also they show their relation to other signs in a given context. Signs ‘symbolic and the indexical meaning dichotomy was derived by Landry and Bourhis (1997) .Moreover , Scollon and Scollon (2003) developed this relationship by referring to semiotics, shedding light on four questions to analyse indexicality:

- (1) Who has uttered this?
- (2) Who is the viewer?

(3) What is the social situation?

(4) Is that part of the material world relevant to such as sign?

If one answer refers to someone or something which does not belong to a given territory, then the sign is classified as having symbolic value. Whereas, it obtains indexical value of someone or something is represented on the sign. Furthermore, Backhaus (2007, as cited in Finzell, 2012, p.23) added that: *“on a higher level, each message is context-dependent and directly related to the spatial circumstances of its use. In this sense, indexicality is a property of all signs”*.

To conclude with, Scollon and Wong Scollon (2003) emphasised on the fact that linguistic landscape items are used to either index something to the speech community or it can symbolize something about the product or business which has nothing to do with the place in which it is located .So, identifying the function performed by signs would enable researchers to analyse signs as being indexical, symbolic, or it can perform both in certain situations. (Finzel, 2012)

1.10.1.5 Non-Linguistic Elements

The non linguistic elements are considered to influence the occurrences of signs as well. Shohamy and Waksman (2009) claimed that linguistic and non-linguistic factors take part in the meaning-making process. They emphasised the meaning provided by the visual aspects of language like typography, placement in the semiotic layouts, color, spatial and kinetic arrangements. Besides, Goddard (2001, as cited in Finzel, 2012, p.24) stated that: *“readers do not simply read images in isolation from the verbal text that accompanies them; nor do they read the verbal text without reference to accompanying images”*. In the light of this quote, it can be seen that there is close relationship between the written text and the images on signs. Since, sometimes an image can index the meaning of the sign.

However Finzel (2012) held another opinion .she stated that:

Even if they contribute to the interpretation and understanding of a message – they are linguistically not relevant and therefore do not have to be considered. I do not neglect the fact however that in some circumstances they can be included for a more thorough interpretation. But even if the semiotic function of language is of central relevance for LL research, the semiotic function of signs which do not contain any linguistic token at all shall not be considered here. (pp.24-25)

That is to say, even though the non linguistic elements can contribute to the semiotic function of the sign. Linguistically they are not relevant.

1.10.2 External Variables of Linguistic Landscape

Putting the internal variable aside, there are other variables better known as '*External variable of signs*' that impact the process of making a sign, these variables are; Proper names, language policy, and globalization.

1.10.2.1 Proper Names in the Linguistic Landscape

Proper names are a semantic category of nouns, which are often included in linguistic landscape, such as: the names of shops, brand and product names and the names of residents. They usually identify someone or something and refer to people, institutions, and brand names. Moreover; they are used in public apace as advertisements.

Salih and El- Yasin (1996) interviewed Arabic speakers customers about their attitudes toward shop names in foreign languages. They have asked them which clothing shop to choose the one written in English or the other written in Arabic. The results were 73 percent of them chose the English name, while 3 percent chose the shop with Arabic name. Furthermore, 83 percent of the customers assumed that higher-quality clothes were expensive. The authors concluded that the majority of customers prefer foreign names with high-quality products.

The linguistic landscapers El-Yasin and Mahadin (1996) argued that it is this association between foreign product and its good quality that businesses utilize to choose a

foreign name, or using foreign words in promoting their goods and services. They hope that a foreign sign will create this association in the customers' minds and that the customers thus will be attracted to their shops. (Edelman, 2010, p. 23)

Proper names in the public space, specifically the commercial sector, play a crucial role in persuading and affecting consumers' purchasing behavior because proper names are used to effect emotions. According to Edelman (2010), whether or not a researcher considered proper names in his/ her study, it cannot be denied that in many cases the connotation of a sign (how it is perceived) is more important than the denotation (its actual meaning). Thus, proper names are a variable that makes difference in the linguistic landscape because it influences the reader's perceptions and attitudes.

1.10.2.2 Language Policy and Linguistic Landscape

Backhaus (2009) compared language signs in Quebec and Tokyo by stating that the construction of Linguistic Landscape (LL) is consciously shaped and controlled by laws. In addition, Cenoz and Gorter (2006) found that the role language policy was to protect minority languages and to influence the visibility of language varieties on both top down and bottom up signs in The Netherlands, Spain and Italy.

Finzel (2012, p. 28) stated that: "*LLs always depend on political systems. Capitalism results in huge amounts of advertising, whereas communist regimes would abandon these contents and rather attach value to ideological messages that legal issues bear great responsibility for the shaping of a LL*", Which means depending on the language policy the linguistic landscape appears either for advertising purposes or to serve as ideological message. Moreover, she indicated that the absence of a language in a LL does not indicate the absence of its speakers in that speech community. Thus, this does not reflect the linguistic panoramas.

Another governmental intervention into the Linguistic Landscape is manifested when the Supreme Court in the Zionist Entity decided to include Arabic next to Hebrew on public signs and English. In 1999, it became obligatory to add these three languages on all road signs. In 2002, their use was expanded to all public signs of five Arab-Hebrew major cities. However, these decisions were perceived as another attack on their newly gained autonomy with Arabic, which is spoken only by a minority in the Zionist Entity. Barni and Bagna (2010) showed the regulation in Prato, Italy which forbade shop owners from using foreign languages and obliged them to provide the Italian translation. If they refused, they would be fined (Finzel, 2012).

Furthermore, the relation between linguistic landscape (LL) and language policy can be seen in that official languages of speech community can be dominant LL .since, whenever the government regulates the use of language varieties and sets their status, it is likely to be reflected in the overall linguistic landscape .regardless of whether these varieties are addressed on public signs or not. (Dixon,2015,p.15).

Language policy decisions are reflected in the linguistic landscape. The co-existence of multiple language varieties is reflected in the linguistic landscape of the city. In Algeria, it is important to clarify that national policies regulated the use the Arabic language along with Tamazight in government buildings after it was implemented in the Algerian constitution (Fourth Amendment 2019). However, due the large presence of different foreign languages in the commercial field, the Ministry of Commerce has required shopkeepers to use the Arabic language in the commercial field with an option to use any other foreign language. In particular, shopkeepers are asked to ensure that the inscription is accompanied by a text displaying the exact translation into Arabic language.

To conclude with, it is important to indicate that language policy must always be taken into consideration. Finzel (2012) claimed that: “*a change in regime can bring about a change*

in the linguistic landscape (LL)” (p.30). Thus, before investigating the linguistic landscape of a specific speech community, the researcher has to ask and clarify the government decisions on the presence of certain language varieties on both the public and private sectors.

1.10.2.3 Linguistic Landscape: As a Product of Globalisation

Technology plays a significant role in connecting people and nations. This connection has led to ‘*intercultural communication*’ among people and cultures, by which English is used as a ‘lingua franca’. Its use differs from one nation to another, which led to the emergence of different English varieties. Thus English became known as ‘*world Englishes*’. As Gibson and Murray (2012) highlighted that via the process whereby people across the world are increasingly related in terms of economy, politics, and culture. Simply put, the world becomes as a single place (Bianco, 2018, p.26).

These nations have been divided into three main circles: The Outer Circle and Expanding Circle refer to two of the three concentric circles commonly used to describe English speakers and usage around the world. The third circle is the Inner Circle (Kachru & Nelson, 1996). The Inner Circle refers to countries with a long history of English speaking, such as the United States, England and Australia. The Outer Circle refers to countries that were colonized by England like: India, Nigeria and South Africa. The Expanding Circle refers to countries where English is used for specific purposes in educational and academic sector.

According to Crystal (2007), in the second half of the twentieth century, globalization has gained the interest of numerous researchers as; Backhaus (2007) and Gorter (2009), when the so called linguistic landscape has turned to be multilingual.

Backhaus (2007, as Cited in Bianco, 2018, p.25-26.) stated that:

Multilingualism is a consequence of globalization and the mobility of individuals, societal participation and the influence of global market forces are among the main factors increasingly

affecting the complex relationships between the languages of minority communities, the national or official language(s), and English as the one global language of our times.

Furthermore, Cenoz's and Gorter's study (2006) in Friesland and Basque showed that the use of English is not neglected and it serves as a language of international communication in which they address two distinctive processes. On the one hand, they stressed on that English is the language of globalization in the Linguistic Landscape. On the other hand, they considered the appearance of 'regionalization' or 'localization', which emphasised on both regional identity and a regional language. These two sociolinguistic processes, globalization and localization, are termed as 'glocalization' when The use of English can be of an informational function via providing visitors and tourists with instructions for places, and with symbolic function for locals as indication for globalised speech community (Phillips, 2011).

Global linguistic landscaping becomes multilingual. English is seen as the most dominant language in some commercial areas. Visitors or foreigners can have an impression of a certain city or a village without having direct contact with local people or tourist guides. Thus, Linguistic Landscape serves as a GPS tool via depicting locations through its signs. Hence, signs in English language are of a great help for tourists by providing them with the right directions. It is also regarded as a language of prestige and modernity. This fact explains its overuse in advertisements and commercial areas.

However, the use of English has influenced Linguistic Landscape to the extent that some national policies imposed taxes on the overuse English language, via deciding which language should come first in a sign for or the purpose of maintaining its own official language varieties and to protect language identity since language varieties are in one way or another a symbol of a nation. Phillips (2011) have referred to this, by which he mentioned that bilingual or multilingual settings are interesting context to conduct Linguistic Landscape

studies, in the sense that policies are the ones whom control and direct the use of official language varieties on bottom up signs (official buildings) and even is reflected in bottom up signs such as posters or shop signs (Phillips 2011).

Bolton (2012) ties this phenomenon to the idea of linguistic imperialism, calling it an '*Intrusion*'. This means that; the spread of English indicates an imperialistic threat since many countries are restricting the role of English in linguistic landscape, such as: Québec, Canada (Cenoz & Gorter, 2008). Other countries sought to use it for businesses purposes and to enlarge their markets and to gain more consumers for their products or services, for example: the American company McDonald's and its branches in Egypt and Recently Algeria .therefore this can be seen as economic prosperity for some countries. Besides, Huebner (2006) added that Linguistic Landscape is an indication that '*globalisation*' has an impact on *commercial competition* While Lanza and Woldemariam (2009) indicated that although people will never get colonized by English speaking people, English is used as a sign of commercial prosperity. English is also found on the majority of shop signs to give a sense of modernity (Alomoush, 2015).

To sum up with, the occurrences of English language along with other language varieties is an indication of globalization. However, its use on signs as shown in this section maybe tolerated by some policies or not .since, the main reasons behind this policies is; to conserve and protect their languages from being lost, preserving their identity since language is a sign of identity .furthermore, globalization may results in the so called multilingual linguistic landscape and can serve as a sign of commercial development and awareness.

1.11 Conclusion

To conclude with, this chapter has attempted to highlight the theoretical framework of our study. We tried to give precise and concise definitions of the basic terms in Linguistic Landscape (LL) as the term itself along with the main function of language in general and of

Linguistic Landscape in particular .Besides, we went through the different classifications needed to categorize the different types of LL items. Moreover, we shed light on the most fruitful contributions done in this field as: Spolsky and Cooper s' rules to design a signs and Ben Rafael et al 'model.....etc. Then, we took a close glance to the internal and external variables that affect the display of language varieties on signs. In general, we set the theoretical background of our study and we hope to approach it step by step to the current context (Tiaret Speech Community) in the next chapter

Chapter Two: Sociolinguistic Profile of Algeria

2.1	History and Story of Algeria	40
2.1.1	An Overview of Algeria.....	40
2.1.2	Demography and Social Structure	41
2.1.3	Historical Overview	41
2.1.3.1	Phoenicians in Algeria	42
2.1.3.2	The Roman Era in Algeria (106. BC-430.BC).....	42
2.1.3.3	The Arabs' Arrival	43
2.1.3.4	The Spanish Era in Algeria (1492).....	44
2.1.3.5	The Turkish Invasion (1516-1830)	44
2.1.3.6	The French Occupation (1830 – 1962).....	45
2.1.3.7	The Post Colonial Era (1962- 2020)	45
2.2	Tiaret: The Current Context	47
2.2.1	Presentation of the Region	47
2.2.2	History of the Region.....	49
2.3	The Linguistic Situation in Algeria	50
2.3.1	History of the Arabic Language	50
2.3.1.1	Classical Arabic.....	51
2.3.1.2	Modern Standard Arabic (MSA).....	51
2.3.1.3	Algerian Dialectal Arabic (ADA)	52
2.3.2	Berber Language and its Varieties	53
2.3.3	Foreign Languages in Algeria.....	53
2.4	The Linguistic Situation in Tiaret	54
2.5	Aspects of Language Contact in Algeria.....	54
2.5.1	Bilingualism	54
2.5.1.1	Societal Bilingualism and Individual Bilinguality	55
2.5.1.2	Compound, Coordinate, and Subordinate Bilinguals.....	55
2.5.1.3	Balanced and Dominant Bilinguals.....	56
2.5.1.4	Early and Late Bilinguals.....	56

2.5.1.5	Folk and Elite Bilinguals.....	56
2.5.1.6	Additive Bilinguals and Subtractive Bilinguals.....	57
2.5.1.7	Bilingualism in Algeria.....	57
2.5.2	Diglossia	57
2.5.2.1	Diglossia in Algeria.....	59
2.5.3	Code Switching.....	60
2.5.3.1	Code Switching in Algeria.....	61
2.5.4	Borrowing	61
2.5.4.1	Borrowing in Algeria	62
2.6	Conclusion.....	62

This chapter will deal with the sociolinguistic profile of Algeria. Thus, it is divided into three main sections. First, we will introduce the long recorded historical periods of Algeria since it was a battlefield for many invasions such as: Phoenicians, Romans, Muslims, Ottomans, and French colonialism. Secondly, we shall present the linguistic situation of the Algerian context; it will mention the co-existing language varieties along with their status such as: Modern Standard Arabic (MSA), Berber and its varieties, and foreign languages in Algeria. Finally, the outcomes of language contact in Algeria will be highlighted, including; bilingualism, code switching, and diglossia. Finally, this chapter will be an endeavor to unstitch the pieces of the sociolinguistic profile of Algeria in general and of Tiaret speech community in particular.

2.1 History and Story of Algeria

In this section, we shall discuss the context of our study which is Algeria in general and Tiaret speech community in particular.

2.1.1 An Overview of Algeria

Algeria is an Arab country that is situated in North Africa. Unlike other African continents; Algeria is called '*the Gate of Africa*' since it has a strategic location. It is bordered by the Mediterranean Basin in the north. In the west, it has borderers with Morocco, Western Sahara and Mauritania. In the east, it is neighbor with Tunisia and Libya and with Mali, Niger and Chad in the south. Moreover, the distance from the east to west coastline is about 1800 Km, whereas from the north to the south coastline is 1900 km. Algeria is considered to be the largest country in Africa with an area covering approximately 2.381.741Km².

From a political point of view, Algeria is a republic named as 'People's Democratic Republic of Algeria'. It is based on a multi-party semi-presidential regime. The local government is divided into 58 Wilayas (Provinces) and each one is subdivided into different local administrations called communes and Daïra.

Economically speaking, Algeria is considered as one of the developing countries. Its economy depends on petroleum and gas activity to a great extent. Algeria is also a major producer of agricultural products including; vegetables, fruits, dates and wheat. Besides, there are also other natural resources like: water, oil, gas, and gold. The Algerian currency is dinar (DZD).

2.1.2 Demography and Social Structure

Algeria is a nation with a mixture of various origins; the inhabitants come from different ethnic groups. Algeria is composed of Arabs and Berbers with many subgroups (Eg., Kabyles, Chaouia, Mzab, and Chelha). Also, it has 42,228,429 million inhabitants (by 28 February 2020). The European population is estimated at about 1% .Besides, it is composed of a youth population by which the medium age is 24 years. Moreover, the large majority live in the north.while, the south is almost deserted due to the difficult weather. The climate is hot and dry in the south. The temperature is average in the south (27°C), but it often reaches 40°C in summer. The average temperature in the north is 21°C. The rainy season lasts from mid-September to mid-May. Algerian population diversity is justified by Berbers occupation, and the existence of other civilizations as; Phoenicians, Romans. In the 7th century, Muslims arrived from the East to spread Islam. Then, the Ottoman arrived in 1515. In 1830, the French colonized Algeria. Throughout history, these diverse people and groups were unified under one nation.

2.1.3 Historical Overview

From a historical point of view, Algeria had witnessed numerous invasions and conquests from different civilizations, such as; Phoenicians, Romans, Vandals, Byzantines, Arabs, Spanish, Turkish, and finally the French colonization. This fact resulted in the existence of different languages, cultures, identities, and religions.

2.1.3.1 Phoenicians in Algeria

Berbers were considered to be the first ones to occupy northern Africa. They are considered to be the indigenous or the original people of North Africa. They occupied Lybia, Tunisia, Morocco and Algeria. Their settlement in Algeria is estimated for more than 4000 years. However, Berbers lacked a written language at that time and hence tended to be marginalized in historical accounts. In 1250 B.C, the Phoenician traders came from a town called ‘*Phoenicia*’, which is situated between Syria and Lebanon. They established ports and cities on coastline of North Africa due to the long distance between Phoenicia and Spain. Around 800 B.C, they established Carthage (present-day Tunisia). At first, they were not interested in the sources of Algeria. However, through time their relationship with Berbers has developed due to trade, agriculture, and manufacturing. By time, they established: Hippo Reguis (Annaba), Cirta (Constantine), Rusicade (Skikda) and other cities (Ramdane,2016) . He (2016) mentioned that:

All this ended with the Punic wars, finished by the fall of cartage under the control of Romans in 146 BC .In the east side of the Algerian lands, precisely in Constantine, Imazighans, could established their first kingdom in the history of Algerian 203 B.C namely “Numidia” its capital “Cirta” (Constantine now) Massinissa and ruled it.(p.4)

The Phoenicians were defeated by the Romans, and the Berbers established a kingdom named ‘Numidia’ and its people were called Numidians and Imazhighans, which means ‘free men’. Its capital city was ‘Cirta. It was ruled by Massinissa and later on his grandson Yugharta, who tried to unify ‘Numidia’, but he was executed in 105.BC.

2.1.3.2 The Roman Era in Algeria (106. BC-430.BC)

In 2016, Embassy of Algeria in New Delhi claimed that after the defeat of the Phoenicians, the Roman Empire took the stage and became the dominant power. They took control over the natural sources. Berbers had many problems with the Romans and they were obliged to pay heavy taxes. Later on, the Romans faced internal conflicts, which weakened

them. After the defeat and the exclusion of king Yugharta, the Romans gained control over Algeria. Under the rule of Rome, cities were built with an impressive architecture such as; Tipaza and Timgad. After the fall Roman Empire, some 80,000 Vandals, a Germanic tribe, invaded Algerian lands in 429 AD. They caused the decline of the Roman Empire in Algeria. Vandals allowed the Berbers to return to the cities, as well they authorised many local kingdoms to arise in mountains and banks of valleys. In 533 AD, Byzantines have destroyed Vandal kingdom. Their rule was maintained almost two centuries before it declined due to corruption and its military weakness due to the Muslims arrival in the 8th century (Ramdane, 2016).

2.1.3.3 The Arabs' Arrival

From the mid 7th century till the beginning of 8th century AD, Algeria was conquered by the Arabs, under the command of 'Uqba Ibn Nafi' and 'Musa bin Nussair', who came from the east. This conquest was not driven by greed to take over the natural resources of Algeria, but it was meant to spread 'Islam'. The region converted to Islam after the defeat of the Berbers. The Arabs brought a new language 'Classical Arabic' to be used for religious purposes, like; reciting the Holy Quran. Throughout time, many Berber dynasties were established, including; Rustamid Dynasty (late 8th to early 10th century) founded by the Persian 'Abderrahman Ibn Rustam' and its capital Tihert (Tiaret), the Hammadid dynasty (1007 to 1152) in Bejaia. This kingdom rose under the rule of 'Muhhamad Ibn Buluggin'. In 1152, Almohades or Unitarians, unifiers occupied north Africa. The Zayanid Dynasty (13th to early 16th century) was located from west Tlemcen city to the Chlef bend in east (Ramadane, 2016). The Arab's conquest was a religious peaceful kind of invasion and Islam became a greater part of the Algerian identity.

2.1.3.4 The Spanish Era in Algeria (1492)

As a result of the conflict between the Arabs and Berbers, Spaniards, who came from the Iberian Peninsula in 1492, occupied Algeria. Their motive was to expand their territory and dominate the area. In the early beginning of the 1500s, they prepared a military campaign to control strategic ports in North Africa in order to take revenge from the Islamic spread in the region and to widespread Christianity. Therefore, many important ports were occupied, such as: Mersa-EL Kebir (1505), Oran (1509), Algiers (1510) and Bejaia (1510). And they imposed taxes on people. However, the arrival of the two brothers ‘*Barbarous*’, (Barbarous, means red beard) ‘Aroudj and Kheir Eddine Barbarous’, from the Islamic Ottoman Empire rescued them from the Spaniards in 1504. (Gazli & Makboul, 2019).

2.1.3.5 The Turkish Invasion (1516-1830)

Algeria becomes a part of the Ottoman Empire due to Barbarous Aroudj and Kheir – Eddine Barbarous’s support against the Spanish invasion. Algiers, then, became the capital city in the region. The Ottomans established Turkish as an official language in governmental settings and it lasted for 300 years at the expense of Arabic and Berber. Nonetheless, Turkish citizens were in charge of an official governmental position. At the level of the military power, Algeria gained a powerful position among most of European countries such as France and Italy. They used to pay taxes to Algeria. The ottoman rule in Algeria witnessed three different periods: the period of Baylerbayliks (1518-1590) then the period of pashas (1587-1956), period of Aghats (1959-1971) and finally the last period before the disaster of the Ottoman Empire in Algeria, the period of Deys (1671-1930). Since, in 1827, the Algerian military forces lost its fleet in a Battle of Navarre. However, Turkish left marking the most powerful era that Algeria has witnessed. (Ramadane, 2016).

2.1.3.6 The French Occupation (1830 – 1962)

The French occupation is the final invasion that is strongly believed to be the turning point of the Algerian history because it influenced the Algerian sociolinguistic profile. It lasted for 132 years, from 1830 up till 1962. Its main purpose was to eradicate the Arab-Muslim identity via disfavoring the Koranic Classical Arabic language. Duke of Rovigo (1832, as cited in Miloudi, 2018, p.9) declared that:

The aim of the French colonization was meant to replace Arabic by French; on the other hand, to alter indirectly the culture by an insidious and systematic alienation of the spiritual places of knowledge – because the great majority of the mosques gave also the teaching of Arabic and, for some, the scientific knowledge of the epoch.

This means that, the most efficient way of possessing the country was to exterminate the Algerians' language, to establish and spread the colonial language. Subsequently, French gained an official status and it was used in administration, mass media, and government to eliminate the Arabic language from any educational practice or official use and replace it with French as the dominant language in all its uses. In this respect, the French colonization worked for the implementation of the French language in order to erase every aspect of the Algerian identity.

In fact, the French invasion is considered as a tricky one since it sought to destruct the language, its religion, culture, and the Algerian identity. Its remains have always existed in the sense that the French is still used at universities, hospitals and banks. Mostari (2005) also asserted that during the period (1830-1962) education was oriented towards French .by which, French a modern language with a great future unlike Classical Arabic, which was the reflection of illiteracy and ignorance. (Hameurlaine, 2019).

2.1.3.7 The Post-Colonial Era (1962- 2020)

Algeria came out from the French colonialism with huge losses at miscellaneous levels. Human loss was estimated with one million and a half of a million martyrs beside the injured and the deconstruction of buildings, schools and home along with illiteracy among the

Algerian people. The first elected president was '*Ahmed Ben Bella*' (1962), who faced many issues in all domains, like; unemployment and underemployment etc. On 19th June 1965, He was removed by '*Houari Boumediene*', secretary of defense at that time through a coup d'état due to Ben Bella's erratic political style and poor administrative record (Brown& Zaimech 2019).

Boumediene declared and prepared for the Arabisation project as a national goal. His goal was to reduce the dominance of the French language, and restore Arabic language, the Algerian Arabic identity and culture. He assumed that classical Arabic is the national official language of Algeria However, his project failed due to political, scientific, and economical reasons, as; fail to remove French from schools and financial issues to carry on the process (Berrabeh,2014) . Following Boumedienne's death in December 1978, colonel '*Chadli Bendjdid*' replaced him.

Bendjdid was confirmed as being the president of Algeria in February 1979. Due to the sharp fall in petroleum prices 80s .The Government control of the economy loosened under Bendjedid. Thus, Algeria faced a lot of problems because its economy was based on oil. Moreover, a new constitution, approved in February 1989, removed the one-party state, and initiated a multi- political party system. Few months later, the president was resigned. Then, Algeria witnessed a bloody civil war for ten years (Arabic: العشرية السوداء), which resulted in more than 250.000 victims.

From 1999 and till 2019, '*Abdul-Aziz Bouteflika*', who was the secretary of foreign affairs in the 70s, he ruled Algeria for four terms as president (2004-2019). He brought political stability and stopped the civil war .Moreover, during his fourth term rule Berber '*Tamazight*' was recognized as an official Language in the Algerian constitution due to the fourth amendment. Moreover, it was announced in February 2019 that he would seek a fifth term. On March 27 the army chief of staff, '*Ahmed Gaid Salah*', called on the government

to invoke a constitutional provision to declare Bouteflika unfit to serve as president. With continued pressure from protesters because of his health conditions, Bouteflika resigned from the presidency on April 2. ‘*Abdelkader Bensalah*’, the president of the legislature’s upper chamber, who was as interim president. Algeria witnessed an impressive civil demonstrations ‘*Hirak*’. The main drive of these demonstrations was the refusal of the re-election of Bouteflika for a new mandate. As a consequence, new elections were held in 12 December 2019. With determination and devotion the army ensured that the election was held, with their efforts to crack down any attempts to disrupt election campaigning. ‘*Abdelmadjid Tebboune*’, a political prime minister in 2017 won the election. Days after his inauguration, ‘*Ahmed Gaid Salah*’ died of a heart attack. ‘*Said Chengriha*’, another general of the old guard, was pointed as the army chief of staff (Brown& Zaimech 2019).

2.2 Tiaret: The Current Context

The following part will shed the light on the current context of this study (Tiaret speech community),it will present the region of Tiaret along with its history.

2.2.1 Presentation of the Region

Tiaret (In Berber □ □ □ ; *Tihert* or *Tahert*, Arabic: تيارت نيهرت). The term means lion’s females, Lioness. Tiaret covers about 20.673 km². The National Office of Statistics stated that its population about 874,050 inhabitants in (2008) and more than one million inhabitants (2018). It is located in the west of Algeria and it is bordered by Tissemsilt and Relizane in the north and by Laghouat and El-bayadh in the south; Mascara and Saïda in the west and by Djelfa in the east.

Tiaret is considered as a farming region because of its good quality wheat with its different types and other agricultural products, which have a great contribution to the national economy. Furthermore, there are many companies including Hyundai in Tiaret city center and medicines factory in Mellakou, etc. the state provides animal resources estimated of 7,190,000

of sheep, 347,652 cows, and finally 615,957 goats. Also, milk production reached 230,000,000 liters. Besides, It is well known of the original Arabic horses .the ‘*Chaoshawa barn*’ is considered by many specialist to be the largest breeding center in Africa. It takes care of 288 horses, including 174 indigenous Arabian horses and 68 other barbarian horses(<https://www.marefa.org>). Moreover, Tiaret is divided into administratively communes (Baladiyas) (42) and Daïra (14). Each Daïra is subdivided on cantons. The head of Daïra is appointed by ministry of interior affaires. The president and the assembly of every canton are elected by people for five years term.

Table1.1

The Administrative Organisation of the Wilaya of Tiaret.

Number	Daïras	Communes	
01	Tiaret	1	Tiaret
02	Dahmouni	2	Dahmouni
		3	Bouchakif
03	Madrousa	3	Madrousa
		4	Melako
		5	Sisdi Bakhti
04	Mghila	6	Mgila
		7	Sebt
		8	Sid el hosni
05	Sougueur	9	Sougueur
		10	Tousnina
		11	Faija
		12	SidiAbdelghani
06	AinDheb	13	AinDheb
		14	Chhaima
		15	Naima
07	Ksar chelala	16	Ksar chelala
		17	Sergin

		18	Zmalt el Amir abdelkader
08	Frenda	19	Frenda
		20	Ain el hdid
		21	Takhmaret
09	Rahouia	22	Rahouiya
		23	Ghartufa
10	Machraa sfa	24	Machra a esfa
		25	Djilali ben amara
		26	Tagdemt
11	Mahdia	27	Mahdia
		28	Ain dzarit
		29	Nadhour
		30	Sabien
12	Ain Kermes	31	Ain kermes
		32	Sidi abdelrahman
		33	Jbiletresfa
		34	Medrissa
		35	Madna
13	Oued Lili	36	Wad lili
		37	Tida
		38	Sidialimelal
14	Hamadia	39	Hamadia
		40	Boughera
		41	Rchaigha

2.2.2 History of the Region

The history of Tiaret goes back to ancient times. Berbers were the first people who settled in the region of “*Tahert*”. The 7th century AD, Muslims came from the east. Moreover, Abdu-Rahman Ibn Rustom established his capital in Tihert. The reign of this dynasty lasted from 761 until 909. This dynasty mainly developed agriculture; however, it was defeated by the invasion of the Fatimids.

In 952, Tiaret became a part of the Almohads dynasty (Al Muwahhidin) in 1153. Then it was a part of the Ziyani state in 1253. After the decline of the Ziyani state in the sixteenth century, Tiaret became under the reign of the Ottoman Empire for 318 years and by the Bey of Mascara.

In 1377, Abderrahmane Ibn Khaldoun, the founder of the modern social science, wrote his famous work *Al Mouquadima* (the introduction). His book was translated into different languages and Tiaret University was named after him. During the French existence in the region, the Front of National, (FLN) divided Algeria into six military regions. Tiaret is a part of the fifth military region, Oran, and fell under the leadership of the revolutionary leader Larbi Ben M'hidi.

2.3 The Linguistic Situation in Algeria

This section will be devoted for the discussion of the language varieties of Algeria since this present dissertation is mainly interested in the co- existing varieties in the linguistic landscape of Algeria.

2.3.1 History of the Arabic Language

The Arabic Language is considered as a Semitic language that belongs to the group of Afro-Asiatic family or Afrosian languages. It is widely spoken by more than half a billion speakers (Arab and Arabised people) around the world. It is the mother tongue of many Arab countries and its Arab speakers are about 400 million speakers. Moreover, it is recognized as a national official language of more than twenty-two countries.

It is regarded as the richest language in terms of vocabulary, since the late of 1970's and the beginning of the 80's; it is the sixth spoken language in United Nation (UN). Another characteristic of the Arabic language is that it carries the Islamic identity (Miloudi, 2018). Mohamed Ibrahim (1983, as cited in Miloudi, 2018, p. 24) stated that "*the Arabic language was chosen by God for carrying out the great divine message to the humanity in general and*

the Islamic nation in particular.” thus, it is used for religious purposes .such as; reciting Koran and praying to Allah. It is also considered as the language of the Holy Koran.

Furthermore, Arabic in Algeria has three different forms: Classical Arabic (CA), which is the language of Quran, Modern Standard Arabic form (MSA) or ‘*Al Fusha*’. It is mainly used in formal occasions; and colloquial Arabic or ‘*Al Aammiya*’, which is used in informal oral settings and in everyday communication.

2.3.1.1 Classical Arabic (CA)

Classical Arabic is considered to be the perfect form of the Arabic language due its rich vocabulary .It is described as a sign of Islamic identity. Classical Arabic plays the role of the frozen language because it is not used in our daily life, which is called the language of Quran. Ennaji (2010) clarified that CA is considered to be the pure language of the Quran and the language of pre-Islamic poetry, which was spoken by Quraish (Miloudi, 2018). It is used to worship Allah and for reading and reciting the Holy Koran. Moreover, Ennaji added that (2005, as cited in Hameurlaine, 2019, p. 18) “*it is a prestigious high variety and the vehicle of a large body of classical literature, classical poetry, and grammar books, which reflect ancient periods of glory in the history of Arabs and Muslims.*”

2.3.1.2 Modern Standard Arabic (MSA)

Modern Standard Arabic (MSA), also known as ‘*Al Fusha*’ is one of the Arabic language varieties in Algeria. Due to the highly codification of the classical Arabic, MSA came as a simplified form of Classical Arabic. However; it is still characterized to be prestigious form of Arabic language. Therefore, it is used in academic and official settings such as; education, media administration, and government. According to the second amendment of the Algerian constitution, it is the first national and official language in all sectors. Haugen (1972, as cited in Hameurlaine, 2019, p.21) claimed that: “*every self-respecting nation has to have a language. Not just a medium of communication a*

'vernacular' or a 'dialect' but a fully developed language.”in the light of this quote, MSA was degraded because of the use of French and sometimes the low variety (Algerian Dialectal Arabic) in official settings and its failure to coin new terms. This is because of its use as a medium for communication, not as a means of innovation.

2.3.1.3 Algerian Dialectal Arabic (ADA)

From a sociolinguistic point of view, the Arab world contains distinct language varieties or dialects of the Arabic language .Al-Sayegh (1990) highlighted that it is the language uniting the Arab countries (Miloudi, 2018). For example;Moroccan, Tunisian and Algerian Dialectal Arabic. The latter is regarded to be the mother tongue of most of the Algerians. It is used in every day interactions and it is an informal low variety of the Algerian speech community, which lacks prestige. It is important to note that Algerian Dialectal Arabic varieties differ from one region to another. According to Benrabah (2014, as cited in Miloudi, 2018,p.26)

Spoken Arabic in Algeria [...] is spread over four major geographical areas each with its own linguistic features: (1) Western Algerian Arabic used in an area which extends from the Moroccan border to Tenes. (2) Central Algerian Arabic spoken in the central zone which extends to Bejaia and includes Algiers and its surroundings. (3) Eastern Algerian Arabic spoken in the High plateaus around Setif, Constantine, and Annaba and extends to the Tunisian border. (4) Saharan Algerian Arabic spoken by around 100,000 inhabitants in the Sahara Desert.

Therefore, Algeria has many dialects. The more the varieties are close to each other, the more there is a mutual understanding among people. Whereas, if they fail to understand each other (Mutual Unintelligibility), they will come back to shared code to reach understanding usually it is MSA. Nowadays, Algerian Dialectal Arabic became used in media to a great extent like; Echorouk TV channel.

2.3.2 Berber Language and its Varieties

Berber language is considered to be an indigenous language variety in Morocco, Tunisia and Algeria. Tamazight is derived from Hermitic languages. It is written in Tifinagh alphabet. It was recognized as the second official and national language in the fourth amendment of the Algerian constitution in 2017. The aim of this amendment is to preserve the Berbers' identity and culture. Nowadays, it is well-implemented in many sectors including; media, government buildings, university building. Furthermore, its main varieties are Kabyle, (spoken in Algiers, Bejaia, Tizi-ouzou, Bouira and Boumerdes), Chaouia (found in the east of Algeria in Batna, Khanchla, Setif, Souk Ahras tbesa and Oum-el-bouaghi), Mozabit (mainly In Ghardaia, Beriyan, spoken in the region of Mizab) Tachelhit (in south of Algeria), Chenuoa (spoken in west of Algiers in Tipaza, Chlef and Aïn Defla) and Touareg (in Hoggar mountains region).

2.3.3 Foreign Languages in Algeria

Along with Classical Arabic, Berber and Algerian Dialectal Arabic, there are other languages that co-exist in the Algerian speech community. Firstly, French is still used as an integral part in Algeria since it is used in everyday conversations, administrations, and taught at primary schools, universities, and even in publicity (billboards). During colonialism, the French policy tried to exclude the Arabic language from the Algerian context by giving French an official status. After independence, the Algerian government worked hard to restore the Arabic language (Arabisation process). However, it could not completely eradicate the French language.

Secondly, the Algerian government (1992) required teaching English as a second foreign language. Thus, it is taught in educational institutions either as subject matter or as a specialty. It is taught in middle and secondary schools, and universities. Third, pupils choose to study German or Spanish in the second and third year of secondary school. They study them five hours a week. Fourth, the Algerian universities also taught other foreign languages

as a whole specialty, including; Russian, Italian, and Turkish. Therefore, the educational system and higher education is multilingual .To sum up, the Algerian linguistic repertoire is rich due to the existence of diverse foreign languages.

2.4 The Linguistic Situation in Tiaret

The linguistic situation in Tiaret Speech Community is complex since it is a part of the Algerian speech community. The people of Tiaret speech community use several language varieties like; classical Arabic (CA), Modern standard Arabic (MSA), Algerian Dialectal Arabic (ADA), Berber and French. However, they do not use one language solely in their daily life interactions. That is to say, they use multiple varieties within the same situation to perform a specific communicative purpose. For CA, it is the language of the holy book “El Qur’an” and “Islam”. MSA is taught in. However, both of them are not spoken by the majority, neither in TSC nor in the rest of the Algerian communities; whereas, ADA is considered as the dominant language variety which is spoken by the majority of people.

Besides, the minority group Berbers and Mozabits use their native language variety with one another. However, when interacting with Arabs, they use ADA or French or they code switch between them. Finally, French and English can be also found in daily conversations.

2.5 Aspects of Language Contact in Algeria

Due to the rich history of Algeria, many language varieties became omnipresent in the Algerian context. Speakers of different varieties come into contact with each other where more than one variety is used within the same situation. Hence, this fact resulted in various sociolinguistic outcomes. In this respect, we will highlight the aspects of language contact in Algeria.

2.5.1 Bilingualism

Bilingualism is one of the widely spread aspects of language contact in Algeria. It refers to the mastery of two languages by individuals in a given society. Weinreich (1953) defined

bilingualism as *'the practice of alternatively using two languages.'* That is to say it is the ability to use two different languages within the same situation. In this respect, Bloomfield (1935) defined a bilingual as *"the native-like control of two languages."* This indicates that it is necessary to master the two languages with the same proficiency to be considered a bilingual person. Furthermore, Haugen (1953) introduced bilingualism as the ability to produce a complete meaningful utterance in the other language. In here, he emphasised the linguistic competence of the speaker. However, Myers-Scotton (2006) added that being bilingual does not require mastering both languages with the same degree of proficiency.

This indicates that there is no exact definition of the term because the meaning varies from one researcher to another depending on their area of research. Nonetheless, bilingualism can be an individual or societal phenomenon. Thus, it can be societal where two languages are used in same speech community with official status .for example; Canada is a bilingual society since both French and English have official status and are used in formal and academic settings. (Ghazli & Makboul, 2019).

2.5.1.1 Societal Bilingualism and Individual Bilinguality

Hamers and Blanc (2000) made a distinction between the two terms; societal bilingualism and individual bilinguality, by which; societal bilingualism refers to the state where the whole linguistic community tend to use two language varieties, the use of two codes by the whole speech community .whereas, individual bilinguality, which refers to the aptitude or the ability of an individual to use two different language varieties within one situation (Bouaziz, 2018).

2.5.1.2 Compound, Coordinate, and Subordinate Bilinguals

In 1953, Weinreich distinguished three types of bilinguals namely; Compound, Coordinate, and Subordinate Bilinguals. This distinction is based on how the two language varieties are acquired and presented in the brain of the bilingual. Firstly, a compound

bilingual has learned two language varieties in the same context and situation, it is important to note that the already learned are stored in one meaning unit. That is to say; the mental images are combined and equivalent .secondly, a coordinate bilingual has acquired the two codes in different situation and context, each linguistic code is stored and organized separately in two meaning units and the bilinguals have two systems of meanings for words. Thirdly, Subordinate Bilinguals tend to learn new notions via translating concepts to the first language because of the lack of vocabulary (Bouaziz, 2018)

2.5.1.3 Balanced and Dominant Bilinguals

According to Peal and Lambert (1962), the distinction between balanced and dominant bilinguals is based on the relationship between the fluency and proficiency of the languages. Therefore, balanced bilinguals are competent and master both languages with same degree of proficiency. It requires the mastery of the four skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing. The dominant bilingual is more proficient and competent in one of the two languages (Moradi,2014).

2.5.1.4 Early and Late Bilinguals

Baetens and Beardsmore (1986) classified bilinguals into early and late bilinguals, depending on the age of exposure to languages, On the one hand, early bilingualism is the acquisition of more than one language in the pre-adolescent phase of life. Early bilinguals are regarded as native like since they have native-like linguistic competence in both languages On the other hand, Late bilingualism has been defined as the acquisition of one language before and the other language after the age of 8 years, bilinguals who have learned their second language (L2) after the critical period (Moradi,2014).

2.5.1.5 Folk and Elite Bilinguals

Depending on the social status of language, Fishman (1977) highlighted two other types of bilinguals; ‘folk’ and ‘elite’ bilinguals. Where folk bilinguals are individuals whose own

language does not have a high status in the predominant language society. In contrast, elite bilinguals are those who speak the dominant language in a given society (Moradi, 2014).

2.5.1.6 Additive and Subtractive Bilinguals

Based on how one's L2 influences the retention of one's L1, Lambert (1974) classified bilinguals into additive and subtractive bilinguals. Additive bilinguals can improve their L2 without losing their L1 proficiency, on the contrary, subtractive bilinguals acquire and learn L2 at the cost of losing their L1. For being additive bilinguals, consequently their L1 is replaced by L2. In other words, the mastery of L1 diminishes, while the proficiency and mastery of the L2 manifests (Moradi, 2014).

2.5.1.7 Bilingualism in Algeria

In 1830, the French people started to implement the French language at schools. Thus, this fact led the Algerian people to learn the French language. As a consequence, bilingualism came into existence because the Algerian people were as native like control of French language. Nowadays, bilingualism still exists and it is illustrated in the mastery of Algerian Dialectal Arabic and French in the majority of the Algerian cities.

Both types of bilinguals can be found in the Algerian speech community. Balanced bilinguals are those who witnessed the colonization era and have equal proficiency in both languages because they perfectly mastered Arabic and French, while dominant bilinguals are those who have unequal proficiency in the two languages like the young generation that did not witness French colonialism.

2.5.2 Diglossia

Ferguson (1959, as cited in Bouaziz, 2018, p. 8) defined the term diglossia as :

A relatively stable language situation in which , in addition to the primary dialects of the language (which may include a standard or regional standard) , there is a very divergent , highly codified (often grammatically more complex) superposed variety , the vehicle of a large and respected body of written literature , either of an early period or in another speech community, which is learned largely by formal education and is used for most written and

formal spoken purposes , but it is not used by any sector of the community for ordinary conversation.

In the light of this quote, diglossia is apparent in a situation where two different language varieties are used for specific purposes and to fulfill different functions. The superposed variety is referred to as ‘High’ or simply H, and the linguistic descent of the H is the “Low” variety or L. Furthermore, Romaine (1994, as cited in Miloudi, 2018, p.12) summarized that: “*the High (H) and Low (L) varieties differ not only in grammar, phonology, and vocabulary, but also with respect to a number of social characteristics namely: function, prestige, literary heritage, acquisition, standardization and stability*”. Thus , the difference between the high and low variety differ in terms of nine (9) variables ,which are as follows:

1. *Function:* The functional differentiation in a diglossia can be seen in the different use of H and L varieties to fulfill different purposes. H is generally used in formal and academic settings while L occurs in everyday conversations.
2. *Prestige:* H is more prestigious and is highly valued, since it is more educated, more beautiful, more logical, better able to express important thoughts. While, The L variety is felt to be less worthy and undignified, etc.
3. *Literary Heritage:*H has a sizable body of written literature, The H variety is that of “great” literature, canonical religious texts, ancient poetry, in contrast, the L variety lacks the written form.
4. *Acquisition:* L is the variety acquired first; it is usually the mother tongue, it is learned at home. H variety is learned in school.
5. *Standardization :* H is strictly standardized; grammars, dictionaries, canonical texts, etc. However , L is rarely standardized if grammars exist.
6. *Stability:* Diglossia is generally stable, it persists for centuries. However, it is important to highlight that sometimes L varieties gain domains and become the H variety, and the vice versa depending on different reasons like; political power.

- 7 *Grammar*: H has more complex grammar than the L variety. They have more complex tense systems, gender systems, agreement, syntax and inflectional systems of nouns and verbs which may not occur in the L variety.
8. *Lexicon*: H includes technical terms and formal expressions which have no equivalents in low variety. .while, L contains popular expressions and the names of very homely objects or objects.
9. *Phonology*: High and low variety vary phonology. In high variety, phonological rules are most important. But in low variety, it is not necessary.

Moreover, Fishman (1967) extended the scope of diglossia. He stated that: the term “*diglossia has been extended to cover situations where forms of two genetically unrelated or at least historically distant languages occupy the H and L varieties.*” He modified Ferguson’s view (1959) in two crucial ways. First, he allowed for presence of several separate codes, not just two. Second, he showed that the high and low varieties can be genetically unrelated.

2.5.2.1 Diglossia in Algeria

The features of a diglossic situation can be summarized into three main points:

A/ Two varieties of the same language (H and L) used side by side in speech community.

B/ H and L are used for different functions.

C/ L is used for ordinary conversation.

Therefore, there is a diglossic situation in Algeria due to the existence of two varieties of the Arabic language which are: Modern Standard Arabic and Algerian Dialectal Arabic. The latter is the low variety and it is the mother tongue of the majority of the Algerians. It is mainly spoken and used in every day interactions and has no written form. Also, it is used in informal settings since it lacks prestige and official status. MSA, on the other hand, is the high variety with an official status. It is, therefore, used in official and academic settings like;

schools and spoken in sermons in mosques since it enjoys high prestige and has literary heritage. Miloudi (2018) stated that,

Arabic in Algeria is the official and national language. It comprises two main forms: Classical Arabic or MSA, an easier and simpler form of it, and dialectal Arabic. The two varieties are not close to each other. Colonialism and illiteracy are the main factors that maintain the gap between H and L. Moreover, MSA appears in all situations of formal settings. It is widely used in educational systems print and electronic media, formal speech and writing in general. Dialectal Arabic, however, is used for everyday communication.(p.12)

The Algerian people sometimes consider both French and Modern Standard Arabic as high varieties, and consider Berber and Algerian Dialectal Arabic as low varieties. This fact results in the so called “Extended diglossia” since French is used as a high variety in some scientific streams and faculties simultaneously with Modern Standard Arabic.

2.5.3 Code Switching

Code switching has been considered as the most fruitful area of research in the field of sociolinguistics. The Scopus Social Science and Humanities Index shows that there were 67 articles published about code-switching in 2016 .This linguistic phenomenon occurs when speakers of two languages or language varieties switch back and forth from one variety to another. Gumperz (1982, as cited in Bouaziz ,2018,p.10-11) stated that code switching is “*the juxtaposition within the same speech exchange of passages belonging to different grammatical systems or subsystems.*” which means that code switching is a linguistic phenomenon of moving from one language/ variety to another in the same discourse. In this respect, code switching is a conscious linguistic phenomenon by which bilingual speakers switch between one or more language or language varieties where there is a morphological adaptation of codes in the same discourse and within the same context to reach mutual understanding, To express group identity, To show intention of clarifying speech content for interlocutor, etc. (Al Abdely, 2016).

Bloom and Gumperz (1972) introduced the two paramount types of code switch namely *situational* and *conversational* code switching. Situational code switching refers to the choice of particular codes according to the speech situation. While conversational code switching suggests that the topic governs the shift back and forth from one language variety to another.

Poplack (1980) distinguished three structural levels of code switching. First, intersentential code switching in which the switch occurs at the sentence boundaries, such as; ‘*I am so excited, باش نكمل الخدمة لعندي*’. (I am so excited to finish this work). Second, intrasentential or flag code switching occurs within and inside the sentence or the clause. For instance; ‘*لنزوج باش نبدا التالي chapter غدوان شاء الله نكمل*’. (If Allah will, tomorrow I will finish chapter two, so I can start working on the last chapter). Finally, tag switching refers to the occurrence of whole phrases of one language into the discourse. For example, ‘*كسرتيها, c’est pas grave*’ (you destroy it, it is okay do not worry).

2.5.3.1 Code Switching in Algeria

Code switching phenomenon exists in the Algerian context because most of the Algerian people switch back and forth between ADA/MSA and French/ ADA /Berber as well. It is noticeable that no one speaks French, Berber or Arabic alone. For example; ‘*و pc هاكي ل متنسايش تعرضيني l soutenance تبرك*’ (here is laptop and don not forget to invite me in you viva voce). In this example it is clear that there is switching between French (pc, soutenance) and ADA .

2.5.4 Borrowing

One aspects of linguistic contact is borrowing. It refers to the morphological adoption of words from the host language to be used in the linguistic system of the recipient language. Gumpers (1982,as cited in Berrabeh,2014,p.38) defined the term borrowing:” *as the*

introduction of single word or short, frozen, idiomatic phrases from one language to another”.

Moreover, speakers tend to adopt new terms because of two main reasons. First, speakers of less prestigious languages become very eager to show off their mastery of the prestigious language by adopting some of its words or phrases into their own speech. Second, speakers of a language can acquire some new concepts from the richness of other language due to historical motives (French colonialism of Algeria).

2.5.4.1 Borrowing in Algeria

Arabic language borrowed a huge number of words from other languages such as; French and English to be a part of Arabic language in Algeria such as the word ‘*Table*’ from French and ‘*pizza*’ from Italian language. Furthermore, speakers had a need motive to borrow these words especially scientific terms. Borrowing becomes a “must” in the scientific field, owing to the technological development in the Western countries. Nowadays, speakers of tend to adopt English words in their speech such as; Whatsapp, Facebook...etc.

2.6 Conclusion

This chapter reviews the sociolinguistic profile of Algeria that is, to a considerable extent, characterized by diversity and complexity. This fact is due to Algeria has always been at the crossroads of many civilizations and invasions. The chapter also tackled the impact of French colonization on the Algerian socio-cultural profile. The French language remained an inseparable aftermath in many fields such as administrative affairs, media, schools and universities and even every day interactions. Therefore, the co- existence of different language varieties such as; MSA, ADA, Berber, French , and English created sociolinguistic phenomenon like bilingualism, diglossia, code switching, which in turn along with The language planning and policies shaped a complex linguistic situations that are worth being investigated.

Chapter Three: Data collection, Analysis and Discussion

3.1	Research Design	65
3.1.1	Criteria for the Collection of Signs	65
3.1.2	Target Population.....	66
3.1.3	Research Approaches and Instruments	68
3.1.4	Gaining Permission.....	69
3.2	Data Collection.....	69
3.2.1	The Collection of Shop Signs	70
3.2.2	Semi-guided Interviews with Shopkeepers.....	72
3.2.3	Questionnaires for Potential Readers	72
3.3	Data Analysis.....	73
3.3.1	The Analysis of Language Presence on Shop Signs	73
3.3.1.1	Language Frequency	73
3.3.1.2	Signs Typologies	75
3.3.1.3	Language Frequency in Signs Patterns	76
3.3.1.4	Languages in Combination.....	77
3.3.1.5	Area of Activity.....	78
3.3.2	The Analysis of Language Choice in the Linguistic Cityscape	80
3.3.2.1	Shopkeepers' Professional Data.....	82
3.3.2.2	Factors Influencing Language Choice Process	83
3.3.3	The Analysis of Readers' Perception towards Linguistic Cityscape	94
3.3.3.1	Sociolinguistic Profile of Informants.....	95
3.3.3.2	Informants' Attitudes towards Languages Used on Shop Signs.....	97
3.4	Discussion of the Findings	106
3.5	Conclusion.....	109
	Limitations of the Study.....	110
	Further Implications	110

General Conclusion 111

References 114

Appendices 119

This chapter is devoted to the process of data collection, analysis and discussion. Firstly, we shall present the research design which involves; the research tools adopted in our investigation which is composed of photographs, semi guided interviews and questionnaires. Besides, the target population integrated in this study that contains; photographs of shop signs, shopkeepers, and random readers. Along with, research approaches and instruments used as a requirement to conduct our research study. Secondly, we will also shed the light on the data collection process which involves taking photographs and identifying reasons behind shopkeepers' choice of language varieties on shop signs .In addition to readers' attractiveness and awareness towards these varieties. Thirdly, we will present the data collected with its analysis. The analysis is based on Ben Rafael et al and Blanco's approach of shopkeepers' code choice on shop signs. to answer our research questions and to confirm of refine our proclaimed hypotheses.

3.1 Research Design

In order to identify the nature of the linguistic cityscape of Tiaret speech community, it is important to highlight the research design or the structure of research since it is the “Glue” that holds the elements in a research project together. In the sense that it gives a clear overview of the way we manage to handle our research study. After setting our research questions and hypotheses, it is necessarily to shed light on the reasons behind choosing the target population, the procedures of data collection methods and the interpretation of these data.

3.1.1 Criteria for the Collection of Signs

To obtain a representative sample of the languages used in the commercial sector, it is important to focus on the sampling criteria to select the linguistic resources displayed in private businesses' signs. To this regard, Backhaus (2007) highlighted three elements to take into account to collect a valid sample of signs: “*the survey areas, the survey items and their*

linguistic properties". That means that following a systematic sampling method would enable researches to get valid data.

To begin with, the criteria adopted for the selection of representative survey areas depend on the geographical distribution of business premises, with the highest concentration of commercial activities. Moreover, Backhaus (2007) mentioned two main methods to choose the survey items. The first method involves the systematic collection of signs of the same nature, to illustrate; the shop signs of different shops in the same neighborhood. This will make it easier for data collection and analysis. The second method requires the collection of signs of different nature, like; official (government building) and non-official signs (private signs as shop signs), which means the collection of various signs such as ; street names, shop signs, government building signs and advertising billboards present in a specific area.

In this study, signs are collected using a systematic quantitative sampling approach. The survey areas chosen for this study are: Rue Bugeaut, Volani, La Cadat , Ras Essoug , la Gare , Regina and Sonatiba. These areas have the highest concentration of commercial activities in Tiaret speech community. Hence, the survey items are bottom-up signs of commercial nature, which includes shop signs of different stores situated in the seventh survey areas.

3.1.2 Target Population

Since this study is intended to investigate the role played by social actors in the making and the perception of the linguistic cityscape .The target population of the current study is based on different categories of both shop keepers and random readers. Bianco (2018) stated that:

A sign is made by someone (i.e. a writer) for someone else (i.e. a reader) and it would be curious, to say the least, not to investigate the perspective of these actors, especially in the commercial context, where the role of individuals is of primary importance. (p.39)

Therefore, the participants were from different regions of Tiaret speech community namely: Tiaret, Rahouia, Mahdia, Frenda, Sougeur, Dahmouni, in addition to another region, which is Tissemsilt.

To this regard, Ben Said (2011) highlighted that Linguistic Landscape should include different views from the participants since they are an essential part of the interpretation of the linguistic landscape. Accordingly, this research has followed a probability sampling, which is based on random selection in which every element in the population is given an equal chance to be selected. Besides, the total number of our informants was 117 people (40 females and 67 males, aged between 18 and 50 years old or more).

Twenty seven shop owners participated in this study (25 of them are males and 2 are females). They were from different race groups such as: Arab, Berber, Turkish, and Syrian. Their commercial activities were varied: clothing, perfumes, food, barber, jewelry, bakery...etc. The participants were from different educational levels. There was no specific basis for the selection of shop keepers because not all of them agreed to take part in the interview and some agreed but without being recorded or filmed.

For the number of readers participated in this study. They are presented in table 3.1, where the total number of readers is 80 (42 males and 38 females). The respondents' age were from different categories as shown in table 3.1. furthermore, the respondents' educational level was varied from middle school to university.

Table 3.1

The Number of Readers.

Age categories	Males	Females	Total
18-35	23	29	52
35-50	15	7	22
Over 50	4	2	6

3.1.3 Research Approaches and Instruments

The current research is based on a mixed-method approach. It consists of both; quantitative and qualitative methods. Thus, the study employed three methods including; photography, questionnaire and semi-guided interview respectively. In this regard Burke Johnson defined it as:

The type of research in which a researcher or team of researchers combine elements of qualitative and quantitative research approaches (e.g., use of qualitative and quantitative viewpoints, data collection, analysis, inference techniques) for the broad purposes of breadth and depth of understanding and corroboration. (p.123)

On the one hand, the quantitative method would enable us to make a systematic analysis of the numerical data about readers' attitudes towards linguistic cityscape of Tiaret speech community. It will also be helpful since the number of respondents is huge. On the other hand, the qualitative method will assist us to investigate the main reasons motivate shop owners to select a certain language variety. It helps the researcher in exploring and understanding the motives behind language choice in linguistic cityscape of Tiaret speech community. Greene et al (1989) stated that triangulation provides opportunities for convergence and corroboration of results that are initiated from different methods (qualitative and quantitative). Thus, complementarities between them will offer elaboration, enhancement, illustration, clarification of results from both methods. Besides, it will extend the breadth and range of inquiry by using different methods for different inquiry components.

Therefore, the objectives of this study along with other variables such as; the number of the sample, age and time were taken into account to determine the choice of research tools. Firstly, we take photographs of shop signs in the seven survey areas to analyse the nature of linguistic cityscape in Tiaret speech community. Secondly, data concerning the factors involved in the making of the linguistic landscape are gathered directly from shop owners by means of oral interviews (semi – guided interviews). Finally, an attitudinal questionnaire was

administered to random readers in the survey areas to identify their opinions and level of awareness towards linguistic cityscape of Tiaret speech community.

3.1.4 Gaining Permission

To understand the nature of the linguistic cityscape of Tiaret speech community, Gorter (2013) stated that data collection procedure can be obtained via using different methods ,like; taking photographs only and interviewing people or using them both (Alfaifi, 2015),Therefore, our research requires taking photographs of shop signs and making interviews with shop keepers. Even though, this research does not involve government building and had no connection with government sector, the researcher insisted on gaining permission from the head of the department. This procedure was of great help since it was an official proof that we were undertaking a scientific research study. Hence, shopkeepers showed a great cooperation and engagement in answering our questions. Finally, the permission to collect the required and needed data for this research was granted on March 09, 2020.

3.2 Data Collection

Since the present research aims at investigating the linguistic cityscape of Tiaret speech community commercial sector, data were collected incorporating three areas of interest: language presence in shop signs, factors influencing shopkeepers in the process of language choice, and readers' awareness and perception towards linguistic cityscape.All data were collected in the period from 10 to 20 March 2020 in the city's areas with the highest commercial concentration. Therefore, sixth survey areas were chosen were: Ras Essoug , la Cadat , Rue Bugeaut , Regina, Sonatiba, la Gare and Volani.

The reason behind the choice of these commercial areas is that our study focuses on the commercial sector and they contain the highest number of shops in them .Therefore, data collected in these survey areas can be considered as a representative and comprehensive

sample of the demographic and linguistic diversity of the city. Since, Gorter (2006) stated that to identify the linguistic composition of the city is extremely difficult, if not impossible. For this reason, data collected for this study are not meant to represent an accurate picture of Tiaret linguistic diversity, but, to provide data as comprehensive as possible (Bianco, 2018).

3.2.1 The Collection of Shop Signs

To understand the nature of linguistic cityscape of commercial sector in Tiaret speech community, 679 photographs of monolingual, bilingual and multilingual shop signs written in different language varieties were taken in each of the neighborhoods. The selected photographs were taken in the period from 10th to 12th of March. The selected items were collected via the use of Condor Allure M3 smart phone with double camera estimated by 16 mega pixel and the other 5 mega pixel with full HD image. In this respect, a shop sign is the front frame of shops that is usually placed over shop windows. It usually indicates the name of the commercial activity and provides other information such as the logo, the slogan or catchy phrase, the name of the shopkeeper. Moreover, any written text within a shop sign is considered as a single item, such as; texts within shop windows or every other sign outside or inside stores. But, the main emphasis in this study is on the name of the shop.

Besides, the sample includes monolingual signs and bilingual signs, i.e. signs written in more than one linguistic variety and multilingual signs, in which signs written in more than two languages. In addition, proper names were included since they are of great impact on the linguistic cityscape. Brand names including; product names, place names, and first, family or tribal names. Edelman (2010) proposed two suggestions for the classification of proper names '*Analysis A*' and '*Analysis B*'. While the former excludes proper names from examination because the majority of proper names are global, the latter approach views that proper names should be assigned by the language of origin. '*Analysis B*' was adopted by many linguistic landscapers such as Ben-Rafael et al. (2006), Cenoz and Gorter (2006), Huebner (2006) and

Schlick (2003). Furthermore, Vettorel and Franceschi (2013, as cited in Bianco, 2018) suggested that they should be treated “*in the same way as other words recorded in the linguistic landscape and [to assign them] to their language of origin [or] according to the language they could be (symbolically) associated with*”. In this study, proper names will be classified according to ‘*Analysis B*’ of Edelman since the inclusion of these names in linguistic landscape studies affects linguistic diversity in the linguistic landscape

To guarantee the success of the photographing process, the researcher asked for help from a friend whom she was master two linguistic students. Fortunately, she was of great help since we switch roles to take pictures of shop signs. My friend took photos and I interviewed the shopkeepers in the meanwhile .As shown in table 3.2, we start photographing On March 10, 2020 from area of girls campus ‘*Assia El Kabir*’ to *La Cadat*. the photographing process relatively went flexibly and conveniently. On that day, we took (250) pictures. For the next day, we moved to Rue Bugeaut, *Regina* , *Sonatiba* to *Volani* . We did not faced any disturbance and they were very cooperated 520 images were collected .However , there are some people because of reasons mentioned above created disturbance even though they were not shopkeepers .Besides, the streets were crowded. And for the third day my father took us on the car since they remain few areas from the survey areas and they were separated from other shops we have collected (65) on that day

Table 3.2

The Number of Photographs

Date	Number of photographs
March 10,2020	250
March 11,2020	520
March 12,2020	65

Finally, 835 photographs were transmitted to Dell computer in a file called ‘*shop signs*’ and then we omitted the repeated images and only 679 were chosen for analysis.

3.2.2 Semi-guided Interviews with Shopkeepers

The second part of the study focuses on storekeepers' language choices. To shed the light on the factors influencing their decision, 27 semi-guided interviews were done with shop managers. A common practice in semi-structured interviews is to lead with open-ended questions and then spontaneously devise follow-up questions to draw out more specific evidence about the shopkeepers' motives. Nonetheless, it will enable us to draw more spontaneous data.

The criteria for the selection of informants were related to the willingness of store managers to be interviewed. Interviews were recorded in the period which goes from 10 to 12 March 2020, inside informants' shops. The duration of interviews varied depending on the cooperation and on the amount of information provided by shop managers. In addition, the language used for the interview depends on informants to put them at ease. Names of storekeepers interviewed and of their shops will not be disclosed.

During the interviews, shop owners are asked to answer twelve questions. However, the researcher did not stick on them since the participants provided the needed information and in case they did not these questions were used just to guide the interview. The participants were from different educational levels. These interviews consist of two sections namely:

Section one (Q1-Q2): it deals with professional data and the shop experience

Section two (Q3 -Q13): it reveals shop owners' motives behind language choice.

3.2.3 Questionnaires for Potential Readers

Questionnaires were used to identify readers' awareness and perception towards the linguistic cityscape of Tiaret speech community. This tool has been used because it covers a large number of informants. Hence, 80 questionnaires were administered to potential readers. Moreover, It is made up of (28) questions, with (16) close-ended questions where the respondents are required to answer by "yes" or "no" or either ticking the appropriate box with

justification, and (12) open ended questions. The questionnaires were also translated to Arabic language to be understood by all readers taking into account their different educational levels. The process of distributing questionnaires took place from 15 to 20 March 2020.

3.3 Data Analysis

3.3.1 The Analysis of Language Presence on Shop Signs

The analysis of the shop signs' sample enables the delineation of a comprehensive framework of the linguistic composition of the commercial linguistic cityscape in Tiaret speech community. Therefore, the analysis will be based on; language frequency, languages in combination, and the area of activity.

3.3.1.1 Language Frequency

The occurrences of language varieties on shop signs contribute to the whole picture of making a comprehensive insight to the linguistic cityscape to Tiaret speech community. Despite of the fact that 679 pictures are taken, there are some pictures that include two to three shop signs. Therefore, the number of photographs does not indicate the real number of shop signs collected (735 photos). Moreover, since Tiaret speech community as the Algerian speech community is characterised by language diversity, this fact can be recognized on shop signs.

Table 3.3 indicates the presence of different levels of language frequency. Language varieties showed a high degree of frequency divergence. First of all, MSA is displayed in 331 out of 735 signs (45% of the cases). Not surprisingly, its position in the ranking follows French. This language is the most frequent language, with 60% of the occurrences. In which it is displayed in 441 out of 735 shop signs. Moreover, as it can be seen from the results English occurrences is in 102 signs only, which refers to 13.9%. However, Spanish occurs in 6 signs (0.8%). ADA occurs in 4 signs (0.5 %) and Italian occurs in 3 shop signs only. Therefore,

these results highlight the preeminent role played by French and MSA in the linguistic landscape of Tiaret speech community, in particular, in the commercial sector.

Table 3.3

Frequency of Language varieties.

Language varieties/ Foreign languages	Frequency	%
MSA	331	45%
ADA	4	0.5%
French	441	60.1%
English	102	13.9%
Spanish	6	0.8%
Italian	3	0.4%

Results of percentage in Table 3.3 are not equal to 100% because some shop signs include two language varieties or three. However, mathematically speaking there is a law called relative frequency. That is to say to calculate the percentage according to number of repetition. It will be employed via applying the following law; $(N^{\circ} \text{ of reputation of given language} \times 100) / \text{total number of repetition} = \text{real percentage of language occurrences}$.

Table 3.4

Relative Frequency of Language Varieties.

Language varieties	Frequency	%
MSA	331	37.3%
French	441	49.7%
English	102	11.5%
ADA	4	0.5%
Spanish	6	0.7%
Italian	3	0.3%
	887	100%

Table 3.4 two confirmed the results in table 3.1, in the sense that French language has the highest level of frequency (49.7%) while Italian has the least frequency (0.3%). Moreover, MSA is classified in the second position with 37.3%. Spanish appears more than ADA with

0.7%. But, ADA occurs with 0.5%. Therefore, table two gives a clear classification of occurrences of language varieties on shop signs.

3.3.1.2 *Signs Typologies*

During data collection process, the researcher observed the existence of signs that contain one language only, while there are signs that contain two and/ or three language varieties. Therefore, the analysis of data collected reveals a varying presence of shop signs' typologies i.e. monolingual, bilingual and multilingual typology in the six areas of the survey. As shown in Table 3.3, over 76.9% of the signs are of monolingual nature, which corresponds to 565 signs out of 735. Moreover, 165 shop signs contain two language varieties (22.4%), and only 5 signs display more than two language varieties (0.7%), that correspond to multilingual signs.

Therefore, it is clear that monolingual signs are the overwhelming majority in Tiaret speech community linguistic cityscape, while bilingual and multilingual signs are poorly employed in the commercial scenario. Besides, the analysis reveals the divergent distribution of the signs in the different survey areas. however, there need no comparison between survey areas in terms of the amount of monolingual / bilingual /multilingual signs since the number of shops differs from one area to another. In this respect, *La Cadat* is considered to be the highest area of commercial concentration since it contains over 204 shops and attracts a wide range of customers. Signs in this area are mostly characterised by monoligualism, and the number of bi/multilingual signs is too low. Also, *Rigina* is composed of mainly monolingual signs. But bilingual signs are remarkable compared to other survey areas in the sense that they constitute nearly 1/3 of signs of the area. However, multilingual signs nearly appear solely in signs. Besides, it is noticeable that the remaining areas of survey namely; Rue Bugeaut, Ras Essoug, and Sonatiba do not contain multilingual signs at all. However, the number of

monolingual signs remains the highest, with a frequency that double and triple their presence in bilingual signs.

Table 3.5

Typologies of Signs

Survey areas	Shop signs	Monolingual	Bilingual	Multilingual
La Cadat	204	164	36	4
Volani	81	65	16	0
Rue Bugeaut	152	123	29	0
Sonatiba	51	37	14	0
Ras Essoug	72	52	20	0
Regina	175	124	50	1
Total	735	565	165	5
%	100%	76.9%	22.4%	0.7%

3.3.1.3 *Language Frequency in Signs Patterns*

Previously we made an analysis for frequency of language varieties in 735 shop signs in Tiaret speech community. Interestingly, the ranking of these varieties change when we take into account the monolingual, bilingual and multilingual signs since these varieties /languages are not found in certain combinations. From Table 3.6, monolingual signs include the most frequent language varieties of the sample i.e. MSA (180), French (282) and English (73) and even the less frequently Spanish (5) and Italian (3). But their occurrence in monolingual signs is most frequent than in bilingual and multilingual signs. However, ADA is completely absent in monolingual signs. Moreover, bilingual combinations is mostly composed of MSA and French since their appearance is too high and nearly the same as MSA (147 signs) and French in 155 bilingual signs. Also, it is clear that the occurrences of English is about the half of its appearance in monolingual signs. Surprisingly, ADA is most frequent in these signs compared to others. For Spanish, it is less frequent with absence of Italian.

Table 3.6*Language Frequency in Signs Patterns*

Language varieties	Monolingual	Bilingual	Multilingual
MSA	180	147	4
French	282	155	4
English	73	24	5
Spanish	5	1	0
Italian	3	0	0
ADA	0	3	1

Another interesting element to highlight is the dominant presence of the English language in multilingual patterns, where it occurs in 5 signs. This aspect is of particular interest if we consider that, in monolingual signs, its presence is nearly two times less frequent than MSA. In particular, in monolingual signs, MSA is the second most frequent to assert its supremacy over the other languages. Hence, data show that both MSA and French are predominant in monolingual and bilingual signs, while English is the only dominant language variety. However, MSA appear as French in 4 shop signs.

3.3.1.4 Languages in Combination

Language frequency can also be detected from Table 3.7, which ranks the combination patterns of languages contained in bilingual shop signs. Data show that the dominance of MSA and French can be seen in these patterns. Indeed, MSA and French patterns appear in 137 out of 165 bilingual patterns. The remaining 28 bilingual combinations contain English, ADA or Spanish. The only exception is the pattern combining French and ADA in 1 case, and of French and Spanish, which, however, appears in only 1 case (0.6%). In general, French appears in association with another language in over 90% of the cases, with MSA (83%), English (9.7%). Hence, apart from French, MSA combined with English (4.8%), and ADA (1.2%). To this regard, it is interesting to note that the second most frequent pattern is composed of French and English, which occurs in 16 bilingual patterns.

Table 3.7*Combination Patterns in Bilingual Signs.*

COMBINATION PATTERNS	FREQUENCY	%
MSA + French	137	8 3%
French+ English	16	9. 7%
MSA+ English	8	4. 8%
MSA+ADA	2	1. 2%
ADA+ French	1	0. 6%
Spanish + French	1	0. 6%

The dominance of MSA and French as observed in regard to bilingual combinations, applies also to multilingual patterns. As shown in Table 3.8, there are only five multilingual signs out of 735 stores in Tiaret speech community. 80% of the multilingual patterns include MSA, French accompanied with English. It is interesting to note that there is only one trilingual pattern in which French, English and ADA are included. This specificity, in addition to the findings, illustrated that ADA occurs in three bilingual patterns, seems to suggest strong evidence that ADA occurs beside official and foreign languages, even with low frequency.

Table 3.8*Combination Patterns in Multilingual Signs.*

Combination patterns	FREQUENCY	%
MSA+FR+EN	4	80%
FR+EN+ADA	1	20%

3.3.1.5 Area of Activity

Despite of the fact that the collection of signs was a random selection of business premises, the selection of 735 shops to be used for this study made the sample rich (there were different areas of activity). Moreover, each shop used different language variety from other shops. As a result, it constructed the overall linguistic cityscape of Tiaret speech community. To understand Tiaret speech community scenario, shops were divided into 9

categories; food, clothing, beauty, medical, services, electronics, cars accessories, furniture shops, and others. For instance, restaurants, bakeries and spice shops may be all included in the category called “food”. Beauty is concerned with make-up shops, and hair salons .Also, clothing includes clothing and accessories, while others category contains mini shops, libraries and photograph studios.

Evidently, the number of shops (735) included in the different areas of activity can provide a representative framework of the languages contained in the diverse categories. Thus, we can establish some meaningful correlations between the type of shop and the language varieties contained. As shown in Table 3.9, MSA and French are evenly distributed in each area of activity, while English is absent only 3 commercial activities (cars accessories, medical sector and others.). Italian is present in food category only. Spanish is mainly employed in food, clothing and accessories, and beauty shops. However, ADA occurs in 2 categories (food and home furniture) with the same frequency. Moreover, MSA is more frequent in food section and less frequent in electronics. French is mostly present in food and clothing section and there are few occurrences of French in services category. The remaining languages - those with a lower level of frequency - are distributed in the food, clothing, beauty and home furniture sectors. This fact indicates that there is a high level of linguistic diversity in the commercial sector.

Table 3.9

Frequency of Language Varieties According to the Area of Activity.

A.A	Shops	MSA	French	English	Spanish	ITALIAN	ADA
Food	252	136	138	36	2	3	2
Clothing	217	58	118	38	1	1	0
Beauty	41	11	20	6	0	2	0
Furniture	44	26	24	3	0	0	2
Car accessories	44	22	34	0	0	0	0
Services	20	14	16	1	0	0	0
Medical sector	36	22	33	0	0	0	0
Electronics	44	12	23	18	0	0	0
Others	37	32	35	0	0	0	0
TOTAL	735	331	441	102	3	6	4

Table 3.9 highlights other interpretations. First of all, food category appears to be mostly represented by all language varieties, namely MSA, French, English, Italian, Spanish and ADA. Besides, data reveal significant relation between some types of activity areas and the languages contained in sense that the presence of languages is related to the goods provided and the choice of language to display. Another relevant correlation concerns the visibility of English language in signs of commercial activities that may target immigrant communities. Also, the use of MSA and French on shop signs may be designed for residents. Hence, these findings demonstrate the existence of significant correlations between the visibility of languages in the commercial sector and the typology of commercial activity in which they are displayed.

3.3.2 The Analysis of Language Choice in the Linguistic Cityscape

The previous analysis of language varieties on shop signs has indicated that there is a close relationship between the shopkeepers' choices and the display of certain varieties. For that, this section is concerned with the analysis of shop keepers' motivations behind linguistic choices. Thus, we will apply the qualitative analysis suggested by Spolsky and Cooper (1991) and Ben Rafael et al. (2006) and Bianco's complementary approach (2018). This study will focus on the empirical analysis of data gathered from the makers of the signs, i.e. the shopkeepers.

Ben Rafael et al. (2006) explained that their perspective was derived from sociological theories. They stated that shop owners' language choice may be affected by three factors:

1. Presentation of self.
2. Good reasons.
3. Power relations.

The '*Presentation of self*' factor concerns the individuals' desire to mark their presence and identity in the public space via using their mother tongue. The '*Good reasons*' factor is due to

business strategies that is to say ; to draw customers 'attention by using charming and attractive language variety on shop signs. Moreover, the choice of a certain code may be due the involvement and impact of socio-political forces in the process of sign making and this represent '*Power relations*' factor.

Besides, Bianco (2018) added two reasons:

1. Harbinger of product.
2. Geographical positioning.

Shop keepers may choose to use a language variety that serves as indicator of the cultural content of the product marketed inside the shop. This is called the '*Harbinger of product*' motive. Finally, '*Geographical positioning*' reason is linked to the concepts of 'solidarity' and 'belonging' by which foreign shopkeepers intend to use linguistic repertoire of the host society in which the shop is situated. They also wish to convey and create sense of inclusion in the host society, unlike 'presentation of self' motive, which refers to the linguistic repertoire of shopkeepers.

Furthermore, Spolsky and Cooper (1991) highlighted three main rules, which determine the choice of languages to use in signs. According to their model, there are three main conditions:

1. The first condition is to "*write signs in a language you know*", which means shop keepers should use a variety which they are proficient at.
2. The second precept is about writing the message "*in a language or languages that intended readers are assumed to read*". That is to say taking into account that the intended audience should understand the code used on shop sign.
3. The third rule suggests writing the text "*in your own language or in a language with which you wish to be identified*", which is the same as Ben Rafael et al's first factor '*Presentation of self*' (2006).

These factors were of great contribution in knowing the real motives behind language choice on shop signs. Therefore, a set of questions were asked to 27 respondents and data were analysed via applying these approaches and to know shopkeepers' motives behind the use of a specific code rather than others. Moreover, not all the question will be analysed since some questions were used to break the ice between the interviewer and the interviewee and to clarify some questions only.

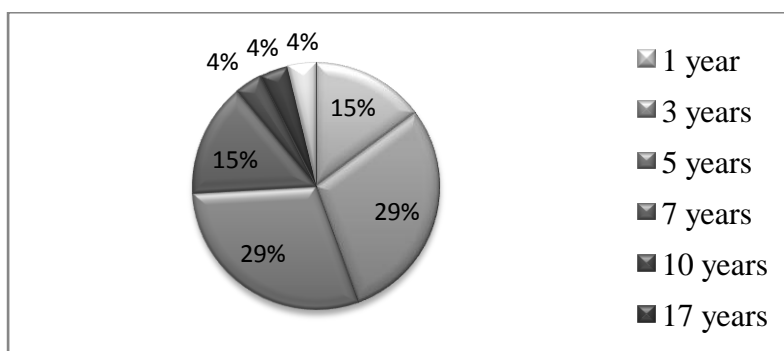
3.3.2.1 Shopkeepers' Professional Data:

QQ.2. Shopkeepers' Experience:

It has been noticed in graph 3. 1 that total number of the sample is 27. These different shop keepers have different years of experience in business profession. The data collected reveals that four shopkeepers have 1 year experience. Eight owners have been in the field for 3 years. Moreover, eight owners have 5 years experience. Also, four shop owners shared 10 year of business experience. Only one has been working in the field for 7 years and another for 17 years. Surprisingly, one has devoted his whole life for this field with 48 years experience.

Graph 3.1

Shopkeepers' Experience.



In fact, the educational background of our informants may help us get more accurate and additional data about the linguistic landscape in the commercial sector .Thus, one may say that those shop keepers are more experienced in constructing shop signs.

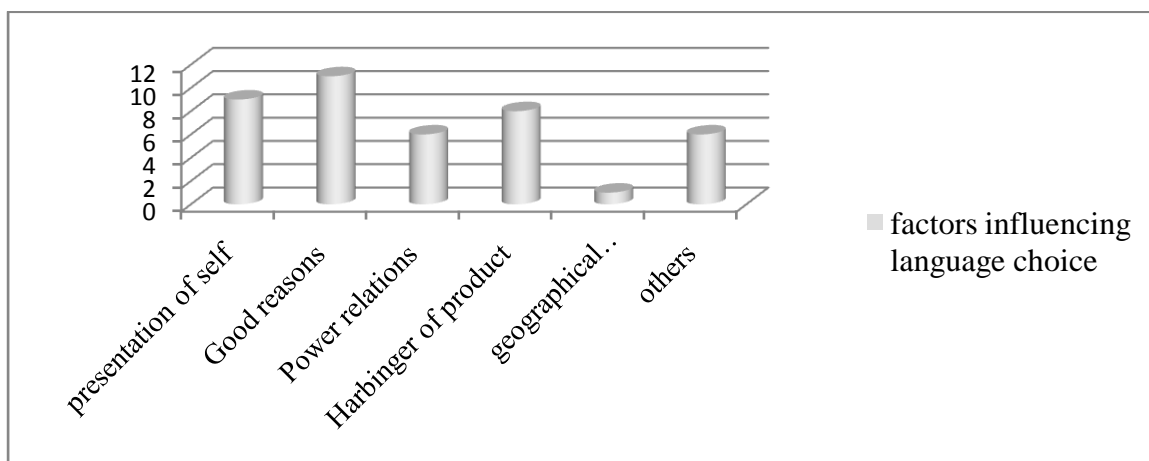
3.3.2.2 Factors Influencing Language Choice Process

Question 4 why do you choose this particular language on the shop sign?

Factors mentioned by Ben Rafael et al (2006) along with Bianco (2018) will be employed in this analysis to know the decision-making process of making the code used on their shop signs. Graph 3.2 showed that some factors occur more frequently than others. The dominant factor that influences the choices of shopkeepers is 'good reasons', which occur in 11 out of 26 responses of the informants (42.3%). It is due to the fact that shopkeepers wanted to attract and charm potential customers. The motive that follows in frequency is 'presentation of self' because 9 shop owners wanted to represent their identity as being; Arab, Berber (34.6%). 'Power relations' represents 27% of the responses (6). Furthermore, the results show that only 8 shop owners (30.8%) used a specific language to present the products they sell in shop signs. Evidently, only three shop keepers used MSA to fit in the society (11.1%). 6 shop keepers used specific language varieties for other reasons, like; personal motives, globalization.

Graph3.2

Factors Influencing Language Choice Process.



It is worth noting that the choice of the language or languages to display may be due to the involvement of one or more factors. Interestingly, each language used in the sign occurs to fulfill a specific objective. For instance, the display of MSA indicates the need of Algerians to

express their identity, but it also expresses the desire for inclusion of immigrant communities. Moreover, English is mostly employed to get the intention of customers. However, some shopkeepers stated that:

بائع 1: "خدمت بالـ English خاطر لازمنا نقلعو francais في جزاير".

Translation: (i used English because we need to stop using English in Algeria).

بائع 2: " il faut نخدمو بالـ English خاطر رانا في عالم التقدم مشي التخلف ولـ English ضرورك رها لغة الاقتصاد العالمي".

Translation: (we need to use English since we are in the world of development and English became The language of the global economy).

بائع 3: " خدمت باسم ايطالي parceque أنا برك لحال بدا اسم في تيارت و هكا باش ناس يعرفو حانوتي ويجو ليه".

Translation:(I am the only one whose used this Italian name to facilitate on consumers to recognize my store).

From these answers, shop keepers used English and Italian for other reasons mainly; personal motives, globalization and due to uniqueness of the shop. Since Ben Rafael et al and Bianco's factors (2018) involve several implications; a more detailed account of these elements will be better discussed in the following sections.

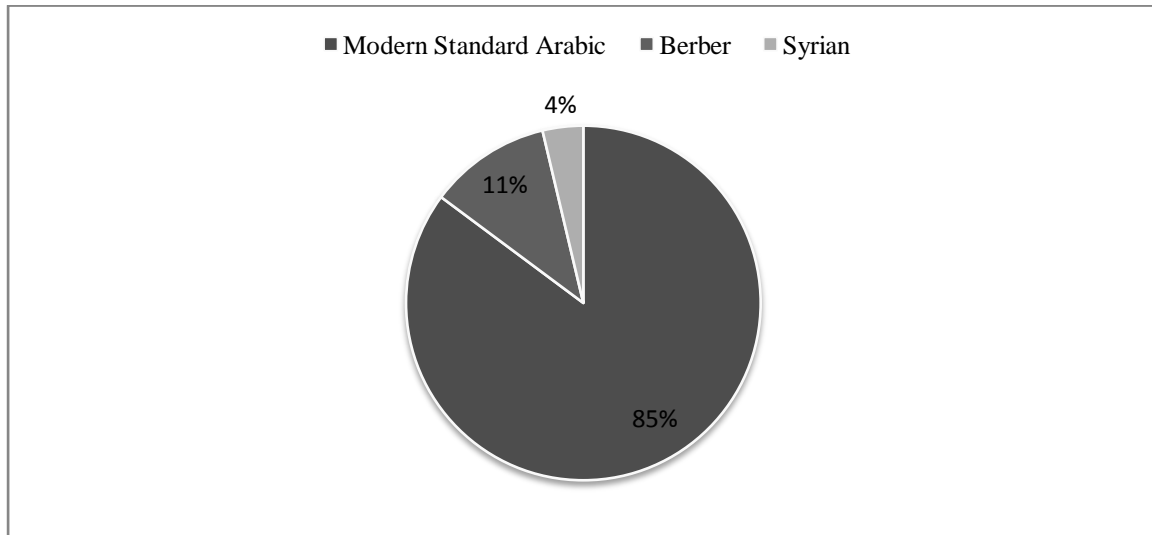
3.3.2.2.1 Presentation of Self: The '*Presentation of self*' factor is linked to shopkeepers' identity, both Ben Rafael et al. (2006) and Spolsky and Cooper's third rule (1991) consider the paramount importance the linguistic identity of shop owners in the display of a language. Indeed, respondents chose to express their linguistic identity via displaying their native language. Therefore, we may assume that the shop keepers tend to identify themselves via using their language. Therefore, it is worth noting the native languages of the respondents. so 27 shop keepers were asked the same question which is as follows:

Question: what is your native language?

Not surprisingly, Graph 3.3 shows that 23 of the respondents were native speakers of MSA (85%) and 3 respondents' native language was Berber (11%). Surprisingly, one shop keeper's mother tongue is Syrian Dialectal Arabic.

Graph 3.3

Native Languages of Respondents.



These results were predictable since Tiaret speech community is composed of Arabs and Berber. Moreover, these data would be needed to determine exactly the importance of the 'Presentation of self' factor, especially the choice of language. Therefore, the previous question was followed by another question which is:

QQ.6 why did you use MSA on you shop sign?

Some of the answers were as follow:

بائع 1: "كتبت بالعربية لانو tous simplement حنا عرب"

Translation: (I used MSA because we are arab.)

بائع 2: "خدمت باللغة العربية الفصحى خاطر هي لغتنا الأم"

Translation : (I used MSA because it is our mother tongue).

Table 3.10

The Number of Native Speakers Using the First Language for Identity Reasons.

	Number of native speakers	Using 1 st language for identity reasons	%
Arab	23	9	39.1%
Berber	3	0	0%
Syrian	1	0	0%

Table 3.10 shows that only 39.1% of Arab shopkeepers use MSA (Native language) on shop signs. Berber respondents do not use their native language; instead they chose to write in French. Moreover, even the Syrian shop owner did not use his mother tongue since he emphasised that MSA is not his mother tongue, but the Syrian dialectal Arabic. This indicates that there are other reasons that impact the display of language varieties on shop signs.

3.3.2.2.2 Good Reasons: Unlike '*Presentation of self*' factor, which mainly focuses on authors' native languages, the '*Good reasons*' motive pays strong attention on attracting and charming the potential customers. Thus, as pointed by Bianco (2018), there are two functions that shopkeepers tend to use to fulfill this aim which are; communicative function aiming at providing information to a specific audience and symbolic function by which shopkeepers use a specific language variety as symbol. Therefore, shopkeepers employ two main strategies: the '*targeting strategy*' and the '*symbolic strategy*'.

Shopkeepers use the '*targeting strategy*' by using languages spoken by targeted ethno-linguistic groups. It occurs in shop signs that are situated in multi-ethnic areas to attract foreign-born individuals resident in the city. Or in the city centers where there is highest commercial activity to attract foreign tourists. The main aim of employing this strategy is to use a language that they understand to make them feel that they are a part of the society. Usually, displaying a text written in a foreign language may facilitate the comprehension for the foreign nationals and tourists. In case the displayed language is the mother tongue of foreign nationals, it will generate a feeling that has to do with identity reasons.

On the other hand, the 'the symbolic strategy' refers to the occurrence of certain language varieties that the shopkeeper believe to have positive impact or connotation to readers. In addition, shopkeepers tend to use this strategy to add a touch of prestige and elegance to the commercial sector. Hence, they employ codes that are well-perceived by the audience. This approach focuses on languages' symbolic values. It is important to point out that shopkeepers tend to use foreign languages to attract and charm the potential audience from foreigner residents and tourists. For that, to know the reasons behind using foreign languages by shopkeepers the following question was designed for them:

QQ.7 why did you use a foreign language on shop signs?

Some of the answers were:

بائع 1: je veux utiliser le francais parce que les etudiants africains في ذي البلاصة و il faut تدير لغة ليفهموها باش يعرفو واش كايين في محل و même parceque je suis faible في اللغة العربية.

Translation: (I used French because there are a lot of African students that live in this area. and this will facilitate to get acquainted with the commercial activity of the shop. Besides, my level in Arabic is too low.)

بائع 2: " كتبت بالfrancais خاطر كايين بزاف les tourists لي يجوني ،كايين من allemande و même les africaian لي يقرأو هنايا"

Translation: (I wrote my sign in French since there are a lot of tourists who visit my shop like German tourists and even Africans whom study here.)

بائع 3: "بعيدا على أنو Anglais هي لغة الاقتصاد،خدمت بيها خاطر لgeneration جديدة راهم بزاف attire ليها و meme تجيبهم ساهلة ويبغو يتعلموها"

Translation: (away from being the language of the global economy, I used English since this generation is into it .besides they like to learn it and it is easy to learn).

Graph 3.4

Language Choices Influenced by 'Good Reasons' Strategies.

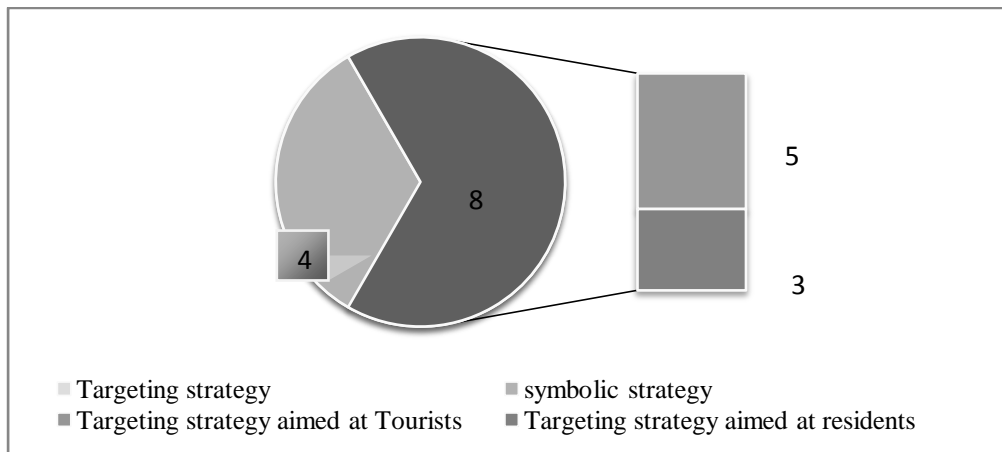


Figure 3.4 shows the symbolic strategy along with targeting strategy affecting language choice of the display of language varieties on signs. Data indicate that shopkeepers devote more attention to the target population whether they are foreign tourists or residents rather than the symbolic value. The latter is considered by 4 out of 11 owners, while the targeting strategy is employed by 8 shopkeepers. In 3 cases, languages are used to address tourists and 5 for foreign residents. However, it is important to point out that in two cases language choice is made because of symbolic and targeting motives.

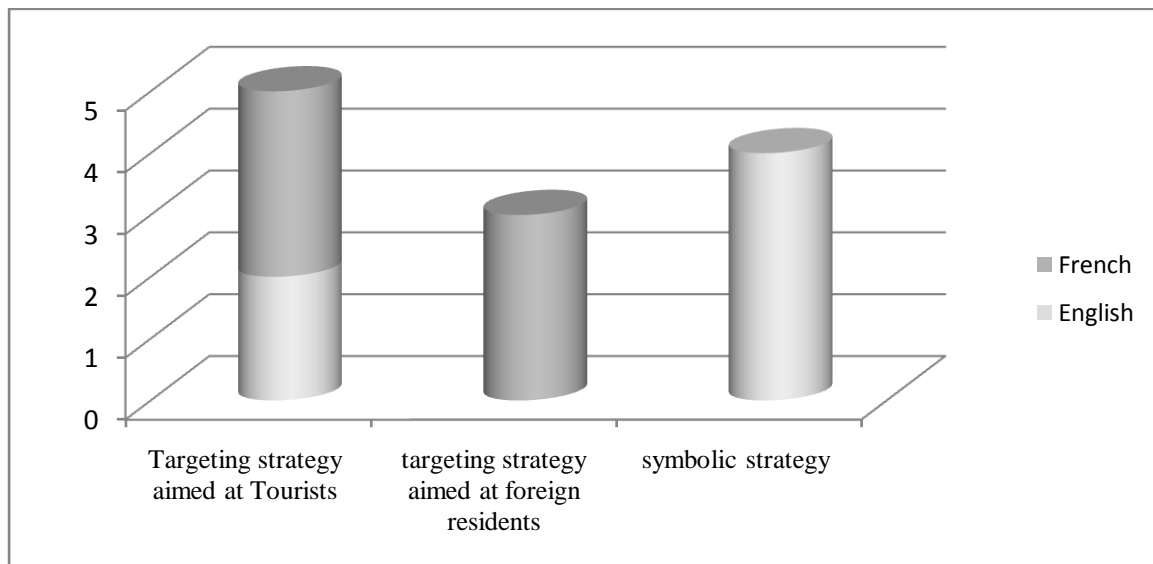
Since respondents' answers about the use of MSA on shop signs was linked to identity reasons and it was addressed only to local residents, MSA was totally absent when coming to its use because of good reasons motive. Graph 3.5 highlights that 11 shopkeepers tend to use foreign languages in order to attract readers. 8 respondents take the targeting strategy into account while 4 pay attention at symbolic function.

As regards the targeting strategy, French has a predominant role as a communicative resource for tourists (3) and foreign residents (3), and it is used practically in multi-ethnic areas where they live. English is used only by two respondents to attract tourist only. For the symbolic strategy, only English is displayed as being suitable for this role, which means that it has positive connotation on customers and adds prestige to the shop. Therefore, 4 out of 11

shop keepers tend to use it for symbolic function. Furthermore, two respondents has used English language for both communicative function addressed to tourists and for symbolic function.

Graph 3.5

Distribution of Languages According to 'Good Reasons' Strategy.



English has a positive connotation in readers' mind. It is important to clarify that English is used on shop signs to attract foreign tourists since it is a global language. Furthermore, it is evident that English is used for symbolic function and it is displayed to address the local residents. Moreover, despite the fact that Algerian are familiar with Italian, shopkeepers claimed that they preferred English over Italian since it is "*cool and attractive*" and it is a symbol of "*Elegance and sophistication*".

3.3.2.2.2 Power Relations: Although Ben Rafael *et al.* (2006) had linked the 'power relations' factor to socio-political influences; the influences of governments' linguistic policies on display of certain language varieties on public space. In commercial sector, as pointed by Bianco (2018) the concept of "socio-political force" may refer to social groups or individual categories. This means there are other official or non-official organizations or individuals that may be responsible for affecting the making of the linguistic landscape.

In our context, the forces influencing shopkeepers' linguistic choices in are two categories: decoration and publicity experts and Ministry of Commerce. The former category gives advice to shopkeepers about model and style and even language to be used on shop signs i.e. they are the real creators of the shop signs. Conversely, the Ministry of Commerce intervenes in the display of certain language varieties over the other on shop signs. Hence, these two forces affect the decision-making process of the authors. To this regard, it is important to highlight that shopkeepers are not obliged to take the decoration and publicity experts' into account. Some shopkeepers take the Ministry of Commerce decisions seriously, while others do not. Hence, it is important to shed light on the last decisions made by the Ministry of Commerce in 2018 to arabise all shop signs beside foreign language sign shops to maintain our identity.

To see if this factor influences the process of making shop signs, respondents were asked:

QQ.8 Who control your choice of language to be employed on shop signs?

Two of our respondents answered as follows:

بائع 1: "صراحة ذي اللافتة خدمهالي تاع publicité ولي يخدم decoration، وهو لكتبهالي بال Français و ل

"Anglais

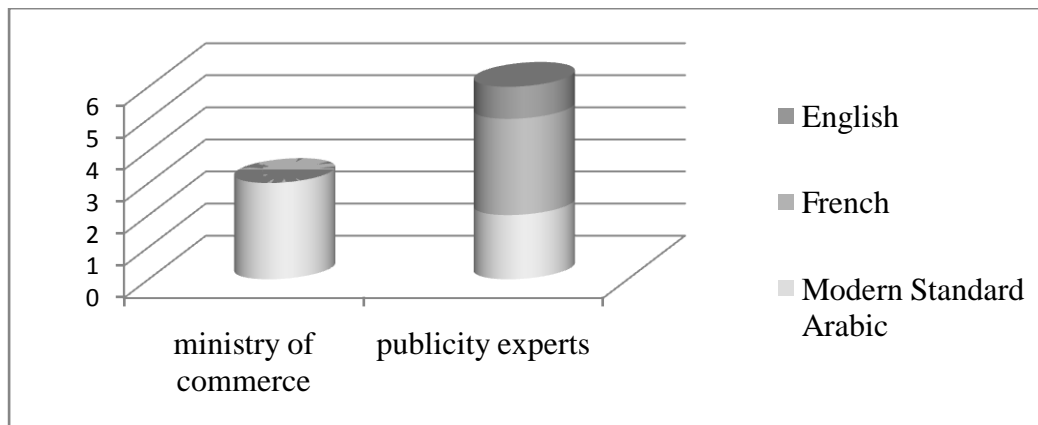
Translation: (Honestly, the publicity and decoration expert was the one who wrote my shop sign in French and English).

بائع 2: "أنا كتبت اسم التجاري تاعي وعطيتو لواحد تاع publicité يكتبلي برك، mais كتبت بالعربية باش نرضو

الوزارة، mais Malheureusement مكانش ليكونترولي les Décisions لي ديرهم وزارة التجارة على la

"langue

Translation: (I wrote my shop sign in Arabic since the ministry of commerce demand to write on this language than I gave it to publicity expert to write it .but unfortunately there is no one who control these decisions particularly about language).

Graph 3.6*Groups Influencing Language Choice.*

Graph 3.6 highlights that 6 of shopkeepers made language choice based on ‘power relations’ motive. Half of them are due to the interference of Ministry of Commerce, while the remaining half are a result of choices made by decoration and publicity experts about language varieties displayed on shop signs. What is relevant is that, in three cases (50%), French was recommended to be used by publicity and decoration experts where in 2 cases, French accompanied Arabic translation. In one case, it occurs with English translation. According to these respondents, they used French and MSA because of our history and identity and due to ethno linguistic reasons. 3 other respondents claimed that they used Arabic since the Ministry of Commerce required writing in Arabic. These results may be considered as significant indicators that shop keepers are acquainted with decisions made by the ministry and marketing specialist when writing their shop signs.

3.3.2.2.4 Harbinger of Product: In most cases, the style and the content of the shop sign are the main aspects that draw customer’s attention in particular and readers in general. Therefore, the language displayed is the tool to make this happen. And shop keepers tend sometimes to use a language that conveys information about the shop in terms of the content of the commercial activity. It may indicate the kind of goods available inside the shop as well it links it to the roots and the origin of these products (cultural background). For that, shop

keepers choose to write in one language rather than another when there is a cultural link between the language chosen and the products/services available in the shop. And these enable customers to know the types of goods or services provided in the shop. However, it may also have semantic link between the content of the text displayed and the content of shop. To check if this factor is taken into account by our respondents, they were asked if they used the language displayed as indicator of the commercial activity of the shop.

بائع 1: " je veux utilisé Le français ,oui ,لخاطر كايئة une relation ما بين واش نبيع et cette

"langue.puisque L'origine des parfums dans le monde est la France

Translation: (yes, I used this language since it has a link with my commercial activity. and because French is the country that was first used to make perfumes in the world).

بائع 2: " justement , oui , هذا هو ل but تاغي من ذي la langue ، علابالنا كامل بلي lorigine تاغ pizza ايطالي و

على هاذي كتبت بيها."

Translation: (yes, this is why I used Italy. since we all know that the origin of pizza is Italian.)

Furthermore, it was mentioned that their classification in this study will be according to their language of origin. Surprisingly, some shop keepers share the same attitude. They tend to use names of brand names and they link it to its origin language. Some of their answers were:

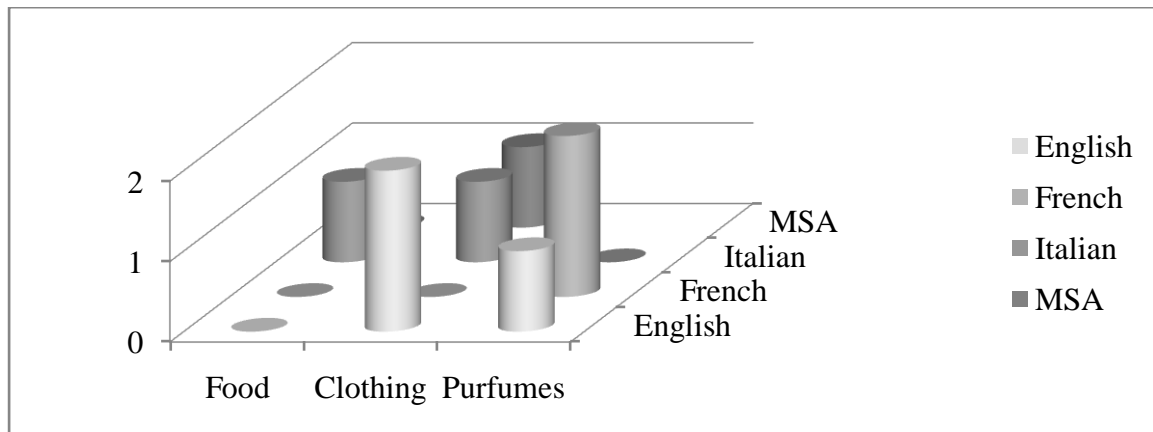
بائع 1: "شوفي خدمت ب الاسم ALVARO خاطر هذا الاسم هو تاغ واحد ايطالي مشهور في ملابس رجالية،سما خدمت

بيها من جبهة أنو نبيع ملابس رجالية سما نفس domain"

Translation :(I used the Italian name ALVARO , which is the names of an Italian whom his specialty is men's clothing ,and I adopted it since I work in the same domain.).

Graph 3.7

Language Choice Based on the Category of Commercial Activity.



Graph 3.7 showed that there is a close relationship between the goods and the languages chosen in three categories of commercial activities - i.e. 'food', 'clothing' and 'perfumes'. For instance, a 'food' shop is labeled using Italian since there is cultural link between this language and its specialty, which is 'pizza'. This decision aims to enhance commercial activity's image.

Another interesting case of 'harbinger of product' concerns the link between the display of a sign written in French and perfumes. In this case, 2 shopkeepers' choice emphasised that the origin of these products is French. However, in one case the respondent claims that he uses English since it is the trade mark of the perfumes that he sells in the shop. Finally, clothing has the dominant cultural link in which 2 respondents chose English since they sell the trade mark that is found in their shops. Another respondent chose Italian language specifically an Italian name '*ALVARO*' since he shares the same domain with this famous person. And one shop keeper chose Arabic for another reason stating that the activity of the shop 'babies clothing' suits the name 'طيور الجنة'. So, it has a semantic link between the content and the name of the shop.

In short, it is interesting to find that shopkeepers tend to display certain language varieties when there is a real cultural link with the goods or services provided, showing a

cultural dimension between the language displayed and the content of the shop. This fact shows shopkeeper's cultural awareness of the good that they sell. As result, it may have a positive impact on potential readers and it may enhance the image of the commercial activity. Hence, this fact emphasizes the role of language in promoting goods and services taking into account the cultural dimension.

3.3.2.2.5 Geographical Positioning: The '*Geographical positioning*' is a factor that affects the language choice of social actors of foreign origins. It concerns the desire of inclusion expressed by these actors who chose to communicate via adopting the national language of the host society. It is worth noting that only one case of 28 shopkeepers was of foreign origins. He was 'Syrian' and chose to write in MSA to act as being a part of TSC and at the same time to facilitate communication with the local residents. However, his awareness of that Syrian dialectal Arabic is his mother tongue not MSA.

However, it is also important to point out that, two Berber respondents stated that they use French on their shop signs in order to feel they belong to Tiaret speech community.

mais dans autre part nous somme *منعرفش بزاف العربية،* Francais parcequ e بل خدمت بل malgré 1:"

des Algériens w cette longue *تقربك للمشترية خاطر مشتركة بيناتنا"*

Translation :(Although, I used French because I do not know Arabic well. But, from another part I used it because we as Algerians share this language even though there are Berber and Arabs.)

3.3.3 The Analysis of Readers' Perception towards Linguistic Cityscape

Apart from the sample of the semi guided interviews, which involves a relatively limited number of actors. Linguistic landscape is aimed at a heterogeneous audience in which the participation of unlimited set of individuals, from resident readers or occasional visitors, irrespective to their ethno linguistic origin. The diversity is reflected in our sample of

potential customers. In this context, 80 respondents were chosen randomly so that people from Tiaret speech community can be selected.

This section deals with the analysis of readers' questionnaires including; the sociolinguistic profile of respondents along with their attitudes toward the visibility and display of certain language varieties in the linguistic landscape of Tiaret speech community.

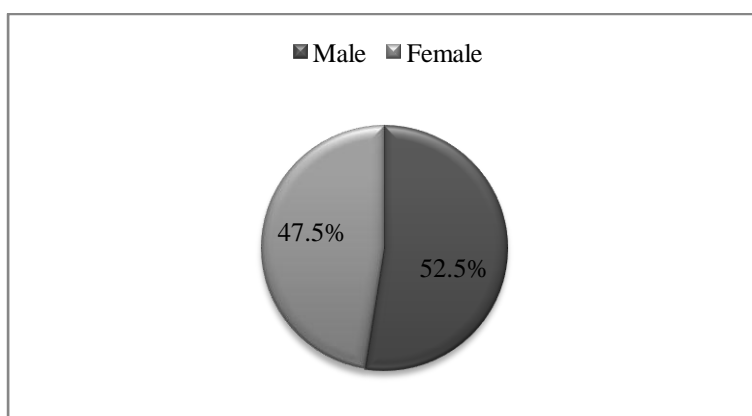
3.3.3.1 Sociolinguistic Profile of Informants

This part will include respondents' personal information and their linguistic competences. The first section will be devoted for readers' personal information. They will be identified according to: sex, age, level of education and their native language. The second section will shed the light on their linguistic competences.

3.3.3.1.1 Respondents' Personal Information: Graph 3.8 represents participant's sex. Out of 80 respondents, male represents 42(52.5%), while female respondents represent 38 out of 80(47.5%). It is clear that the male's number outnumbered female with a small percentage .

Graph 3.8

Respondents' Sex.

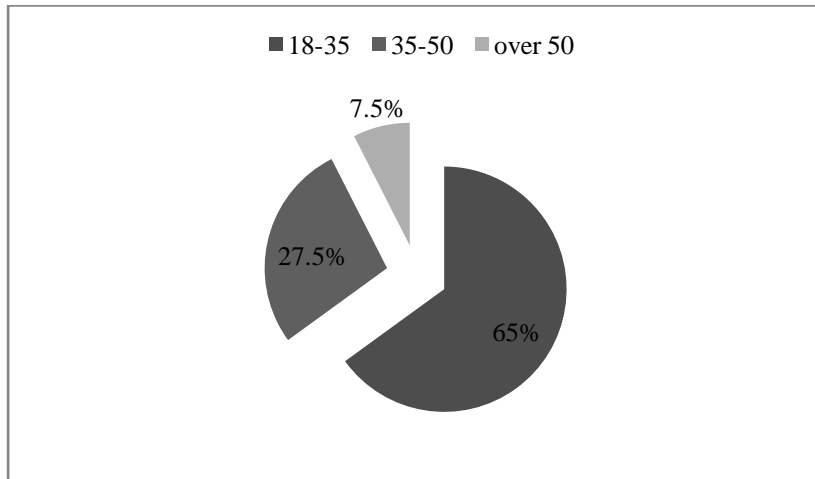


Graph 3.9 illustrates the age of respondents, divided into three categories. The majority of them is between 18 and 35 years of age (65 %). Besides, 22 of the respondents' ages range between 35 and 50 years old (27.5%), while only 6 of them were 50 years old or more (7.5%).

These results show that the sample consists of different categories. They represent different perceptions about the linguistic landscape of Tiaret speech community.

Graph 3.9

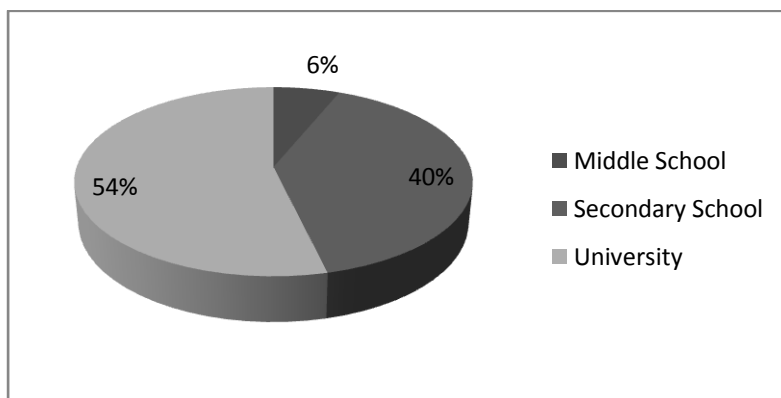
Informants' Age.



The Graph 3.10 regroups informants according to their educational background. Indeed, more than half of informants (43) have a university degree. However, 32 respondents have a secondary level certificate only. While, only 5 people attended exclusively middle school. These results indicate that respondents are educated and majority of them have a high level of education.

Graph 3.10

Participants' Levels of Education .

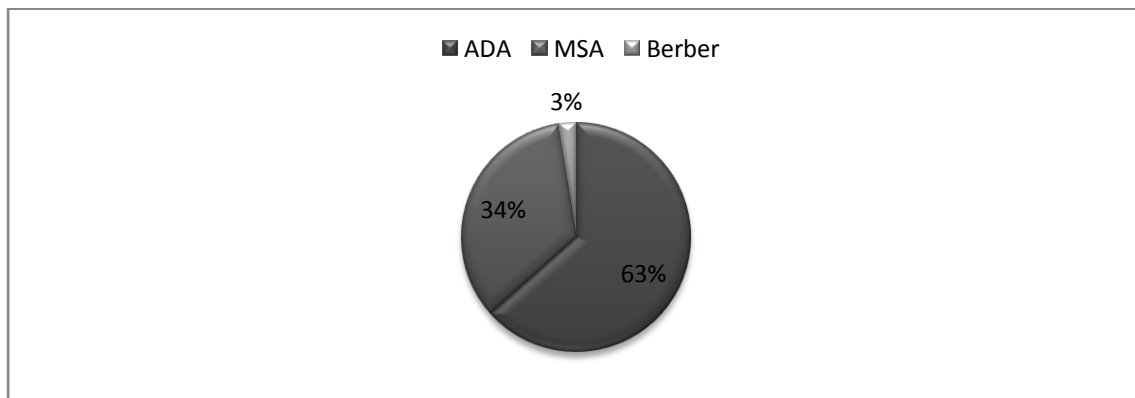


Since this study has to do with language varieties displayed on shop signs, it is significant to highlight the mother tongues of our respondents. Evidently (graph 3.11), 51

respondents (63.7%) were aware of the fact that ADA is the first language that they acquired and that Modern Standard Arabic was considered to be the native language of 28 respondent (35%). However, only 2 informants had Berber as their Mother tongue. It is interesting to note that one of the two respondents has MSA along with Berber as his mother tongues.

Graph 3.11

Respondents' Mother Tongue(s).



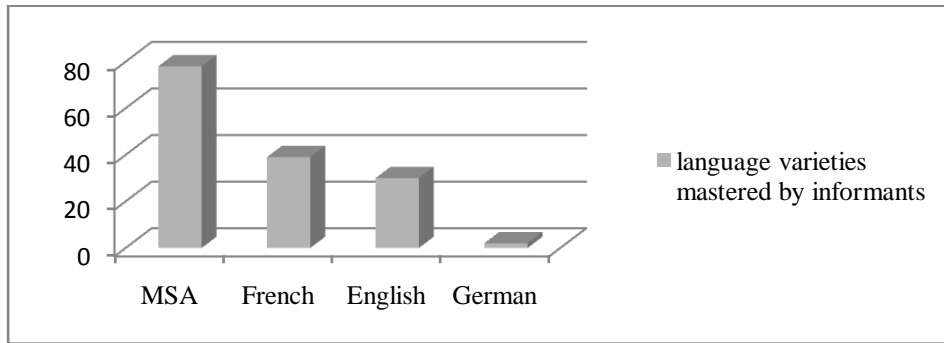
3.3.3.1.2 Informants' Linguistic Competences: It is important to highlight that these questions to identify whether these informants are monolingual, bilingual or multilingual speakers.

QQ.5,6,7 and 8 respondents' fluency of language varieties:

The aim behind this question is to enable respondents to identify their mastery degree of the five skills; listening, reading, writing, speaking, and culture of the target language. As shown in graph 3.12, the majority of respondents master MSA (78), which represents 97.5 % of the whole sample. French is the second used language with 48.5% (39). Moreover, 30 respondents master English (37.5%), and only 6 informants master Berber (7.5%). Only 2 people master German representing (2.5%).

Graph 3.12

Language Varieties/ Foreign Languages Mastered by the Informants.

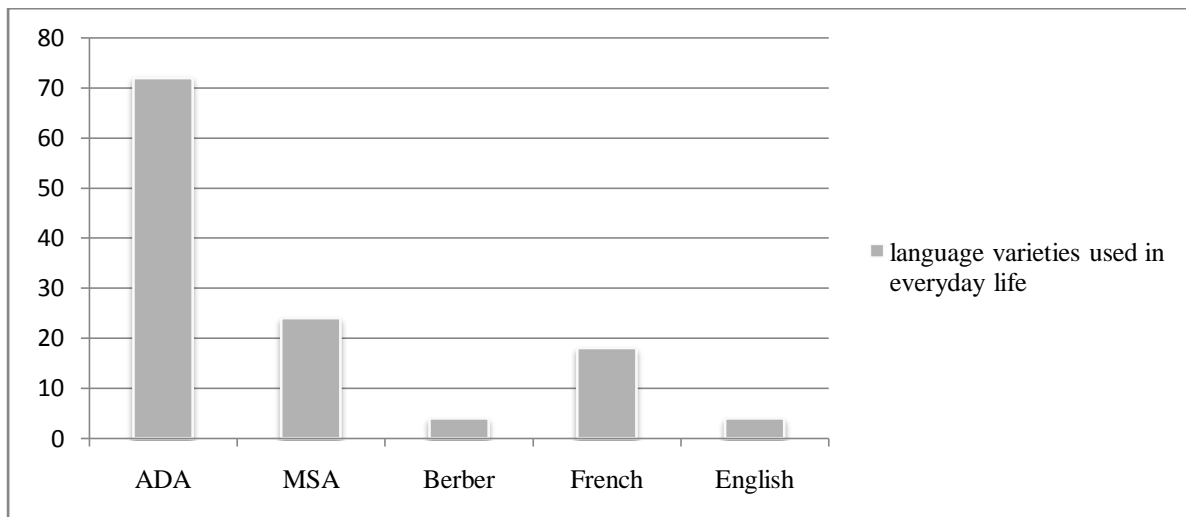


QQ.10 language varieties used in everyday life

Graph 3.13 indicated that ADA is used by 72 respondents (90%) and 24 of them use MSA in their daily life (30%). French is mainly used by 18 people (22.5%). However, 4 of them use Berber (5%) and only 4 use English in everyday life. This fact highlighted that ADA is used to facilitate communication and other language varieties used in other context. Besides, these results indicate that our informants use more than one variety/ foreign language in one context.

Graph 3.13

Language Varieties used in Everyday Life.

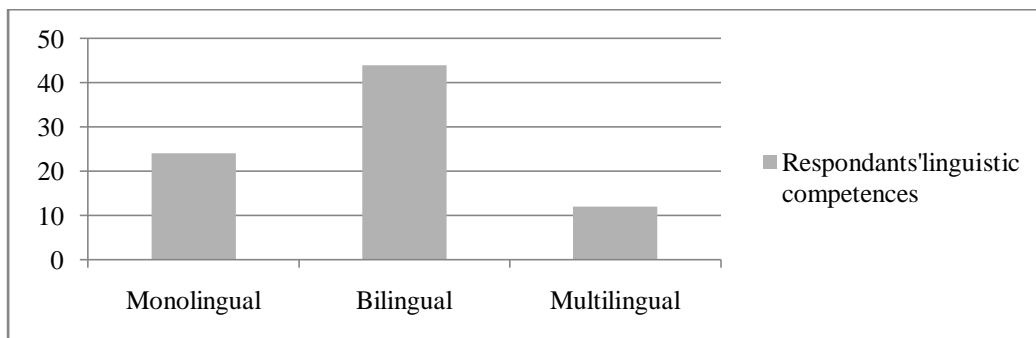


QQ.11 how many language(s) you use within the same context?

Graph 3.14 represents the number of language varieties used by the informants within the same context. The data collected shows that 44 informants are categorized to be bilingual speakers (55%). While, 24 of them are monolingual (30%) and 12 respondents are multilingual speakers of language.

Graph 3.14

Respondents' Language Competences.



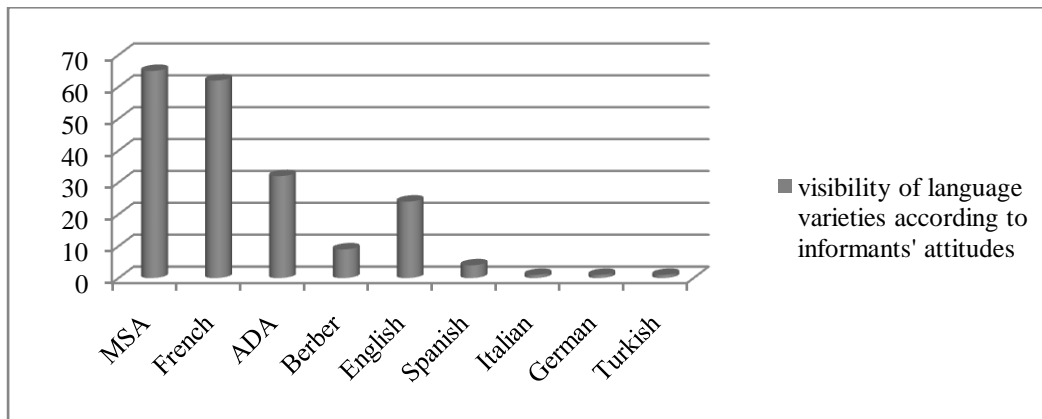
3.3.3.2 Informants' attitudes towards Languages used on Shop Signs

QQ.12 visibility of language varieties according to informants' attitudes.

As shown in graph 3.15, the majority of informants (81.2%), MSA is represented in signs of commercial activities and 62 respondents perceive that French exists in shop signs (77.5%). While 32 informants claim that ADA exist in signs (40%) and only 9 respondents think that Berber exists in shop signs (11.25%). English is perceived by 24 participant (30%). four respondents state that Spanish exists and only one claims that Italian, German and Turkish exist in shop signs.

Graph 3.15

Presence of Language Varieties According to Informants' Attitudes.

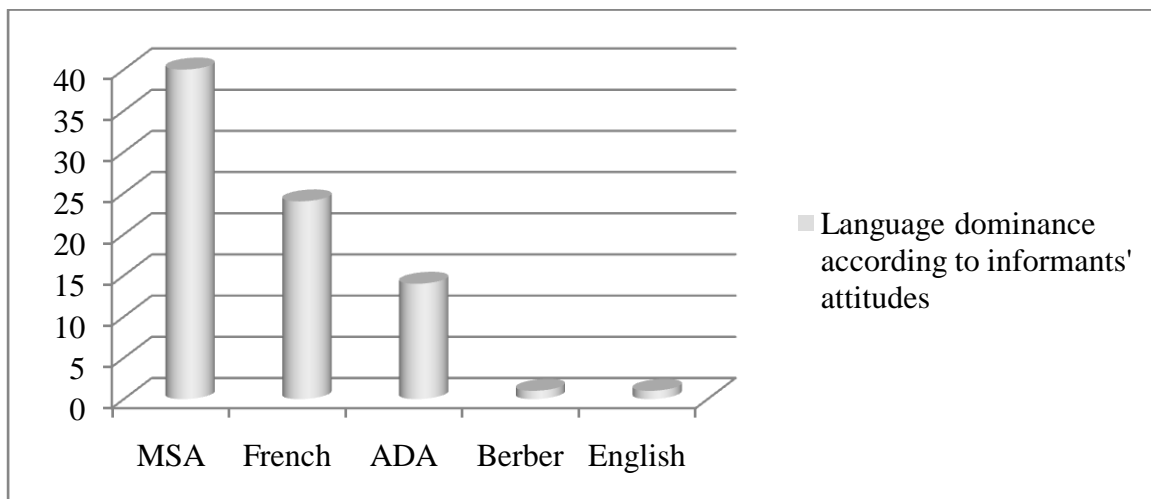


QQ.13 Language dominance according to informants' attitudes:

As it shown in graph 3.16, 40 informants perceive that MSA is the dominant language variety and 24 respondents state that French occurs first. 14 respondents see that ADA is in the first place. However, only one thinks that Berber is mostly displayed on shop signs. Only one respondent considers English as the most frequently used language in the commercial sector.

Graph 3.16

Language Dominance According to Informants' Attitudes.

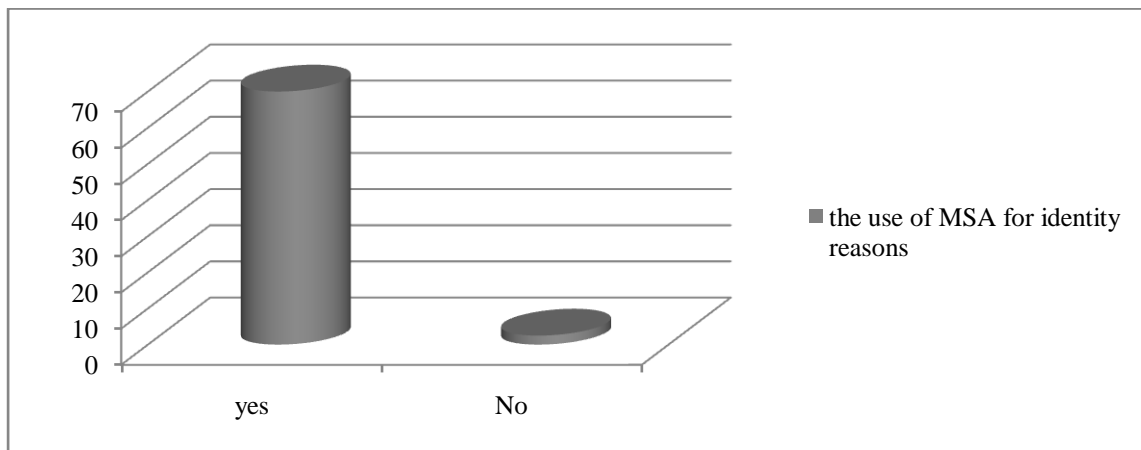


QQ.14 it is believed that the use of MSA on shop signs is due to identity reasons.

The results shown in graph 3.17 represents that 70 of respondents agree with the fact that MSA is used for identity reasons (87.5%) since they consider it as the ‘language of Islam’, ‘language of Quran’ and their ‘Native language’. While, 10 of them disagree with them (12.5%) because they believe it is used to attract and facilitate the meaning for customers (commercial reasons).

Graph 3.17

The Use of MSA for Identity Reasons.

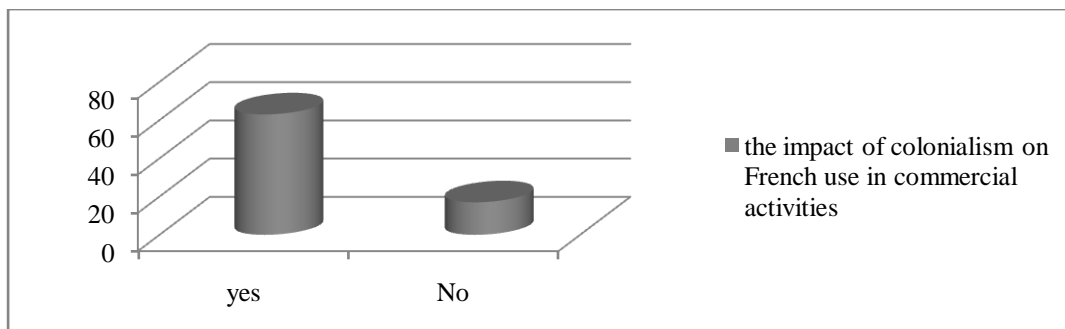


QQ.15 the impact of colonialism on the use of French on shop signs

From graph 3.18, it is clear that 63 informants believe that the use of French on shop signs goes back to colonialism, whereas 17 respondents declined that because they think that it is only a foreign language in Algeria. Besides, it is used to fit certain commercial activity.

Graph 3.18

The Impact of Colonialism on French Use in Commercial Sector.

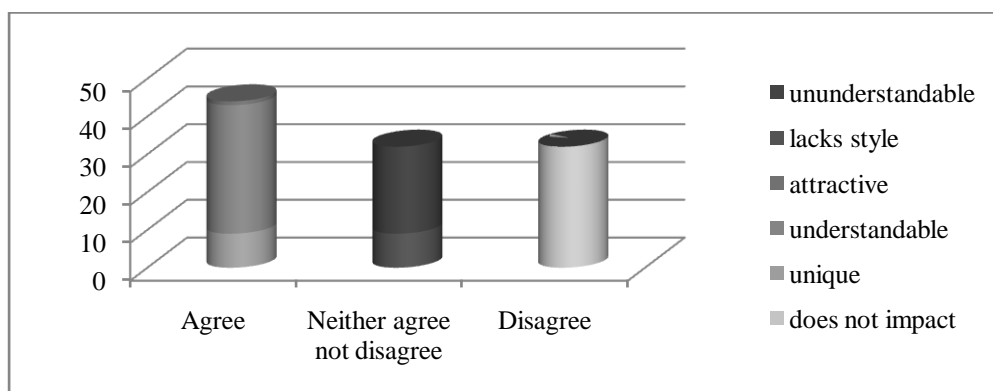


QQ.16 What do you think of the use of ADA on shop signs?

Based on the answers collected, data shown in graph 3.19 are classified according to three categories. 44% people use on shop since it is unique (9 informants), charming, understandable (34) and attractive (1). Moreover, 32 disagree on its use because tourists and other people from different speech communities cannot understand it (23 respondents). Besides, 9 informants think it lacks style and rules. However, 4 people state that its use is normal owing to the fact that most customers do not pay attention to codes displayed on shop signs.

Graph 3.19

Respondents' Views toward the Use of ADA on Shop Signs.

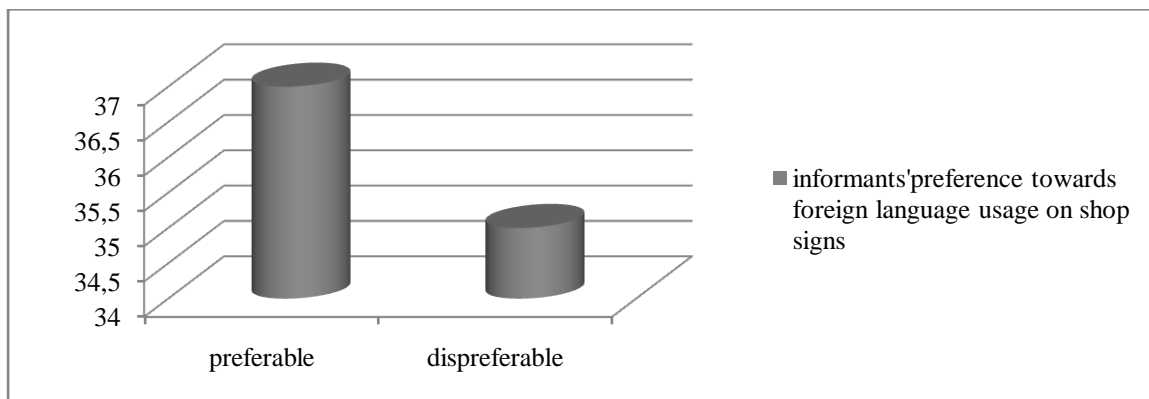


QQ.17 informants' preference towards foreign languages usage on shop signs.

Graph 3.20 represents respondents' preference towards foreign languages usage on shop signs. 45 informants encouraged the use of foreign language since they promote commercial development via the use of international language and to facilitate understanding to tourists. 35 respondents disagree with this fact since not everyone could understand it and to unify language on shop signs.

Graph 3.20

Informants' Preference towards Foreign Languages Usage on Shop Signs.



QQ.18 informants' attractiveness towards language varieties displayed on shop signs.

Respondents' attractiveness will be analysed taking into account the following variables: age, educational level and linguistic competences. Table 3.11 illustrates that concerning the age category, MSA is the most attractive language variety for both categories (18-35/35-50). French is seen as prestigious for people over 50 years old. Concerning educational level, MSA is also perceived to be the most attractive code on shop signs by both respondents who finished only their middle and secondary school. As far as university students are concerned, French has the highest degree of attractiveness. Finally, for linguistic competences, monolingual and bilingual speakers believe that MSA is the most attractive and for multilingual speakers French is a prestigious and elegant language variety to be displayed on shop signs. However, as it is seen French is the most attractive foreign language variety by the three categories. It is important to note that none of the three categories are interested in Spanish or Italian.

Table 3.11

Respondents' Attractiveness towards Language Varieties Displayed on Shop Signs.

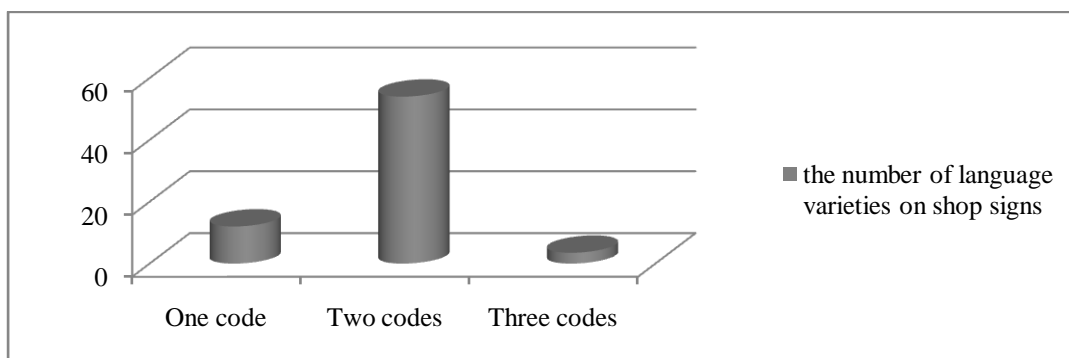
CATEGORIES		MSA	ADA	Fr	Eng	Spanish	Italian
AGE	18-35	28	24	28	11	/	/
	35-50	15	5	6	7	/	/
	Over50	2	3	8	2	/	/
EDUCATIONAL LEVEL	Middle	3	2	1	/	/	/
	Secondary	21	13	10	7	/	/
	University	22	16	25	13	/	/
LINGUISTIC COMPETENCES	Monolingual	17	11	7	4	/	/
	Bilingual	25	14	22	12	/	/
	Multilingual	4	5	7	4	/	/

QQ.19 How many code appears on shop signs?

Graph 3.21 showed that 12 informants agree that there is only one language variety on shop signs and 54 believe that there are two. However, 14 people perceive that there are only three codes displayed on shop signs.

Graph 3.21

The Number of Language Varieties on Shop Signs.



QQ.20 The use of different codes on shop signs.

As it shown in Table 3.12, data were categorized according to: age, educational level and linguistic competences of respondents. According to age, the first category (18-35) 41 informants see that it is good to use different codes. 2 perceive it is bad. 9 respondents stated

it is not good neither bad. 15 informants from second category (35-50) think that it is good. 5 respondents see it is neither good nor bad, while 2 think it is bad to use them. For the third category (over 50), 5 believe it is good .but, only one thinks it is the vice versa. Concerning the educational level, the majority of secondary school pupils and university students believe it is good while 14 of three categories believe it is not good neither bad. And 5 stated it is bad.

Table 3.12

Respondents' Views towards the Use of Different Codes on Shop Signs.

CATEGORIES		GOOD	Neither good nor bad	BAD
AGE	18-35	41	9	2
	35-50	15	5	2
	Over 50	5	/	1
EDUCATIONAL LEVEL	Middle	3	/	2
	Secondary	23	8	1
	University	35	6	2
LINGUISTIC COMPETENCES	Monolingual	20	1	3
	Bilingual	33	9	2
	Multilingual	7	4	1

Respondents' linguistic competences set another view. 20 monolingual speakers find the use of different language varieties is good thing and three respondents see it as a bad approach. However, only one claims it is neither good nor bad. For bilinguals, 33 see it as good case. 9 as neither good nor bad and two see it as bad. Moreover, 4 multilingual speakers perceive it as neither good nor bad and one as bad and the remaining ones see it as good. All in all, the majority respondents of all categories perceive the use of different codes as being good since it reflects shopkeepers' knowledge about the language of the global economy and to give charm to the commercial sector and for tourists. While bad because they preferred to unify languages on shop signs. However, the claims of those who chose neither bad nor good are that most of costumers do not pay attention to the appearance of codes over the other.

3.4 Discussion of the Findings

In the light of our major aim, which is concerned with the analysis of the linguistic cityscape of Tiaret speech community, we explored language presence on shop signs and investigated the role of the societal contribution to the construction of Tiaret speech community scenario. This research has provided significant and valuable findings. Therefore, this final section will conclude the results obtained during the analysis of data to pave the way for some final remarks.

Starting with language presence on shop signs, data clearly show that the nature of the linguistic cityscape of Tiaret speech community is characterised by monolingualism. Although there exist language varieties and foreign languages on shop signs like; MSA, French, English, Italian, Spanish and ADA. The linguistic cityscape is characterised as being monolingual.

Our study findings are not the same with other research studies in the Arab world. For instance, results of Al-Athwary 's study in Yemen (2017, p. 161) indicate that, *“the paradox is that while speech community in Yemen is monolingual in Arabic, the linguistic landscape is characterized by multilingualism.”*

Moreover, concerning the display of language varieties, French was the dominant language on our cityscape. In our case, the occurrences of French in 441 out of 735 shop signs has to do with historical reasons (French colonialism). This finding contradicts with many findings in different contexts such as; the case study of Turin investigated by Bianco (2018). She came out with the result that the mother tongue 'Italian' is the dominant. These results were similar to Landry and Bouhris (1997) who stated that *“the dominant language of public signs is often the language of the majority group inhabiting the territory.”* In contrast, the studies of researchers in the field like Cenoz and Gorter (2006) and Backhaus (2007) proved that English emerged as the most frequent language in the linguistic cityscape. To this regard,

the occurrence of the official language of the speech community is surely related to identity reasons. Moreover, the display of English is influenced by globalization. Despite the fact that MSA is the second frequent language variety and that English is the third, Tiaret speech community cityscape is mostly influenced by colonialism even though it has to do with identity and globalization motives. Surprisingly, our dialect marks its presence in the linguistic cityscape, not like other studies where their dialects did not take place in the commercial linguistic cityscape (Al-Athwary 2017, Bianco (2018)).

Moving on to the societal contribution to Tiaret speech community cityscape, shopkeepers interfere in the shop sign making process. Our analysis was based on Ben Rafael et al 's (2006) approach, which indicates that there are three reasons only that could impact language choices of the display of language varieties on shop signs '*presentation of self*', '*power relations*', '*good reasons*'. The same approach was adopted by Bianco (2018) when she investigated the linguistic landscape of Turin. She came out with the same results. Even though, she mentioned that there are two other reasons that impact language choice which are; '*harbinger of product*' and '*geographical distribution*'. From her result, the '*presentation of self*' motive was the most influencing .while the '*harbinger of product*' has the least impact on shop keepers' language choices. However, our findings were of valuable insight. The '*good reasons motive*' had a significant impact on the choice of the language of the shop sign display. Surprisingly, the '*geographical distribution*' was taken into account by only one case out of 27 shop keepers. It is important to point out that when talking about '*geographical distribution*' it is not only concerned with foreign nationals as pointed out by Bianco (2018).

Simply put, in the Algerian context and in Tiaret speech community, there are ethno linguistic groups; Berber whom live in Arab areas. From their answers, they tend to use the foreign language 'French' since they lived in these areas and sense feeling of inclusion and belonging via using this language.

Despite of the fact that Bianco (2018, p. 78) stated that the '*harbinger of the product*': "*the message provided by the sign is not only conveyed by the signified, which is the content of the text displayed, but also by the signifier, which is the language itself.*", which means she highlighted that this motive has also to do only with the content of text. However, She did not emphasize on the link between the cultural dimension of the language displayed and the products and services that exist in the shop. Moreover, our results showed that some shopkeepers give importance to the cultural dimension as shop keepers of Turin did, but the difference is that, some shopkeepers have claimed that the content of the text displayed also indicates the goods sold in the shop. That is to say the '*harbinger of product*' has to do with both the cultural dimension between the language displayed and the goods served in the shop and also has a link to the '*semantic content*' of the text.

Furthermore, the results concerning the '*power relations*' motive prove that the forces impacting the language choice in sign making process differ from one context to another. In our context, the Ministry of Commerce and the marketing experts have a say in the contents of the shop signs. Moreover, shopkeepers indicated that there are other reasons behind the display of codes on shop signs. They include reasons such as; globalisation, uniqueness of shop signs, advertising and personal reasons.

In the third and last part of the study, data have revealed that readers appear to be entirely aware of the linguistic complexity of Tiaret speech community. Regardless of these variables (age, educational level and linguistic competences), readers are more attracted to the display of MSA on shop signs except for elder generation who get used on French and are attracted to its visibility on shop signs. Moreover, English is the second attractive foreign language. Despite the fact that they perceive the co-existence of different foreign languages, their assumptions towards the dominance of MSA clearly are due to their wish to use MSA on shop signs. Also, they are well aware of shopkeepers' choice of different language varieties

on shop signs. This part enables us to take a glance to the linguistic cityscape of Tiaret speech community from different perspective. From large picture, these results gave us answers to our research questions and claimed one hypothesis that there is awareness among readers about the linguistic composition of shop signs. However, three hypotheses were declined because; firstly, the nature of linguistic cityscape of Tiaret speech community is characterised by monolingualism. Secondly, Modern standard Arabic , French, and English are not the only language varieties that occur on shop signs Italian, Spanish and even Algerian dialectal Arabic are displayed too. Thirdly, attracting readers attention is not the only reason behind shopkeepers' language choice but there are other motives, like; '*presentation of self*' and '*Harbinger of product*' motives.

3.5 Conclusion

This chapter represents the practical side of our investigation about the linguistic cityscape of Tiaret speech community. To get a deep account of this study, three main instruments were employed; photographs to identify the nature of linguistic cityscape and the presence of language varieties on shop signs, a semi-guided interview to highlight shopkeepers' motives behind the choice of certain codes on their shop signs, and readers' questionnaires seeking the identification of their attitudes towards the linguistic composition of shop signs. Data presented in graphs and tables denoted that the linguistic cityscape of Tiaret speech community is monolingual and there were many motives behind the use of codes on shop signs. This fact emphasized on the societal participation (shop keepers and readers) in making the linguistic cityscape scenario of Tiaret speech community.

Limitations of the Study

During the data collection and analysis process, the researcher faced a few difficulties which are:

1. No existing research studies in TSC.
2. A huge disturbance from the public in some survey areas because they were not accustomed to this kind of research in our conservative speech community.
3. Some of the participants did not answer all the questions included in the questionnaire. In addition, some of them did not hand the questionnaire.
4. Not all shopkeepers cooperated with us. Especially, elder generation shopkeepers insisted on not recording them during the interview since they were very conservative.

Further Implications

It was significantly beneficial to indulge in this study due to the fact that it is a purely sociolinguistic research by which we investigated the linguistic cityscape of Tiaret speech community, particularly the linguistic composition of the commercial sector (Shop signs). However, it could also be relevant to tackle other aspects of the linguistic landscape of Tiaret speech community like; investigating the content of the graffiti writing, the street names, and traffic signs meanings.

General Conclusion

From a sociolinguistic point of view, linguistic landscape has grown as a promising subfield in sociolinguistic studies. Linguistic landscapers has tackled different topics ranging from themes such as language policy and language planning impact on the linguistic landscape of speech communities to the smallest context inside classrooms (acquisition of foreign languages through stickers and maps on classrooms walls). Sociolinguists also share the same interest towards the scrutiny of the display of language on spaces (public or private). Hence, this research offered an additional view to the perspectives mentioned in the literature review. It does this by highlighting the fundamental role of linguistic landscape studies in the understanding of social reality. It also focuses on the noteworthiness of societal participation as a crucial element for the study of linguistic composition, the process of construction and perception of the linguistic cityscape (commercial sector).

To go over the main points, this research study was an attempt to investigate the linguistic cityscape of Tiaret speech community. To break the pieces of this puzzle, language presence on shop signs along with the societal participation (shopkeepers and readers) were the basis of this study. Moreover, this dissertation was divided into three main chapters. Chapter one dealt with the theoretical background of our study, which was based on linguistic landscape theories, and the variables that influenced the visibility and salience of different language varieties. In brief, its core was about the previous linguistic landscape studies conducted in different contexts. Chapter two identified the sociolinguistic situation of the Algerian speech community in general and of Tiaret speech community in particular. This chapter enabled us to take a glance at the linguistic composition of our current context and repertoire of Tiaret speech community.

Chapter three involved the practical side of our study. It incorporated the methodology, data collection methods and analysis process along with a careful discussion of the findings.

Interestingly, this study incorporated the use of three different research instruments; photographs to highlight language visibility and salience of language varieties on shop signs, a Semi-guided interview to investigate the factors behind the choice of these varieties/ foreign language (s), and a questionnaire to shed the light on the perception and awareness of readers towards the linguistic cityscape of Tiaret speech community.

After classifying the photographs, the results showed that the linguistic cityscape of Tiaret Speech community is of a monolingual nature. Thus, French occurs to be the most frequent language variety on shop signs followed by MSA and English. Surprisingly, the occurrences of unexpected codes like; Spanish, Italian and even ADA. To point out, the sociolinguistic situation of a given context does not indicate the nature of the linguistic landscape since Algeria is considered to be a bilingual speech community with the official status of Arabic and Berber. In this situation, the linguistic supremacy is not determined as a consequence of the political power authorities (language planning and language policy). Undoubtedly, the visibility of these varieties on shop signs is justified as a result of shopkeepers' choices and their own motives that control the display of certain code over the other on their shop signs.

Moving deeply in the analysis, shopkeepers as social actors in the process of constructing signs seemed to have different motives affecting language choices. Evidently, their use of MSA is mostly due to *'presentation of self'* motive. Besides, the use of English is justified by the *'Good reasons'* factor since it is used for its prestige and elegance. Italian and Spanish were mostly used to reflect the commercial activity of the shop. Other reasons including *'power relations'* and *'geographical distribution'* as pointed by Ben Rafael et al (2006) and Bianco (2018) truly affected the display of language varieties. However, other reasons were highlighted from shopkeepers' answers, such as; such as economic interests, globalization, and the expected attractiveness to potential customers.

More to the point, readers' perception and comprehension of the linguistic cityscape is strongly highlighted. Despite of the fact that they are of higher educational level, they seemed to comprehend the linguistic cityscape scenario. They were well-aware of the linguistic composition of language varieties on shop signs along with the various reasons behind the use of different codes. Moreover, readers' attention seems to be more drawn to MSA and they encouraged the use of English on shop signs.

In point of fact, this research has underlined the linguistic composition along with the central role of social actors in the construction and perception of the linguistic cityscape. Highlighting the fact that private signs (shop signs) were made and constructed by societal participation from both shop keepers and readers, whose decisions on the display of certain language varieties was motivated by intrinsic and extrinsic factors. This study has also the merit of enhancing further the research on public signs since it truly represented sociolinguistics where symbols truly form a linguistic scenario.

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Appendices

Appendix 1

The Questionnaire in English

Dear respondent:

This questionnaire attempts to highlight rears' perception, comprehension ,and attractiveness towards linguistic landscape of Tiaret speech community .In order to examine their awareness as regard the linguistic diversity .This is a part of our ongoing research to analyse the linguistic and societal participation in constructing the linguistic landscape of shop signs . We would like you to answer to the items of the questionnaire objectively because the purpose of this questionnaire is purely academic and your answers will be of great help to our MA dissertation.

N.B: Please! Tick (√) the appropriate box (es) that best represent your viewpoint or use the blank space.

Abbreviations and Acronyms:

MSA: Modern Standard Arabic

ADA: Algerian Dialectal Arabic

Section One: Personal Information

1. **Gender :** Male Female
2. **Age:** 18 - 35 36 - 50 Over 50
3. **Level of Education :**
 Primary Middle Secondary University Non
4. What is you Mother tongue ?

Section Two: Language Competences

5. What language(s) do you speak fluently ?

6. What language(s) do you understand perfectly?

7. What language(s) can you read well?

8. What language (s) can you write with?

9. Which language variety do you use it in your everyday life?

MSA Berber ADA French

Others :

10. How many languages do you use within the same conversation ?

One language two languages three languages or more

Section Three: Respondants's Attitudes

11. According to you , which of the following language(s) varieties exist on shop signs ?

MSA ADA Berber
 French English

Others.....

12. Rank the following language varieties by allocating numbers from 1 to 8 beside each category. depending on their appearance on shop signs :

MSA <input type="checkbox"/>	ADA <input type="checkbox"/>
Berber <input type="checkbox"/>	Italian <input type="checkbox"/>
Spanish <input type="checkbox"/>	English <input type="checkbox"/>
German <input type="checkbox"/>	French <input type="checkbox"/>

13. It is believed that the use of MSA is due to identity reasons

Agree Disagree

If no, justify

.....

14. It is believed that the use of French is due to colonialism

Yes no

If no , why?

.....

15. What do you think of the use of ADA in shop signs?

.....

16. Do you like the use of foreign languages on shop signs ?

yes No

why.....

17. Depending on you, which of the following language(languages) is the most attractive on shop signs ?

MSA ADA French English Berber

Why?.....

18. Do you think that shop signs contain :

One language variety two language varieties three language varieties

19. In your opinion, do you think the existence of different language varieties on shop signs is:

Bad neither bad nor good Good

Why?.....

Section Four : Additional Information

1. are you interested in knowing the results
Yes No
2. For extra information provide us with your Email/Mail Address:
.....
3. If you have any question or comment mail us: Ikramshaima7@gmail.com

Thank you for your cooperation!

Appendix 2

استبيان

ملاحظة: ضع علامة (√) في الخانة المناسبة لاختيارك أو قم بكتابة الإجابة المناسبة.

المرحلة الأولى: معلومات شخصية

1. الجنس: ذكر أنثى
2. السن: 18-35 35-50 أكثر من 50
3. المستوى الدراسي: ابتدائي متوسط ثانوي جامعي لاشي
4. ما هي لغتك الأم؟
.....

المرحلة الثانية: الكفاءات اللغوية

5. ما هي اللغة (اللغات) التي تتحدثها بطلاقة ؟
.....
6. ما اللغة (اللغات) التي تفهمها تمامًا؟
.....
7. ما هي اللغة (اللغات) التي يمكنك قراءتها جيدًا؟
.....
8. ما هي اللغة (اللغات) التي تتقن الكتابة بها ؟
.....
9. ما هي اللغة (اللغات) التي تستخدمها في حياتك اليومية ؟
اللغة العربية الفصحى الأمازيغية اللهجة العربية الجزائرية الفرنسية
أخرى (أذكرها).....
10. كم عدد اللغات التي تستخدمها في نفس المحادثة؟
لغة واحدة لغتين ثلاث لغات أو أكثر

المرحلة الثالثة: المواقف السائدة للمستجيبين

11. بالنسبة لك، أي لغة (اللغات) التالية موجودة على لافتات المحلات؟
 اللغة العربية الفصحى اللهجة العربية الجزائرية الأمازيغية
 الفرنسية الانجليزية
 أخرى (أذكرها).....

12. رتب اللغات التالية من 1 إلى 8 حسب ظهورها على لافتات المحلات التجارية:

<input type="checkbox"/>	اللهجة العربية الجزائرية	<input type="checkbox"/>	اللغة العربية الفصحى
<input type="checkbox"/>	الايطالية	<input type="checkbox"/>	الأمازيغية
<input type="checkbox"/>	الانجليزية	<input type="checkbox"/>	الاسبانية
<input type="checkbox"/>	الفرنسية	<input type="checkbox"/>	الألمانية

13. من المعتقد أن استخدام اللغة العربية الفصحى يرجع لأسباب متعلقة بالهوية:

أوافق لا أوافق

إذا (لا) لماذا؟

.....

14. هل يرجع استخدام اللغة الفرنسية للاستعمار الفرنسي؟

نعم لا

لأن.....

.....

15. ما رأيك في استخدام اللهجة العربية الجزائرية على لافتات المحلات؟

.....

16. هل تفضل استخدام اللغات الأجنبية على لافتات المحلات؟

نعم لا

لماذا؟

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

17. بالنسبة لك، ما هي اللغة (اللغات) التي تلفت نظرك على لافتات المحلات؟

اللغة العربية الفصحى اللهجة العربية الجزائرية الفرنسية الإنجليزية الأمازيغية

أخرى (أذكرها).....

لماذا؟

.....

.....

.....

18. هل تحتوي لافتة المحل على:

لغة واحدة لغتين ثلاثة لغات

19. برأيك، هل تعتقد أن وجود لغات مختلفة على لافتات المحلات هو أمر:

جيد ليس جيدا ولا سيئ سيئ

وذلك بسبب ..

.....

.....

المرحلة الرابعة: معلومات إضافية

20. هل أنت مهتم بمعرفة النتائج: نعم لا

21. للمزيد من معلومات الرجاء تزويدنا بعنوان بريدك الإلكتروني:

22. إذا كان لديك أي سؤال أو تعليق راسلنا عبر البريد الإلكتروني:

Ikramshaima7@gmail.com

شكرا جزيلاً على تعاونكم

Appendix 3

مقابلة شفوية مع أصحاب المحلات

تعتبر هذه المقابلة جزء من مذكرة الماستر الخاصة بنا حيث أن هدفنا من هذه المقابلة أن نعرف الأسباب وراء اختيار استخدام لغة معينة على لافتات المحل الخاصة بكم. و من هذا نرجو منكم الإجابة على الأسئلة التالية:

المرحلة الأولى: المعلومات المهنية

1. هل من الممكن ان تبدأ بتقديم محلك؟
2. كم دامت خبرتك في هذا المجال؟
3. بالنسبة لك ، ما أهمية لافتة المحل ؟

المرحلة الثانية: الأسباب المتعلقة باختيار اللغة المستخدمة على لافتة المحل.

4. لماذا استخدمت هته اللغة (اللغات) بالذات على لافتة المحل؟
5. ما هي لغتك الأم؟
6. لماذا استخدمت اللغة العربية الفصحى على لافتة المحل الخاصة بك؟
7. ما الهدف من استعمالك اللغات الأجنبية على لافتة محلك؟
8. من يتحكم في اختيارك للغة المستعملة على لافتة المحل؟
9. هل هذه اللغة تناسب نشاطك التجاري؟ وكيف؟

Appendix 4
Shop keepers 'Interviews in English.

Section One: Professional Information.

1. Would you like to start with introducing your shop ?
2. For how many years you 've been working in this field ?
3. According to you what is the main role of using a shop sign?

Section Two: the Reasons behind the Use of Language Varieties on Shop Signs.

4. Why do you chose this particular language on the shop sign?
5. What is your mother tongue?
6. Why did you use MSA on you shop sign?
7. Why did you use a foreign language on shop signs?
8. Who control your choice of language to be employed on shop signs?
9. Does this language fit your commercial activity? And how?

Appendix 5

Examples of Shop Signs.

Image 1.

Monolingual Sign Containing MSA.



Image 2.

Monolingual Sign Containing English.



Image 3.

Monolingual Sign Containing Italian.



Image 4.

Monolingual Sign Containing French.



Image 5.

Bilingual Sign Containing MSA and French.



Image 6.

Bilingual Sign Containing ADA and French.



Image 7.

Bilingual Sign Containing English and French.



Image 8.

Multilingual Sign Containing MSA, English and French.



Appendix 6
Location of Algeria.



Appendix 7
Location of Tiaret



Appendix 8

Location of Survey Area ‘ La CADAT’



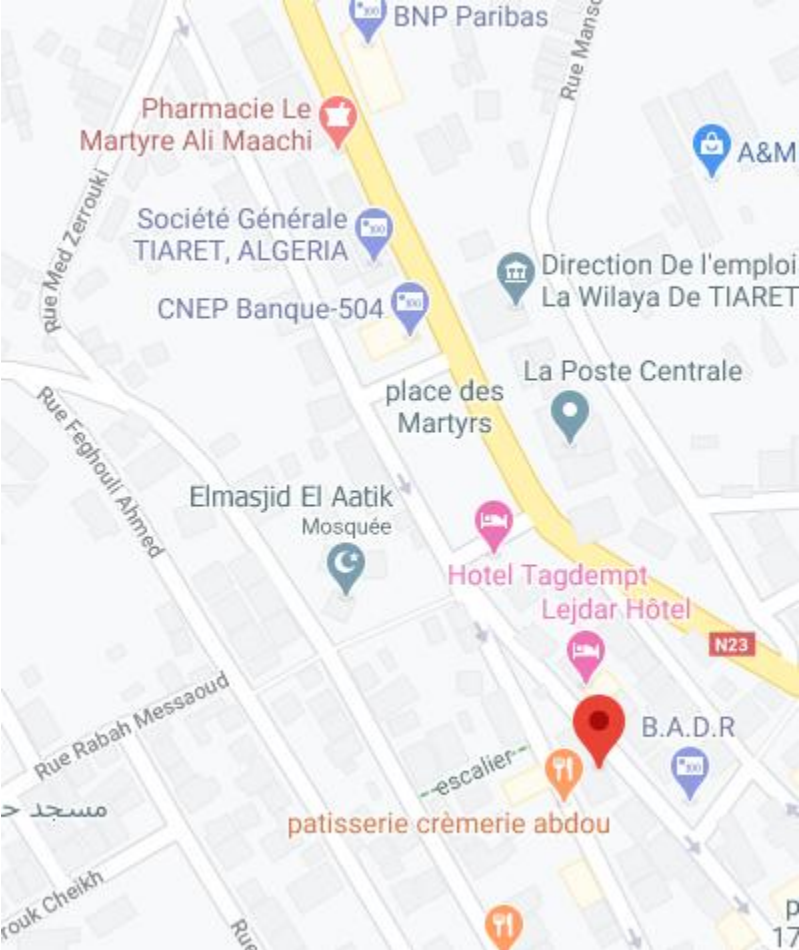
Appendix 9

Location of Survey Area ‘Volani’



Appendix 10

Location of Survey Areas ‘Rue Bugeaut’& ‘Ras soug’.



Appendix 11

Location of Survey Area ‘Sonatiba’.



Appendix 12

Location of Survey Area 'Regina'



Appendix 13

Academic Permission for the Research Work.

تصريح

أنا الموقع أسفله السيد بلعربي خالد رئيس قسم اللغة الانجليزية بكلية الآداب و اللغات جامعة ابن خلدون بتيارت . أؤكد أن الطالبة مرداف اكرام تقوم ببحث علمي أكاديمي بما يخص المظهر اللغوي للافتات المحلات التجارية لولاية تيارت . مما يستدعي لها اعداد بحث عن طريق تصوير مواقع المحلات التجارية واجراء مقابلات شفوية مع مالكي المحلات وذلك لجمع المعلومات وترجمتها باللغة الانجليزية لانجاز مذكرة الماستر تخصص لسانيات .

لذا نرجوا من سيادتكم تقديم المساعدة لها و تهيئ الظروف المناسبة لاتمام هذا البحث العلمي.

تقبلوا مني سيدي أسمي عبارات التقدير و الاحترام .

و لكم تحياتي .

التوقيع :

Mr. BELARBI .K.:

Prof d'Anglais

Université de TIARET

“With languages, you are at home everywhere”

Edmund de waal

“If you talk to a man in a language he understands, that goes to his head. if you talk to him in his own language that goes to his heart”

Nelson Mandela.